A new medical dictionary; or general repository of physic : containing an explanation of the terms, and a description of the various particulars relating to anatomy, physiology, physic, surgery, materia medica, chemistry, &c.; &c.; &c.; Each article, according to its importance, being considered in every relation to which its usefulness extends in the healing art / by G. Motherby.

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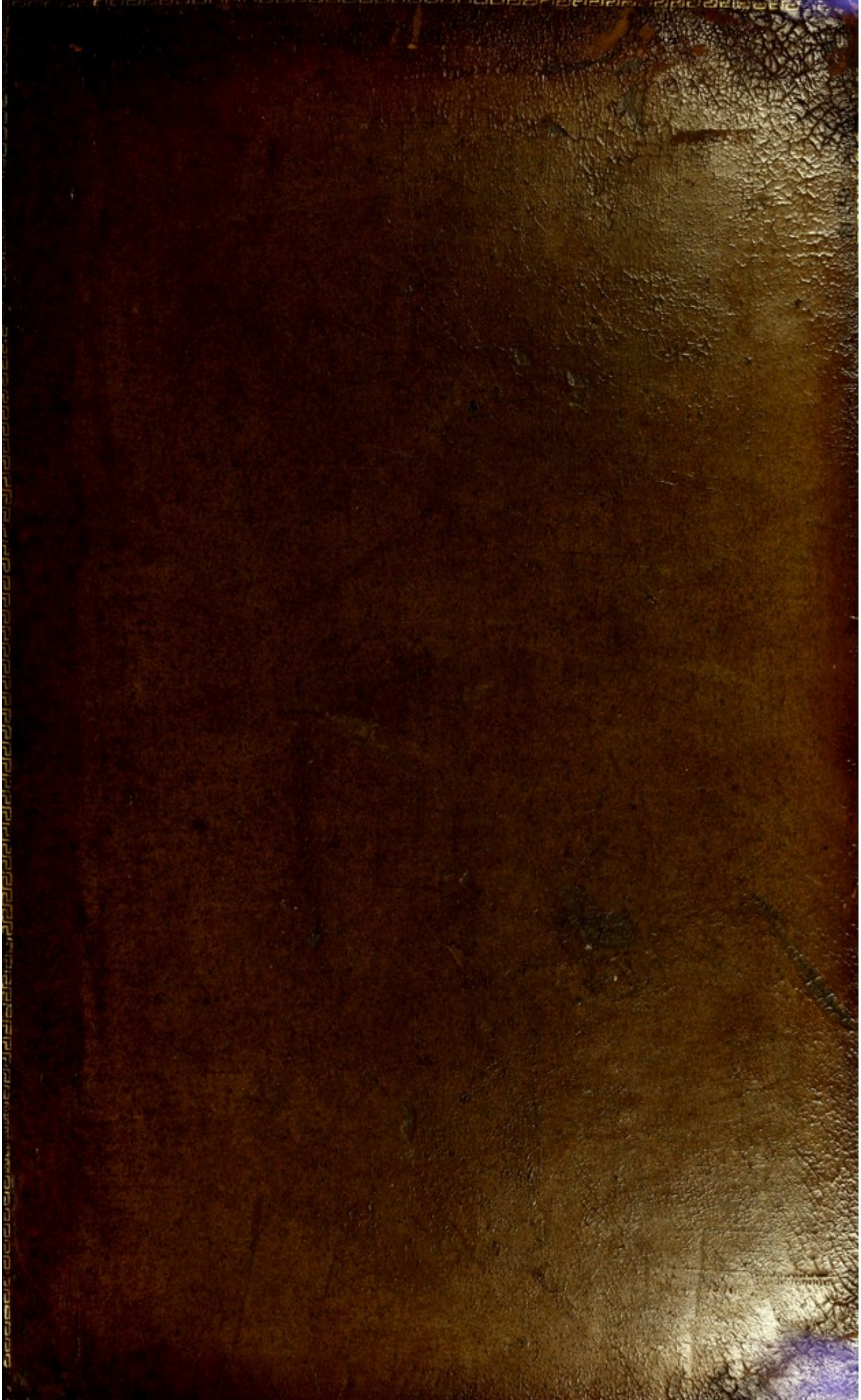

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A NEW

MEDICAL DICTIONARY;

OR,

GENERAL REPOSITORY OF PHYSIC.

CONTAINING

AN EXPLANATION OF THE TERMS,

AND

A DESCRIPTION OF THE VARIOUS PARTICULARS

RELATING TO

ANATOMY,
PHYSIOLOGY,
PHYSIC,

SURGERY,
MATERIA MEDICA,
CHEMISTRY, &c. &c. &c.

Each ARTICLE, according to its IMPORTANCE, being considered in every Relation to which its USEFULNESS extends in the HEALING ART.

By G. MOTHERBY, M.D.

"Medicine is God's Second Cause of Health."

THE SECOND EDITION,

Considerably ENLARGED and IMPROVED, and the whole carefully CORRECTED.

LONDON,

Printed for J. JOHNSON, St. Paul's Church-yard; G. G. J. and J. ROBINSON, Paternoster-Row; A. HAMILTON, Jun. and J. MURRAY, Fleet-street. 1785.

COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS

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PREFACE.

IT being the lot of few, compared with the multitude, to be placed in a ſtation that facilitates any conſiderable degree of knowledge, every method taken to advance improvement is doubtleſs laudable, and ſhould merit the approbation of the public: the utility of propagating what the ancients taught, and the moderns improved, muſt be obvious to thoſe who are entruſted with the care of health and life; many of whom are deſtitute of the means of acquiring this neceſſary information. To remove this impediment in ſome degree, hath been the aſſiduous endeavour of the Editor in the following ſheets; and he flatters himſelf that his attempt may be the means of exciting ſome abler perſon to improve upon his plan, and carry it much nearer to perfection. Mean while, if it enables thoſe for whom it is deſigned to extend their knowledge in the art they profeſs, he ſhall be fully ſatisfied with having ſucceeded ſo far.

That many books embarraſs, rather than improve, is acknowledged; but an additional publication, which, in affording general inſtructions, enables the reader to *ſelect*, rather than *increaſe* his volumes, cannot juſtly be ranked in this predicament. In the courſe of the following pages, each reſpective article will terminate with a reference to ſome of the moſt eminent writers on the ſubject.

It would be needleſs to apologize for publiſhing a Work of this kind in the alphabetical order, when it is conſidered for whom it is principally deſigned. Syſtematic productions are doubtleſs the beſt adapted for a ſtudent's regular purſuit; but ſpeedily to aſſiſt the memory in practical reſearches, alphabetical digeſts juſtly claim the preference.

Hippocrates was the firſt who methodized the healing art, by reducing his knowledge to a plain and uſeful ſyſtem: to add luſtre to his merit, he firſt made public what hitherto had been confined to the families of ſome of his predeceſſors; he hath deſcribed, with elegance and accuracy, moſt of the diſeaſes that are now known; the names by which he called them were the ſame as thoſe now in uſe; and his peculiar excellency conſiſted in deſcribing the diagnoſtics and prognoſtics of diſorders. The following is a liſt of the diſeaſes on which Hippocrates hath given us his inſtructions.

Abſceſſes
Achores
Alopecia
Anaſarca
Anchyloſis
Anus, inflamed
—— hard tubercles of, or near the
Appetite canine
—— loſs of
Aphthæ
Apolepſis
Apoplexy
Arms, ſhortneſs of the
Aſcarides
Aſthma
Auante
Baldneſs
Barrenneſs
Biles
Bladder, tubercles in the
Blood, ſpitting of
—— vomiting
Blotches, red, on the legs, from ſitting by the fire
Brain, concuſſion of the
—— ruptured veſſels in the
Breath, fœtid
—— ſtraitneſs of the
Buboes
Carbuncle
Catamenia { diſordered / natural
Catoche
Cancers
Carus
Cataphora
Cachexy
Catarrh
—— a ſalt
—— a nitrous
—— a ſharp
—— a hot
—— a ſuffocative
Caries
Cheek, a ſphacelus of the
Chilblains
Cholera morbus
—— a dry
—— a moiſt
Chalk-ſtones in the joints
Cough
Coryza
Coma
—— vigil
Contractions of the fibres
Convulſions
Conſumption, of the whole body
—— ſchiadic
—— nephritic
Colour, bad
Crookedneſs
Deafneſs
Delirium
Defluxion, or rheum
Diarrhœa
Dreams, frightful
Dumbneſs
Dyſentery
Diſpnœa
Dyſury
Ears, pains in the
—— redundant moiſture in the
—— ringing in the
—— tubercles about the
Ecchymoſis from contuſion
Empyema
Emproſthotonos
Epilepſy
—— in children
Epinyctides
Eryſipelas
Eruption on the ſkin
Evil
Eye, diſtortion of the
—— bleared
—— dry-bleared
—— clouds in the
—— cicatrices in the
—— pearls in the
—— white ſpots in the
—— ruptured
—— exulcerated
—— inflamed
—— dry inflammation of the
Eye-lids
—— excreſcences on the
—— tumid outward
—— coaleſcence of the
—— ſcabby
—— tumours on the

Face,

Face, hard tubercles on the
Favi
Fainting
Fevers
Fiſtulas
Fractures
Freckles
Gangrene
Glaucoma
Green ſickneſs
Griping of the inteſtines
Gout
Gonorrhœa benigna
Gums, black
——— pain in the, from teething
——— tubercles on the
Hæmorrhages
Hæmorrhoids
Hearing, dull
Herpes
Heartburn
Head, heavineſs of the
——- ach
——— ſcurfy
Heſitation
Hiccough
Horror
Hoarſeneſs
Humours, diſcharge of morbid
Hyſterics
Hyperſarcoſis
Jaundice
Iliac paſſion
Impotence
Inflammation, external
——————— internal
Itch
Itching
——— a pungent, in the mouth
Kidnies, diſorders of the
Labour, difficult
Leproſy
——— the white
Lethargy
Leucophlegmatia
Lientery
Lips, fiſſures in the
Limping
Liver, inflamed
Lochia, diſordered
Lungs, ſpaſmodically contracted
Lungs, varix in the
——— ſuppurated
——— crude tubercles in the
Luxations
Madneſs
Melancholy
Mind, alienation of the
——— alienated through melancholy
Miſcarriage
Mole
Mouth, diſorted
Nauſeating food
Navel inflamed
Neck, a hard tumor in the
Noſe, a diſcharge of pus in the
Nocturnal pollutions
Nyctalops
Opiſthotonos
Orthopnea
Pain
—— in the loins
Palpitation
Peripneumony
Phrenitis
Phrontis
Phlyctænæ
Placenta adhering
Plague
Pleuriſy
——— a dry
——— a moiſt
Polypus in the noſe
Pterygion
Puſtules from acrid ſweat
Pudenda, excreſcences of the
——— putrefaction of the
Pupil of the eye, too ſmall or angular
—— exulcerated
—— cicatrix of the
—— ſpoiled
—— removed from its natural ſituation
—— prominent
Quinſey
——— affecting the lungs
Reſtleſſneſs
Rheum, a defluxion of
Ruptures
Salivation, a ſpontaneous
Sciatica
Scurvy
Senſation, ſuddenly loſt
Shivering
Sight, a privation of
Skin, diſquamations of the
Speech, too volatile
Spleen ſwelled
——— inflamed
Spine, diſtorted forwards
Sprains
Sphacelus
Stertor
Strangury
Stone
Stupidity
Stammering
Superfœtation
Tabes dorſalis
Teeth, ſuper of the
——— gnaſhing and grinding of the
——— ach
——— of both the jaws fixed together
Tetanus
Tetters
Teſticles ſwelled
Teneſmus
Termiuthi
Tonſils diſorders of the
——— ſwelled
Torpidneſs of the body
Tongue fiſſured
——— tumor under the
Trichoſis
Tubercles of various ſorts
Tumors
Uvula, relaxed
——— retracted
——— putrified
Uterus, diſorders of the
——— falling down of the
Ulcers
Urine retained
Urethra, caruncles or tubercles in the
Voice, loſs of the
Varices
Vertigo
Warts
Worms
Whitlow
Wry neck
Wounds
White flux
Yawning.

The practice of Hippocrates, with regard to the Materia Medica, was very conformable to that of the preſent period. Boerhaave obſerves that the method of cure, purſued by the ancient phyſicians, was generally the beſt that could have been contrived, with the materials they were poſſeſſed of; though for reaſons to which they were probably ſtrangers: ſince the time of Hippocrates, the ſmall-pox, meaſles, lues venerea, and a few other diſorders, have increaſed the preceding liſt; and the Arabians have greatly extended the catalogue of remedies.

The ancients have done little more than copy, comment, or vary the mode of communicating inſtructions, from what Hippocrates and a few of the primitive writers handed down to them. It muſt, indeed, be acknowledged, that in ſome inſtances the improvements of the moderns are little more than recurring to the inſtructions laid down by the great father of the healing art. At the ſame time, without depreciating the merits of the ancients, it is juſtly aſſerted, that the moderns claim a degree of honour for having advanced medicine to its preſent ſtate: with regard to the former, their phyſiology was extremely defective, their ſkill in anatomy very imperfect, and their knowledge of chemiſtry proportionably confined; notwithſtanding their works are now frequently quoted either for confirmatiou or ornament: Galen, Celſus, and Ægineta, were the favourites of the great Boerhaave: his celebrated ſucceſſor follows his example; and to the ſame ends others are ſwayed in the choice of thoſe Greek or Latin authors, according to their reſpective prejudices. It may be proper here, to point out the diſtinguiſhing peculiarities of ſome of the moſt celebrated among the ancient writers.

Aretæus deſcribes diſeaſes with a picturesque accuracy; and in this reſpect he and Cœlius Aurelianus ſurpaſs all others among the ancients, except Celſus, who is called the Latin Hippocrates, and whoſe excellencies are ſimilar to thoſe of Aretæus: but it ought to be obſerved, that the former wrote in the Greek, the latter in the Latin tongue. In the curative part of his writings Aretæus hath improved upon Hippocrates; and he is ſcarce equalled for method and elegance by any ſucceſſor. He begins his account of each diſeaſe with a deſcription of the part in which it is ſeated.

Galen

Galen is an expoſitor of Hippocrates. The works of his predeceſſors receive improvement in various branches from his hands; and many valuable hints from the ancients are no where to be found but in his Collections. He ſurpaſſes all who wrote before him, with reſpect to the ſpecies, cauſes, ſeats, and ſymptoms of diſeaſes, eſpecially the acute. His maſterly treatiſe on the ſeats of diſeaſes, greatly enhances the value of his Works: in ſhort, what he hath left us on diet, is the baſis of moſt that his ſucceſſors have written on the ſubject.

Alexander Trallian is original in his plan: his diagnoſtics are remarkably exact, and his method of cure extremely rational. He confines himſelf to the deſcription of diſeaſes and their cure, in which he diſplays an extraordinary knowledge, and as nice a judgment; particularly in the curative part, in which he excels both Hippocrates and Galen. He flouriſhed in the 6th century, from which, to the 16th, we meet with but few improvements in medicine. A compendium of his excellent Works is tranſlated into Engliſh. See the article ALEXANDER, in the following Work.

Cœlius Aurelianus deſerves our attention: his deſcriptions of diſeaſes vie with thoſe of Aretæus, and he is very exact in pointing out the ſigns. His Works alſo contain many important paſſages from the ancients, which are not to be met with in any other productions handed down to us.

Oribaſius hath tranſmitted to us many excellent fragments of the ancients, which otherwiſe had been loſt: and to him we are indebted for the firſt deſcriptions of ſome few diſeaſes.

Ægineta is a great chirurgical writer; he hath chiefly copied from Alexander Trallian, and hath well ſupplied his omiſſions.

The curious reader may be made acquainted with ſeveral ſucceeding ancient writers, by turning to the article MELAMPUS in this Dictionary, where he will meet with a direction to a numerous liſt.

After all theſe had flouriſhed, the arms of Mahomet prevailing, ſcience was much ſuppreſſed; but at length the Arabians took the lead in phyſic: under their auſpices but few improvements were made; ſo that this art rather loſt than gained by them.

Rhazes, in the beginning of the 10th century, was one of the moſt celebrated practitioners. He wrote too on every branch of phyſic and ſurgery, and introduced ſome new and uſeful inſtructions. He was the firſt who deſcribed the ſmall-pox: and ſuch are his deſcription and method of treatment, that the lateſt improvements in the management of this diſeaſe are chiefly founded on them.

Haly Abbas, Avicenna, Avenzoar, Averroes, and Meſue, have each made additions; but in general, the Arabians are entitled to little more merit than what they may claim from enlarging the Materia Medica, by introducing medicines that were generally milder and equally efficacious, and ſometimes of ſuperior efficacy to thoſe that were uſed by the Greeks and Latins.

About the middle of the 15th century, learning began to diffuſe itſelf throughout Europe; and in the 16th, Hippocrates and Celſus were again received. Galen and Ariſtotle no longer maintaining their reputation as theoriſts ſolely, the Hippocratical method of concluding from obſervations founded on experience, was again reſtored. Veſalius now began to revive anatomy, and he improved ſurgery. Euſtachius's anatomical tables are ſtill, in many reſpects, the admiration of the preſent age. Mechanical and experimental knowledge began to make advances. Bacon, Boyle, and Newton, cleared and extended the path of ſcience; aſtronomy appeared with new ſplendor, and medicine received freſh aids from every quarter. Harvey aroſe to demonſtrate the circulation of the blood; ancient theories were now exploded; diſſection greatly improved; anatomy and philoſophy made rapid ſtrides; phyſiology received new lights; chemiſtry was proſecuted with ſucceſsful ardour, and every branch of medicine was thus amazingly improved.

Thoſe whoſe inclination, leiſure, and ſituation admits of their peruſing the Works of ancient authors, will, doubtleſs, be requited in a degree adequate to their pains; and others will be as well ſatisfied in acquiring a knowledge of the ancient ſkill and modern improvements in a ſhorter way; with leſs toil and voluminous reſearch. For the latter, it is hoped, that what follows will be found ſatisfactory.

It may eaſily be deduced, from what has been already ſaid, that in the deſcriptions of diſeaſes, their prognoſtics, and cure, conſiſt the excellence of ancient authors; and with regard to whatever elſe relates to medicine, our recourſe muſt be to modern writers. Fernelius, one of the earlier moderns, hath carefully and judiciouſly collected all that is uſeful in the Works of the ancient Greek, Latin, and Arabian writers; he is alſo more perſpicuous and methodical, throwing more light on every ſubject than any of thoſe from whom he copied; hence much time and ſtudy may be ſaved by peruſing the ancients in his Works. Lommius is alſo very accurate in his deſcriptions, compriſing all that is valuable in the writings of his predeceſſors. His Medical Obſervations are tranſlated into Engliſh, as are Hippocrates's Aphoriſms, the Aphoriſms of Celſus, and ſome other of the moſt valuable of their productions.

With regard to the reſt of the ancient writings, their moſt intereſting parts may be met with in the ſubjoined pages. It is hoped that this Work will be found of general benefit to thoſe whoſe circumſtances will not admit of an academic education, and who are nevertheleſs deſirous of obtaining a competent ſhare of medical knowledge.

By favour of the manuſcripts of ſeveral friends, who have made Medicine their principal ſtudy, the following Work is executed, in many inſtances, with an advantage that no individual unaſſiſted could poſſibly have obtained: to their judicious labours and generous aid, a general, but grateful acknowledgment is here paid; not but the importance of their ſupplies well deſerve that particular thanks ſhould be given in each article, the principal worth of which is derived from their ingenious contributions.

One principal uſe of a Medical Dictionary is, to diſcover in haſte what the preſent urgency requires; therefore, in the proſecution of what follows, peculiar care hath been taken that the buſy practitioner may refreſh his memory, or derive a hint, without the tedious labour of ſearching over many leaves. To convey a proper idea of this Work, and to aſſiſt in a uſeful and ſatisfactory peruſal of it, the following general deſign and arrangement are laid before the reader.

I. Technical terms, proper names, &c. have their etymology given; and where a farther explanation is required, it is added with conciſeneſs and perſpicuity.

II. That wanton variety to which ſome authors have yielded, in giving different names to the ſame ſubject, and the ſame names to different ones, ſerves but to perplex the inquirer; care hath therefore been taken to obviate this error, and each article is diſcuſſed under that name which is moſt in uſe; and its other names take their place in their reſpective order, referring to that under which the explanation is inſerted, except for the etymology.

III. Under the name of each writer is inſerted, as nearly as could be aſcertained, the age in which he flouriſhed, with his principal diſcoveries, &c. Where any inſtance of this kind is omitted, his name is inſerted under the article that denominates his reſpective medical improvement.

IV. Anatomical ſubjects have,

1. Their various names immediately ſucceeding that by which they are moſt commonly known.
2. A conciſe deſcription, as far as may be of ſervice to the medical practitioner.
3. Where an account of their uſe can contribute any advantage, as far as art hath enabled us, this is alſo regarded.

V. Diſeaſes according to their importance, either as to inconvenience to the patient, tediouſneſs in the cure, or danger of life, are conſidered with reſpect to ſome or all the following particulars.

1. Their various names, or at leaſt thoſe moſt generally known.
2. —— general rank.
3. —— different ſpecies.
4. —— ſeat.
5. Who, and when they are moſt ſubject to them.
6. Their cauſes.
7. —— ſigns { Diagnoſtic and Prognoſtic.
8. What diſeaſes they reſemble.
9. Their occaſional ſymptoms.
10. Preventives.
11. Indications of cure.
12. The proper regimen.
13. The methods of cure, both manual and medical.
14. Their uſual modes of terminating.

VI. The articles of the Materia Medica are attended to, according to their importance in practice, under ſome, or all, the following conſiderations.

1. Their various names that are generally known.
2. Where had.
3. How produced.
4. The deſcription.
5. The marks of diſtinction, by which to chuſe the beſt of each article reſpectively.
6. Their moſt manifeſt medical powers.
7. When the uſe thereof is hurtful.
8. The beſt remedies againſt their imprudent uſe.
9. Doſes.
10. The various preparations of, and from, the reſpective articles. In this part, the principles of pharmacy will neceſſarily be introduced. The directions given, are the reſult only of experiments and obſervations made, according to the moſt approved practice.
11. The moſt agreeable modes of adminiſtering.
12. Subſtitutes.
13. How to deteſt adulterations.
14. What ſhould precede, accompany, or follow the uſe of any article, to render its effects more uſeful and certain.
15. The analyſis.

VII. At the concluſion of each ſubject, there is a reference to the moſt approved authors who have written upon it: the reader will hereby be enabled to proceed to an acquaintance with all that hath been ſaid (or at leaſt that merits his attention) reſpecting his enquiry; and thus, as inclination favours, he may proceed to obtain a competent ſkill in thoſe branches to which his avocations more directly lead, or extend his purſuits to every part that completes the character he profeſſes.

VIII. This Dictionary cloſes with an Engliſh Index, as well to facilitate the general enquiry, as to trace many articles that are not arranged in the particular order of the preceding Work.

A NEW

A NEW

MEDICAL DICTIONARY.

A. The letter a, with a line above it, thus ā, is uſed in medical preſcriptions for ana, *of each*; ſometimes it is written thus āā; e. g. ℞ Mel. ſaccharum. & mann. ā. vel āā, ℥j. i. e. Take of honey, ſugar and manna, of each one ounce.

A, in compoſition, implies a negative.

A. A. A. The chemical abbreviation for amalgama, or amalgamation. See AMALGAMA.

AABAM. Lead.

ABACTUS. The words *abactus* venter, are uſed to ſignify a miſcarriage.

ABACUS MAJOR. A trough uſed in the mines, wherein the ore is waſhed.

ABAISIR, i. e. Spodium.

ABALIENATUS, *corrupted*. Celſus. When applied to the body, it ſignifies that a part is ſo deſtroyed as to require removal. When applied to the ſenſes, it expreſſes their total deſtruction. Scribonius Largus. If the injury happens from ſudden external violence, it may require immediate manual aid; but from internal morbid affection, the ſeparation is beſt performed by nature.

ABANGA. The name of the fruit of the palm-tree, in the iſland of St. Thomas. The tree is the Palma Ady Inſulæ S. Thomæ. C. B. The fruit is like a lemon externally; and the inhabitants give three or four of the kernels, two or three times a day, as a reſtorative. See ADY.

ABAPTISTON, or ABAPTISTA. The perforating part of the inſtrument called a trepan. The word is from the negative α and βάπτω, *to ſink under*. This inſtrument hath had various contrivances to prevent its ſinking ſuddenly upon the membranes of the brain, when the operator was ſawing the ſkull: whence its name. But the preſent practice renders all precautions needleſs, that relate to this inſtrument, by having ſubſtituted a much more manageable one. See TREPHINE.

ABARTAMEN. Lead.

ABARTICULATIO. A ſpecies of articulation admitting of a manifeſt motion, called alſo diarthroſis, and de articulatio, to diſtinguiſh it from that ſort of articulation which admits of a very obſcure motion, and is called ſynarthroſis. See ARTICULATIO.

ABAS. See TINEA. Sometimes it ſignifies the epilepſy. Conſtantine.

ABAVI, ABAVO, or ABAVUM. A large tree in Æthiopia, bearing a fruit like a gourd. Ray's Hiſt.

ABDELAVI. A plant whoſe fruit reſembles a melon, being rather more oblong; it grows in Egypt. Ray's Hiſt.

ABDITUS, included. Thus; *abditus* vaſa, included in a veſſel.

ABDITÆ CAUSÆ. Theſe are the ſecret or remote cauſes of diſtempers.

ABDOMEN, the belly. As ſome ſay, this word is from *abdo*, *to hide*: as its contents lay hid in it. Martinius, and others, derive it from *abdere*, *to hide*, and *omentum*, the *caul*. But Voſſius ſays in his Etymology, that it is only a termination; and ſays, as from *lego*, *legumen*; ſo, from *abdo*, *abdomen*.

The body is generally divided into three cavities, called bellies: viz. The head, or upper belly; the breaſt, or middle belly; and the abdomen, or lower belly.

The belly is divided on its outer ſurface, into four regions, called the epigaſtric, the umbilical, the hypogaſtric, and the lumbar. See EPIGASTRIUM, UMBILICALIS, HYPOGASTRIUM, and LUMBARIS. Theſe are all contained betwixt the circumference of the falſe ribs, and the bottom of the oſſa innominata.

The belly is ſeparated from the breaſt externally, by the extremities of the ribs; and internally by the diaphragm, and it is terminated below by the muſculi levatores ani.

The bottom of the belly, on its fore part, is called the pudenda; and on its back part, the buttocks, and anus; and underneath, betwixt the anus and the pubes, is called the perinæum.

The cavity of the belly, formed by the above-named parts, (all which are covered with the membrana adipoſa and the ſkin) is lined on the inſide by the peritonæum. This cavity contains the ſtomach, inteſtines, meſentery, meſocolon, liver, gall-bladder, ſpleen, pancreas, glands of the meſentery, vaſa lactea, receptaculum chyli, kidneys, renal glands, ureters, bladder, and the internal parts of generation.

The principal arteries of the belly, are the epigaſtric, which is the loweſt portion of the internal mammary artery, the inferior aorta, the cœliac, the upper meſenteric, the hæmorrhoidale artery, the renal, called emulgents, the ſpermatic artery, the lower meſenteric artery, the lumbar, the iliac, the lower epigaſtric arteries, and the pudicæ.

The principal nerves of the belly, are the ſtomachic, formed by the extremity of the eighth pair, the lower portion of the great ſympathetic nerves, the two ſemilunar or plexiform ganglions, the ſtomachic, hepatic, ſplenic, renal, upper and lower meſenteric plexus, the nerves of the loins and ſacrum, alſo the origin of the crural and ſciatic nerves.

The appendix enſiformis of the ſternum, the cartilaginous portions of the laſt pair of true ribs, thoſe of the firſt four pairs of falſe ribs, all the fifth pair, the five lumbar vertebræ, the oſſa innominata, the os ſacrum, the os coccygis, form the bony ſides of the cavity of the belly.

The diaphragm, the muſcles called particularly muſculi abdominis, the quadrati lumborum, the pſoai, the illiaci, the muſcles of the coccyx, and of the inteſtinum rectum, form the greateſt part of the circumference of this cavity. As auxiliary parts, ſome portions of the ſacro lumbares, longiſſimi dorſi, &c. might be added.

The muſcles belonging to the belly are five pair; viz. the obliqui externi, the obliqui interni, the tranſverſales, the recti, and the pyramidales, which ſee. Galen in his Treatiſe on the Diſſection of the Muſcles, and that on the Preſervation of Health, remarks, that the action of the abdominal muſcles is neceſſary to the action of expiration, as they pull down the thorax, and is very uſeful in efforts to ſpeak loud: he alſo ſays, that without their action we could have no ſtool, nor make water; for the actions of the ſphincter muſcles of the anus and of the bladder, are overcome by the actions of the abdominal muſcles and diaphragm. He farther obſerves, in his De Locis Affectis, that ſome people who find a difficulty in going to ſtool, or have a ſuppreſſion of urine, relieve themſelves by preſſing the abdomen with their hand: he alſo ſays, that the

expulsion of the fœtus is the work of the abdominal muscles. De Naturalibus Facultatibus.—Mr. Pott, in one of his lectures, A. D. 1782, observed, that there can be no doubt of the abdominal muscles being indispensible to exclude the fæces and urine: he said, that he had a little before that time seen a child, which lived nearly three weeks, though it had no abdominal muscles; that this child could not either propel, or expel the fæces nor urine perfectly without artificial aid.

There is a sinus on each side of the cartilago xiphoides, between the transversalis and recti muscles, into which, on the left side, the stomach is sometimes ruptured by violent vomiting. This disorder is attended with excessive pain, which is greater when the person is up, and gradually goes off when he lies in a horizontal posture which, circumstance is the pathognomonic sign of the disease. If it does not recede, it must be cut open and reduced in the same manner as in other ruptures. Winslow's Anat. Happily this case is very rare; when it happens, little more can be done than to alleviate general symptoms; if it cannot be returned by the hand, any operation will be a doubtful aid.

Pain, and other disorders in the belly, sometimes happen from keeping it too cool. The circulation of the blood from the viscera in the belly, by the vena portæ to the liver, and afterwards in the liver, is carried, or, at least, greatly promoted by the alternate compression, which the contents of the belly receive from the diaphragm and muscles of the belly: and it is of service in dissecting living animals, that when the viscera of the belly are exposed to the air, this circulation of the blood towards the liver, by the portæ, is much impeded, or totally stopped. Hence it follows, that in proportion as the action of the muscles of the belly is impaired, and the cavity laid open, this circulation, so necessary to the animal œconomy, must be obstructed.

The muscles of the belly are subject to inflammations, which have been mistaken for inflammation in the liver; to distinguish them, see INFLAMMATION *of the liver*. Heurnius says, that these muscles have a very thick membrane, which will not readily admit of the exit of pus when it is formed; he, therefore, advises to open them by incision, sooner than is usual in other instances of abscesses.

The rheumatism sometimes affects the muscles of the belly, and the case is mistaken for a colic, or for an inflammation of some of the viscera within: in this case, however, the usual symptoms of inflamed viscera are absent, and the medicines which are useful in the colic, are without effect in this case.

See the article VULNUS, for the management of wounds in the belly.

ABDUCERE. Scrib. Largus uses it for *bibere*, *to drink*.

ABDUCTIO, from *ab* and *duco*, *to draw*, a species of fracture, when a bone near the joint is so divided transversely that the extremities recede from each other. Cœlius Aurelianus uses this word for a strain. Abductio properly signifies, leading from or drawing away. It is from the action of the muscles, that the divided ends of fractured bones recede.

ABDUCTOR, a leader from, or that draws away. From *abducere*, *to move* or *draw from*. Several muscles are thus called.

ABDUCTOR AURIS, called also triceps auris, and retrahens auriculam, a muscle of the external ear, called by Winslow the posterior. It is called triceps, because it hath sometimes three beginnings. It is composed of a few fleshy fibres, which arise from the superior and fore part of the apophysis mastoideus, and descend obliquely to their insertion, in the middle of the concha auriculæ. It covers the posterior ligament. Dr. Hunter says, that he thinks the ear hath but two muscles belonging to its external parts, that the retrahans auriculæ arises from the mammillary process of the temporal bone, and is inserted into the lower external part of the ear, to pull it backward.

ABDUCTOR MINIMI DIGITI MANUS. Riolan calls it hypothenar. It rises from the os pisiforme of the carpus, runs upward on the inside of the hand, and is inserted into the external side of the little finger, or its first joint. It helps to separate the little finger from the rest, and also to bend it. It is the flexor parvus minimi digiti of Albinus.

ABDUCTOR INDICIS. It arises fleshy by two heads from the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, and the first bone of the thumb, and is inserted by its tendon into the basis, or first joint of the fore-finger, laterally, next the thumb. It brings the fore-finger from the middle-finger, and near to the thumb. Cowper calls it adductor pollicis. Douglas says, its use is to bring the index towards the thumb; whence, in respect of this it may be styled adductor, and, in respect of that, abductor.

ABDUCTOR MINIMI DIGITI PEDIS. It rises fleshy and tendinous from the semicircular edge of a cavity on the outside of the inferior protuberance of the os calcis; it hath another tendinous beginning from the os cuboides, and a third from the upper part of the os metatarsi minimi digiti. It is inserted into the upper part of the first bone of the little-toe externally laterally. It draws the little-toe outwards from that next to it.

ABDUCTOR OCULI, called also indignatorius, or the scornful muscle; musculus exterior; also abducens, iracundus, and rectus exterior. It rises tendinous and fleshy from the foramen lacerum without the orbit. It is inserted by a thin tendon into the sclerotis, on that side next the nose. It moves the eye towards the little angle.

ABDUCTOR POLLICIS MANUS, called also thenar, by Riolan; and abductor brevis pollicis manus, by Albinus. It rises by a broad, tendinous and fleshy beginning, from the inner part of the transverse ligament of the carpus, and from one of its bones which articulates with the thumb, and is inserted tendinous into the second joint of the thumb. It draws the thumb from the fingers.

ABDUCTOR POLLICIS PEDIS. It rises fleshy from the inside of the os calcis, and tendinous from the os naviculare, and formsa strong tendon, which is inserted at the inner part of the first bone of the great-toe, upon its sesamoid bone. It pulls the great-toe from the rest. It often hath a tendinous origin from the edge of the os cymbiforme, receiving near this bone some tendinous filaments from the tibialis anticus.

ABEBAEOS, Ἀβέβαιος, infirm, weak, inconstant.

ABELE, a species of poplar. See POPULUS.

ABELICEA. A tall tree growing in Crete, called also santalus adulterinus, and pseudosantalum. See BRASILIUM LIGNUM.

ABELMOLUCH, a sort of ricinus, or palma Christi.

ABELMOSCH, Ab-el-mosch, or Granum Moschi. The seed of a plant which has the flavour of musk, called in English the musk mallow. The plant is the hibiscus abelmoschus, of Linnæus. The seeds are flat, kidney-shaped, the size of a pin-head, grey or brownish without, and white within. The plant is of the mallow kind, a native of Ægypt, and of both the Indies. The seeds are very fragrant, and their scent is like a mixture of amber and of musk; to the taste they are of a slightish aromatic bitter; they are cordial; the Arabs mix them with their coffee; but their chief use is as a perfume. The best comes from Martinico. Chuse such as appear new, plump, dry, and well scented.

ABERRATIO, Aberration, going astray; from *aberro*, *to wander out of the way*. In medical writings it expresses nature's deviating from her usual progress. By some nosologists it is used as synonymous with dislocation.

ABESAMUM, dirt or clay.

ABESSI, i. e. the alvine fæces. See REBIS.

ABESUM, unquenched lime. See CALX.

ABEVACUATIO, as used by some medical writers, it is a partial or incomplete evacuation of the faulty humours, whether by nature or art.

ABICUM, the same as coopertorium. See COOPERTIO.

ABIES, Fir.

The fir-tree is an evergreen, and coniferous, with numerous, narrow, stiff leaves, standing solitary or unconnected at their bases with one another.

Botanists have enumerated twelve species, if not more; but three or four of them, as follow, are those which afford materials for medical use. Linnæus includes the *abies* in the genus of pinus.

1. Picea, the common red fir, or pitch-tree, with a reddish bark, long, slender, quadrangular, sharp-pointed leaves, and long cones hanging downward. It is the pinus *abies* picea of Linnæus.

2. *Abies*,

2. *Abies*, the yew-leaved, or ſilver fir, with a whitiſh bark, roundiſh pointed leaves, a little cloven at the tops, and ſhort cones ſtanding upward; the leaves are marked on the lower ſide with three green lines and two white depreſſions. It is the pinus *abies* alba of Linnæus.

Theſe two ſpecies are natives of the northern climes; the ſecond grows on dry, mountainous places; the firſt in lower and moiſter grounds. Norway produces abundance; Switzerland and ſome parts of Germany alſo afford great quantities of them.

3. Abies Canadenſis, vel Virginiana, the Canada or Virginian fir, with roundiſh pointed leaves, ſometimes cloven, ſtanding like the teeth of a comb in two rows on each ſide of the branches, and variegated underneath, with a double line of whitiſh dots. It is the pinus *abies* Canadenſis of Linnæus.

4. Balſamea, Balm of Gilead fir; ſo called from the fragrance of the leaves when rubbed. The leaves are roundiſh pointed, and ſlightly cloven, nearly like thoſe of the ſilver fir; the cones are long and pointed, and ſtand erect. It is the pinus *abies* balſamea of Linnæus.

All the parts of theſe trees contain a reſinous juice, impregnated with a bitteriſh, pungent, eſſential oil: turpentines are obtained by making inciſions in their trunks at a proper ſeaſon.

The common red fir affords the greateſt quantity of turpentine, and from the turpentine is obtained white reſin, ſee Resina; tar, ſee Pix Liquida; pitch, ſee Pix; and Burgundy pitch, ſee Pix.

The ſilver fir produces the Straſburg turpentine; it is far more grateful than the common ſort; it is called liquid reſin, to diſtinguiſh it from the dry reſin, which reſembles frankincenſe.

From the Canada fir is obtained a ſtill finer and more grateful turpentine, called Balſ. Canadenſe: it is diſcharged, during the ſummer heats, through inciſions made in the trees; it is tranſparent, and almoſt colourleſs. It is a good ſubſtitute for the balſ. capivi.

The Balm of Gilead fir emits from its cones a turpentine with a fragrance reſembling the balm of Gilead, and that in large quantities. Spirit of wine extracts a reſin both from the cones and the leaves, of a ſimilar quality.

Rectified ſpirit of wine, digeſted on fir, extracts all its active parts, with ſome of its mucilage. The cones of all the ſorts yield the moſt agreeable tincture.

Water, though it diſſolves little or nothing of the pure turpentines, yet, by the mediation of the gummy matter in the fir itſelf, it extracts part of its reſin. The wood and the cones are taken in autumn, or its latter end, for their oil; and in diſtillation with water, a large quantity of eſſential oil ariſes. The oil drawn from the wood is nearly ſimilar to the oil of turpentine. That obtained from the freſh cones is ſuperior in ſubtilty and fragrance to all the oils of the turpentine kind uſually met with. See Zimmermann's Prælect. Chym. Neum.

The tops and the cones of the fir-tree moderately warm, promote perſpiration, and increaſe the diſcharge by urine. Four ounces of the freſh tops are put to a gallon of diet-drink.

A ſpirit diſtilled from the young leaves is a ſuccedaneum for the aq. Hungarica.

The Eſſ. Abietis Pharmacop. Auguſt. is the balſam of the fir-tree, joined with ſcurvy-graſs, as follows: the fir cones while young, tender, and of a red colour, are bruiſed and digeſted two days in four times their quantity of ſpirit of ſcurvy-graſs, then the tincture is preſſed out.

The tops and leaves of the ſilver fir are uſed in making Brunſwick mum.

ABIGA HERBA, a name for the chamæpytis, or ground-pine. It is probably ſo called from *abigo*, *to expel*, as it is ſaid to promote delivery. Blancard thinks its name is from its leaves reſembling the leaves of fir, which is called abies.

ABIT, or ABOIT. Ceruſs.

ABLACTATIO. Ablactation, or weaning a child from the breaſt; from *ab* and *lacte*, the taking a child from the milk of the breaſt. When the mother wants health, or ſtrength; hath too ſmall nipples, or ill formed ones; when the infant will not take the breaſt; when the mother's milk is bad, or in too ſmall a quantity; when the mother hath weak nerves, is apt eaſily to be ſurpriſed, theſe defects ſpoil the milk; if the child is ſuddenly taken ill, from the effects of the mother's frights, or anxiety; if the milk is often dried up quickly, when perhaps the infant hath the moſt occaſion for it: in ſuch like caſes, its adviſeable to wean the child, yea, often abſolutely neceſſary. It can never be neceſſary to continue the breaſt more than eight or nine months; but generally, if a child is favoured with a good ſupply by ſucking, during his firſt three or four months, and is in a tolerably healthful ſtate, he will rarely be the worſe for weaning at this early period; ſo that, if he is not rather weakly, and if difficulties attend his being ſuckled, there need not be any heſitation about taking him from the breaſt. If he feeds tolerably with the ſpoon, and is free from diſorder in his bowels, a tendency to convulſions, &c. weaning may be attempted at any time. But, if feeding with the ſpoon is difficult; if the child is much ſubject to the gripes, &c. another nurſe ſhould be ſought for, and weaning muſt be deferred until more favourable circumſtances attend. In general, the ſooner a child is weaned, the more eaſily it parts with the breaſt. Prudence directs to accuſtom a child to early feeding with the ſpoon, and to continue the ſame until the breaſt may be wholly omitted.

Children, if healthy, may be weaned at any age; but as in general their digeſtion grows ſtrong enough at about nine or ten months, they ſhould only be fed once in ſix hours, at the moſt, during the firſt two months; ſhould be entirely weaned from the breaſt as ſpeedily as is convenient, and alſo from all feeding in the night; for night feeding bloats them, and, if they are not uſed to it in the firſt week, they would never want it: if they are not diſturbed from their birth, in a week or two the child will be formed to a habit of ſleeping moſt of the night very quietly, awaking only when wet, on which occaſion it ſhould be laid dry.

The food ſhould be ſimple and light; not ſpoiled with ſugar, wine, and ſuch like additions, for they produce the diſeaſes that children are moſt troubled with. Unfermented flour makes a viſcid food that turns ſour before it digeſts, and well fermented bread ſoon turns ſour; but if this latter is made into freſh panada every night and morning, or, in cool weather, every morning, the inconvenience of ſouring is prevented. To prevent acidity in the child's ſtomach by a daily uſe of vegetable food, give now and then a little freſh broth, made from either veal, mutton, or beef, once or twice in the day; ſuppoſe, for example, a mixture of equal parts of the gravey which is diſcharged in cutting a joint that is brought hot on the table, and warm water, to which may be added a little ſalt, and thus an excellent broth is readily made. This is ſaid to fill children with humours, it is true, but the humours are only of the moſt nouriſhing kind. Cows milk, a little diluted with water, is an excellent ſubſtitute for the mother's; yet, as it is apt to turn ſour, add to it a little Liſbon ſugar. Rice is not ſo apt to turn ſour as wheat bread is, it therefore would be a more convenient food for children, and deſerves to be attended to. Toaſted bread boiled in water till it is almoſt dry, then mixed with freſh milk, not boiled, is an agreeable change. As the teeth advance, the diet may increaſe in its ſolidity.

As to the quantity, let the appetite be the meaſure of it; obſerving to ſatisfy hunger, but no more, which may be thus managed; feed the child no longer than he eats with a degree of eagerneſs. In feeding, let the child be held in a ſitting poſture, and thus continue it until the ſtomach has nearly digeſted its contents. The too common practice of violently dancing and ſhaking the child ſhould be avoided.

Keep the child awake until it breaks wind after each time it is fed; divert it during the day as much as you can, and thus it will ſoon lay quiet all the night. Never awaken a child when it is aſleep, for thus ſickneſs and peeviſhneſs are often produced.

As ſoon as teeth appear, give the child now and then a piece of fleſh meat in its hand to chew; but never give it any confectionaries. See Moſs on the Management and Nurſing of Children.

ABLATIO. To take away from the body whatever is uſeleſs or hurtful to it. In ſome writings it expreſſes the leſſening of the diet with a medical view; alſo the interval betwixt two fits of a fever; and in chemiſtry, the removing

removing any thing that needs not to continue in the proceſs any longer.

ABLEPSIA, Ablepſy. Blindneſs, want of ſight, raſhneſs, unadviſedneſs..

ABLUENTIA Medicamenta. Diluting medicines.

ABLUTIO, Ablution. A waſhing away; a waſhing off, or rinſing. In chemiſtry, it ſignifies the purifying of a body by repeated effuſions of a proper liquor: this is done various ways. See COHOBATIO, CIRCULATORIA.

ABOIT, i. e. Ceruſs.

ABOMASUM. The name of the fourth ſtomach of a beaſt that chews the cud. The firſt is called venter, or rather ventriculus, the word uſed for it in Ariſtotle, being χοιλία. See ENYSTRON. The ſecond, reticulum: the third, omaſus.

ABOMINATIO. Some barbarous writers thus expreſs faſtidium ciborum, or loathing of food.

ABOLITIO, Abolition, or taking away; deſtroying.

ABORSUS. See ABORTUS.

ABORTUS, Abortio; from *ab*, which in compoſition, according to Martinius, implies *defect*, and *orior*, *to ariſe*. Aborior, intempeſtive orior ut ab ſignificet vitium. See Martinius in *Aborior*. A miſcarriage. The birth of a child before its due time; or, the deſtroying a child in the womb.

Miſcarriages happen at any period of pregnancy, and from innumerable cauſes; moſt frequently in the third and beginning of the fourth month; but thoſe which happen in the ſixth or in later months, are more difficult and more dangerous.

Women who are very thin, or very fat; women who have miſcarried before, and who eaſily or without any particular inconvenience, during the time of miſcarriage, or ſoon after, part with their burden, are moſt ſubject to this accident.

The cauſes are various: violent motions, frights, poiſons, violent purges, an obſtinate diarrhœa, the ſmall-pox, and other acute diſeaſes, too much blood, great loſs of blood, and not unfrequently an incautious uſe of the lancet: on this cauſe, ſee Dr. Wallis's Eſſay on Injudicious Bleeding in Pregnancy. Habitual miſcarriages happening at ſtated periods, without manifeſt cauſe, are very common among women of faſhion, from theſe general cauſes of weakneſs, viz. indolence, laying long in the morning, and ſitting up late at night; fear, grief, or indeed whatever debilitates, may be a cauſe; longings not indulged, &c. In general, the cauſes may be reduced to what immediately affects the child, the placenta, the membranes, or the mother.

Whatever cauſes the death of the child, cauſes abortion ſooner or later.

If the membranes are too weak, they may eaſily break, and ſo prove a cauſe againſt which no help can be propoſed.

The funis may be too ſhort, or the placenta ſeparated or diſeaſed, in which caſes no care can prevent the ill effects.

As to the mother, beſide the cauſes above enumerated, the two following are very common ones. The firſt is too great a ſtricture of the uterus; in which caſe it is not capable of a dilation ſufficient to make room for the fœtus as it increaſes in bulk: this is known by a great tenſion and hardneſs of the belly, and violent pain therein. Bleeding, and whatever relaxes, are indicated in this caſe. The ſecond is a relaxation of the uterus, which renders it unable to ſupport the inoſculations of the veſſels of the placenta into itſelf, after the fœtus and placenta, &c. are grown to a certain weight: and, of all others, this is the moſt frequent. In theſe two caſes, the miſcarriage always happens about a ſtated time of the woman's pregnancy.

An approaching miſcarriage is to be apprehended by the following ſigns: the breaſts growing flabby on a ſudden; the loins have a painful weight, which reaches to the thighs; pains about the naval, head, and eyes; a gnawing at the ſtomach; coldneſs in the extremities; when violent means have been uſed to expel the fœtus, convulſion ſometimes come on; pains in the belly, like a colic, and ſometimes more like labour pains; ſhiverings; fainting; and, if it is paſt the time of quickening, the motion of the fœtus is more languid, and leſs frequent than uſual: as the miſcarriage draws nearer being effected, the pains in the loins increaſe, extending to the hips; the orifice of the womb begins to be dilated; a watery diſcharge from the womb is perceived, which becomes bloody, at length pure blood or clotted comes away. The moſt certain ſign is the diſcharge of a fleſh-coloured flakey ſubſtance which comes away with the waters: this is the tunica decidua, or ſpongy chorion, and when it peels off from the womb, and appears with the waters, a miſcarriage is unavoidable.

Healthy women, who have naturally a looſe belly, a moiſt uterus, and have brought forth large infants with eaſy labour, who are lean, but not very ſanguine, bear miſcarriages the beſt. But miſcarriages are ever to be conſidered as more dangerous than natural labours; for more violence is neceſſary to diſcharge the imperfect fœtus than when it hath arrived at its full maturity; beſide, the placenta is more firmly attached during the growth of the fœtus than when it is full grown; and, beſides the danger of a fatal hæmorrhage from the adheſion of the placenta, the os tincæ does not ſo eaſily dilate, before the full period of geſtation. If a part of the placenta is ſeparated, until the burden is delivered, the uterus cannot contract ſufficiently to cloſe the bleeding veſſels; theſe hæmorrhages are extremely dangerous, and often fatal; miſcarriages are the moſt dangerous in the firſt pregnancy. Inflammation and laceration are ſometimes the conſequence.

In order to relief, in caſes threatning a miſcarriage, the attending circumſtances muſt be carefully obſerved.

If the fœtus is dead, which is ſuſpected by its ceaſing from its uſual motion, a ſenſe of weight in the bottom of the belly, which moves to which ever ſide the woman lies, pains about the navel, loins, and belly, with uneaſy ſenſations in the ſtomach, an unuſual coldneſs in the belly, and of the os tincæ, perceivable by the touch, hollowneſs of the eyes, and a loſs of their uſual luſtre, ſwelling and duſky paleneſs of the face, &c. though the moſt, if not the only certain ſign is a diſcharge of fœtid ſanies from the uterus. In this caſe nothing can be prudently done, but the buſineſs being left to nature, the excluſion will be by her duly effected.

In conſtitutions ſubject to this misfortune, be careful to avoid whatever has been ſuſpected to cauſe it before, and alſo guard againſt every known cauſe that may poſſibly endanger the patient. In the firſt months keep the belly open with laxatives; if weakneſs do not forbid, bleed in the third month; if there is a ſanguine plethora, apparent weakneſs is no objection to bleeding; the bark is proper as a ſtrengthener, though bleeding may have been required.

If pains come on, after bleeding give elix. paregoric. or tinct. Thebaic. cum infuſ. cort. Peruv.

If an hæmorrhage attends the pains, beſides the anodyne with the infuſ. cort. Peru, and bleeding, give the pulv. ſtypt. Helvetii ʒſs. quaq. ſs. hora. After a few doſes this ſymptom abates, and then each doſe may be repeated at proportionably longer intervals.

If a cough attends, the pil. ſtyrac. at bed-time, has a moſt valuable effect.

If acute diſeaſes are the cauſe, their reſpective nature and cure are to be attended to.

If a teneſmus produces the danger, the enema ex amyl. cum tinct. Thebaic. gt. xx ad xl. or a ſuppoſitory, as follow, may relieve. ℞ Sevi ov. ceræ. flav. & ſp. cæti ā p. æq. croc. Anglic. pulv. part. ſext. totius.

When a tenſion of the uterus is attendant, all aſtringents are improper; in this caſe the miſcarriage muſt be promoted by bleeding and gentle opiates, for nothing will check the hæmorrhage in this caſe but emptying the uterus.

If the child is ſuppoſed to be dead, to attempt the reſtraint of the hæmorrhage will be injurious; and if the miſcarriage is ſo far advanced as not to be likely to be prevented, medicines will be quite unneceſſary.

As precautions to prevent miſcarriages during pregnancy, are not ſo efficacious as thoſe uſed betwixt a miſcarriage and the next impregnation, the advantage of this interval ſhould be embraced, the particular diſorders ſhould be attended to and removed, and the general vigour ſhould be reſtored as far as poſſible: to this end cold bathing will greatly contribute, if it is uſed at bed-time, or after the dinner

dinner is well digeſted. The chalybeate waters excel in this caſe; they ſhould be drank at the ſpring, early in the morning, to the quantity of three or four half pints; their uſe muſt be continued two or three months, and exerciſe within the ſtrength ſhould be uſed at the ſame time.

Lime water has been ſingularly uſeful in this caſe, both in curing a diſpoſition to, and preventing threatened miſcarriages, in thoſe who have often miſcarried before. If in theſe caſes the water was made freſh when uſed, and drank before the heat excited by the ebullition on quenching the lime was gone off, the efficacy would be the greater.

Reſt ſhould be complied with, as ſoon as the ſymptoms of a miſcarriage appear; and, if no particular reaſons forbid, it is beſt to keep the bed till danger is paſt.

Opiates with reſtringents allay the pain, and ſo remove the ſtimulus which promotes and increaſes the hæmorrhage.

Convulſions and *Floodings* coming on pregnant women, demand immediate help from art, to extricate the fœtus from the womb; and though properly belonging to the article of midwifery, yet very naturally fall under this of *Abortion*.

Either of theſe caſes happening before or after labour comes on, they admit of no delay. However, in them both there is the advantage of the waters to turn the child in, when happening before delivery.

Convulſions.] When convulſions come on in the beginning of labour, they are occaſioned by the nerves of the os internum being irritated, and put on the ſtretch. When they come on after labour has gone on well for ſome time, their cauſe may be paſſions of the mind, long continued pains, &c.

A cure is uncertain when convulſions come on in time of labour, except you can deliver the child; and as in ſome caſes delivery is impracticable on account of the length of the neck of the womb, if the woman cannot be relieved by medicines, death muſt inevitably be the conſequence. If then the convulſions come on in the beginning of labour, bleed freely, and repeat the operation according to the ſtrength of the woman and the violence of the diſeaſe. Empty the bowels with a clyſter; if time admits apply a bliſter on the nape of the neck and on the extremities, and give aſſa fœtida, &c. If the fits go ſoon off, and at the intervals, the ſenſes are entire, alſo if there is no fever, wait the event; but if there is vomiting, the pulſe be low, the patient comatoſe, take the child away, and try bleeding, bliſtering, and opiates. If the patient is convulſed three, four, or five hours together, foams at the mouth, and the pulſe is diſordered, deliver if poſſible.

If convulſions come on after the labour is in ſome meaſure advanced, they will have the ſame effect as labour-pains, and the child will be delivered by them. If they have not this effect, if the head of the child is low enough for the forceps, uſe them. If the head of the child is jammed in the pelvis, and the uterus ſo contracted that it cannot be puſhed up, nor the forceps uſed, there is no remedy but the crotchet.

If the convulſions continue after delivery, the lochia are commonly obſtructed; in this caſe, bleed, bliſter, and apply to the belly a plaſter made thus: ℞ Gum. aſſ. fœtid. ʒvj camph. ʒſs. m. If the pulſe fail, give ſaffron, caſtor, &c. with ſuitable antiſpaſmodic mixtures, and bliſter. If the pulſe is full and ſtrong, bleed: and if bliſters are required, inſtead of the empl. epiſpaſt. ℞ empl. ſtimul. (ex empl. ſi. cum gum. empl. epiſp. & gum. euphorb. ää p. æq.) ad plant. ped. applicand. If the convulſions continue twenty-four hours, or more, after delivery, the woman rarely recovers.

Floodings.] Floodings happening to pregnant women are very different in their effects, ſo are as differently to be regarded. Pregnant women have the menſes ſometimes to the laſt, but they are pale, thin, and do no harm. Thoſe fluxes which do not require delivery, come on gradually, but generally with the uſual pains of the menſtrual flux attending; they are not continual; and, with due care, they ceaſe. Thoſe which cauſe miſcarriage or death, break forth ſuddenly, and, in large quantities, they flow without ceaſing, any otherways than as prevented by clots of blood now and then. In the firſt caſe, the os tincæ is not affected, in the latter it opens.

In the early months, the cauſes are violent ſhocks, ſudden or great frights, &c. but in the latter months, the ſeparation of the placenta, in whole or in part, is always the cauſe: the uterine arteries pour their blood into the cellular part or the placenta; hence, when any of theſe cells are torn through, all the blood carried by them muſt be diſcharged by the os internum. The placenta adhering to the os internum may be the cauſe of flooding; in which caſe, the diſcharge increaſes as the os internum dilates.

The ſigns of an approaching flooding are reſtleſs pains like labour, pain in the eye-balls, troubleſome dreams; if the flooding is internal, the os tincæ will be ſtopped with clotted blood, the belly will ſwell, the pulſe fail and flutter, and faintneſs with giddineſs come on.

Floodings are more or leſs dangerous according as pregnancy is advanced, becauſe the diameters of the veſſels are proportionably enlarged. If the os tincæ is not open, there is no danger. Flooding preceding delivery is, for the moſt part, followed with a dead child: and generally a flooding in the firſt months is followed by a miſcarriage.

If the flooding threatens ſpeedy danger, attempt nothing till the patient's friends are apprized of it, and inſiſt on your endeavours. It is ſeldom that any manual aſſiſtance is given in the firſt five months, for till after this time the os tincæ is but little altered, and indeed the pregnancy is often ſomewhat uncertain; but afterwards the os tincæ opens, ſo that if need be, the fœtus can be brought away by force. In latter months, if a flooding comes on, if at the ſame time the pulſe is tolerable, the colour remains, the loſs of blood not very conſiderable, and if there are any pains which are likely to deliver, do nothing in a hurry, but rather wait the effect of the pains. If the diſcharge abates on the rupture of the membranes, pains come on, and all elſe ſeems well, wait; but, if the flooding continue, if the pulſe is low and unequal, if the ſtrength fail, the face grows pale, fainting and cold ſweats come on, introduce the hand, and deliver by force; for in theſe caſes there is danger of convulſions coming on, and delay may haſten them.

If death is not ſo near, take as much time as ſymptoms will permit: e. g. if called in time, ſuppoſe in the morning, the flooding juſt come on, the ſtrength and ſpirits not yet failed, wait two or three hours, or till the evening, then the os tincæ will be ſoftened by the longer diſcharge, it will more eaſily dilate, and the birth will be leſs difficult.

If the violence of the ſymptoms demand immediate help, proceed without waiting for pains, for they ſeldom return after the flooding is ſo violent as to cauſe fainting, or convulſions; nor muſt we wait for a conſiderable dilatation of the os tincæ, which without pains is not to be expected; indeed the pains are the leſs neceſſary, as the hæmorrhage aſſiſts in relaxing it.

If flooding happens during the firſt ſix months, bleed according to the ſtate of the pulſe, keep the patient ſtill in bed, and though ſhe is faint, cold, or low, give no warm cordials, for they increaſe the diſcharge in proportion as they raiſe the ſpirits. If a vomitting attends, give the neutral mixture, and ſuch light food as paſſes ſoon into the circulation, ſuch as broths, ſaloop, milk, &c. Let theſe be given in very ſmall quantities leſt vomiting ſhould be excited, but let the ſupplies be frequent. If coſtiveneſs offends, relieve by cliſters that are barely laxative. If anxiety and wakefulneſs incommode, let opiates be repeated, at due diſtances, in ſmall doſes. The bark joined with opiates, and ſometimes with nitre, alſo is very effectual. The pulv. ſtypt. helv. above-named, is alſo not to be omitted, and cloths dipped in cold water may be applied to the region of the uterus.

If this diſaſter happen in the ſeventh or eighth month, the danger is far greater than in the former months; for the diameter of the veſſels are enlarged, and the neck of the uterus is long and rigid, ſo that if the flooding is violent, the woman may be loſt before the beſt helps can be of any uſe. In this caſe, as in the former months, it is the beſt not to attempt delivery, till a laxity of the parts is come on; for were we to attempt it in their rigid ſtate, we ſhould increaſe the flooding, tire ourſelves, and exhauſt the woman, and this without being able to deliver her.

The moſt dangerous time is the laſt month of pregnancy, for then the diameters of the veſſels are at their greateſt dimenſions. If in this caſe the blood runs off in a full ſtream, introduce the hand, break the membranes, and taking the advantage of the waters, turn the child, and bring it footling. If at this period a flooding happens, or if it happens in the time of labour, and the patient loſes not a great quantity in a ſhort ſpace of time, ſhe may bear it, and in the courſe of labour pains it will ſtop, and the labour will go on well. If the woman is plethoric, and not much weakened by the diſcharge; if the child preſent fair, break the membranes to reſtrain it, and allow time for the labour to come on afterwards.

If during labour a flooding is cauſed by a laceration of the placenta in delivering the firſt of twins, immediately introduce the hand, turn the remaining child, and bring it away by the feet, then the uterus will contract, and the diameters of the veſſels will be leſſened: but if the flooding precede the delivery of a twin, and then abates, let the other remain a little, and recruit the woman with caudle or jelly; for in twin caſes the belly is vaſtly diſtended, and the veſſels are very much dilated and full, and a ſudden emptying of them may cauſe a ſyncope, or even death.

The placenta is not only ſometimes looſe, but alſo is ſometimes upon the os tincæ, in which caſe delivery muſt be effected with all convenient ſpeed. To deliver with ſafety when thus circumſtanced, introduce one finger into the os tincæ, then two, and gradually the reſt, until the whole hand is introduced; gradually dilate the parts; then, if the membranes firſt offer, break them, and get the feet of the child, by which bring it away, and deliver the reſt at diſcretion. But if the placenta preſent at the os uteri, 1ſt, you will know by the touch, for on introducing the finger, neither the membrane, nor the naked head is perceived; on the contrary, thick and ſoft fleſh is felt, diſtinguiſhed from that of the child by being ſofter than it, and alſo by being without form. 2dly, This caſe is always joined with a flux of blood, to the danger of both the mother and the child; therefore the birth muſt be haſtened without waiting for pains; a finger muſt be introduced into the os tincæ, and the placenta removed until the membranes can be reached, which done, tear them to come at the feet of the child: if you cannot puſh the placenta from the os tincæ, force your finger through its middle, and make way by dilating your fingers for the membranes to deſcend; this done break them, and by the running off of the waters the uterus will contract, and gradually leſſen the flooding: if on the waters being diſcharged the head preſents, endeavour to remove the placenta ſo as to give way to the head, then the pains may bring forth the child; but if it is ill turned, bring it away by the feet.

If the flooding happens from a blow, and there is a great diſcharge in a little time, delivery muſt be haſtened as ſpeedily as poſſible; and if the hæmorrhage abates not on the child's being brought away, the placenta muſt be haſtened too. Remember that during delivery, an aſſiſtant ſhould gently preſs the belly of the woman, and continue the preſſure a little while after the placenta is delivered; the woman muſt be ſupported by frequent ſmall quantities of caudle.

The floodings which happen after delivery are ſometimes very dangerous; this kind is generally owing to the womb being ſuddenly emptied, and ſo not having time to contract the diameters of the veſſels, they remain open, and the blood by its own ſpecific gravity pours out. The chief intention here, is to contract the uterus; to which end the propereſt means is the application of cloths dipped in vinegar, or vinegar and water: theſe ſhould be laid on the back and the region of the womb. A hand may be placed on the belly, to preſs the uterus towards the pubes. But the greateſt ſpecific in this caſe is an opiate: it ſhould be given in large doſes, for if the woman can be once compoſed, if it be but for a few minutes, the flooding will almoſt certainly ceaſe, and when it once ceaſes it rarely returns.

To deliver a woman without pains, or to force labour, is as follows: lay her on her back with her heels upon the bed, having aſſiſtants to keep her ſteady. The operator may be in any poſition that he finds moſt convenient; in the courſe of one labour he will generally find occaſion to ſit, ſtand, and kneel; the elbow of the introduced arm ſhould be ſupported by the knee, to give additional ſtrength, and to prevent the arm from being wearied. The hand of the operator being well greaſed, he muſt gradually dilate the external parts, by introducing the fingers one after another, moving them in a rotatory manner; then begin to dilate the os internum, proceeding gently and gradually, reſting at intervals both for his own and the woman's eaſe: when the hand has paſſed into the uterus, he muſt break the membranes, but permit not the waters to run off before he has found the feet, and the child is properly turned; the feet ſecured, proceed as in delivering by the feet. When the child is delivered, if the placenta adheres, but the flooding is not ſo violent as to render the bringing it away immediately neceſſary, opiates are the moſt likely means of promoting the ſeparation and excluſion of it, by relaxing the parts concerned, and removing the ſtricture which always accompanies the pain: give the tinct. theb. gr. xx. vel. ſyr. e. mecon. ℥ i. vel opii gr. i.

Though many later authors have writ well on the ſubject of *abortions*, and ſome moderns have added many improvements, yet Hippocrates well deſerves to be read on this ſubject.

See Dr. Leake's Medical Inſtructions, edit. 5. and alſo his Practical Obſervations. Denman's Aphoriſms on Uterine Hæmorrhages. Smith's Letters to Married Women. Buchan's Domeſtic Medicine, edit. 5. On the Management of Children, &c. by William Moſs, Surgeon. On Uterine Hæmorrhages, by M. Leroux, Surgeon.

ABRABAX, or ABRAXAS, a magical word comprehending the days of the year in numeral letters.

ABRACADABRA, a magical word, recommended by Serenus Samonicus as a cure for the fever, called a hæmitritæus. In order to have this good effect, the word muſt be writ on a paper, and repeated as in the example below. It is then ſuſpended about the neck by a linen thread. Abracadabra was the name of a god worſhipped by the Syrians, ſo wearing his name was a ſort of invocation of his aid; a practice, though no more uſeful, yet is leſs irrational than the equally heatheniſh practice among thoſe who call themſelves Chriſtians, of wearing various things, in expectation of their operating by a ſympathy, whoſe parents were Ignorance and Superſtition.

ABRACADABRA
ABRACADABR
ABRACADAB
ABRACADA
ABRACAD
ABRACA
ABRAC
ABRA
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AB
A

ABRACALAN, a cabaliſtic word uſed by the Jews inſtead of Abracadabra, though but another name for the ſame deity.

ABRASA. Ulcers attended with abraſion of part of the ſubſtance; or, ulcers where the ſkin is ſo tender and lax as to be ſubject to abraſion. James.

ABRASAXAS, a magical word, which when writ in the form of a circle, is ſaid to keep flies from coming into its circumference.

ABRASIO, Abrasion. A ſhaving away, a rubbing off, a ſuperficial exulceration. From *abrado, to rub off.*

ABRASUM. The part abraded from the ulcer; or the ſkin &c. that is rubbed off. To preſerve the part from inflammation, dreſs it with the cerot. alb. vel cerot. epulot.

ABRATHAN, a name for the Abrotanum.

ABRAXAS, i. e. Abrabax.

ABRIC. Sulphur.

ABRODIETETICUS, Abrodietical. Delicate or nice in diet.

ABROTANOIDES. A ſpecies of coral. See Ray's Hiſt.

ABROTANUM, Southernwood, from ἁβρός, *ſoft.*

The male and the female ſpecies are in uſe, though the college of London only directs the male. Dale reckons a third

third ſpecies, as being uſed in medicine. See ARTEMISIA *tenuifolia*. Miller reckons up eighteen or nineteen different ſpecies.

The male ſpecies is a ſhrubby plant, with woody brittle branches, numerous greyiſh green leaves, divided into ſlender ſegments; and ſmall, yellow, naked, diſcous flowers, hanging downwards in cluſters along the ſides of the ſtalks and branches. It is the artemiſia foliis ramoſiſſimis ſetaceis, caule erecto ſuffruticoſo. Linnæus. It is a native of open mountainous places in warm climates, particularly Italy. It flowers in July and Auguſt. In England it is raiſed in gardens from ſlips of cuttings, ſeldom producing ſeed, and not often flowers; the leaves fall off in winter, the roots and ſtalks are perennial.

The female ſpecies is a buſhy ſhrubby plant, all over hoary, with oblong ſlender leaves, compoſed each of four rows of little knobs ſet along a middle rib, and naked, diſcous, yellow flowers, ſtanding ſolitary on the tops of the ſtalks. It is a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, flowers in June, and continues to flower till winter approaches, and holds its leaves through all the winter.

They are both chiefly uſed for fomentations, in which caſe the one may at any time be uſed for the other; they are powerfully diſcutient and antiſeptic. Heiſter highly extols a decoction of either of them in ſea or in ſalt water, as an antiſeptic fomentation.

For internal uſes they are indiſcriminately uſed, and are commended as antihyſteric and anthelminthic. But the male ſpecies being both ſtronger and leſs diſagreeable, deſerves to be preferred. The female ſpecies is a better ſubſtitute for the artemiſia than for the abrotan. mas.

The tops and the leaves of the male ſpecies have a penetrating bitteriſh taſte, ſomewhat aromatic; are moderately antiſeptic, attenuating, diaphoretic, and diuretic. They loſe a little by drying, and are beſt if uſed when freſh. ℥ij of the tops may be uſed for a quart of infuſion.

But little is obtained by diſtillation; ſpirit of wine brings over but little of the flavour, through it extracts a ſtrong tincture. Six pounds of freſh tops afford about a dram of an eſſential oil of a bright yellow colour, whoſe odour reſembles that of the plant.

ABROTONITES, a wine impregnated with abrotanum. About one hundred ounces of one, to ſeven gallons of the other, are put together, and after ſtanding a few days, the wine is fit for uſe.

ABRUPTIO, i. e. Abductio.

ABRUS, a ſort of a red phaſeolus, or kidney-bean, growing in Egypt and the Indies. See Ray's Hiſt.

They are alſo called Angloa ſeeds. There are two kinds, one the ſize of a pea, the other as big as a tare; both of a ſcarlet colour, with a black eye. The leſſer are worn as amulets about the necks of children.

ABSCEDENTIA. Decayed parts of the body, which in a morbid ſtate are ſeparated from the ſound.

ABSCESSIO, i. e. Abſceſſus.

ABSCESSUS, an *Abſceſs*; from *abſcedo*, *to depart*; or, from *abs* and *cedo*, *to retire*. A cavity containing pus, or a gathering of matter in a part. So called, becauſe hereby the parts which were joined are now ſeparated; one part recedes from another to make way for the collected matter.

Ἀπόστημα and ἀπόστασις, uſed by Hippocrates, are tranſlated by Celſus, *abſceſſus*, and ſometimes *vomica*. Paulus Ægineta ſeems to limit the ſignification of *abſceſſus* to ſuppuration, by defining ἀπόστημα to be an *abſceſs*, or a corruption of the fleſhy parts, muſcles, veins, and arteries.

The words ἀφίσταμαι and ἀφίστημι, ſignifying *to recede* or *retire*, are uſed by Hippocrates with great latitude. He ſignifies by them any critical removal of offending humours, however diſcharged; alſo the change of one diſeaſe into another, as a quincy into a peripneumony, &c. See APOSTEMA. But the preſent practice ſeems univerſally to conſider an *abſceſs* as that tumour which follows an inflammation, for almoſt all of them are the conſequence thereof.

The proper ſeat of *abſceſſes* is the cellular membrane.

The matter in *abſceſſes* is formed by the heat of the part acting on the humour collected there and diſſolving the adjacent fat; theſe two fluids are alſo concocted by the ſame heat. The formation of matter in abſceſſes, is well deſcribed by Mr. Deaſe, in his Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Surgery, p. 36. He ſays, "The inflammation being now at the higheſt, and the different ſeries of veſſels loaded with fluids, ſtill urging to the point irritated, the heat developed by the attrition between the ſolids and fluids, will, by rarifying the latter, diſtend the former, and dilate the exhalent veſſels; by which means there will be an exudation of ſerous humours into the cellular and adipoſe interſtices, whoſe texture in part will gradually be diſſolved, the coats of the ſmall veſſels ſlough off, and the different ſeries of humours being broke down and fermenting, will form, by a new combination, a white, opaque, unctuous liquor, without any offenſive ſmell, termed pus. This matter, in circumſcribed tumours, will occupy the centre; but, in extended inflammations, we often find many points of ſuppuration, which running into one another, form large cavities and different ſinuſes in the cellular and adipoſe membrane."

The inflammatory heat increaſing, and continuing ſo to do during three days, and that in oppoſition to the uſual means, a ſuppuration will certainly follow. If the patient feels frequent ſhiverings, a formation of pus is certainly commenced. This ſhivering is produced by the abſorption of ſome of the pus, or its thinner parts; but, when the matter is incloſed in a cyſt, or ſurrounded with an inflammatory matter, this abſorption rarely or never happens. In the cellular membrane is lodged many veſſels for the ſecretion and diſtribution of fat, and many other veſſels paſs through it in their way from one part to another. This membrane eaſily tumifies, and, being very ſlight, as eaſily divides, by which a cavity is formed, and in it is depoſited all that conſtitutes the ſubſequent diſcharge. Farther, by the rupture of the cellular membrane, the parts which were connected are ſeparated, and their tenſion removed, the many blood-veſſels which before were compreſſed are freed, the blood circulates freely, the heat abates, and the part is leſs red, but gradually becomes more ſoft.

The progreſs of an abſceſs on the external parts of the body is generally as follows: the tumour increaſes, ſo does the heat, pain, and redneſs thereof; a pulſation is alſo perceived therein, a fever ſometimes attends, which is increaſed every night: when the contents are all ſuppurated, the pricking pain gives way, and an itching, with a growing numbneſs, is complained of, the hardneſs of the part at length yields to the touch, and the ſkin burſting, gives a vent to the contained matter.

An *abſceſs* ſhould be carefully diſtinguiſhed from a hernia, an aneuriſm, and from a varicous tumour.

If during the treatment of an *abſceſs*, the patient is ſleepleſs and feveriſh; if he breathes with difficulty and loaths his food; if the pus, when diſcharged, is ill-coloured, fetid, and ſanious; if eruptions of blood or ſpongy fleſh appear in the cavity of the ulcer; if faintings come on during, or after the times of dreſſing, the prognoſtic is unfavourable: on the contrary, if theſe ſymptoms are abſent, or but in a moderate degree, a favourable iſſue may be expected. By improper treatment a phlegmon is eaſily converted into a ſphacelus. Deep ſeated *abſceſſes* are ſometimes difficultly diſcovered by the touch; but as no conſiderable ſuppuration can happen in the body without being ſoon after accompanied with a hectic fever, the ſlighteſt appearance thereof at once determines the caſe.

When ſuppuration is to be promoted, endeavour to effect the following intentions, viz.

1ſt, To convert into pus the congeſted humours.

2dly, To aſſiſt the diſcharge of the matter when it is duly digeſted.

3dly. To heal up the opening, or ulcer; for thus the *abſceſs* is denominated when the matter is diſcharged.

In order to the accompliſhment of the firſt intention, avoid all repellents, for their uſe at this time may convert the ſuppurating tumour into a ſcirrhus, or other incurable induration; for this reaſon, camphorated ſpirit as a topic, and high cordials when the inflammation is internal, are alike improper. In general, apply to the tumour ſuch things as gently ſtimulate and moiſten; ſuch alſo as obſtruct the pores, and thus prevent the paſſage of the finer parts in their attempts to eſcape through the ſkin; to theſe ends the white bread poultice will ſuffice, if applied warm, and

and is renewed as often as may be required, to keep up an equal heat, which will be every two or at moſt three hours. This application for its neatneſs, cleanlineſs, and freedom from offenſive ſmells, is deſervedly to be preferred; yet at diſcretion may be added a ſmall portion of the roots of lilies, the yellow baſilicon, or of the beſt gum galbanum. In lighter caſes, where the part is not too tender, or in ſome ſluggiſh tumours with but little pain, a plaſter of the gum galban. colat. may be applied alone, and renewed every four or five days; or, to expedite the efficacy thereof, a warm poultice may be laid upon it twice in the day.

While externals are applied, the ſtate of the conſtitution is not to be neglected; too much heat endangers a mortification, and with too little every attempt will be abortive. If the heat runs high, reduce it nearly to a ſtate of health by bleeding and a cooling regimen. Avoid purges; but if coſtiveneſs incommodes, a clyſter may be uſed. If a defective heat retards the ſuppuration, the aid of warming medicines, and a cordial diet, is required.

To a due fulfilment of the ſecond intention, the whole of the tumour (or nearly ſo) muſt be converted into pus, before a diſcharge can be admitted; for otherwiſe all that remains unſuppurated will digeſt with difficulty, and often will become a faulty ichor. Again, if a due diſcharge is not obtained as ſoon as the pus is perfected, it putrifies and forms a fiſtula, &c. or it will be abſorbed, and cauſe a hectic fever. The time of opening is generally to be known by the prominence obſerved being very thin, by the matter fluctuating on the lighteſt preſſure, and an abatement of the pain, heat, and pulſation in the part.

Abſceſſes are opened by either inciſion or the cauſtic, but in general the firſt is to be preferred, for it is leſs painful than the cauſtic, and does not bruiſe in cutting like the ſciſſars. The opening may be as far as the ſkin is diſcoloured, or a circular piece may be taken out if the diſcolouration ſpreads. The opening muſt be, if poſſible, in a depending part, though where nature points out, the operation muſt be performed. When the bad quality of an *abſceſs* is likely to retard its future incarnation, an opening made by a cauſtic beſt prevents the lips of the wound from growing callous. Venereal buboes, and ſome ſcrophulous tumors, if not in the face or neck, are ſooneſt healed after opening with a cauſtic, and ſuch of theſe as neither will give way to ſuppurating nor diſcutient medicines, are effectually deſtroyed by cauſtics, and the eſchar ſoon is cicatrized. For the application, &c. of a cauſtic, ſee the article CAUSTICA.

Many adviſe not to open critical *abſceſſes* before they are digeſted. Sharp ſays, that "Very little of the morbid matter is depoſited in them before they are fully ripe, therefore till then ſhould not be opened." It is certain that by a premature diſcharge, the ulcer becomes foul, and heals with difficulty.

When the knife is uſed, if a nerve, vein, or artery is in danger, let a director guide the inciſion, which is beſt begun on the lower ſide, for then the matter is diſcharged moſt freely, and the operator leaſt incommoded by it. If poſſible, its courſe ſhould be according to that of the fibres of the ſubjacent parts: thus, if the ſkin is very near a nerve, the uſe of the part will not be injured by cutting it acroſs.

As to the third intention, it may be obſerved in general, that when the opening and diſcharge are made, the caſe is conſidered as a common wound, and the treatment is as directed in the article VULNUS. The firſt dreſſing may be dry lint, covered with pledgits of ſoft tow. Afterwards, if the part is tender, and the matter good, when the applications are removed, be content without wiping it very clean. Pledgits that are ſpread with ointments need not be warmed, except the patient makes complaints thereof, and then hold them to the fire, but not ſo long as that their ſurfaces will melt. Obſerve a proper poſture by which to favour the diſcharge. Repeat the dreſſings once or twice a day, as the quantity or the quality of the diſcharge requires, the ſeldomer they require a repetition, the ſooner will the cure be perfected: and as the air offends not but by long expoſure to it, all hurrying therein is quite unneceſſary.

An ABSCESS *in the Maxillary Sinus*, called the Antrum Highmorianum. Drake mentions this as a ſpecies of ozæna. It is known by a pain which is deep ſeated in the cheek, and a tumor there, on the outer and upper part; a diſcharge of offenſive matter from the noſtril of the affected ſide, eſpecially on inclining the head to the ſide that is ſound; ſometimes the breath is rendered very diſagreeable by the caries produced in the teeth by this diſorder. Mr. John Hunter obſerves, in his Natural Hiſtory of the Human Teeth, part ii. that, "The pain in this diſeaſe is at firſt taken for the tooth-ach; however, in theſe caſes, the noſe is more affected than is obſerved in a tooth-ach. The eye is alſo affected, and it is very common for people with ſuch a diſeaſe to have a ſevere pain in the forehead, where the frontal ſinuſes are placed; but ſtill theſe ſymptoms are not ſufficient to diſtinguiſh the diſeaſe. Time muſt diſcloſe the true cauſe of the pain, for it will commonly continue longer then that which ariſes from a diſeaſed tooth, and will become more and more ſevere; after which, a redneſs will be obſerved on the fore part of the cheek, ſomewhat higher than the roots of the teeth, and a hardneſs in the ſame place, which will be conſiderably circumſcribed; this hardneſs may be felt rather highly ſituated on the inſide of the lip." The method of cure by drawing one of the dentes molares from the affected ſide was firſt propoſed and practiſed by Drake, and his improvement hath been continued with the happieſt ſucceſs. Draw the laſt tooth but one; and if rotten, draw the next on each ſide it, then through their ſockets make a perforation into the antrum with a large awl; the matter being diſcharged, the cure may be finiſhed by injecting a mixture of aq. calcis, tinct. myrrh. and mel roſar. twice a day into the cavity, and retaining it with a tent. See Gooch's Caſes and Remarks, in which an extraordinary inſtance is related, with the ingenious and ſucceſsful management thereof. Mr. John Hunter propoſes to effect the cure as follows: 1ſt, if the diſeaſe is known before the deſtruction of the fore part of the bone, make an opening through the partition between the antrum and the noſe; or, 2dly, by drawing a tooth, as above: the latter method he prefers.

An ABSCESS *of the Anus*. A large quantity of fat fills up the cavity on each ſide of the anus, and is the ſeat of this diſorder there.

The cauſes are various, as contuſions, wounds, inflammations, difficult labour, hard riding, a dyſentery, the veneral diſeaſe, &c.

Abſceſſes ſometimes are ſuddenly formed in this part, at others they advance very ſlowly. In the firſt caſe the appearances are in the beginning no other than thoſe of a common boil, but the ſymptoms ſoon increaſe, quickly proceeding to a more formidable ſtate. In the latter, though the ſuppuration makes but little progreſs, the pain and tumor ſuffice to determine the nature of the complaint.

The pus, whether it makes its way through the ſkin or through the inteſtines, is frequently ſo tedious in its paſſage, that the adjacent fat is more or leſs corroded, and rendered ſanious, whence ſinuſes are formed of different ſhapes and ſizes. Sometimes the maturation is extended on every ſide, rendering the cure both difficult and uncertain. When *abſceſſes* in this part are left to themſelves, they rarely fail to degenerate into fiſtulas, and occaſion troubleſome calloſities.

As ſoon as the tumor is formed, endeavour with all poſſible ſpeed to ſuppurate it; and when this is in ſome degree advanced, procure a ſpeedy diſcharge. To this end let the patient ſtand on the ground with his feet aſunder, and lean over a table upon his belly; then the operator introducing a finger into the anus, will perceive the matter in a fluctuating ſtate, in which caſe, without waiting for the external ſigns of ſuppuration, make an opening into it with a knife: by preſſing the finger in the anus on the *abſceſs*, and another on the external part, a judgment may be formed where to make the puncture; for, by the finger in the rectum, the pus may be preſſed externally ſo as to be perceived by the finger there. When the opening is made, endeavour to enlarge the wound as you withdraw the knife; and, for the better application of proper dreſſings to the bottom, another inciſion may be made tranſverſely. If the rectum is laid bare, an inciſion muſt be made in it alſo, as far as ſuch accident extends, in order to its re-union with the adjacent parts, for the regeneration of fleſh is obtained with great difficulty on the

ſurface

furface of an inteſtine when deprived of its fat. When the matter ſurrounds the anus, the cure is hardly to be performed without an abſciſſion of all that is denudated. See an extraordinary inſtance of this kind in the Med. Muſ. vol. iii. p. 251—257.

A proper opening being made, the dreſſings, &c. are as in *abſceſſes* in general. Though Ætius obſerves, that when this diſorder extends round the anus, while the wound is filling up, there happens a conſtriction of the circumjacent parts, and an obſtruction of the paſſage of the anus; to prevent which he adviſes to introduce a canula there, and continue it till the cure is finiſhed. But how far a good habit of body, with other favourable circumſtances, may encourage our hope of ſucceſs this way, the practitioner can only judge by the occuring circumſtances, and his own experience.

When the cauſe is venereal, theſe tumors ſuppurate ſlowly, and without a gentle mercurial ptyaliſm, a cure is hardly to be effected.

An ABSCESS *in the Arm-pit.* *Abſceſſes* are often formed by injuries in the arm, hand, or fingers; ſometimes a fever at its criſis lodges matter here, and when the fever is of a malignant kind theſe tumors ſuppurate but ſlowly. When ripe an opening ſhould be made with the cauſtic. This diſorder when it terminates the plague, is uſually called a bubo, which ſee. See alſo an ABSCESS in the Groin.

An ABSCESS *in the Back and Loins.* Theſe are generally of the ſtrumous kind; but, when not, they are often fatal. The matter is uſually deep ſeated, and the bones are injured by it before a fluctuation can be diſcovered; for want of aid the diſcharge is made internally, and then the patient dies.

As ſoon as it can be diſcovered that the contents are digeſted, however deep, apply a cauſtic, and continue it till the remiſſion of the pain it cauſes certifies the effect thereof being at an end, cut out the eſchar (which in this caſe is an inch or more in thickneſs) and then force out the matter by a proper meaſure. If a fetid ichor is diſcharged, or the bone affected, wait with patience for its exfoliation, for here but little can be done to haſten it.

An *abſceſs* ſometimes forms itſelf under the quadratus lumborum, diſſects the cellular membrane between the quadratus, iliacus internus, and the pſoas, the matter running down into the thigh, paſſes as far as the inner condyl of the os femoris, pointing there as well as in the loins; but, before this, the miſchief it hath done is not to be repaired; and, if an opening is made, the patient is likely to be deſtroyed by the exceſs of the diſcharge, whence it is doubtful whether to open it or no; but yet when the patient is young, and his conſtitution ſtrong, nature ſhould not be deſpaired of. One ſymptom of this complaint is as follows: if the leg is ſtretched out, the patient complains of pain; if the toes are turned out, this pain is increaſed, but a relaxed poſture inſtantly procures relief. See PSOAS.

An ABSCESS *of the Belly.* For *abſceſſes* in the muſcles of the belly, ſee INFLAMMATION of the muſcles of the belly.

More internally, they are generally the effect of blows, or bruiſes otherwiſe occaſioned; and in bad habits, it is obſerved by Hildanus, that they are ſubject to great defluxions. The matter is apt to paſs betwixt the muſcles, forming ſinuous ulcers, as bandages cannot well be applied to prevent ſuch effects. The cold air particularly offends in caſes of this kind. When the opening is made, or the ſubſequent dreſſings are applied, the air in the room ſhould be moderately warm. See ABSCESS in the Meſentery.

An ABSCESS *in the urinary Bladder.* An inflammation in the bladder is ſometimes followed by an *abſceſs*. When this happens, it is known by an exacerbation of the ſymptoms, and a ſenſe of weight in the parts about the perinæum and pubes.

In order to the cure, inject emollient fluids, mixed with warm milk, into the bladder, very frequently, to haſten the ſuppuration, and to ſolicit the diſcharge into the cavity thereof. If the pus is not evacuated in due time, it acquires an acrimony, and corrodes the adjacent parts, produces fiſtulas, and other inconveniences.

If the injections fail, there is no reſource but that of an operation, which though rarely required, two examples are recorded in Bonet. Sepulch. lib. iii.

An ABSCESS *of the Bones.* Obſervations in practice prove, that not only in the cellular parts near the joints, but alſo in the middle cavities of the large bones, inflammations have degenerated into *abſceſſes*.

The obſervation of Ruyſch, in which he ſays, that he found in the middle cavities of the large bones, round boney pipes, ſeparate from the reſt of the bones in which he ſaw them, may be referred to this article. See ABSCESS of the Perioſteum.

The *Abſceſs* called a Boil, ſee FURUNCULUS.

An ABSCESS *in the Brain.* Inſtances of this kind have occured, and if the trepan is uſed early enough, the caſe ends well.

An ABSCESS *of the Breaſt.* Theſe are external and internal, for the latter ſee ABSCESS of the LUNGS.

Externally this diſorder happens, for the moſt part, to women. Bruiſes ſometimes are the cauſe, but generally, a too active ſeparation of the milk, or taking cold while the woman continues to ſuckle. Inflammation of the lungs and pleura often produces *abſceſſes* in the breaſt externally, and upon the ribs, which prove fiſtulous, and cariate the bones underneath. A frequent cauſe is from not letting the child ſuck until two or three days after its birth; an early application of the child to the breaſt, or otherwiſe employing the breaſts before they are turgid with the milk, would in general prevent this complaint. Another cauſe is the uſe of aſtringents, &c. to repel the milk.

If theſe *abſceſſes* burſt at the top, ſinuous ulcers are ſometimes the conſequence; and this happens too from laxity in the habit, and a defective heat in the conſtitution.

When inflammatory tumors happen in the breaſts of pregnant women, or of thoſe who are nurſes, be very cautious in the uſe of repellents; in ſanguinary habits, bleeding and opening medicines are neceſſary, with a cooling regimen. If ſuch tumors do not very eaſily and ſpeedily give way, proceed to ſuppuration, for this is the beſt way of ſecuring againſt a ſcirrhus or a cancer.

The common white bread poultice, for neatneſs and efficacy, equals, if not excels, all others as a ſuppurant in theſe caſes; apply it warm, renew it as frequently as is neceſſary for keeping up an equal warmth, which will be every two or three hours, and continue it till the *abſceſs* breaks of itſelf, and then you have only to enlarge the opening a little, if it be too ſmall; a ſmall opening is generally preferable to a large one, as it heals both ſooner and more kindly: ſome adviſe to make an opening during the ſtate of inflammation, becauſe of the pain which attends theſe tumors; but ever avoid ſuch practice, for by theſe premature diſcharges freſh collections will be made, and thus you may proceed till the whole breaſt is waſted; or by repeated inflammations a ſcirrhus will be formed, which ſeldom fails to introduce a cancer.

An *abſceſs* here may be opened by inciſion, never by a cauſtic, only if the lancet paſſes near the nipple, if poſſible direct it ſemicircularly, both to avoid cutting it, or the areola, for thus the beauty of the part is beſt preſerved, and future ſuckling not prevented.

It ſometimes happens that in order to healing a preſent *abſceſs*, as alſo to prevent the formation of new ones, it is abſolutely neceſſary to wean the child, and gradually divert the milk from the breaſts.

An ABSCESS *of the Diaphragm.* See INFLAMMATION of the MESENTERY.

An ABSCESS *in the Ear.* The ſymptoms attending an *abſceſs* in this part, have nothing peculiar, except that the pain is very exquiſite. See OTALGIA.

As to externals, little more can be done than to keep the head moderately warm, and when pus appears, the patient may lay on that ſide which favours the diſcharge. With reſpect to internals proceed as in a fever, with a cooling and thin diet, which nouriſhes but little, and keep the bowels moderately lax.

An *abſceſs* ariſing in the inner ear requires a peculiar treatment. Digeſtive and oleous liniments are careſully to be avoided, and in their ſtead the warm balſamics ſhould

be introduced deep, as is convenient, into the ear, e. g. pellets of cotton, or of wool, dipped in the eſſence of amber, the tincture of myrrh, or the balm of Gilead, may be uſed.

For *abſceſſes* near the ears, ſee PAROTIS.

An ABSCESS *in the Eye.* From the ſmall-pox moſt frequently, though from other cauſes this accident ſometimes happens.

When the ſeat is in the tranſparent part of the cornea, it is diſcovered by the peculiar whiteneſs of its appearance.

When it is in the opake part of the cornea, the eye is ſwelled, but more particularly ſo where the *abſceſs* is ſeated.

If its ſeat is deeper, the firſt evidence of its exiſtence is generally the extravaſation of its contents in the aqueous humour.

Thoſe on the tranſparent cornea, are generally cured by cautiouſly opening them with the point of a lancet, carefully avoiding the pellicles of this coat which lay beneath.

In the other two kinds there is great danger of loſing the ſight, for they diſcharge themſelves into the anterior chamber of the eye, though ſometimes a cure is effected without any remaining inconvenience. When the matter of theſe diffuſes itſelf ſo as to ſpread over all the pupil of the eye, then is formed the hypopion; if only a part of the pupil is covered thereby, the matter forming itſelf into a ſpeck like thoſe at the bottom of our nails, it is called an onyx. Heiſter, in his Surgery, gives a different account of the hypopion and the onyx.

In the cure of the chemoſis, firſt uſe remedies by which to reſolve the inflammation; if theſe fail, proceed as follows. While the contents of the *abſceſs* are yet not diſperſed, but extend into the hole of the pupil, place the patient fronting a good light, with his head laid on the back of an eaſy chair, then make an inciſion into the tranſparent part of the cornea, under the hole of the pupil, taking care that the point of the lancet does not touch the iris, which lays behind the pus; make the aperture long enough to give a free vent, then gently inject a little warm water therein. Afterwards apply a compreſs, wetted in a collyrium of roſe-water, well mixed with a little of the white of an egg; keep the compreſs conſtantly moiſt herewith by ſprinkling it from time to time, and drop ſome of it three or four times in the day in the orifice on the cornea. Some days after the firſt diſcharge, a freſh collection of pus ſometimes preſents itſelf, in which caſe introduce a fine ſtillet into the inciſion, in order to its paſſage outward, and proceed as at the firſt.

An ABSCESS *in the Eye-lid*, when externally ſituated, it requires no peculiar management different from *abſceſſes* in general, except that in opening it when ſituated near the cilia, great care is required not to enter the lancet any deeper than is barely neceſſary to evacuate the *abſceſs*; if the edge of the eye-lid is cut, an incurable waterineſs is endangered. The direction of the inciſion is the ſafeſt in the courſe of the orbicular muſcle.

An *abſceſs* ſituated on the inſide of the eye-lids may be opened with a lancet, and then waſhed with brine, or other proper collyrium.

ABSCESSES *in the Feet.* Of all the ſorts that affect theſe parts, the ſtrumous are the worſt, for in theſe inſtances the bones are uſually affected; but *abſceſſes* of every kind are bad, as they are apt to form ſinuous ulcers, and cariate the bones. The applications and general managements are as in other caſes.

An ABSCESS *of the Gums*, alſo called Parulis, a Gum Boil. Theſe tumors are very painful, the inflammation is often more diffuſed than inflammation in other parts, and more or leſs attended with a ſwelling in the cheek, or perhaps the whole face.

The tooth-ach, the general cauſes of inflammation, a carious tooth, &c. are the cauſes of this complaint. Mr. John Hunter obſerves, that gum boils ſeldom ariſe from any other cauſe than inflammation in the cavity of a tooth, the effect of which extends all over the face, but more particularly in the gums; that ſometimes this diſeaſe originates from a diſeaſe in the ſocket of the tooth, or in the jaw, without any connection with the tooth.

Through bad management, or neglect, they are apt to degenerate into fiſtulous ulcers.

During the inflammation, to aſſuage the pain, let the patient hold a decoction of barley (or of camomile or elder flowers, or other anodyne ingredients) conſtantly in his mouth, ſpitting it out, and taking freſh quantities, as may be needful to keep up an equal degree of heat, or, perhaps, the ſuppuration cannot be avoided; in which caſe let figs be ſplit and held in the mouth upon the boil, and white bread poultices (wrapped in thin linen cloths) applied hot on the out-ſide upon the cheek of the affected ſide; and as ſpeedily as is convenient, let the *abſceſs* be opened, for the contained matter ſoon corrodes the adjacent parts, and affects the bone. The diſcharge being made, the poultice may be continued a little longer, and the mouth waſhed three or four times a day with warm wine and honey of roſes.

If a bad tooth is the cauſe, it muſt be extracted before any attempts are made by medicines, or, at leaſt, as ſoon as the diſcharge of the *abſceſs* will permit.

If the ulcer degenerates into a fiſtula, inject warm wine and honey of roſes into it; and if it is ſuſpected that the bone is carious, add to this injection a little of the tinct. myrrh. or of the elix. propriet. If theſe methods fail, proceed as for the exfoliation of a carious bone. See EPULIS and PARULIS. On this ſubject, ſee Mr. John Hunter's Natural Hiſtory of the Human Teeth, part ii.

An ABSCESS *of the Heel.* The common cauſes of an *abſceſs* may produce it, but generally it is ſtrumous.

The principal object of particular attention is, that if there is a caries, the beſt method is to paſs an actual cautery through a canula. Wiſeman ſays it ſaves much time, and that thus the caries ſeldom ſeparates in the form of a ſcale, but moulders away inſenſibly with the matter.

ABSCESSES *of the Fingers and Toes.* Theſe are called paronychiæ, whitlows, fellons, &c. and are at the ends of the fingers and toes.

Abſceſſes in the fingers are generally ſtrumous. See PARONYCHIA.

An ABSCESS *in the Groin.* Theſe in this part, like thoſe in the arm-pit, are ſometimes occaſioned by injuries done to the parts below, as in the knees, legs, or toes; a peſtilential fever may be the cauſe, but the venereal diſeaſe is the moſt frequently ſo. See BUBO. If opened with a knife, be careful not to wound the inguinal artery. In venereal caſes a cauſtic is the beſt for opening them with, as it diſſolves part of the induration which too often remains after the greateſt part is ſuppurated, and alſo aſſiſts in digeſting the remainder. If *abſceſſes* in the groin, or in the arm-pit, are from the criſis of a fever, open them with a cauſtic, and keep them running till all danger from the fever is over. In glandular parts all that is hardened ſhould be perfectly diſſolved again; for inſtances have occurred, of cancers proceeding from remaining indurations.

ABSCESSES *on the Hands.* For the moſt part they are ſtrumous; when not, the common methods ſuffice for their removal.

An ABSCESS *on the Head.* Wounds on the head generally are the moſt ſpeedily healed; when an *abſceſs* is brought to the ſtate of a wound, the ſame advantages attend it, and the common methods ſuffice for the cure.

When *abſceſſes* are ſeated on the ſutures, they may be troubleſome by inflaming the dura mater which paſſes through them, and is continued to the pericranium. Every where on the ſcalp, a cauſtic is the beſt for opening *abſceſſes* with, eſpecially if the long confinement of the matter hath rendered the ſkull carious, for it makes ſome way for the raſpatory, which is always uſed, except where the ſutures are: exfoliation here is very ſlow, therefore raſping is uſed, and then incarnation can immediately proceed.

Abſceſſes over the forehead are beſt opened by inciſion, but care ſhould be obſerved, that the direction of the fibres may be followed, for a tranſverſe wound may cauſe the eye-lids to fall over the eyes.

An ABSCESS *in the Hip.* When an *abſceſs* forms itſelf in the ſocket, or the head of the thigh-bone, there is uſually a great ſwelling and lameneſs in the hip, and in time a collection of matter is made here alſo: however, this is not the only way it proceeds, for inſtances have occurred, in which it hath paſſed through the bottom of the acetabulum

acetabulum into the belly; and in theſe caſes when the patient went to ſtool, the matter by ſtraining was forced back, and through the external wound. Mr. Pott obſerves, that this diſeaſe originates in the hip-joint; yet, in this caſe, the leg of the affected ſide is ſhorter than the other, the pain begins where the diſeaſe originates, i. e. about the great trochanter. It is, he ſays, a diſtemper of the joints and ligaments that ſurround it. He farther adds, that, if we ſee ſcrophulous affections of any kind, in the beginning, if there is any remedy in art, I believe it to be iſſues; therefore in ſcrophulous hips, apply a large cauſtic on the part large enough to admit of five or ſix peas, and keep up the diſcharge thereby as long as it appears to be neceſſary. Alas! though this method, if early uſed, is much to be depended on, like many other valuable means, is uſually applied too late. See Psoa.

ABSCESSES *about the Jaws*. Beſides the common cauſes, a carious tooth, the tooth-ach, an injury done to the ſocket of the jaw in extracting a tooth, &c. may produce an *abſceſs* in theſe parts.

Abſceſſes under the chin are frequently found in children, but they eaſily give way to the common methods.

The conglobate glands under the jaws are very ſubject to ſuppuration, and are often miſtaken for ſtrumous ſwellings, but they differ greatly from them. The ſtrumous kind are contained in a cyſt, which requires to be deſtroyed by eſcharotics after the matter is diſcharged; but theſe are managed and cured with eaſe by the ordinary methods of digeſtion.

An ABSCESS *in the Inteſtines*. When an *abſceſs* in the inteſtines is diſcharged, the caſe is ſometimes miſtaken for a dyſentery; indeed, if the exulceration continues long, its treatment will be the ſame as in the dyſentery, though at the firſt the methods are far from ſimilar.

Before an *abſceſs* is formed in theſe parts, there is always a throbbing pain felt near the part affected. At the beginning of the ſuppuration there are unequal ſhiverings, which increaſe and remit; alſo a fever, with an exacerbation of the ſymptoms in the evening. When this accident follows an inflammation of the bowels, it begins in about four days after the attack of the inflammation, at which time a ſhivering comes on, which extends through the whole body, and an obtuſe pain, with a ſenſe of weight, is perceived by the part affected. After the pus is quite formed, the ſymptoms abate, and the pain nearly ceaſes, till the time of breaking approaches, and then the pain is renewed, and ſometimes the belly is violently conſtipated; after the diſcharge, a quantity of aqueous pus is thrown out by ſtool. See Actius Tetrabib. iii. ſerm. i. cap. 42. In about fourteen days the pus makes its way into the cavity of the belly, and produceth inconveniences ſimilar to thoſe ariſing from a diſcharge of the like kind from the liver: or, paſſing into the inteſtines, it runs off by ſtool. In this caſe, entire membranes are diſcharged, and a conſumption often follows.

If, on the firſt attack the means commended againſt an inflammation of the inteſtines fail, little more is to be done than to ſupply the patient with emollient and gently detergent broths, until by the continuance of the excretions the dyſenteric ſtate is arrived, when the procedure is as in a dyſentery.

Muſgrave, in treating of the irregular gout, obſerves, that ſometimes a gouty dyſentery degenerates into an *abſceſs* in the bowels. Celſus indeed obſerves, that large *abſceſſes* in theſe parts are not ſeldom the conſequence of fevers and pains, eſpecially of pains in the belly. Gouty *abſceſſes* are formed in the œſophagus, ſtomach, and guts, and that without giving any reaſon to ſuſpect them, till they break. However, as ſoon as the diſcharge is made, the patient ſhould avoid all exerciſe. To dilute and to deterge, let the following be uſed for common drink: ℞ Hord. perlat. ℥ ſs. rad. conſolid. min. ℥ i. coq. in aq. puriſſim. ℔ iij. ad ℔ j. & cola. If the purulent diſcharges are exceſſive, moderate them with ſmall doſes of the tinct. theb. in caſe of faintneſs a glaſs or two of wine may now and then be allowed; avoid all acids, acrids, and high cordials, and let the diet chiefly conſiſt of jellies, agglutinating broths, &c. at laſt, when all appearances of purulency have vaniſhed, the following may be uſed both to reſtore, and to prevent a relapſe. ℞ Gum myrrh. pulv. gr. v. balſ. locat. q. ſ. f. pil. iij. bis die repetend. cum hauſt. decoct. ſupra preſcript. See Warner on the Gout.

An ABSCESS *in the Kidney*. When an inflammation in the kidney ſuppurates, it is known by the following ſigns, viz. a remiſſion of the pain, which is ſucceeded by a pulſation, a frequently returning horror, a weight and ſtupor in the part, with a heat and tenſion, the urine is purulent and fetid ſometimes, and, at others, a whitiſh pus is diſcharged with it, in which is nothing offenſive.

If this ſuppuration continues ſome time, the whole kidney being conſumed, it forms a kind of bag of no uſe; and, in this caſe, a tabes renalis is frequently preſent; but if a ſmall quantity of the inflammatory matter remains coagulated in the minute folliculæ of the urine, it forms a baſis, to which the ſabulous matter which continually is paſſing by it will adhere, and gradually form a ſtone, and which alſo by the ſame means will be augmented.

When the *abſceſs* is burſt, the urine becomes purulent; and though in theſe caſes the diſcharge ceaſes, the kidney ſhrinks into a withered ſtate, and all complaints are ended at ſome certain period; yet to haſten this relief, diluting and gently diuretic liquors may be uſed, gentle laxatives and balſamics alſo, and probably the bark may much conduce to the expediting a cure.

ABSCESSES *in the lachrymal Glands*. Whatever may be the cauſe of theſe *abſceſſes*, thoſe to which they uſually are attributed ſeem not to have any ſuch effect; they uſually end in a fiſtula lachrymalis, to prevent which, an opening muſt be made into them: for the performance of which Mr. Sharpe hath given very ample inſtructions in his Treatiſe of the Operations of Surgery, and as this is ſo generally poſſeſſed, the reader is deſired to have recourſe thereto for the needful inſtructions.

An ABSCESS *of the Liver*. A ſuppuration is prognoſticated if an inflammation continues in the liver more than three days; if the pain remits, and is followed by a pulſation in the ſame place, and if ſhiverings come on, with a continuance of an icterical colour; ſoon after which a tumour is perceived in the region of the liver, and a ſenſe of weight alſo; a hectic fever follows with thirſt, and an extreme feebleneſs. Aretæus obſerves, that a pain generally extends to the throat, and to the extremity of the ſhoulder, and a dry, but not very frequent cough, afflicts the patient. He farther remarks, that this diſorder is ſometimes miſtaken for a tumor of the peritonæum, which latter is more irregular, and is not circumſcribed by the limits of the hypochondrium.

The conſequences of an *abſceſs* in this viſcus are:

1ſt, It is corroded and conſumed. In this caſe, after a tedious icterical waſting, a ſlow fever, great anxiety, a ſanious and fetid diarrhœa, &c. the patient dies.

2dly, The *abſceſs* breaks inwardly, and diſcharges a ſanious pus into the belly: thus the reſt of the viſcera become putreſcent, a conſumption of the whole body haſtily advances, and an aſcites, &c. uſher in death to cloſe the wretched ſcene.

3dly, The ſame ſort of pus paſſes by the biliary ducts into the inteſtines, and regurgitating into the ſtomach, cauſes various coloured and offenſive vomitings; or paſſing downwards, produces a violent diarrhœa. Acid and acreſcent ſubſtances may palliate for a time, but the end is always fatal.

4thly, The ichorous matter paſſing through the ramifications of the vena cava into the blood, procures ſymptoms the moſt formidable, the functions ſoon are diſturbed, and the diſorder only ends with life.

5thly, The tumor may adhere to the peritoneum, and form an external *abſceſs*, evident both to the ſight and touch. Here alone is any hope to perfect a cure; a cauſtic may be applied, and left to ſeparate: for, as is obſerved by Aretæus, an inciſion is not ſafe, becauſe it endangers a ſudden death by hæmorrhage, which in the liver cannot be reſtrained. He farther ſays, "If it is neceſſary to make a perforation, introduce a red hot iron as far as the pus, which will cut and cauterize together." The ſame author farther remarks, that "If the pus is well conditioned, and the ſymptoms ſoon ſubſide, the patient will recover; but otherwiſe this caſe is alſo fatal in its end."

6thly, and laſtly, Aretæus again informs us, that if the tumor does not ſuppurate, the excrements have an offenſive and putrid kind of odour; the food paſſes crude

and

and undigeſted, becauſe of the weakneſs of the ſtomach and of the inteſtines, for the liver ſo diſordered ſends forth a too defective bile to aſſiſt the digeſtion; whence ſome are afflicted with a ſharp corroding heat, and are worſe and worſe every day, and death is ſoon their delivery. Some recover from both the dyſentery and the *abſceſs*, but a dropſy cuts them off. But if theſe ſymptoms remit, and the pus in the ſtools becomes white, and of a good conſiſtence, and the patient can again digeſt his food, a good hope may be maintained in favour of his doing well. But as the beſt criſis, he notes that by urine, for thus the leaſt offence is given.

An ABSCESS *of the Loins.* See *An* ABSCESS *in the Back and Loins.*

An ABSCESS *of the Lungs:* it is alſo called a vomica. This diſorder often grows without any previous complaint, and, rupturing ſuddenly, is the death of the patient.

The unburſt vomica is called an occult, that which is burſt is called an open vomica.

The cauſes are many, particularly colds, inflammations, metaſtaſes of matter from other parts, &c.

That an *abſceſs* is formed in the lungs is evident, if after an inflammation there, ſhiverings are frequent, the cough grows troubleſome on exerciſe, and after eating, if the patient can only ſleep on the diſeaſed ſide, if he frequently cannot lay down at all, but ſits up without daring to lean to one ſide for fear of the cough and oppreſſion, he cannot ſleep, has a continual fever, and frequently an intermittent pulſe, a ſort of anguiſh at intervals is felt, and in the night there are ſweats, particularly on the breaſt and forehead, and ſudden hot flaſhings appear at times in the face; the urine is rediſh, and then grows oily; ſome have a diſagreeable taſte in the mouth, and fall away very manifeſtly; others are thirſty, their mouths and lips are parched, the voice grows weak and hoarſe, the eyes are hollow, and there is a kind of wildneſs in the looks.

When a vomica is formed, the ſymptoms increaſe, the whole ſide of the lungs becomes a bag of matter, compreſſes the ſound ſide, and creates great anguiſh, which ends either with a rupture of the *abſceſs*, and a diſcharge of its contents, or with the loſs of life. Hippocrates in his book of Prognoſtics deſcribes this caſe very well.

Aretæus particularly obſerves that the patient is hoarſe, breathes ſhort, ſpeaks in a deep tone, the thorax is enlarged, yet ſeems too narrow for the redundant phlegm, the black of the eye is ſhining, and the white is extremely white, as if it was fat, the cheeks are red, and the veins of the face very prominent.

If the *abſceſs* is not deeply ſeated in the lungs it burſts into the cavity of the breaſt, and forms an empyema; but if it is deep, the rupture will be into the bronchia; if the orifice is ſmall, ſo that but little matter is diſcharged at once, or if the quantity of all the matter is inconſiderable, and at the ſame time the patient is ſtrong, he coughs up what is contained in the lungs, and is ſenſibly relieved; but if the *abſceſs* is large, or its orifice wide, and a large quantity of pus is thrown out at once; or if the patient is weak, he dies the moment it breaks, and that is moſtly when it is the leaſt expected.

As a diſcharge into the bronchia is the ſafeſt, the aſſiſtance of art is beſt uſed to ſolicit the matter this way, and to effect it, the patient ſhould continually receive the vapours of warm water into his lungs. After this method is expected to have in ſome degree ſoftened the lungs, let the ſtomach be conſtantly kept filled with any agreeable emollient liquor: thus the reſiſtance to the lungs being conſiderable on that ſide, the *abſceſs* and its contents will be preſſed toward the wind-pipe, as there it will meet with leſs reſiſtance, the fulneſs of the ſtomach will incline the patient to cough, which may concur to produce a good event. At a proper time, the cough may be excited by ſnuffing a little vinegar up the noſe, or injecting a little into the throat; ſhouting, reading loud, or laughing, may anſwer the ſame end; or by jolting in a carriage, when the ſtomach is full, the *abſceſs* may burſt.

If on the evacuation of the offending matter the patient faints, the ſharpeſt vinegar ſhould be held to his noſe.

If the diſcharge is thin, brown, green, yellow, bloody, or of an offenſive ſmell, and at the ſame time the pulſe is quick and weak, the prognoſtic is unfavourable; but if the pus is well conditioned and white, if the fever and cough abate, if the ſweats go off, and the patient is, and continues to grow eaſier, if the expectoration gradually diminiſhes, and urine appears of a more healthy colour, a good hope may be formed of a cure being accompliſhed by due care and perſeverance.

In the cure it is uſual to adminiſter the warmer balſamics, but they heat and irritate too much; inſtead of theſe, let the patient be frequently ſupplied with barley, or with rice cream; if the matter is tough, give the ox. ſcil. to aſſiſt the expectoration; a milk diet ſhould ſteadily be perſiſted in; the bark may be given in ſmall doſes, gradually increaſing them; and gentle, but conſtant exerciſe, at firſt in a carriage, and then on horſeback.

After all, it ſometimes happens, that when all ſeems well, the *abſceſs* fills again, and though it emptieth itſelf by the bronchia, yet a ſucceſſion of moderate, and of ill health, fills up the remains of life. See Lommius's Obſervations.

An ABSCESS *of the Mediaſtinum.* In ſuch ſituations there is but little to be done for the relief of the patient; however, it is obſerved by ſeveral practitioners, that in the veneral diſeaſe this diſorder is peculiar and frequent.

An ABSCESS *of the Meſentery.* Suppurations in this part are not ſuſpected by many, becauſe neither heat nor pain are always perceived in it; but theſe ſymptoms, though commonly attendant on, yet are not eſſential to inflammation and ſuppuration, on the ſenſibility of the parts theſe depend. It may be obſerved, that pus is no where more readily formed than in parts that are every where covered with fat, becauſe the fat itſelf, in ſome degree, conduces thereto.

Abſceſſes in the meſentery are far from being rare, and are generally to be diſcovered by a continual hectic fever, an oppreſſive uneaſineſs in the belly, a diſcharge of a ſanious matter by ſtool, and ſometimes pain and heat in the inteſtines. The ſanious matter is alſo not unfrequently abſorbed by the veins, and being mixed with the blood, is conveyed to other emunctories, as the glands of the trachea, the kidnies, &c. Hence large impoſthumes of the meſentery are often accompanied with diſcharges of purulent urine, or a ſpitting of purulent matter, though at the ſame time no injury hath happened either to the lungs or to the kidnies. If the *abſceſs* is ſeated in a place leſs fit for the excretion of its contents, very troubleſome gripes, reſembling a colic, are produced: if the matter is diſcharged into a cavity of the belly, it produces a gangrene in the parts it touches, Horſtius, Bartholine, and Tulpius, giving inſtances of the pus being emptied into the cavity of the inteſtines, and ſo diſcharged by ſtool; but notwithſtanding all theſe circumſtances, for the moſt part the diagnoſtics are very obſcure; nay, theſe *abſceſſes* have been unſuſpected, and diſſection after death hath alone given any notice of them.

If theſe ſort of tumors are ſuſpected, they muſt be diſtinguiſhed both from an inflammation and a ſcirrhus.

In general, the prognoſtic is dangerous; for if the *abſceſs* breaks and diſcharges a very putrid matter into the belly, ſudden death follows; if after the rupture the ulcer is not ſpeedily cured, it acquires a bad quality, and induces a gangrene, a dropſy, or a conſumption.

If this complaint is manifeſt, and the tumor can be perceived, emollients may be applied externally, and internally may be adminiſtered aperient and gentle purgative medicines, and ſuch things as are uſed in obſtructions of the liver and ſpleen, &c.

Theſe ſuppurations are generally in the glands of the meſentery, and are only one amongſt other ſcrophulous attendant ſymptoms. Theſe glands are often found after death in a ſcirrhous ſtate, and thus are frequently the companions of a cancer here, or in ſome other glandular part.

Riverius ſpeaks largely and well on this ſubject. See his Prax. Med. lib. xiii.

An ABSCESS *of the Neck.* This part is affected with tumors of every kind, but generally the ſcrophulous and encyſted occupy it. *Abſceſſes* here are apt to become fiſtulous, but by proper compreſs and bandage this effect is often prevented. An opening in this part is beſt made with a lancet; but if the jugular vein is near, ſome care is required not to wound it.

An ABSCESS *in the Noſtril.* Theſe from the pain they occaſion are exceeding troubleſome. If in the inflammatory ſtate they can be removed by bleeding, purging, bliſtering the back, &c. much trouble to the patient will be ſaved; if, in ſpite of all, ſuppuration advances, emollient injections may be thrown up the affected noſtril, and a warm cataplaſm laid upon the noſe. Wiſeman obſerves that the matter when digeſted is very tough.

An ABSCESS *in the Nymphæ.* See Alæ.

An ABSCESS *of the Pancreas.* This complaint is the moſt common in ſcorbutic habits. Riolan ſays, that its preſence is probably gueſſed at by a ſenſe of weight in the region of the ſtomach, no hardneſs nor tumor being manifeſt in the hypochondria, particularly if there are other marks of latent obſtructions in the abdominal viſcera; alſo a difficulty of breathing from the compreſſion of the diaphragm; and ſometimes by preſſing near the ſide of the ſtomach a tumor is perceptible, and then the preſſure cauſes pain. Though for the moſt part the diagnoſtics are very obſcure or uncertain, yet it may be obſerved that a hectic fever, long watchings, ſhort ſleeps, followed by a ſenſe of wearineſs, fainting, and cold ſweats, are certain attendants when this diſeaſe is preſent.

The cure is the ſame as in ſimilar diſorders of the other viſcera. See Riverius's Prax. Med. lib. xiii. cap. 4.

An ABSCESS *of the Parotid Glands*, alſo called parotis.

The parotid glands ſuppurate with difficulty, the leſs ſo when the general habit is diſordered, a venereal, ſcorbutic, peſtilential, or other affection attends.

They are apt to become fiſtulous; though when they ariſe in children, unattended by any other diſeaſe, there is no danger of ill conſequences, and in ſuch circumſtances the beſt remedies are purgatives, mixed with ſmall doſes of the merc. dulc. frequently repeated.

In more advanced life, Trallian lays it down as a rule, that if called early to aſſiſt in ſuch a caſe, the cure muſt begin with bleeding: and Celſus with great judgment propoſes, that "When the parotis is unattended with any other diſorder, the cure may begin with repellents and diſcutients; but, on the contrary, if any other complaint hath preceded or attends, ſuppuration muſt be immediately promoted."

The management under ſuppuration is the ſame as in other ſimilar caſes, viz. the Bubo, which ſee.

An ABSCESS *of the Pericardium.* See the article Pericardium.

An ABSCESS *in the Perinæum.* An *abſceſs* if ſuſpected to be forming in this part ſhould, if convenient, be prevented, becauſe of its troubleſome effects; it retards, or totally prevents the diſcharge of urine; beſides, by the nearneſs of the os pubis, thoſe ſpongy bones may be affected, and conſequences to be dreaded have been the event. If a ſuppuration is actually begun, proceed as with other *abſceſſes.* See a ſingular caſe in Le Dran's Obſervations.

An ABSCESS *of the Periоſteum.* This caſe is known by evident inflammation and pulſation in the part, the fever, irregular ſhiverings, and particularly an abſence of the ſigns of reſolution. As the ſuppuration approaches and proceeds, all the ſymptoms are augmented; but the principal ſign is the irregular horripilation. Sometimes the diagnoſtics are obſcure, becauſe the quantity of matter collected, though productive of violent ſymptoms, is too ſmall to raiſe a ſenſible tumor, and in ſuch caſes the pain does not remit, though the pus is formed; beſide, the matter gradually increaſing in quantity, unleſs it corrodes the periоſteum, it makes itſelf a paſſage between it and the ſubjacent bone, and, thus by gradually ſeparating them, keeps up a pain of the moſt intolerable kind.

An accident of this kind ſeon lays the bone bare, and corrupts it by deſtroying the veſſels which nouriſh it. The pus becoming acrid, alſo corrodes the periоſteum, and ſpreading through the ſofter parts, produces fiſtulous ulcers.

When this diſorder is manifeſt, a ſpeedy diſcharge is to be aimed at, and the bone muſt be treated in the ſame manner as the ſkull when denudated. Firſt make an inciſion through the teguments only, for when the periоſteum is corroded, the matter generally ſoon makes a way betwixt the muſcles, in which caſe it is a guide to the operator in piercing to the bone, which when laid bare, the remaining procedure will be as in deep *abſceſſes*, and when the ſkull is deprived of its pericranium.

An ABSCESS *of the Pleura.* When this is ſuſpected, our utmoſt care is required to obtain a diſcharge externally, to which end an opening muſt be made into it as early as poſſible, leſt it burſt into the cavity of the breaſt, and form an empyema. See many ſatisfactory remarks on this ſubject in Sharpe's Critical Enquiry, and in Le Dran's Obſervations and Operations.

An ABSCESS *in the Pudenda.* See Alæ.

An ABSCESS *under the Pſoas Muſcle.* Mr. Potts obſerves, that this *abſceſs* is generally formed in the region of the kidnies, that it growing too heavy, falls down into the groin, or ſome other part of the thigh. This *abſceſs* is called pſoas, from the tumor ſliding in its fall upon the ſide of the pſoas, or between it and the iliacus internus. It requires nothing peculiar in order to its removal. See Abscess *in the Back and Loins*, and alſo Psoas.

An ABSCESS *of the Spleen.* This viſcus is rarely affected herewith, but when it is, and the ſuppuration is completed, for the moſt part it is eaſily perceived by the preſſure of a finger; when this tumor is ready to break, the naufea and anxiety are very great. Sometimes, indeed, an *abſceſs* is formed in this part, and eſcapes all obſervation, on account of its exciting no uneaſy ſymptoms. Lommius ſays, in his Medical Obſervations, that an *abſceſs* in the ſpleen is attended with nearly the ſame ſigns as attend the ſame complaint in the liver: and Aretæus obſerves, that a dropſical kind of ſwelling attends the patient, his ſkin is of a blackiſh and greeniſh colour, he is reſtleſs, breathes with difficulty, his belly is tumid with vapours, and there is a ſort of a cough, by which but little is diſcharged.

When this kind of *abſceſs* burſts, there is no pure digeſted pus but an aſh-coloured, or a brown or livid matter; and if it is deep, a blackiſh ſort of humor, with ſome of the juice of the tabid ſpleen is evacuated.

If the fæces are watery, and become more ſo, the diſorder ends well; but if the ulcer continues long, a loſs of appetite comes on with a general bad habit of body, livid coloured and foul ulcers break out, particularly on the legs, and in ſhort a ſtop to affliction is only by death's approach.

Endeavours to prevent ſuppuration ſhould not be neglected as ſoon as the complaint is perceived; if thoſe fail, cataplaſms of the briony root are preferred as the moſt effectual digeſtive. See Oribaſ. de Morb. Curat. lib. iii. cap. 43. Paulus Ægineta, lib. iv. cap. 18.

An ABSCESS *of the Temporal Muſcle.* The violent pain occaſioned by an inflammation and ſuppuration in this part, is from the tendinous ſheath which covers it, by which the matter is ſo confined, that it can only eſcape downwards under the zygomatic proceſs, and ſo points into the mouth on the outſide of the dentes molares, where when it hath advanced, it may be aſſiſted by a puncture to diſcharge itſelf. Dr. Hunter obſerves, that when the pain hath been violent, and the fever excited thereby conſiderable, he hath with advantage made an inciſion along the muſcles; and he adviſes, when an inflammation is conſiderable, that we open the part without delay, for we never can perceive any fluctuation there, as the faſcia is ſo tight.

An ABSCESS *of the Tonſils.* *Abſceſſes* here endanger ſuffocation. In the beginning then endeavour to obtain a cure by bleeding, purging, or bliſtering between the ſhoulders, and ſuch other means as the caſe may require, or diſcretion admit; but if, as ſometimes happens, all means failing, a ſuppuration ſhould take place, an inciſion or two may be made with a lancet into the body of the tumor. Thus by diſcharging ſome of the blood and humors before they are formed into pus, the dangerous degree of ſwelling is prevented. It is never prudent to leave the matter till it is formed into perfect pus, but at the lateſt, the puncture ſhould be made as ſoon as the appearance of digeſted matter can be perceived. It happens ſometimes, that when the patient is on the point of ſuffocation, a ſudden ſpontaneous diſcharge gives inſtant relief; as ſoon as the tonſils have emptied themſelves, they contract, and by the aſſiſtance of a gargle, made with the decoct. cort. ulmi. & mel. roſar. a cure is completed in a few days.

An ABSCESS *in the Womb.* When an inflammation here begins to ſuppurate, bladders of warm water ſhould be

be applied over the part moſt aggrieved; frequent inceſſions are alſo to be adviſed.

Oribaſius obſerves, that theſe *abſceſſes* ſometimes diſcharge themſelves into the cavity of the uterus, at others into the inteſtinum rectum, or into the bladder. Foreſtus ſays, that if the diſcharge is into the cavity of the womb, and is whitiſh, the patient may recover; but the ulcer continuing, too often is productive of diſcouraging effects.

N. B. When enquiry is made concerning an *abſceſs* of any particular part, the reader will do well if he turns alſo to what is ſaid on an inflammation and ulcer of the ſame.

Authors to be conſulted on *abſceſſes* are Hippocrates, Aretæus, Celſus, Paulus, Ægineta, Oribaſius, Aetius, Actuarius, Hildanus, &c. and among thoſe of later date, Boerhaave, Wiſeman, Turner, Heiſter, Sharp, Deaſe, and Bell.

ABSCESSUS ſpirituoſus. The ſame as ANEURISMA.

ABSCISSIO, an abſciſion, or cutting off any thing, or a part of it. From *ab* and *ſcindo*, *to cut*.

Ἀποκοπή, *abſciſſio* is uſed in many ſenſes, but moſtly to expreſs the cutting away an unſound part, and that a ſoft one; for the cutting away of bones is called amputation; though when ſmall fragments only are to be ſeparated, the word *abſciſſio* is ſometimes uſed. This word alſo expreſſes the ſudden termination of a diſeaſe in death, before it arives at its decline. Celſus to expreſs a loſs of voice, frequently ſays abſciſſa vox.

ABSINTHIUM. Wormwood.

Ἀψίνθιον, *unpleaſant*. Authors vary much in their account of the etymology of this word. However, the Engliſh name is originally an Anglo-Saxon one.

Botaniſts enumerate no leſs than thirty-two different ſpecies.

The ſort in uſe are as follow:

1. *Abſinthium* Vulgare, called alſo *abſinthium* latifolium, *abſinthium* Ponticum ſeu Romanum officinarum. It is the artemiſia *abſinthium* vulgaris, foliis compoſitis multifidis, floribus ſubglobоſis pendulis, receptaculo villoſo of Linnæus, who calls it artemiſia *abſinthium*.

Common wormwood.

Wormwood is a perennial plant, with hoary divided leaves, firm woody ſtalks, which die in winter, ſmall yellow diſcous flowers, hanging downwards along the ſides of the ſtalks and branches. It hath alſo thick woody roots.

The common ſort grows in lanes and waſte places, hath large leaves, divided into ſeveral deeply indented ſegments, of a whitiſh green colour above, and whiter underneath, they are broader than thoſe of any other ſpecies; it flowers in June and July. When the ſeeds are ripened, it dies to the ground, except a little tuft, which endures the winter.

2. *Abſinthium* Romanum, called alſo *abſinthium* tenuifolium, *abſinthium* Ponticum, *abſinthium* minus. It is the artemiſia *abſinthium* Pontica tenuifolia, foliis multipartitis ſubtus tomentoſis, floribus ſubrotundis nutantibus receptaculo nudo of Linnæus.

Roman wormwood.

It hath numerous and finely divided, dark coloured leaves, hoary only underneath, the ſtalks are purpliſh, and all its parts are ſmaller than thoſe of the other ſpecies. It is a native of Italy, ſome ſay of Hungary and Thrace; but as hardy and as eaſily raiſed as the other ſpecies; the roots ſoon ſpread, and ſend up new ſtalks in abundance.

3. *Abſinthium* Maritimum, called alſo *abſinthium* ſeriphium, *abſinthium* marinum. It is the artemiſi *abſinthium* ſeriphium tenuifolia marina Narbonenſis of Linnæus.

Sea wormwood.

This is alſo called Roman wormwood, but very improperly. Its leaves are finely divided, and hoary all over; it grows in our ſalt marſhes, and on the ſea coaſts.

4. *Abſinthium* Alpinum. Mountain wormwood. It is alſo called artemiſia, and genipi. It is procumbent, fine leaved, and covered with a gloſſy ſilk-like down. It grows on the Alps, &c. but not uſed in England.

5. *Abſinthium* Valeſiacum, called alſo *abſinthium* ſeriphium, and herba alba.

Mountain wormwood of Valais.

It is erect, fine leaved, and covered with a cotton-like down; the leaves are curled about the edges, are pulpy alſo, and of an oblong rounded figure. It grows on ſandy roads in Switzerland.

All the ſpecies have nearly the ſame properties. The *abſinthium* maritim. is leſs unpleaſant than the *abſinthium* vulg. even its eſſential oil is more agreeable than the oil diſtilled from the other. This ſpecies is not ſo antiſeptic as the common ſort, but it is a better ſtomachic, and in this it differs but little from the Roman. The *abſinthium* Romanum is leſs diſagreeable than either the common or the ſea wormwoods, and is the moſt eligible of the three as a ſtomachic and corroborant; it agrees with the abrotanum fœmin. and with the flor. cham. better than with the *abſinthium* com. being not ſo ſtimulating; the *abſinthium* maritimum is often ſubſtituted for it. The two laſt named ſorts are not introduced into this country; but Haller informs us, that the *abſinthium* alpinum is bitteriſh, aromatic, and uſeful againſt intermittents: he alſo ſays, that the *abſinthium* Valeſiacum is acrid and aromatic, but not bitter.

The common wormwood hath a ſtrong ſmell, and is intenſely bitter to the taſte. Theſe qualities are moſt remarkable in the leaves, which loſe part of their ill ſmell by drying. The flowers are nearly as bitter as the leaves, but leſs nauſeous; the roots are warm and aromatic, without the bitterneſs of the other parts of the plant.

The whole plant powerfully reſiſts putrefaction, hence it is a principal ingredient in antiſeptic fomentations. It is uſeful in all cold phlegmatic diſorders, and where there is a defect of bile; it is a warm ſtomachic, but gives place to more agreeable bitters, though its extract, made with water, is a very agreeable and ſimple bitter, and is the beſt way of giving this otherwiſe offenſive medicine. Taken in vinegar, it removes the oppreſſion occaſioned by eating muſhrooms, and is an antidote againſt the poiſon of the white chamæleon, and of hemlock.

It is hurtful when the fibres are too tenſe; in ſuch conſtitutions a frequent uſe of it in wines, &c. produces a general waſting, the ſight is particularly injured by it. It is deſtructive to bees, keeps inſects from granaries, and kill moths.

This herb gives out all its virtues by maceration, either to water, or to ſpirit; but the watery infuſion without heat is the moſt grateful.

The preparations from wormwood now in uſe are not ſo numerous as formerly; the principal of them are as follow.

Extractum Abſinthii.

Boil the dried leaves of wormwood in water, ſupplying freſh water as required, until the herb hath given out all its virtues, ſtrain the liquor through flannel, and evaporate it with a gentle heat to a due conſiſtence for making into ſoft pills.

This extract hath all the bitter of the herb, without its ill flavour; the water carries off in evaporating all the oil, in which the offenſive flavour reſides; whence, to ſave both trouble and expence, the liquor which remains after diſtilling the eſſential oil may be ſaved, to obtain the extract from, care being taken not to have uſed a dirty ſtill, nor let the liquor remain in it long before it is taken out for the intended evaporation.

An extract made with ſpirit hath all the flavour as well as the bitter.

Oleum Eſſent. Abſinth.

Freſh wormwood leaves, moderately dried, when diſtilled with water, give out their whole taſte and odour thereto, and with the water ariſes their eſſential oil, in which is their nauſeous taſte and flavour, but none of their bitterneſs.

In ſome ſeaſons ℔ x. of this herb yields ℥ ij. or more of its oil, in others ℔ xx. will hardly yield ℥ i. In rainy ſeaſons, and in moiſt ſoils, it affords its oil in the greateſt quantities. In drier ſeaſons the oil is more reſinous, and of a green colour.

This oil is extolled by Hoffman as an antiſpaſmodic and anodyne. From one to three drops it is given as an antiſpaſmodic, or he diſſolves ʒ j. in ℥ j. of the ſp. vini. R. and directs ſix or ten drops for a doſe in any convenient vehicle. Boerhaave commends it in tertian fevers, thus, ℞ Ol. abſ. gt. vij. ſac. alb. ʒ j. bene triturat. & adde ſal tartari ʒ ij. aq. abſ. ℥ vij. m. Of this mixture he orders the patient

to

to take ℥ ij. two hours before the fit approaches, and to repeat the ſame quantity every quarter of an hour, until the two hours are expired; but before beginning with this medicine the feet ſhould be bathed in warm water. He alſo orders this oil to be made up with the crum of bread into pills, which are to be given two hours before each meal, to deſtroy worms.

The oil of the *abſinthium* maritim. is more agreeable than that of the *abſinthium* vulg. and it poſſeſſes all the virtues of the plant.

Conſerva Abſ. Maritim.

Take the tender tops of the ſea wormwood, and pick from them all the harder part of the ſtalks; then beat them into a conſerve with tripple their weight of lump-ſugar.

This conſerve ſhould be made freſh every year; alone it is an uſeful medicine in ſome caſes where the herb is indicated, and deſerves a place in the ſhops as well as any of the tribe.

Sal Abſinth. Salt of Wormwood.

It is made by burning the dried herb to aſhes, as in making other fixt alkaline ſalts. See the article ALCALI.

The ſalt of tartar or pot-aſh diſſolved, filtered and evaporated to dryneſs, is uſually ſubſtituted for the ſalt of wormwood; which laſt is of a browniſh colour, from a portion of its oil which is retained. The following method more certainly diſcovers the difference betwixt theſe two ſalts: if a few drops of the ol. vitriol. is let fall on a ſmall quantity of the ſal *abſinthium*, an effervescence only is excited; but with the ſal tart. a nitrous fume ariſes alſo. But, notwithſtanding this ſpecific difference manifeſted by the ol. vitr. no ſenſible one is obſerved by their indiſcriminate uſe in the practice of medicine: ſome prefer the ſal *abſinthium*, for making the ſaline mixtures, particularly when a ſickneſs of the ſtomach demands their uſe; but is not this more from ſpeculating on the qualities of the eſſential oil of wormwood, and forgetting that the ſpecific difference in the oils of different plants is deſtroyed in preparing their reſpective lixivial ſalts, rather from the manifeſt effects produced by the mixtures made with the two ſalts in diſpute? Particular portions of the common pot-aſh, by particular management in preparing it, is rendered very acrid, and to this circumſtance only does any objection ſeem proper.

ABSINTHIUM ALPINUM. See ABSINTHIUM. It is alſo a name of a ſpecies of Ptarmica.

ABS. CORYMB. ANUUM, golden cudweed.

ABS. SANTONICUM INDICUM, i. e. ſantonicum.

ABS. TENUIFOL. CORYMB. &c. golden cudweed.

ABSORBENTIA, Abſorbents; from *abſorbeo*, *to ſwallow* or *drink up into themſelves*. All medicines which have the power of drying up redundant humors, either internally or externally, are thus denominated. Theſe conſiſt of ſea-ſhells, coral, burnt hartſhorn, crabs-eyes, chalk, boles, &c.

Under this claſs are included ſuch medicines as are called edulcorants, for that term can only ſignify that the animal fluids are by them rendered leſs ſharp; and this is only effected by breaking off the points of their particles, or by ſo abſorbing them by ſoft and porous bodies that they cannot be perceived; increaſe of motion does the firſt, *abſorbent* medicines do the latter.

Abſorbents are a ſpecies of demulcents.

The fixed alcaline ſalts, beſides their *abſorbent* virtue, being joined with acids, acquire other properties; for they incide and diſſolve viſcid and tough humors, and by a gentle ſtimulus either move the belly, promote urine, or become diaphoretic.

Iron, coral, bole, chalk, &c. have a degree of aſtringency.

Abſorbents are not convenient where a viſcid colluvies abounds in the ſtomach, as is often the caſe in burning, bilious, and hectic fevers; but are very proper to prepare the body for evacuations when acidities abound in the firſt paſſages.

If the intention is to *abſorb*, aſtringe, and ſtrengthen at the ſame time, give chalk, coral, oyſter or egg-ſhells; if to reſtrain a ſeminal flux, ſome prefer the cuttle bone; if to looſen the belly, give magneſia; if to provoke urine, the crabs-eyes; if to promote perſpiration, the burnt hartſhorn; if to diſſolve coagulated blood, the crabs-eyes diſſolved in vinegar.

The word *Abſorbentia* is alſo applied to ſeveral veſſels in the human body, viz. the lacteals which abſorb the chyle; the cutaneous veſſels, which admit of water from the atmoſphere, and from baths, &c. to enter into the body, and other veſſels which, opening into a cavity in the body, either naturally or accidentally take up any fluids that are extravaſated, and convey them into the circulating blood. See the next Article.

ABSORBERE, *to abſorb*, *drink up*, or *ſuck up*. The veſſels abſorbent are called alſo lacteals and lymphatics, which ſee. The following kinds of abſorption take place in our bodies, viz. the nutrition is abſorbed from the inteſtines, by veſſels called there, lacteals, which are the ſame abſorbents as are every where elſe; ſecondly, by bibulous orifices over the external parts of our bodies; thirdly, by the ſame kind on the internal ſurfaces of all cavities, as is evident from an aſcites going off from this abſorption ſometimes. Dr. Hunter ſays, that abſorption is ſolely the office of the lymphatics.

As to abſorption through the ſkin, let it be conſidered that the uſe of baths, fomentations, &c. are founded thereon, and alſo that they demonſtrate how great a quantity of fluid may be received into the body this way. After rubbing the hand well, it hath, in a quarter of an hour, imbibed an ounce and a half of warm water; at the ſame rate then the whole body would have received ſix or ſeven pounds. Dr. Monro, ſenr. of Edinburgh, ſays that the power of abſorption leſſens with our ſtrength. Dr. Cruikſhanks remarks, in Mr. Clare's Eſſay on Abſceſſes, &c. that there are abſorbent veins which open into the cavities of the body is evident, when we conſider that in an aſcites the extravaſated fluid is frequently received into the circulation, and then is diſcharged by urine or by ſtool. And, as Dr. Hunter hath obſerved, this affair is demonſtrated beyond a doubt by the following experiment made on a living dog: an opening was made into the cavity of his belly, and three quarts of warm water were injected therein and ſecured; in about ſix hours after he was examined, and not above four ounces of the water was remaining there.

Farther ſatisfaction on this ſubject may be received from what is ſaid on the power of the external abſorption of the human body by Dr. Wilkinſon, in the Medical Muſeum, vol. ii. p. 117, &c. And with reſpect to abſorption in the internal parts, ſee Dr. Hunter's Medical Commentaries; alſo obſervations thereon by Dr. Garner, in the Med. Muſ. vol. ii. p. 229, &c.

ABSTERGENTIA, from *abſtergeo*, *to wipe off*; *abſtergents* or cleanſing medicines. They are of the ſaponaceous nature, capable of diſſolving concretions formed of earth and oil, &c. which water, ſimply as an abluent, cannot effect.

ABSTERSIVUS, Abſterſive, cleanſing, wiping away.

ABSTINENTIA, Abſtinence. This, when duly regulated, is moſt uſeful to the ſedentary, as a preventive of diſeaſes.

ABSTRACTITIUS, Abſtractitious. Thus the native ſpirits of aromatic vegetables are called, to diſtinguiſh them from ſpirits produced by fermentation.

ABSUS. The Egyptian lotus. See Raii Hiſt.

ABUL-CASEM. See ALBUCASIS.

ABUTILON, an Arabic name for the yellow mallow; of which Miller enumerates ſixteen ſpecies.

ABVACUATIO, or Abevacuatio. See APOCENOSIS.

ABVOLATIO, Abvolation, flying away.

ABYSSUS, Abyſs. In the chemical language this word ſignifies a receptacle for the ſeminal matter from which all things are formed. Others uſe the word for the firſt matter of which all things are formed.

ACACALIS, a ſhrub bearing a papilionaceous flower, and a ſiliquous fruit, called alſo kirmeſen. Heychius explains ἀκακαλὶς to be the flower of the Narciſſus. Raii Hiſt.

ACACIA, from ἀκάζω, to ſharpen. The Egyptian thorn, or binding bean-tree.

Several ſpecies are enumerated by botaniſts, but the two ſorts uſed in medicine are,

1. *Acacia* Vera, called by Caſpar Bauhine *acacia* foliis ſcorpioidis leguminoſæ; and by others, *acacia* vera Ægyptiaca;

tica; and ſpina Egyptiaca. It is the mimoſa nilotica, or mimoſa Egyptiaca, ſpinis ſtipularibus patentibus, fol. bipinnatis partialibus extimis glandula interſtinctis flore luteo, ſpicis globoſis pedunculatis of Linnæus.

The true *acacia* or Egyptian thorn.

2. *Acacia* Germanica, called alſo prunus ſylveſtris. It is the prunus ſpinoſa, or prunus ſylveſtris ſpinoſa, fol. lanceolatis, pedunculis ſolitariis of Linnæus.

The German *acacia*, or the German black-thorn, or ſloe-tree.

The Egyptian thorn produces the true gum arabic. It is remarkable that the leaves and flowers of the black thorns are purgative, though the juice from the other parts are binding.

The *acacia* uſed in medicine and brought from Egypt, is a mild, ſubaſtringent, gummy ſubſtance; we receive it in roundiſh pieces, wrapped up in bladders; it is of a blackiſh brown colour outwardly, but of a tan colour inwardly; of a hardiſh conſiſtence, but not quite dry. Lemery ſays, that "it is made by expreſſion out of the fruit of the Egyptian thorn, and that either ripe or unripe: from the ripe fruit there is a black juice, from the unripe a red or yellowiſh one, and of a ſweet ſcent; and that this laſt is what is intended by Dioſcorides." It hath no ſmell; applied to the tongue it ſoon ſoftens, is of a moderately rough but an agreeable taſte, which is followed by a ſweetiſhneſs: it totally diſſolves in water, ſo if any part is unaffected thereby, that is a fraudulent addition; rectified ſpirit diſſolves but very little of it, and in this it differs from moſt of the vegetable aſtringents, for they generally give out their virtue to ſpirit of wine as well as to water.

The German *acacia* is the inſpiſſated juice of the German wild ſloes; it is of the ſame nature as the true ſort: but in England, the inſpiſſated juice of unripe ſloes of our own growth is the general ſubſtitute; it is harder, heavier, darker coloured, being almoſt black, and ſharper taſted than the true ſort.

Succus Prunorum Sylveſt. ſive Acacia Germanica.

Over a very gentle fire inſpiſſate the juice of unripe ſloes.

The doſe is from ℈ j. to ʒ j. See PRUNUS SYLVESTRIS.

ACACIA ALTERA TRIFOLIA, a ſpecies of laburnum.

ACACIA FERREA, an iron ſpoon.

ACACIA GLORIOSA, a name of the bonduch.

ACACIA (gum) i. e. gum arabic.

ACACIA INDIANA, i. e. tamarinds.

ACACIA MALABARICA GLOBOSA, i. e. intiſia.

ACACIA ORBIS AMERICANI, i. e poinciana.

ACACIA ZEYLANICA, i. e. logwood.

Acacia is alſo a name of the courbaril.

ACACOS, from α, negative, and κακὸς, *bad*. It is applied to diſtempers that are more troubleſome than dangerous: alſo to the aphthæ of children.

ACAHI, alum water.

ACAIAIBA, or Acajaiba, the Braſilian name for the anacardium occident. See ACAJAIBA.

ACAID, vinegar.

ACAJA, alſo called prunus Braſilienſis. It is a large tree growing in Braſil. It produces cluſters of yellowiſh white flowers, which are followed by yellow plums, with a large ſtone in them. The leaves are acid and aſtringent, and are an agreeable ſauce with meat; the wood is light as cork, and of a red colour; the buds and tops are uſed as pickles. Raii Hiſt.

ACAJAIBA. See ACAIAIBA. The *acajaiba* is alſo called pomifera & prunifera Indica, anacardium, cajum, & kapa mara. It is the anacardium pruniferum Indicum, nuce reniformi of Linnæus.

The cajou or caſſu tree.

There is but one ſpecies yet known, and this is the acajou, or caſhew nut, ſo common in America, and in the Weſt Indian iſlands. It produces its fruit in Auguſt and September, except in Braſil, where it is a native, and there it flowers in Auguſt and September, and bears its fruit in December, which, when roaſted, is as agreeable as an almond. If you bite the whole fruit when raw, it excoriates the mouth; therefore it muſt firſt be cut open, dipped in water, and ſprinkled with ſalt.

The acrid oil in the ſhell deſtroys tetters, ring-worms, the Guinea-worm, &c. The painters uſe it to make their black colouring durable.

The tree when wounded yields a gum, which reſembles the gum arabic. Raii Hiſt.

ACAJOU. See ACAJAIBA. It is alſo a name of the anacardium occident.

ACAJOUANUM LIGNUM. This is not the wood of the tree that bears the acajou nut. It is mentioned by Geoffroy as being of a red colour, and never affected by worms, therefore fit for furniture.

ACAJUIBA BRASIL. i. e. ancardium occident.

ACALAI, ſalt.

ACALCUM, tin.

ACALEPHE, ἀκαλήφη, a nettle, from α, a negative, καλὸς, *handſome* or *agreeable*, and ἁφὴ, a *touch*, becauſe the touch, as it hurts, is not agreeable.

There is alſo a fiſh and a ſea-fowl thus named.

ACANOR, a chemical furnace.

ACANTHA, from ακὴ, a *point*; ἀκάνθα, any ſort of thorn; any thing prickly, or with ſharp points; alſo the ſhin, or ſpine of the tibia; and ſometimes the ſpina dorſi.

ACANTHABOLUS, from ἀκάνθα, a *thorn*, and βάλλω *to caſt*, or *caſt out*. It is an inſtrument deſcribed by Paulus Ægineta, for taking out thorns, or other ſuch like things, when ſtuck into the fleſh.

ACANTHA CAUCAS. A ſpecies of globe thiſtle.

ACANTHACEOUS. A botanic term applied to the plants of the thiſtle kind, which are prickly.

ACANTHALZÛCA, the ſame as echinopus, or glove-thiſtle.

ACANTHICE, ἀκανθικὴ μαστίχη, ſuppoſed to be the product of the carline thiſtle.

ACANTHINA MASTICHE, the pine thiſtle.

ACANTHINUM (gum) i. e. gum arabic.

ACANTHION, the hedge-hog. See ECHINUS.

ACANTHIUM, the cotton thiſtle.

ACANTHOIDES PARV. A ſpecies of carline thiſtle.

ACANTHUS, from ἀκάνθα, *a thorn*. It is alſo called branca urſina, *acanthus* ſativus vel mollis virgilii, carduus *acanthus*.

Bear's breech, or brank urſine.

Miller mentions five ſpecies. It is a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, cultivated in our gardens, flowers in June and July, and is perennial.

The roots are very mucilaginous, and the leaves are in a leſſer degree ſo. This mucilage is inſipid, ſoftening, and a good ſubſtitute for the marſh-mallow.

The herb-women too often ſell the leaves of helleboraſter, or bear's foot, or ſphondylium, or cow's parſnep, for the bear's breech.

The common bear's breech is the *acanthus* mollis ſativus, foliis ſinuatis inermibus of Linnæus.

ACANUS THEOPHRASTI, a ſpecies of thiſtle.

ACAPATLI, long-pepper.

ACAPNON, ἀκάπνον, i. e. ſampſuchum, or marjoram.

ACARI, a ſmall inſect which is ſaid to breed in wax; alſo an inſect in the ſkin like a louſe.

ACARNA THEOPHRASTI, the fiſh thiſtle; alſo a ſea fiſh.

ACARON, the wild myrtle.

ACARTUM, red-lead.

ACARUS, i. e. acari.

ACATALIS, a juniper-berry.

ACATAPOSIS, difficulty of ſwallowing. See DEGLUTITIO.

ACATERA, the larger or black juniper.

ACATHARSIA, from α, *non*, and καθαίρω, *to purge*. That impurity in a diſeaſed body, which is not yet purged off.

ACAULIS, of α, negative, and *caulis*, a *ſtalk* or *ſtem*. A plant is ſaid to be *acaulis*, or without a ſtalk, whoſe flower reſts on the ground, as in the carline thiſtle.

ACAULOS, the ſame as acaulis. And Caſpar Bauhine calls the carline thiſtle, *acaulos* magno flore.

ACAZDIR, tin.

ACATEM, or ACCATUM, i. e. aurichalcum.

ACCELERATORES URINÆ. Called alſo *urinæ* ſtimulatores. They haſten the ejection of the urine.

The *accelerator urinæ*, ariſes fleſhy from the ſphincter ani, and ſuperior part of the urethra, and tendinous from the iſchium. It is inſerted into the corpus cavernoſum, from near their beginning to a little below their union. Douglas.

Dr. Hunter obſerves, that the *acceleratores urinæ* are fixed to, and ſurround the bulbous part of the urethra, meeting in a middle line or tendon, at its external poſterior part. It is blended at the end of the bulbous part of the urethra, with the other muſcles of the part; when theſe muſcles are put into action, they contract upon the urethra, thereby making it narrower and expelling the laſt drops of urine. The ſemen alſo meets with a freſh propulſion from theſe muſcles contracting upon it, when it is in the bulbous part of the urethra, which it is, and no farther, in the firſt conatus, and by being in this large cavity, would get no farther, was it not for their action; ſo that they are truly *accelerators* of the ſemen, as well as of the urine; and this ſeems the chief reaſon of the bulbous part of the urethra, or its being larger in one part than another, that the ſemen and urine might meet with a reſervoir in their paſſage, which had a freſh contracting force or power, to forward their expulſion.

ACCESSIO, Acceſſion. The beginning of the paroxyſm of an intremittent fever, &c.

ACCESSORII. Nervi octavi Paris. See ACCESSORIUS.

ACCESSORIUS. The name which Willis hath given to ſome branches from the eighth pair of nerves. They ariſe by ſeveral filaments from both ſides of the medulla ſpinalis of the neck. Having advanced to the firſt vertebra, each is fixed to the back ſide of the ganglion of the nervus ſuboccipitalis, or tenth pair; then again run upwards into the cranium by the great occipital hole, communicate with the tenth and ninth, return out of the cranium, and in their paſſage join the eighth pair; afterwards turning backward, and perforating the muſculus ſterno maſtoidæus, it terminates in the trapezius, having firſt ſent ſome branches to the romboides.

ACCESSORIUS (muſculus), i. e. Flexor longus pedis.

ACCESSORIUS SACRO LUMBARIS, vel Lumbalis. See SACRO LUMBARIS (Acceſſorius.)

ACCIB. Lead.

ACCIDENS. A ſymptom.

ACCIPITER. The bird called a hawk, of which there are ſeveral ſpecies, but their reſpective parts are now ejected from the catalogue of medicines.

ACCIPITRINA, i. e. Hieracium, hawkweed; and a name of the Sophia.

ACCLIVIS, i. e. Muſculus obliquus aſcendens abdominis.

ACCRETIO, from *ad*, and *creſco*, *to grow to*; accretion, growth, and nutrition: alſo a growing together, as the fingers to one another.

ACCUMULATIO, to accumulate, or heap together.

ACCUSATIO, i. e. Indicatio.

ACEPHALOS, from α negative, and κεφαλὴ, a *head*. This word is applied to monſters born without heads.

ACER, from *acris*, becauſe of the hardneſs of its wood. The maple tree.

The great maple tree, falſly called ſycamore, is the *acer* pſeudo platanus, or *acer* folii quinquelobis in æqualiter ſerratis, floribus racemoſis of Linnæus. It is alſo called platanus tragi, the great maple tree.

Nine ſpecies of *acer*, are enumerated by botaniſts. It is of the claſs of the polygamia monoecia.

The maple is a large tree, common enough in England, but a native of Auſtria and Switzerland.

It is not much in uſe as a medicine, though its juice, if drank whilſt freſh, is ſaid to be a good antiſcorbutic. All its parts contain a ſaccharine fluid; and if the root, trunk, or branches are wounded in the ſpring, a large quantity of liquor is diſcharged, which, when inſpiſſated, yields a brown ſort of ſugar, and a ſyrup like the melaſſes. Large quantities of this ſugar is obtained from the trees in New England and Canada, and is much uſed in France, where it is commonly known by the names of ſaccharum Canadenſe, and ſaccharum acernum, i. e. maple ſugar.

ACER VIRGINIAN. odorat. Liquid amber.

ACERBITAS, Acerbity, ſourneſs.

ACERBUS, Acerb, ſour, harſh; or a ſourneſs with aſtringency, alſo bitter.

ACERIDES, Ἀκηρίδες, from α, negative; and κηρὸς, *wax*. Gallen calls plaſters ſo, that are made without wax.

ACERNUM SACCHARUM. Sugar of the maple tree.

ACEROSUS, of *acus*, from ἄχυρον, *chaff*. It is uſed to ſignify that brown ſort of bread which is made without firſt ſeparating the bran.

ACESIAS. The name of a Greek phyſician, who was unſucceſsful to a proverb. Alſo the name of another who wrote on pickling.

ACESO, a daughter of Eſculapius, who was well ſkilled in phyſic.

ACESTA. Diſtempers which are curable.

ACESTIDES. The names of the chimnies of the furnaces where braſs was made. They were narrow at the top to receive the fumes of the melting metal, and to collect them, that the cadmia might be produced more abundantly. Alſo the roof of the furnaces in which copper is fuſed, they are cloſed ſo as to detain the corpuſcles which fly off.

ACESTIS, a factitious ſort of chryſocolla.

ACESTORIS, ἀκεστῆρες, from ἄκος, a *cure*. It ſtrictly ſignifies a female phyſician, and is uſed for a midwife.

ACESTRIDES. Midwives.

ACETABULUM. Κοτύλη, κοτυληδὼν, ὀξύβαφος. The herb umbilicus veneris, which ſee.

Acetabulum is alſo a large cavity in a bone, to receive the convex head of another, for the advantage of a circular motion. The large cavity in the os coxendix is thus named, which receives the head of the os femoris. This cavity is called the cup, from its likeneſs to an ancient ſaucer in which vinegar was brought to the table, and thence named acetabula, from *acetum*, *vinegar*, and *tabula*, *a table*. This derivation ſeems very probable, as ὀξύβαφον, which is the ſame meaſure as the ancients called *acetabulum*, ſeems to be derived from ὄξος, *vinegar*. The *acetabulum*, which receives the head of the thigh bone, is formed by the juncture of the os ilium, iſchium, and os pubis; the edge of this cavity is called ſupercilium, and is very prominent on the upper part; the cavity is deeper on the upper and back part than on the lower and fore part. In the natural ſtate this cavity is increaſed by an additional elaſtic circle, which is united to its edge, it yields eaſily both ways to any preſſure, but recovers itſelf when the force is removed.

Acetabulum alſo ſignifies a ſort of glandular ſubſtance found in the placenta of ſome animals. See COTYLEDON.

The ancient meaſure thus named was about the one-eighth of a pint.

Acetabulum is a name for the androface, and of a ſort of craſſula.

ACETAR, a ſallad of raw herbs, to be eaten with vinegar.

ACETARIUM SCORBUTICUM. A kind of pickle, in which Dr. Bates adviſes ſcorbutic patients to dip their victuals before they eat it. It is thus made: ℞ Fol. cochlear. marin. ℥ iij. ſacchar alb. ℥ vj. ſal cochlear. ℥ i. bene contund. ſimul. & adde ſucc. aurant. ℥ vj.

ACETOSA, or acetoſus, eager or ſour; in Engliſh it is called ſorrel, from the Saxon word, which ſignifies ſour.

Miller hath reckoned up about eighteen different ſpecies, of which the following are ſometimes uſed in medicine.

1. *Acetoſa* vulgaris, called alſo *acetoſa* pratenſis, *acetoſa* arvenſis. It is the rumex *acetoſa* of Linnæus, i. e. rumex pratenſis, foliis oblongis ſagittatis, floribus dioicis of Linnæus.

Common ſorrel, or ſour dock.

It is a ſpecies of dock, whoſe leaves are ſour, but not the root, which is bitter. It grows in the meadows and common fields.

2. *Acetoſa* Romana, called alſo *acetoſa* rotundi folia hortenſis. It is the rumex ſcutatus, or rumex Helveticus, foliis cordato haſtatis, ramis divergentibus, floribus hermaphroditis of Linnæus.

The Roman, French, round-leaved, or garden ſorrel.

It is common in our gardens, and in many places it is known by the name of green ſauce.

3. Acetoſella, called alſo trifolium acetoſum vulgare. It is the oxalis acetoſella; or oxalis foliis ternatis, ſcapo unifloro, flore albo, capſulis pentagonis elaſticis, radice ſquamoſo articulata of Linnæus.

Wood ſorrel.

It grows wild in the woods, and flowers in April. The leaves are ſhaped like a heart, ſtanding three together on one ſtalk.

All the ſorrels loſe much by drying. They are all mildly acid, without any particular ſmell or flavour; the common is the leaſt, the wood the moſt agreeable; they cool, quench thirſt, are antiputreſcent, antiſcorbutic, and diuretic.

The ſeeds are ſlightly aſtringent, but neither ſour nor bitter.

If the leaves are bruiſed, they afford a large portion of a green juice with very little preſſure. If this juice is permitted to ſubſide, a clear reddiſh fluid ſoon appears, which if poured from the fæces, is one of the moſt agreeable preparations from theſe herbs. It may be mixed with whey, and is then a moſt acceptable and uſeful drink in fevers of all kinds. A decoction of the whole plant is a very agreeable ſubſtitute for wine, when it is coveted by a patient to whom we cannot prudently allow it. The leaves are as powerful ſuppurants as the roots of white lilies. If the leaves of any of the ſorrels are boiled in milk, an agreeable whey is ſoon ſeparated, which is inferior to none for its palatableneſs

A great part of the acid of ſorrel may be obtained in the form of a concrete ſalt, which is more acid than that of tartar, more eaſily ſoluble in water, and leſs, if at all, purgative: the wood ſorrel yields near one-hundredth part of the weight of the freſh leaves. As the uſual method of obtaining eſſential ſalts from vegetables by depuration and evaporating their juices, then ſetting to cryſtallize, is extremely tedious, the following proceſſes are given as being more expeditious.

Spieſſius orders the reſpective plant to be taken and gently dried in the ſhade, then, being cut ſmall, to pour on it a proper quantity of the ſp. vini R. to digeſt them in a gentle heat till there is a tincture of a deepiſh green colour; then pouring this tincture into a glaſs cucurbit, diſtill with the heat of a water-bath, until ſo much ſpirit is raiſed, as to leave the remainder as thick as honey; then ſuffering it to reſt until it is perfectly cold, cryſtals of a pyramidal ſhape will be found on the ſides of the veſſel. See Miſcel. Berol. continuat. ii. p. 91, 92.

Stahl adviſes us to cut the herb ſmall, after gently drying it, and make a ſtrong tincture with ſp. vini R. then pouring off this tincture, add to the reſiduum a freſh portion of the ſp. vin R. and digeſt as before, continue to add more ſpirit until the herb ceaſes to tincture it; then gently dry the reſiduum, and boil it in water to extract all the ſaline parts; paſs this decoction through a filter, and evaporate to a due conſiſtence; after which ſet it in a cool place to ſhoot. See Stahlii Fund. Chem. p. 68.

Of theſe two proceſſes, the firſt is perhaps beſt adapted for plants of the ſweet, and the ſecond for thoſe of the acid kind, both which ſort of plants give out all their virtue with their eſſential ſalts, conſequently with a ſmall portion of them diſſolved in a proper quantity of pure water, we may, as with the oleoſaccharums, prepare the waters of thoſe plants, without the trouble of a diſtillation, and alſo the waters of thoſe plants which cannot be obtained by the uſe of a ſtill.

The ſalt of wood ſorrel may be ſubſtituted for the ſalt or juice of lemons.

Conſerva. Lujulæ. Conſerve of Wood Sorrel.

Take the freſh leaves of wood ſorrel, and beat them into a conſerve, with tripple their weight of lump ſugar.

This preparation keeps well, and of all the conſerves this is the moſt palatable, being agreeably acid, and poſſeſſed of a flavour ſomewhat reſembling fine tea.

ACETOSA ESURINA. Eſurine ſpirit of vinegar. See ACETUM.

ACETOSELLA, i. e. Wood ſorrel.

ACETUM. Vinegar.

Vegetable liquors, in proportion to the quantity of their ſaccharine parts, ferment into a weaker or ſtronger kind of wine; a ſecond fermentation produces vinegar; the next change they undergo is the laſt, and that is into a putrid ſtate.

When malt liquor becomes acid it is called allicar. It is not ſo proper either for medical uſe, or for preſerving pickles, as the wine vinegar is; for it abounds too much with a glutinous matter that is productive of many diſadvantages.

If vinegar is diſtilled with a heat not exceeding that of boiling water, it yields firſt a phlegmatic liquor, (which is a vinous ſpirit, and may be uſed as ſuch) then a ſlightly acid one, which is ſucceeded by ſtronger and ſtronger acids, till the matter remaining becomes thick as honey; if now it is urged with a ſtronger fire, an empyreumatic oil aſcends, and a penetrating acid ſpirit, tainted with the ill ſmell, and yellow colour of the oil; and at laſt there remains a black coal, which when burnt into white aſhes, yields a conſiderable proportion of fixt alcaline ſalt.

The ſtronger and more ſpirituous the wine, the ſtronger is the vinegar into which it is converted. Geoffroy ſays, that vinegars made of the German and French wines, ſaturate from one-fortieth to one-twelfth their weight of fixt alcaline ſalt.

The *acetous* acid is concentrated by congelation, taking care to throw out the ice before it thaws; by diſtillation from alkalies, or from metallic bodies, particularly copper; by this laſt method it may be made to ſaturate near equal to its own weight of a fixt alkaline ſalt. This acid is called radical vinegar. When the acid of vinegar is combined with alkalis, earths, or metals, dry the neutral ſalt ſo formed, and then the acetous acid may be ſeparated in a very concentrated ſtate, by the addition of concentrated vitriolic acid.

Vinegar is mixed with the mineral acids by ſome fraudulent dealers, but is thus detected: if a ſaturated ſolution of any calcareous earth, as chalk, made with ſtrong vinegar, be added to ſuch as is ſuſpected of containing the vitriolic acid, no change will enſue if the ſuſpected vinegar was pure; but if it contained but a minute portion of that acid, the mixture will immediately become milky, and on ſtanding a ſhort time, depoſits a white ſediment. The diſtilled vinegar ſometimes contains a portion of lead, which is diſcovered by taking a ſmall portion thereof, and adding to it a little of the ol. tart. per deliq. If on the mixture being made a cloudineſs appears, or a white powder falls, there is lead diſſolved in it.

The *acetous* acid differs from all the others: it differs from all the acids in general in its particular odour; from the native vegetable acids, in ſubtilty and volatility, and in not being obtainable in the form of a concrete ſalt; from the mineral in its habitude to different bodies, and the nature of the compounds it forms with them: thus, whatever the *acetous* acid joins, it is diſlodged by the approach of a mineral acid; and compounds formed of the *acetous* acid and fixed alkalies, diſſolve in ſp. vin. R. but thoſe with the mineral acids and the ſame alkali will not.

The fermentation which changes wine into vinegar give the latter ſeveral properties, extremely different from thoſe of the former. e. g. The firſt diſtillation from vinegar extinguiſheth fire, but the firſt from wine feeds it. Fermented vegetable ſpirit is the only thing that intoxicates; and the ſpirit of vinegar is the antidote to intoxication. The ſame liquor, which in the ſtate of wine became weaker by boiling, in the ſtate of vinegar becomes ſtronger thereby.

Vinegar diſſolves animal earths, if not very much mixed with gelatinous matter; the earth of alum; the mineral calcareous earths; ſeveral metallic ſubſtances, as zinc, iron, copper, tin, lead, biſmuth, and the regulus of antimony. It diſſolves the vegetable inſpiſſated juices, and extracts the virtues of many plants; but ſometimes its acidity ſpoils their medicinal qualities, though in other inſtances it improves them; as in the intention of uſing the gum ammoniacum, garlic, ſquills, &c. It mingles equally with the blood and its ſerum, and with moſt of the animal fluids, without thickening them; but rather, as Boerhaave obſerves, attenuates and reſolves. Dr. Alſton, of Edinburgh, ſays that, "It is antiſeptic, and poſſeſſes

all

all the virtues of the acids in general; that it is preferable to lemon juice, or any mineral acid; it peculiarly corrects narcotics, as opium, hemlock, henbane, deadly nightſhade, &c. to the ill effects of which it is the antidote. In inflammatory and putrid diſtempers, in many inſtances, its efficacy is truly wonderful; in ardent fevers it is one of the moſt certain antiphlogiſtics and ſudorifics; in putrid diſorders it equally excels as a preſervative and reſtorer. Fainting, lethargic and hyſteric paroxyſms are much relieved by it, if applied to the noſe and mouth; yea, in many inſtances more than by volatile alkaline ſpirits, or fetid gums. In the ardent biliary fevers, as alſo in the miliary, it is a powerful aſſiſtant. It cures ſurfeits from animal food. It is ſaid to cure the bite of a mad dog.

Externally applied vinegar is a powerful reſolvent and relaxant. When applied to any ſenſible membrane, it acts as an aſtringent; and, more or leſs diluted with water, is an excellent gargle for an inflammed throat, alſo for an injection to moderate the fluor albus. In ſhort, to relate its many good qualities as a medicine might well be the ſubject of a particular treatiſe. See ACIDA.

An imprudent uſe of vinegar is not without conſiderable inconveniencies; large and frequent doſes too much coagulate the chyle, and produce not only a leanneſs but an atrophy; when taken to exceſs, to reduce a corpulent habit, tubercles in the lungs and a conſumption has been the conſequence: young children, old people, thoſe whoſe circulation is languid, vital heat defective, and digeſtion weak, ſhould be very ſparing in its uſe.

The doſe, according to the different circumſtances of the caſe requiring it, and the conſtitution of the patient, may be from ʒ ſs. to ʒ iij.

See the Dictionary of Chemiſtry, tranſlated from the French, of Mr Macquer, edit. 2. Article VINEGAR.

ACETUM DISTILLATUM, ſeu Sp. Aceti.

Diſtill wine vinegar with a gentle heat as long as the drops fall free from an empyreuma.

The firſt pint that is drawn off is a weak vinous ſpirit, and ſhould be taken away, another receiver being placed for the acid. Malt vinegar, however ſtrong, by reaſon of its viſcid quality, is not only improper for diſtilling on account thereof, but alſo becauſe it ſo readily receives an empyreumatic taſte; a circumſtance to which the beſt wine vinegar is ſubject, if more than about two-thirds is drawn over.

ACETUM ESURINUM, Hungry Vinegar. When vinegar is concentrated it creates an appetite, hence this name.

ACET. PROPHYLACTICUM.

℞ flor. lavend. & roriſm. ſol rutæ, abſinth. ſalviæ, & menth. āā m. i. aceti vini cong. i. infund. in B. A. per 8 dies.

℞ hujus tinct. ℔ i. camph. ʒ iij. m. f. acet. proph.

This is alſo called the vinegar of the four thieves, for during the plague at Marſeilles, four perſons by the uſe of it, attended many of the ſick unhurt; under the colour of their ſervice, they robbed the ſick and the dead, one of them being apprehended, ſaved himſelf from the gallows by diſcovering this remedy.

ACET. COLCHICUM AUTUMN. See COLCHICUM.

ACET. LYTHARGYRITIES. See PLUMBUM.

ACET. PLUMBI, i. e. Acet. Lytharg.

ACET. PROPHYLACT. See ACETUM.

ACET. SCILLITIC. See SCILLÆ.

ACHAHI. Alum-water.

ACHAMELLA, i. e. Acmella.

ACHARISTON. Acharistus ſignifies *thankleſs*. Aetius and Galen deſcribe ſome compoſitions of ſingular efficacy under this name; becauſe, as they cured quickly, the patient valued them the leſs, and ſo made no returns of their benefits.

ACHATES. The agate, alſo called lapis jaſpis, and by other names according to their different colours and figures, as phaſſachates, when its figure reſembles a dove; kerachates, when figured with the likeneſs of a horn; dendrachates, when with the likeneſs of trees; pardalion, with that of a panther; and leontion and leontideiran, when with a lion. When they are black with white ſtripes, they are named leucachates; if black, with blood-coloured ſtripes, haimachates; and if with red, ſardachates. The agate is a genus of the order of quartz, which is of the claſs of foſſils, called ſtones. Its characters are, a quartzoze ſtone, which poſſeſſes all the characters of flint, accompanied with a delicate appearance. There are eleven ſpecies, amongſt which are the cornelian, the chalcedony, the cat's-eye agate, the opal, the ſtones call mocoa, the onyx, and the ſardonyx. See Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

Theſe ſtones are ranked among the precious, all which are now excluded from the materia medica. The oriental (as is the caſe with all ſorts of precious ſtones) are the beſt. Some of the agates are opaque, others tranſparent. They are harder than the true jaſper; their colours are various. The figures which are made by art in theſe ſtones are effected with a ſolution of ſilver in aqua fortis.

ACHICOLUM. The fornix, tholus, or ſudatorium of the ancient baths, which was a hot room to ſweat in, called alſo architholus.

ACHILLEA, a ſpecies of millefolium, alſo a name of the ptarmica. The *achilleas* takes their name from *Achilles*. Linnæus uſes the word *achillea* as the generic term for yarrow, milfoil, or ſneezwort.

ACHILLEA GALLICA. Mountain rag-wort, or corn-marigold.

ACHILLEA LUTEA, i. e. ageratum.

ACHILLEA MONTANA. A ſpecies of jacobea, called five-leaved rag-wort.

ACHILLEION. A name for the ſponge of which tents are made; becauſe Achilles made them of it.

ACHILLES. A large ſort of barley which was uſed in Greece.

ACHILLES. The hero of Greece, a pupil of Chiron the centaur, from whom he learnt the art of medicine.

ACHIOTL. A ſort of orleana, growing in New Spain and Braſil. The tincture made of the fruit and uſed in chocolate is thus made: take the grains when ripe, infuſe them in hot water; the ſettling is made into cakes, and is uſed as a paint for the face. The roucou which the Indians call achiotl or urucu, the Dutch orleane, and we roucou, is a meal or flour of a ſeed got in the Leeward Iſlands and the iſle of St. Domingo; theſe ſeeds are of a vermilion colour. The roucou is made in theſe iſlands as we make ſtarch. Chuſe the roucou of the deepeſt violet colour, and very dry. Its chief uſe is among the dyers. See ORLEANA.

ACHIOTE. The red grains of achiotl made into lozenges.

ACHYLYS. A dimneſs of ſight: from ἀχλὺς, *darkneſs* or *cloudineſs*. It alſo ſignifies a ſmall ſcar or mark over the pupil, of a light blue colour. It is ſynonymous with caligo corneæ, or blindneſs from opacity of the cornea. See Cullen's Noſology.

ACHMELLA, i. e. acmella.

ACHNE. Chaff, or the froth of the ſea. Hippocrates expreſſes by it a whitiſh mucilage obſerved in the eyes of patients who have fevers: alſo a white mucus in the fauces thrown up from the lungs. Beſides theſe it ſignifies lint.

ACHOR. The cruſta lactea of authors, and in England the ſcalled head. Trallian ſays, it is a ſore on the outſide of the head, full of little perforations, which diſcharge a humour like ichor, whence its name. He farther ſays, that the cerion reſembles an achor; but that the mouths of the perforations are larger, reſembling the cells of a honey-comb, whence the name; the matter is alſo nearly of the conſiſtence of thin honey. When theſe diſeaſes ſpread, the ſerum which ouzes out, dries, and forms a ſcab.

The *achor* differs from the favus and tinea only in the degree of virulence. It is called favus when the perforations are large, and tinea when they are like thoſe which are made by moths in cloth: but generally by tinea is underſtood a dry ſcab on the hairy ſcalp of children, with thick ſcales and an offenſive ſmell; when this diſorder affects the face it is called cruſta lactea, or milk ſcab. Mr. Bell, in his Treatiſe on Ulcers, ſays, that the tinea capitis & cruſta lactea, may both be reduced to the ſame ſpecies of herpes, viz. the herpes puſtuloſus, they being naturally the ſame, differing only in ſituation; the tinea is on the hairy ſcalp, and the cruſta lactea on the face. Dr. Cullen places this diſeaſe under the name of tinea, as a genus in the claſs locales, and order dialyſes; but under

under the word ulcus he places the cruſta lactea, as a variety of ulcer. When it happens to children, if in other reſpects they are healthy, the beſt treatment, beſides keeping the belly moderately lax, is cleanlineſs and a moderate diet; an iſſue may be made and continued till the diſorder is cleared and the ſtrength of the conſtitution is eſtabliſhed; keep the hair ſhort and waſh the head with ſoap ſuds. Some inſtances of this ſort are very difficult of cure, and attended with violent itching, a pale countenance, &c. but ſtill the ſame method generally ſucceeds in all the ſpecies and degrees of virulence. Small doſes of merc. dulc. ſex ties ſublim. may be given as an alterative rather than as a laxative, and the vin. antim. in ſuch doſes, at proper intervals, as the ſtomach will eaſily retain.

Externally the unguent e pice may be uſed two or three times in a week, or cream mixed with chalk in fine powder.

If the humour is repelled give warm ſudorifics until it returns. Scabby eruptions on children ſhould not be repelled when about the mouth, ears, or indeed on any part of the body. Though theſe eruptions depend not on the habit, but the difficulty of paſſing through the ſkin, yet cold bathing ſhould not be uſed. Cleanlineſs and a frequent uſe of the warm bath are of great ſervice. The practice of tearing up the roots of the hair is uſeleſs, therefore cruel. Keep the hair ſhort and waſh the part with aq. pur. in qua ſolut. eſt merc. cor. a. gr. x. ad.

Among the ancients Aetius, Ægineta, Trallian, Oribaſius, Galen, &c. treat profeſſedly on theſe diſorders; amongſt the later authors Heiſter and Turner may be conſulted, with the ſtill later writers, as Brooks, Smith, Bell, in his Surgery, and his Treatiſe on Ulcers. Moſs on the Management of Children, &c.

ACHRAS. A wild pear-tree growing in Greece.

ACHY, Ἄχυ, a ſpecies of caſſia growing in Arabia, called alſo ἀκρίτης.

ACIDA. Acid. Acids form a ſpecies of ſalts, exciting upon the organ of taſte what is called ſour; which being quite a ſimple impreſſion, is not to be defined.

Acids are animal, vegetable, and mineral. The vegetable are the native, as the juice of lemons, &c. or the product of fermentation, as vinegar and tartar. The mineral are thoſe of vitriol, nitre, and common ſalt. The animal is obtained from ants, and ſome other inſects in conſiderable quantities; it is alſo contained in human fat, and in the ſuet of animals that ruminate, and in acetous fermentation is ſometimes produced in ſome of the animal ſecretory organs, forming a kind of animal vinegar.

Acids are of a nature as ſimple and active as any of the objects of our ſenſes. Saline bodies are in the firſt rank of the moſt ſimple ones, and of all theſe an acid is the baſis. Whatever flames hath a latent or a manifeſt acid in it, for acids alone are convertible into flame. It is true that pure acid flames with difficulty; but when divided and diffuſed in the pores of other ſubſtances, it readily takes fire and blazes, or explodes moſt violently.

A vague acid, which is volatile and liquid, is in all parts of the earth, uniting with various ſubſtances it forms different foſſils. Except in the eſſential ſalts of vegetables or in tartar, acids are rarely found in a ſolid form. The air itſelf is replete with acid, and without it no creature could live.

However different the acids, as collected by art, may appear, it cannot be proved that they exiſt in the ſame form in their original ſtate. The ſpirit of nitre and ſea ſalt are eaſily convertible into each other; the different acids, in their different effects, do not ſhew their difference ſo much as acids, as by other properties. Vinegar recovered from copper, is more perfect than before its union therewith, but never can be recovered as vinegar from lead; all which tends to prove, that the acids are all the ſame in themſelves, but altered by what they are, or have been joined with.

There is great analogy betwixt acid and cold; the air abounds moſt with acid in ſtill weather when the wind blows from the north and the eaſt. The ſpirit of nitre increaſes the cold of ice. Acid and cold alike preſerve from putrefaction, by increaſing the cohefion of the component parts of the reſpective bodies. Strong acids, and exceſſive cold, it is true, when applied to the fleſh of living animals, mortifies them; but this mortification differs greatly in its nature from that produced by fire, and by alkaline ſalts. South winds favour, but north winds check the progreſs of putrid diſorders. Cold concentrated and joined to vegetable and mineral bodies, ſeems to be of the eſſence of the ſalts called acid.

Acids differ in their ſpecific gravity when compared to water. They are as follows:

The acid of vitriol, as	18	to	10
Nitre	14	to	10 ſome ſay 15 to 10
Sea ſalt	12	to	10
Vegetables	10	plus to	10

This difference ſhews, that ſome acids are more tenacious of water than others, and that when theſe acids are mixed with fixed alkaline ſalt, ſo as to form neutral ſalts, if the alkaline ſalts is the ſame in proportion, it will be only increaſed to the ſame weight whether the vitriolic or the vegetable ſalt is uſed, e. g. to one ounce of fixed alkaline ſalt, add the vitriolic acid, and the neutral ſalt will weigh one ounce and three drams. The ſame will occur if you uſe ſpirit of nitre, ſpirit of ſea ſalt, or vinegar. If the weaker acid ſpirits are uſed, you muſt pour on more of them to the ſame quantity of alkaline ſalt to ſaturate it, yet the ſalt will have only attracted the ſame weight of acid from each.

Acids differ in their colour, for the vitriolic is quite pale; the nitrous a dark yellow, always foaming; the marine a pale golden colour. If bottles containing theſe three acids, are ſtopped with cork, the cork is ſoon tinged by the vitriolic acid with a black colour, by the nitrous with a yellow, and by the marine with a whitiſh one. The vitriolic acid emits no viſible vapours in the heat of the atmoſphere, but imbibes moiſture therefrom; the nitrous and the marine emit copious corroſive fumes, the nitrous a yellowiſh red, and the marine white ones.

As to the virtues of the vegetable acid, to what is already ſaid (ſee ACETUM) its ſuperior efficacy on putrid gall, in reſtoring ſweetneſs to it, deſerves peculiar notice. All acids have a power to correct the putrid acrimony, but the power of ſweetening ſeems proper to the vegetable alone: beſides, when a putrid colluvies lodges in the firſt paſſages, this acid gently tends to ſolicit its diſcharge by ſtool, an advantage not to be hoped for from the mineral tribe.

The mineral acids when intimately joined with vinous ſpirits, have effects ſo ſimilar to thoſe of the vegetable claſs, that their properties as medicines are almoſt the ſame; but when in their ſeparate ſtate, their inward uſe tends to coagulate the blood. In other reſpects, the effects of all the kinds of acids are ſimilar.

Acids gently irritate and contract our fibres when taken in a dilute ſtate, and thus corroborate; they reſiſt a putrid tendency, and powerfully oppoſe putreſcence when actually exiſting; by their irritation they promote various ſecretions; they excite an appetite, and aid digeſtion; their cooling efficacy in fevers of every rank is not exceeded by any thing in uſe, nor equalled for their general ſafety, where cauſes ſo widely oppoſite produce ſuch ſimilar complaints: in ſome inſtances of coughs and aſthmas, by their irritation their efficacy is ſingular; if the vegetable acid is made uſe of, the breathing is never diſordered by it, though in ſome inſtances the mineral ſort may offend. In dyſenteries, and in diarrhœas, produced by unripe fruits, the foſſile acids allay the fermentation in the bowels, and when a putrid colluvies in the primæ viæ is the cauſe, at once they will be propoſed as the proper remedy. By their ſedative quality hæmorrhages are reſtrained; and as bitters are neutralized by acids, ſo the exceſs and acrimony of the bile are allayed by their uſe. For farther ſatisfaction into their extent and uſefulneſs in the healing art, ſee Farr on Acids.

Acids, aſtringents, and bitters, have a great affinity with each other. By a mixture with each other they loſe their properties. Vegetable acids leſſen the aſtrictive power of galls on leather, &c. The mineral acids have a contrary effect. Bitters, both animal and vegetable, are neutralized by acids. See Dictionary of Chem. Neuman's Chem. Works, Percival's Med. Eſſays.

Acids correct the deleterious effect of moſt, if not all narcotic plants; but injure the phlegmatic habit, where the circulation is languid, the bile defective, or the digeſtion naturally weak.

Of

Of Diſeaſes from Acidity.

The ſeat of acidity in our bodies as a diſeaſe, is principally the ſtomach and the ſmall inteſtines. An acid acrimony is never ſenſibly prevalent in the blood: yet urine hath been fermented into wine.

An acid acrimony may derive its origin either from too great laxity and debility of the organs of digeſtion, or from an exceſs of aceſcent food. The ferment excited in our food by the ſtomach is ſui generis; if any part of our aliment is not digeſted by the proper ferment of the ſtomach, it will run into its own ferment, and if vegetable, it will become ſour. The food of children is for the moſt part of the vegetable kind, and readily turns ſour in the ſtomach if the body be any way diſordered, hence moſt of their diſorders are accompanied with the evident ſigns of acidity, as green ſtools, gripes, &c. Dr. Buchan obſerves, in his Domeſtic Medicine, that many aſſert a prevailing acid to be the cauſe of all diſeaſes in children, but that the acidity in their ſtomach, &c. is oftener an effect than a cauſe of their complaints. It is not acidity, but its exceſs that injures.

The redundant acid in the primæ viæ is known by the ſourneſs of the eructations, the frequent cardialgia, with curdling of the chyle, &c. in the ſtomach, flatulence, and ſpaſms in the inteſtines; when this cauſe is exceſſive in its degree, the bile is inert, the belly coſtive, and the nouriſhment is unduly ſupplied, a paleneſs becomes general in the ſkin, an itching comes on, and puſtules appear here and there, and a train of nervous ſymptoms ſoon ſucceed. Indeed, in all diſeaſes peculiar to children, there are for the moſt part, the ſymptoms of an exceſs of irritation, the pulſe ſometimes beats one hundred, or one hundred and twenty in a minute, the ſtomach is ſick, the veſſels of the ſkin are contracted, and epileptic or convulſive ſymptoms appear.

Infants are frequently ſwept off by this diſorder. Among adults, the weakly and ſedentary are the only ſubjects of it, except among the poor, whoſe ſcanty ſupplies reduce them to this unhappy ſtate.

The cure when adults are the ſubjects, conſiſts of a diet fitted to oppoſe this faulty habit; animal food, and vegetables of the aromatic alkaline kind: theſe, with moderate exerciſe at proper intervals, bid fair for a recovery. Abſorbent medicines may palliate ſymptoms in the ſtomach and inteſtines, but the limat. martis will moſt conduce to an effectual and abiding cure. Children ſhould be exerciſed more, and fed leſs than is uſual; irregularity in theſe begets flatus, acidity, &c. antimonial emetics repeated every twenty-four or forty-eight hours, until the more diſagreeable ſymptoms abate, are highly uſeful. Small doſes of P. Rhaei, with mag. A. ſo as to keep the belly ſoluble, is better than purging; and to this end give ſmall doſes frequently. To free from flatulency, ℞ ol. eſſ. fem. fœnic. d. gr. i. ſac. alb. vel. ocul. ℈. pp. gr. v.—x. M. & rep. bis vel ter. in die. As to abſorbents, a mixture of the magneſ. A. with the ocul. ℈. or other calcareous earths ought generally to be preferred, and the doſes ſhould be very frequently repeated until ſome relief is obtained, and then their diſtances may be increaſed.

See Van Swieten's Commentaries on Boerhaave's Aphoriſms. Medicamentorum Formulæ, Dris. Hugh Smith. Buchan's Domeſtic Medicine. London Practice of Phyſic, edit. iii. Armſtrong on Diſeaſes fatal to Infants. Moſs on the Management of Children, &c.

ACIDA MURIATICA, i. e, the acid of ſea-ſalt.

ACIDA PRIMOGENIALA, i. e the vitriolic acid.

ACIDULÆ. Mineral waters that contain a briſk ſpirit when unaccompanied with heat are thus named; but if they are hot alſo, they are called THERMÆ.

As to the antiquity of their uſe, ſee Galen, Cœlius Aurelianus, Pliny, &c. who ſpeak largely of their virtues.

Hoffman, and many authors, highly extol them, whilſt others obſerve that a pure ſimple water, on account of its containing nothing, ſuch as that from the Malvern and Toplitz ſprings, is to be preferred both for drinking and for bathing in; and that in want of theſe, they may be well ſupplied by diſtilled, rain, or any other that is ſoft and pure. Objectors ſay, that the medicinal qualities in theſe waters only quicken their operation as water, but contribute nothing farther, and that ſolutions of the like materials are of equal efficacy: to which the beſt reply has been, that the mineral contents are often volatile, and of parts more ſubtile than thoſe of art's producing; and that when the powers of nature are expiring, experience proves their efficacy by their ſucceſs as a laſt reſource.

In general their views are according to the qualities of their contents; theſe known, their uſe is eaſily determined. The chief contents of mineral waters are; 1. acid; but none pure, except fixed air. 2. Alkalies; but none pure except the foſſil. 3. Neutral ſalts; of theſe none but the common ſalt, and Glauber's ſalt. 4. Inflammable foſſil oil. 5. Sulphur; only in the ſtate of hepar. 6. Metals; none but iron and copper. 7. Earths; of theſe there are the calcareous, thoſe of alum, and magneſia; and theſe only as united with fixed air, the vitriolic acid, or the marine acid.

Bleeding, or purging, or both, are frequently preſcribed before the uſe of mineral waters; but, except a plethora attends, they are not to be admitted of. As theſe waters are deſigned to paſs, ſo reſt or exerciſe muſt be adviſed; reſt and a cool ſituation, favour their diuretic tendency; exerciſe and a warm air determine them through the ſkin; theſe obſerved with temperance and moderation in the regimen, are the principal directions on which ſucceſs depends.

Their briſk ſparkling property is owing to the quantity of fixt air which they poſſeſs; and indeed to this, perhaps, is owing their chief uſe as medicines. To increaſe this property when defective, or to communicate it where it is totally unpoſſeſſed, ſee Dr. Prieſtley's directions for impregnated water with fixt air.

A general analyſis is made by placing the water to be examined in low veſſels, where it may gradually exhale; alſo where it may reſt undiſturbed in cloſe but clear glaſſes. Having firſt examined by the eye, the taſte, and the ſmell, fill two low glaſſes, let one be well cloſed, and the other left uncovered; then after ſome hours or days, the ſpontaneous alterations may be attended to. A ſcum at the top, or a ſediment at the bottom or ſides, may diſcover what is ſought for; or, evaporate the water totally by a gentle heat in a glaſs retort, ſave the liquor that riſes in order to determine the proportion of it to its ſolid contents: let the reſiduum be diſſolved in a little diſtilled water, thus the ſalts will be ſeparated from the earthy, metallic, or other matters, and their different qualities found out by the following methods.

The moſt common additions for diſcovering the contents of waters are galls, ſyrup of violets, and the ol. tart. per deliq. but for a minute inveſtigation, the apparatus is more conſiderable; for beſides the materials to be added, which are numerous, in order to their ſucceſsful management, the operator muſt be furniſhed with ſcales and weights, an hydroſtatic balance, different ſorts of glaſſes, cements, a thermometer, a hand-pump, microſcopes, crucibles, &c. But in the uſe of the different means and methods for diſcovering the contents of mineral waters, much practice and attention is required to prevent ſelf-deception. The following are ſome of the additions by which medicinal and other contents are diſcovered.

Galls—When uſed they ſhould be freſh powdered, or a freſh infuſion of them in water ſhould be made. A ſmall quantity of the powder, or of the infuſion, put into a cup full of the water to be examined, diſcovers the ſmalleſt degree of iron that can be productive of any ſenſible effects. If the water contains a coarſe oker, the colour ſtruck by the galls is very dark; the finer iron produces the inky purple; but the fineſt, ſuch as the Pyrmont water, gives the azure blue.

Syrup of violets—Mix a dram with a ſmall wine-glaſs full of the water, and if a green colour is produced, there is an alkaline ſalt in it, or alum; though Dr. Rutty ſays, that if the ſyrup is new, alum turns it red. This green colour is alſo obſerved when a ſolution of iron is met with; with an acid it cauſes a red.

Ol. tart. per deliq.—A few drops let fall into the water diſcovers earthy matter, by precipitating it in the form of a white cloud; if a whitiſh cloud riſes to the top, and the water underneath remains clear, the quantity of earthy matter is extremely ſmall. This oil precipitates the contents of all hard waters; from twenty to forty drops throws down all the ſelenites in ℔ i. thereof. If it meets

with a ſolution of the merc. corroſ. alb. or other mercurial particles, it diſcovers them by producing a yellow colour, and it ferments with acids.

Tinct. argenti—This tincture if made with pure aqua fortis, is the moſt delicate addition for diſcovering ſea ſalt in water, which it joins with, and falls in a milky cloud.

Sal alk. vol.—This precipitates the contents of hard water; diſcovers mercury, or any of its preparations, by turning the liquor whitiſh, and throwing a part of it into a coagulum; it diſcovers copper by producing a blue colour.

Tinct ſulph. vol.—It diſcovers lead in water, by turning it to a duſky brown colour.

Soap—It readily determines whether or no the water is hard or ſoft by diſſolving therein: if hard the ſoap curdles; but if ſoft, an homogenous mixture is formed, and with a little agitation a froth is raiſed.

Aq. fortis—If it turns the water of a green colour, it contains a ſolution of copper.

For more particular ſatisfaction, or any conſideration relating to mineral waters, ſee Hoffman on the Acidulæ, and Shaw's Improvements on Mineral Waters, in his Chemical Works. Theſis Inauguralis de Aqua Sulphurea Harrowgatenſi, Edinb. 1770, auctore——Walker, M. D as alſo the authors hereafter mentioned under any of the particular waters treated of.

ACIDUM ÆTHEREUM, i. e. ſp. vitriol.

ACIDUM ALUMINOSUM, i. e. ſp. vitriol.

ACIDUM CATHOLICUM, i. e. ſp. vitriol.

ACIDUM PRIMIGENIUM, i. e. ſp. vitriol.

ACIDUM SULPHUREUM, i. e. ſp. vitriol.

ACIDUM VITRIOLI VINOSUM, i. e. æther.

ACIES. Steel.

ACINESIA, from *α*, *not*, and *κινέω*, *to move*. A privation of motion.

ACINI. Berries that hang in cluſters are thus called, to diſtinguiſh them from baccæ, berries, which are ſingle.

ACINI, or ACINUS. The berries or fruit of the elder, privet, ivy, &c. See ACINUS.

ACINIFORMIS, vel ACINOSA TUNICA. The coat of the eye, called uvea. See UVEA.

ACINI GANDULOSI. See ACINUS.

ACINOS. Stone or wild Baſil. It is the thymus acinos of Linnæus.

It grows on chalky hills, and flowers in June. Its virtues reſemble thoſe of the calamint.

It is alſo a name of the great wild baſil. See BASILICUM.

ACINOSA TUNICA, i. e. Aciniformis.

ACINUS. Properly a grape, but is applied to other fruits or berries that grow in cluſters, as elder berries, &c. Theſe are diſtinguiſhed from baccæ, or berries that grow ſingle, as thoſe of the laurel. But *acinus* is alſo uſed for the ſtope of the grape, hence uvæ exacinatæ, grapes that have their ſtones taken out.

The glands which grow together in cluſters are called by ſome acini glanduloſi.

Acinus, a name of the ſtaphyloma.

ACMASTICA, i. e. Synochus.

ACMASTICOS. The name of a ſort of fever ſpoken of by Actuarius as follows:

"Fevers from putrefaction are continual or intermittent: of the former, ſome are called iſotoni, or acmaſtici, which during the whole courſe are at the ſame pitch; others are called epacmaſtici, theſe proceed and increaſe to their time of ſolution; a third ſort called paracmaſtici, which diminiſh by degrees till they ceaſe."

ACME, from *α*, *not*, and *κάμνω*, *to be weary*; *ἀκμὴ*. The height of a diſeaſe. That ſtate of a thing in which it is at its utmoſt perfection. It is alſo a term in gymnaſtics, expreſſing the higheſt pitch of exerciſe.

ACMELLA, a plant growing in the iſland of Ceylon, of which three ſpecies are noted by botaniſts. Two are the verbeſina *acmella* of Linnæus, and verbeſina lavenia of Linnæus. It is commended in nephritic diſorders, but rarely uſed. Raii. Hiſt.

ACNE. A ſmall purple or hard tubercle on the face is thus called.

ACNESTIS, from *α*, negative, and *κνάω*, *to ſcratch*. That part of the ſpine which reaches from betwixt the ſhoulder blades to the loins. This name ſeems only applicable to quadrupedes, becauſe they cannot reach it to ſcratch.

There is a herb to which this name is given, but botaniſts ſeem not agreed in what it is.

ACO. The name of a fiſh found in the Mediterranean ſea, called alſo aquo, ſarachus, and ſarachinus.

ACOE, *ἀκοή*. The ſenſe of hearing.

ACOITUS, an epithet for honey. Pliny ſpeaks of it by this name, becauſe it hath no ſediment, which is called *κοίτη*.

ACON, an inſtrument uſed in the ancient exerciſes like the diſcus.

ACONE, a mortar, or rather a hard ſtone, on which to levigate; or, more generally, a whetſtone.

ACONION, an ancient Greek name of a medicine prepared by levigation; probably a collyrium, or ſome form of powders for the eyes.

ACONITIFOLIA. A name of the anapodophyllon Canadenſe morini, i. e. podophyllum peltatum, Linnæus.

ACONITON, from *α*, negative, and *κονία*, *lime* or *plaſter*. Not plaſtered. This word is applied to veſſels not lined within.

ACONITUM. Various derivations are given by etymologiſts, as, 1ſt, *ἀκόνη*, a *whetſtone*, or *rock*, becauſe it grows on bare rocks. 2dly, *α*, negative, and *κονὶς*, *duſt*, becauſe it grows without earth. 3dly, *ἄκων*, *ἀκὴ dart*, becauſe they poiſoned darts therewith. 4thly, *ἀκονίζομαι*, *to accelerate*, for it haſtens death.

Wolf's-bane. See ANTHERA.

Miller takes notice of nineteen ſpecies; and ſome of them are called lycoctonum, or wolf's-bane, becauſe the hunters mixed them with fleſh, and laid it for the wolves, which were poiſoned by it. Theſe herbs are deſtructive by their cauſtic and ſuffocating quality, the animals that eat them have their ſwallowing ſtopped, and ſtomach corroded.

Againſt the poiſon of theſe plants, Galen commends rue taken in wine; but, perhaps, vinegar would be more uſeful.

The monk's-hood, of which Dr. Storck ſpeaks ſo much in its favour, is the following ſpecies, called *aconitum* and napellus; in Engliſh, blue monk's-hood, helmet-flower, and wolf's-bane. It is the *aconitum* napellus, or *aconitum* foliorum laciniis linearibus, ſuperne latioribus, linea exaratis, Linn. Spec. Plant. p. 538. It is cultivated in our gardens as an ornament. It is ſpontaneouſly produced in Germany, and ſome other northern parts of Europe.

The doctor expreſſed the juice of the freſh herb, and made it into an extract by a gentle evaporation, then for internal uſe made the following powder:

℞ extract. aconit. gr. ii.

Sacchar. alb.—ʒ ii. m. f. pulv. ſubtil.

In ſeveral inſtances this was given from gr. vi. to ʒ ſs. three times a day, with the happieſt ſucceſs. Its chief ſenſible effect was its exciting a copious perſpiration.

The caſes in which Dr. Storck ſucceeded by the uſe of the above powder, where an inveterate gonorrhœa, pains that were obſtinate, and which followed after agues and intermittent fevers, tophs and nodes, ſcirrhous tumors, indurations of the parotid glands, and an anchyloſis. See Med. Muſ. vol. i. p. 515, &c.

A perſon who had eaten a ſmall quantity of monk's-hood, was preſently attacked with the following ſymptoms, viz. a ſenſation of tingling heat in the tongue and jaws, the teeth ſeemed to himſelf as if they were looſe, and the face as if it was ſwelled. This tingling ſenſation gradually ſpread all over the body, particularly to the extremities; the knees and ankles loſt their ſtrength, and frequent twitching of the tendons came on; ſoon after he perceived a ſenſible check to the circulation of the blood through the limbs; at length a giddineſs came on, then a miſt ſeemed to collect itſelf before his eyes, in his ears was a humming noiſe, his ſenſes failed, and falling into a ſwoon, his eyes and teeth were fixed, his noſe contracted, breathing ſhort, and cold ſweats were perceived on his hands, feet, and forehead. All theſe ſymptoms followed in leſs than two hours from the time of eating the ſallad, in which the monk's-hood unfortunately was mixed. In order to his relief, as it was ſuſpected that he had eaten ſome kind of poiſon, his friends forced down into his

his ſtomach a quantity of oil and water, and afterwards carduus tea, by which he vomited; theſe were repeated ſo as to encourage a thorough diſcharge from the ſtomach, and in the intervals, a few ſpoonfuls of a ſtimulating cordial was given: and thus he ſoon recovered.

Some writers ſay, that the napellus is not poiſonous in Sweden, Poland, &c. but it ſhould be noted, that the napellus which is not poiſonous, is the *aconitum* lycoctonum luteum majus of Bauhine, or yellow ſalutiferous monk's-hood. See Wilmer's Obſervations on the Poiſonous Vegetables in Great Britain. See the Article VENENUM.

ACONITUM. A ſpecies of ranunculus.

ACONITUM BACCIS RUBRIS. A ſpecies of the herb Chriſtopher.

ACONITUM CANADENSE. A ſpecies of ſun-flower.

ACONITUM CŒRULEUM HIRSUTUM FLORE CONSOLIDÆ REGALIS. C. B. The perennial hairy lark-ſpur, with a monk's-hood leaf.

ACONITUM FOLIO PLATANI, i. e. Luparia.

ACONITUM HYEMALE, i. e. Helleboroides.

ACONITUM LUTEUM MINUS, i. e. Helleboroides.

ACONITUM LYCOCTONUM CŒRULEUM CALCARI MAGNO, J. B. The perennial mountain hairy lark-ſpur, with a monk's-hood leaf.

ACONITUM LICOCTONUM FLORE DELPHINII. The perennial mountain hairy lark-ſpur, with a monk's-hood leaf.

ACONITUM LYCOCTONUM LUTEUM, i. e. Luparia.

ACONITUM PARDALIANCHES, i. e. Herba Paris.

ACONITUM PARDALIANCHES MINUS, broad leaved leopard's-bane. See DORONICUM.

ACONITUM PONTICUM. See LUPARIA.

ACONITUM RACEMOSUM, a ſpecies of the herb Chriſtopher.

ACONITUM RANUNCULOIDES FLORE ALBO SIMPLICI, a ſpecies of ranunculus.

ACONITUM UNIFOLIUM LUTEUM BULBOSUM, C. B. i. e. Helleboroides.

ACONITUM URENS RICINI FERE FOLIIS FLORE CŒRULEO MAGNO, i. e. Staphis agria.

ACONTIAS, a poiſonous ſerpent, called alſo cenchreas; and another, which is alſo called CENCHRITES, which ſee.

ACOPA, not eaten by moths. As applied to medicine, it ſignifies againſt wearineſs, κόπος, ſignifying *laſſitudes*. At firſt this word ſignified the quality of the *medicines*, which was to relieve the pain, ſtiffneſs, and other ill effects of exceſſive wearineſs; but afterwards it only ſignified the degree of conſiſtence which the medicines were of. Theſe medicines were always external ones. In time the word was uſed to expreſs thoſe kind of ſoft cerates which were applied to tumors, &c.

ACOPA, is alſo a name of the marſh trefoil.

ACOPIS, a precious ſtone like glaſs, marked with ſpots of gold colour. It takes its name from its being ſuppoſed to be a remedy againſt wearineſs.

ACOPON, from α, negative, and κόπος, *wearineſs*, a remedy againſt wearineſs and laſſitude.

ACOPOS, ſaid to be the ἀνάγυρις of Dioſcorides, which Gerard ſays is the bean trefoil.

ACOPOS, i. e. Laburnum.

ACOR. Sourneſs, acrimony, particularly an acid acrimony in the ſtomach.

ACCORDINA. Indian tutty.

ACORES. The ſcald-head. See ACHOR.

ACORI (RAD.) The greater galangal root.

ACORIA, from α, negative, and κορέω, *to ſatiate*. Inſatiability. Sometimes it ſignifies a good appetite, or digeſtion.

ACORITES VINUM, a wine made of the acorus and liquorice roots, each eight ounces; of wine, ſix gallons; infuſed cold for ſix months.

ACORNA. Theophraſtus ſays it is a kind of thiſtle, but Pliny ſays it is a tree of the ilex kind.

ACORTINUS. A lupine.

ACORUS, i. e. Calamus arom.

ACORUS ADULTERINUS, i. e. Iris.

ACOS. A remedy.

ACOSMIA, Irregularity, from α, negative, and κοσμος, *ornament*. Bald people are called acoſmoi, becauſe they had loſt their great ornament. Blancard ſays it is an ill ſtate of health, joined with a loſs of colour in the face.

ACOUSTICA, ἀκούειν, *to hear*, medicines againſt deafneſs. From ἀκέω, *to hear*.

ACRAI, an Arabic word, expreſſing either ſatyriaſis, or furor uterinus.

ACRAIPALA, a Greek word for medicines againſt a ſurfeit or drunkenneſs.

ACRAS, or rather *Achras*. The wild pear.

ACRASIA, Intemperance, from α, negative, and κεράννυμι, *to mix*. The ancients mixed one pint of wine with four or five of water. Aſclepiades ordered half wine and half water; hence wine unmixed was called *acraſia*, by a derivation retained in Latin, for *tempero* is the ſame as κεράννυμι, *to mix*. Hence the word was applied to exceſs, as in eating, drinking, venery, &c. By Hippocrates, and ſome others, it ſignifies imbecility.

ACRATIA, from α, negative, and κράτος, *ſtrength*. Imbecility.

ACRATISMA, a breakfaſt. The derivation of this word is the ſame as that of acraſia, becauſe the wine uſed on this occaſion was not mixed with water. A breakfaſt among the old Greeks conſiſting of a morſel of bread ſteeped in wine. Children and weakly people ſhould not omit this meal.

Our breakfaſts ſhould conſiſt of the harder kinds of aliment, to promote a plentiful diſcharge of ſaliva.

ACRATOMELI, i. e. Mulſum.

ACRE, ἄκρα. The extremity of the noſe.

ACREA, the extremities, i. e. the legs, arms, noſe, and ears. Coldneſs in the extremities, which do not eaſily warm, are bad preſages in fevers.

ACRETON, unmixed wine. Hippocrates expreſſes by it, vehement, exceſſive, intemperate.

ACRIDÆ. Acrid medicines.

Acrids are ſubſtances of a penetrating pungency: applied to the ſkin they inflame it; chewed, they promote a diſcharge of the ſaliva; and ſnuffed up the noſe, they provoke ſneezing.

Conſidered as the ſubjects of pharmacy, they may be divided into claſſes, according as they yield their acrimony, which they do, 1ſt, by diſtillation. Thus muſtard, horſe-raddiſh, ſcurvy-graſs, &c. give out their properties. 2dly, By infuſion only, as is the caſe with the greater celandine, pyrethrum, &c. 3dly, Neither by infuſion nor diſtillation, as happens with the arum, dracunculus, &c.

The general effects of acrid medicines are to ſtimulate the ſolids, and to diſſolve tenacious juices. In leucophlegmatic habits, they are powerful expectorants, deobſtruents, diuretics, and emmenagogues; and if the patient is kept warm, they are good diaphoretics.

In conſtitutions diſpoſed to inflammation, or where there is already a degree of irritation, where the juices are too thin and acrid, or the viſcera not ſound, theſe medicines are not to be uſed, for they aggravate theſe diſorders.

The trouble which acrid medicines give to the ſtomach, is that on which their virtue frequently depends.

ACRIFOLIUM, any prickly-leaved plant.

ACRIMONIA, Acrimony. Sharpneſs, eagerneſs, tartneſs, &c.

ACRIS. The top of a mountain, alſo the ſharp extremities of fractured bones. It is alſo a locuſt, i. e. the inſect ſo called, and which the Indians, and ſome others, commonly eat.

ACRISIA. It is when a diſtemper is in ſo uncertain and fluctuating a condition, that it is difficult to paſs a right judgment on it. Blancard.

ACRIVIOLA, i. e. Naſturtium Indicum. Of *acer*, *ſharp*; and *viola*, *a violet*.

Miller takes notice of five ſpecies.

ACROBYSTIA, from ἄκρος, *extreme*, and βύω, *to cover*. The extremity of the prepuce.

ACROCHEIRIA, from ἄκρος, *extreme*, and χείρ, *a hand*. A ſort of wreſtling, in which they only held by the hands. Dacier ſays, the combatants ſqueezed each other's hands till one gave out.

ACROCHORDON, from ἄκρος, *extreme*, and χορδή, *a ſtring*. This is one inſtance, which, as Galen obſerves, ſhews

ſhews the oddity of the analogies by which the ancients gave names to things. This name they gave to a ſort of warts, from their being ſituated on the ſkin. Wiſeman calls them penſile warts, ſee VERUCA.

Galen in his Def. Med. ſays it is a round excreſcence on the ſkin, with a ſlender baſe, ſo that the excreſcence ſeems to hang by a ſtring.

Sometimes they ſuddenly diſappear, at others they inflame or ſuppurate. Celſus obſerves, that if they are cut out, they leave no root, ſo do not grow again.

ACROCHORISMUS, from ἄκρος, *extreme*, and χορεύω, *to dance*. An exerciſe of dancing, with violent motions of the legs and arms. Schulzius ſays, they joined head to head, and hand to hand, and ſtrove to puſh one another out of their places

ACROLENION, i. e. Olecranon.

ACROMION. See SCAPULA. From Ἀκρος, *extreme*, and Ὦμος, *the ſhoulder*.

ACROMIUM, from ἄκρος, *extreme*, or *the top of*, and ὦμος, *humerus*, the top of the ſhoulder blade.

ACROMPHALION, from ἄκρος, *extreme*, or *the tip*, and ὀμφαλος, *navel*. The tip of the navel, or the middle of the navel.

ACRON. In a medical ſenſe, it is the beſt of its kind. In botany, it is the top or flower of thiſtles. It is alſo the name of a phyſician of Agrigentum.

ACROPATHOS, from ἄκρος, *extreme*, and πάθος, *a diſeaſe*. It literally ſignifies a diſeaſe at the top, or ſuperior part. Hippocrates applies it to the internal orifice of the uterus, and to cancers on the ſurface of the body, to diſtinguiſh them from thoſe that are inward, except he means the ulcerated, and thoſe that are not broke.

ACROPIS, from ἄκρος, *extreme*, and ὄψ, *the voice*, when the voice cannot be exerted. An inarticulation of the voice, from an imperfection in the end of the tongue. It is once uſed adjectively in the ſpurious works of Hippocrates, but no where determined in its ſignification and orthography.

ACROPOSTHIA, ἄκρος, *extreme*, and πόσθη, *the prepuce*. That part of the prepuce which is cut off in circumciſion

ACROPSILON, from ἄκρον, *the extremity*, and ψιλος, *naked*. The extremity of the glans when naked.

ACROSAPES, from ἄκρος, *extreme*, and σήπω, *to putrify*. Galen explains this, as ſoon changed in its ſuperficies, or eaſy of digeſtion.

ACROSPELOS, a name of the wild oat-graſs, or bromus of Dioſcorides.

ACROTERIA. The extreme parts, as the hands, feet, ears, and noſe.

ACROTERIASMUS. The amputation of an extremity. From ἀκρωτήρια, *extremities*, and this from ἄκρον, *ſummus*.

ACROTHYMIA. See NÆVUS.

ACROTHYMION, from ἄκρον, *extreme*, and θύμος, *thyme*. A ſort of wart deſcribed by Celſus, as hard, rough, with a narrow baſis, and broad tops; the top is of the colour of thyme, it eaſily ſplits and bleeds. This tumor is alſo called thymus.

ACMO. Red coral.

ACT. MED. An abbreviation of Thomæ Bartholini Acta Medica & Philoſophica Hafnienſia, vol. i. 1673—2. ib. vol. ii. 1677, &c. vol. v. 1680.

ACT. PHILOS. & TRANSACT. PHILOS. The Philoſophical Tranſactions.

ACT. REG. SC. The Hiſtories and Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris.

ACT. S. R. Acta Societatis Regiæ, or Philoſophical Tranſactions, London, 4to.

ACTÆA. An herb mentioned by Pliny, which Ray thinks is the aconitum racemoſum.

ACTE, ἀκτὴ. The elder. See SAMBUCUS.

ACTINE. The herb bunias, or napus.

ACTINOBOLISMUS. Irradiation. It is applied to the ſpirits, conveying the inclinations of the mind to the body; it is alſo called diradiatio.

ACTIO, action.

The actions or functions of the body are divided into the vital, natural, and animal.

The vital functions, or actions, are thoſe which are abſolutely neceſſary to life, and without which there is no life, as the action of the heart, lungs, and arteries. On the action and reaction of the ſolids and fluids on each other, depends the vital functions. The pulſe and reſpiration are the external ſigns of life. Vital diſeaſes are all thoſe which hinder the influx of the venal blood into the cavities of the heart, and the expulſion of the arterial blood from the ſame.

The natural functions are thoſe which are inſtrumental in repairing the ſeveral loſſes which the body ſuſtains; for life is deſtructive of itſelf, its very offices occaſioning a perpetual waſte. The manducation of food, the deglutition, and digeſtion thereof, alſo the ſeparation and diſtribution of the chyle and excrementitious parts, &c. are under the head of natural functions, as by theſe our aliment is converted into our nature. They are neceſſary to the continuance of our bodies.

The animal functions are thoſe which we perform at will, as muſcular motion, and all the voluntary actions of the body; they are thoſe which conſtitute the ſenſes of touch, taſte, ſmell, ſight, hearing, perception, reaſoning, imagination, memory, judgment, affections of the mind. Without any, or all of them, a man may live, but not ſo comfortable as with them.

The actions peculiar to the ſexes are, of the organs of generation of either ſex.

Private actions are ſuch as regard particular parts.

Public actions are thoſe which are performed for the ſake of the whole body; ſuch are the action of the ſtomach in digeſting the aliment, &c. Theſe are all called functions.

But each part hath an action peculiar to itſelf. Thus the office performed by the muſcles, veſſels, glands, and viſcera, are called their reſpective actions. See profeſſor Whytt's Treatiſe on Vital Motions.

ACTON, a town near London, where is a well that affords a purging water, which is noted for the pungency of its ſalt. This water is whitiſh, to the taſte it is ſweetiſh, with a mixture of the ſame bitter which is in the Epſom water. The ſalt of this water is not quite ſo ſoft as that of the Epſom, and is more calcareous than it, being more of the nature of the ſalt of lime: for a quantity of the *Acton* water being boiled high, on being mixed with a ſolution of ſublimate in pure water, threw down a yellow ſediment. The ſalt of the *Acton* water is more nitrous than that of Epſom; it ſtrikes a deep red, or purple, with the tinct. of logwood in brandy, as is uſual with nitrous ſalts; it does not precipitate ſilver out of the ſpirit of nitre as common ſalt does ℔ j. ß of this water yields 48 grains of ſalt. See Allen's Hiſtory of Purging Waters.

ACTUALIS, Actual. This word is applied to any thing endued with a property, faculty, or virtue, which acts by an immediate power inherent in it: it is the reverſe of potential; thus, a red hot iron or fire is called an *actual* cautery, in contradiſtinction from cauteries, or cauſtics, that have the power of producing the ſame effect upon the animal ſolids as actual fire; theſe laſt are called potential cauteries. Boiling water is actually hot; brandy, producing heat in the body, is potentially hot, though of itſelf cold. Hence actu and actus.

This is the medicinal ſenſe of the word; in logic and metaphyſics it is uſed otherwiſe.

ACTUARIUS, the title of John, the ſon of Zacharias, a Greek writer of the latter ages. He ſhews great judgment and genius, as well as knowledge in his profeſſion, in making his collections. He wrote ſix books of therapeutics, two books on the animal ſpirits, and ſeven treatiſes of the doctrine of urines. According to ſome, he is placed about the year 1100, and according to others, the 1300th of the Chriſtian æra. After *Actuarius*, as celebrated, is MYREPSIUS, which ſee.

Actuarius is a title beſtowed on the phyſicians of the court at Conſtantinople.

ACTUATIO, Actuation. That change wrought on a medicine, or any thing elſe taken into the body, by the vital heat, which is neceſſary to make it act, and have its effect.

ACUITIO, ſharpening an acid medicine by adding more acid, or the increaſing the force of a medicine by adding ſomething of the ſame ſort.

ACULEI, the prickles and thorns on vegetables.

ACULEOSA, a name of the carduus polyacanthos.

ACULON, or ACULOS, the fruit or acorn of the ilex, or ſcarlet oak.

ACUMEN, a ſharp point. This term was introduced into anatomy by Daventer, in his Ars Obſtetricandi; he calls the protuberances of the oſſa innom. on which we ſit, the oſſa ſedentaria, which he ſays are the acumina of the oſſa pubis; and he calls the os coccygis the acumen oſſis ſacri, the pointed part of the ſacrum.

ACUMEN OSSIS SACRI. See ACUMEN.

ACUMENUS, an Athenian phyſician, a friend to Socrates.

ACUPUNCTURA, Acupuncture. Bleeding performed by making many ſmall punctures. This method is practiſed in Siam, Japan, and other oriental nations, on all parts of the body. In ſome parts of America this practice is alſo in uſe, according to the accounts given in Dampier's Voyages.

ACUREB. Lead.

ACURON, a name of the aliſma.

ACUS, a needle. This inſtrument is neceſſary in confining the lips of wounds, taking up and tying blood veſſels, &c. They are of various forms, according to the uſe they are deſigned for: it is of conſiderable importance that they ſhould be ſharp, and of good metal that is well tempered. See Bell's Surgery, vol. i.

ACUS, the name of a fiſh called the tobacco pipe-fiſh; is found in the gulf of Venice. There is another fiſh that bears this name.

ACUS, alſo ſignifies chaff.

ACUS PASTORIS, a name of the ſcandix, i. e. ſhepherd's needle, or Venus's comb.

ACUS MOSCHATA, i. e. geranium moſchatum.

ACUSTICUS, belonging to hearing. It is applied to the auditory nerve, and to medicines or inſtruments uſed to aſſiſt, preſerve, or recover hearing.

ACUSTO. Nitre.

ACUTENACULUM. Heiſter calls the portaiguille by this name; it is a handle for a needle, to make it penetrate eaſily when ſtitching a wound.

ACUTUS MORBUS. Acute diſeaſe, from *acuo, to quicken* or *ſharpen*.

An acute diſeaſe moves quickly to its end, and is attended with danger. There are diſeaſes without danger, that are of a ſhort duration, ſo are diſtinct from the acute, as an ephemeris, &c. An *acute diſeaſe* is the oppoſite to the chronic, which are ſlow in their progreſs, and not ſo generally dangerous.

ACYISIS. In Vogel's Noſology it is a defect of conception, or barrenneſs in women.

ACYRUS. German leopards bane.

ADAL. According to Paracelſus it is the part of plants in which the medicinal virtue conſiſts, or the pure and active parts ſeparated from the impure and inert.

ADAMAS, the diamond. From *a*, negative, and *δαμάω, to conquer* becauſe it is ſaid that it cannot be broken. It is alſo called adamant, and diameda. It is the moſt valuable of all the precious ſtones.

Near the city of Bourbon l'Archambaud are ſome rocks which have veins, the ſmall ſtones of which, when poliſhed and ſet, puzzle connoiſſeurs to diſtinguiſh them from real *diamonds*.

In Cornwal is found a hard kind of tranſparent ſtones, which cut glaſs, and are called Corniſh *diamonds*.

The true *diamonds* are found only in the Eaſt-Indies, and in Braſil; the firſt are the beſt.

The *diamond* is a variety of ſeveral ſpecies, amongſt the different genera, in the order of foſſils, called quartz or quartzoſe ſtone, in the claſs called ſtones. Quartzoſe cryſtal, which is ſuperior to all other precious ſtones, in its pellucidity, luſtre, beauty, and hardneſs, and which attracts its foil, is called *diamond*. See Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy. It is the hardeſt, moſt tranſparent, and moſt brilliant of all gems, and of the colour of the cleareſt water; though ſometimes they are found mixed with white, yellow, or black, but theſe are defects.

The notion of a *diamond* reſiſting the ſtroke of a hammer, when it is laid on the anvil, is a falſe one. It conſiſts of cryſtal laminæ laid upon one another, and the joining of theſe tables may be diſcovered and ſeparated with the edge of a knife. If the plane ſurfaces of its plates are expoſed to the ſun it is not affected by it, but the extremities eaſily admit of the ſolar rays, and the plates are thereby ſeparated; if a *diamond* is expoſed to a ſtrong fire, it is not affected thereby, except the edges of its plates, which are the parts on which the fire acts, and then a calcination is preſently produced, and ſoon after, a glaſs, but without the peculiar luſtre which it originally had.

Diamonds cannot be cut but by themſelves: to poliſh a *diamond*, one is rubbed againſt another; the duſt which is rubbed off is laid on a ſteel wheel, mixed with olive oil, to poliſh them farther: and to cut *diamonds*, this powder is uſed with water and vinegar, with which, and a wire ſmall as a hair, they are divided.

Rub a *diamond* in the dark upon ſilk, woollen, or any animal ſubſtance, and it glows; if you rub it a while, then hold it before the eye, it continues luminous a long time: if it is expoſed to the ſky, it appears the ſame as when in the dark; but if your hand is held over it, though in the day, no light is emitted.

Glaſs, fluors, and other impoſitions, are ſold for true *diamonds*.

ADAMITA & ADAMITUM. The hardeſt white ſtones, which Paracelſus ſays are a ſpecies of tartar, are called *adamitum*; and ſtones in the bladder are called *adamita*.

ADAMUS, Adam. The philoſopher's ſtone.

ADARCES, a ſaltiſh concretion found about the reeds and graſs in marſhy grounds in Galatia. It is lax and porous, like baſtard-ſponge. It is uſed to clear the ſkin with in leproſies, tetters, freckles, &c. Dr. Plott gives an account of this production in his Natural Hiſtory of Oxfordſhire.

ADARNECH, i. e. orpiment.

ADARIGES, i. e. ſal ammoniac.

ADARTICULATIO, i. e. arthrodia.

ADCORPORATIO, to adcorporate, or cling together in one body.

ADDEPHAGIA, or ADEPHAGIA, from *ἄδην, abundantly*, and *φάγειν, to eat*, inſatiability, a voracious appetite. It is the Bulimia Helluonum. See BOULIMIA.

ADDITAMENTUM, the ſame as epiphyſis. The large epiphyſis of the ulna is called additamentum necatum.

ADDITAMENTUM COLLI, a name of the appendicæci.

ADDUCENS, i. e. rectus internus oculi muſc.

ADDUCENS HUMERI, i. e. pectoralis muſc.

ADDUCTOR, a leader to; from *adducere, to move* or *bring towards*. A name of ſeveral muſcles.

ADDUCTOR FEMORIS PRIMUS. Called by Albinus *Adductor* longus femoris. It ariſes by a ſtrong roundiſh tendon, from the upper part of the os pubis, next the pectinæus, above the gracilis; which turning into a compact fleſhy belly, it begins to be inſerted tendinous about the middle of the linea aſpera, being continued down upon the ſame, five or ſix inches, ſending out a tendon which joins in with that of the fourth head.

ADDUCTOR FEMORIS SECUNDUS. Called *Adductor* brevis femoris, by Albinus. It ariſes from the os pubis, immediately under the gracilis, by a broad tendinous, but chiefly fleſhy beginning, and is inſerted into the linea aſpera, from a little below the leſſer trochanter, to the firſt inſertion of the laſt deſcribed muſcle.

ADDUCTOR FEMORIS TERTIUS. It ariſes lower down than the former, from the outer edge of the os pubis & iſchium; and running obliquely towards the trochanter minor, is inſerted near the glutæus maximus. N. B. This and the next muſcle, are deſcribed as one muſcle, by Albinus and Winſlow, under the names of *Adductor* magnus femoris, and le troiſieme muſcle du triceps.

ADDUCTOR FEMORIS QUARTUS. It ariſes from the protuberance of the iſchium; and the adjoining interior part of that bone, by a tendinous or fleſhy origination. It is inſerted by a round and a long tendon into the upper and rough part of the inner and lower appendix of the os femoris, being affixed to that bone a little above the condyle, as alſo to ſome part of the linea aſpera.

The above four muſcles are deſcribed by Dr. Hunter, &c. as one, and under the name of TRICEPS, which ſee. Their uſe is to adduce, or move the thigh inwards, according to their different directions. Douglas.

ADDUCTOR MINIMI DIGITI PEDIS, called alſo tranſverſalis pedis placentini. It riſes from the fourth metatarſal bone, and going over the knobs of the toes, goes to the external ſeſamoid bone. Douglas ſays it brings the third and fourth leſſer toes nearer the other two, and the great one.

ADDUCTOR OCULI, alſo called rectus interior. It riſes tendinous and fleſhy from the edge of the hole in the ſphenoid bone that tranſmits the optic nerve, and is inſerted by a thin tendon into the tunica ſclerotica, where it reſpects the great canthus. It brings the eye towards the noſe. Some call it bibitorius, as it directs the eye toward the glaſs in drinking.

ADDUCTOR POLICIS MANUS AD INDICEM. Riolan calls it antithenar. It riſes from the fore part of the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, joins with the anterior portion of the flexor ſecundi internodii pollicis, and is inſerted with it into the ſeſamoid bone. See ADDUCTOR INDICIS.

ABDUCTOR AD MINIMUM DIGITUM. It riſes from the unciform proceſs of the carpus towards the annular ligament, and is inſerted into the whole length of the inſide of the metacarpal bone of the little finger.

ADDUCTOR POLLICIS PEDIS. It riſes by a long thin diſgregated tendon from the os calcis, under the tendinous part of the maſſa carnea, from the os cuboides, the os cuneiforme medium, and from the upper part of the os metatarſi of the ſecond toe, it is ſoon dilated into a pretty large belly, and is inſerted into the external os ſeſamoides of the great toe. Douglas ſays it brings the great toe near its next.

ADDUCTOR MAGNUS FEMORIS. So Albinus calls the triceps femoris.

ADDUCTOR AURIS. It is a common muſcle, being a part which Spigelius calls quadratus buccas detrahens, from its inſertion is a fleſhy fibrous elongation implanted into the root of the ear.

ADEC, ſour milk, butter-milk.

ADECTOS, from α negative, and *δάκνω, to bite*, an epithet given to medicines that relieve from the biting ſenſe of pain, by removing the uneaſineſs cauſed by ſtimulants.

ADENDENTES, phagedænic or eating. It is applied to ulcers.

ADDITAMENTUM Inferius & Superius. See SUTURA.

ADELPHIA, a relation; ſo Hippocrates calls diſtempers that reſemble each other.

ADELPHIXIS, the analogy, relation, or ſimilitude of one thing with another, or the communication, conſent, or ſympathy of a part with another.

ADEMONIA, of α negative, and *δαίμων a genius* or *divinity*, or *fortune*. Hippocrates uſes this word for uneaſineſs, reſtleſineſs, or anxiety felt in acute diſeaſes, and ſome hyſteric fits.

ADEN, a gland. See GLANDULA. Sometimes it ſignifies the ſame as bubo. Blancard.

ADENES CANADENSIS, i. e. potatoes.

ADENOIDES, from *ἀδήν, a gland*, and *εἶδος, a form*. Glandiform, or like a gland. This word alſo is uſed for the proſtatæ, which ſee.

ADENOSUS ABSESSUS, a hard crude tubercle, reſembling a gland, difficult to be reſolved.

ADEPHAGIA. See ADDEPHAGIA.

ADEPS, fat, called alſo pinguis, axungia, &c. Fat is an animal oil, contained in that part of the cellular membrane called membrana adipoſa. In the young fœtus is ſcarce any fat, the omentum ſeems only to contain a jelly, but in the older fœtus fat begins to appear. When the child is born, and during a few years after, it hath much fat immediately beneath the ſkin; in men the fat is moſt abundantly ſpread on the glutei muſcles.

How it is ſeparated from the blood, is not certainly known.

Fat is compoſed of a little earth, elementary fire, acid ſalt, volatile alkaline ſalt, and water. In human fat and the ſuet of beaſts that chew the cud, water is contained in a ſmall quantity, an inflammable oil in a large portion, and an auſtere empyreumatic liquor that is acid. Macquer, in his Chemiſtry, denies that it contains any alkaline ſalt. It is more fluid in living than in dead bodies, and its fluidity is hindered by the cells which contain it; indolence renders it leſs fluid, whence by inactivity it is accumulated.

Fat differs from ſuet principally in the great quantity of water it contains, which being ſlowly evaporated, is converted into a ſebaceous ſubſtance. In the human body it ſometimes concretes into a hardiſh ſubſtance, forming tumours of the ſteatomatous kind.

In profuſe ſweating the fat is melted down, and paſſes off through the pores, and thus the perſon is much weakened. The human fat does not become fluid when Farenheit's thermometer riſes to the ninetieth degree; but when it begins to putrify, it eaſily, and with a ſmall degree of warmth, runs into oil.

In cetaceous fiſhes, the fat is thin as oil; in animals that live on herbage only, the fat is harder, and yet harder in thoſe that chew the cud.

The Arabians uſed a great variety of fats in medicine; but to relax the parts to which they are applied, and to ſtop perſpiration, are all the chief virtues that experience manifeſts in them. In the preſent practice, three kinds only are met with, and theſe only on account of their different conſiſtence; they are the fat of vipers, hogs-lard, and mutton ſuet. Their uſe is wholly external. As to vipers fat, it is well ſupplied by the oil of olives; for it does not appear that animal fats, and inſipid, flavourleſs, vegetable oils, of ſimilar conſiſtence, differ in their effects when uſed externally; in other inſtances too, there ſeems to be a greater ſimilarity of nature betwixt animal and vegetable fats, or inſipid oils, than in any other ſimilar animal and vegetable ſubſtances, ſuch as gums and animal jellies: animal fats, in their reſolution by fire, yield neither the peculiar ſtench, nor much (if any) of the volatile alkaline ſalt, which ſubſtances completely animalized afford.

Animal fats are not ſoluble in ſpt. vin. R. nor in water. When ſcented with eſſential oils, the oils may be totally extracted by digeſtion in ſp. vini R. And by the ſame means alſo, in a leſſer degree by water. Fats may thus be freed from their ill ſmell; and thoſe that are become very rancid, may be made very ſweet.

Animal fats preſerve ſteel from ruſt better than vegetable ones: mutton ſuet prevents braſs from growing ill-coloured, longer than any other fat; and if a little camphor and white lead is added, theſe ends are ſtill better anſwered.

To purify Hog's-lard and Mutton-ſuet.

Chop them in ſmall pieces, and melt them by a gentle heat, with the addition of a little water; then ſtrain them from the membranes, which become ſhrivelled and almoſt criſp when the fat is ſufficiently melted from them. The water uſed in this proceſs, retards the ſolution, but preſerves the whiteneſs of the fat.

The fat of vipers being ſeparated from their inteſtines, may be melted before a gentle fire, and run through a thin linen cloth.

See Haller's Phyſiology, in the chapter on the cellular membrane. See alſo the Medical Mag. No. 3.

ADEPTA PHILOSOPHA. Adept philoſophy. It is that philoſophy, whoſe end is the tranſmutation of metals, and an univerſal remedy. The profeſſors of this philoſophy are called adepti, adepts. Paracelſus calls that, medicina *adepta*, which treats of the diſeaſes that are contracted by celeſtial operations, or communicated from heaven.

ADHATODA. The Malabar nut. There are two ſpecies, viz. the adhatoda Zeylanenſium; or, common Malabar nut; and the *adhatoda* Indica, the willow-leaved Malabar nut, commonly called the ſnap-tree. Theſe are of the genus, called by Linnæus, juſticia.

The virtue aſcribed to it, is to expel the dead fœtus; that being the meaning of *adhatoda* in the Zeylanic language. Miller's Dict.

ADHESIO. Adheſion.

For the moſt part, if any of thoſe parts in the thorax or belly lie in contact, and inflame, they grow together. The lungs very frequently adhere to the pleura.

On this ſubject ſee Dr. Flemyng's treatiſe on adhæſions, or accretions of the lungs; or an abſtract from it in the Med. Muſ. vol. i.

ADIACHYTOS, from α negative; and *διαχέω, to diffuſe, ſcatter*, or *be profuſe*. Decent in point of dreſs.

Hippocrates thinks the dreſs of a fop derogatory from the phyſician: he ſays, that many in his day hid their ignorance

norance under ornaments of dreſs, and ſtrove to get the good liking of the people by their appearance at the public games.

ADIANTHUM. Maiden-hair. Alſo called polytrychon and polytrichum, from πολύς, *much*, and θρίξ, *hair*; as much as to ſay, a capillary herb.

Maiden-hair is an evergreen low plant, with ſlender, ſmooth, ſhining, blackiſh ſtalks, without any manifeſt flower: the ſeeds are a fine duſt, lying in roundiſh ſpecks about the edges of the backs of the leaves, which curl over and cover them.

Five ſpecies are noticed by botaniſts.

1. *Adianthum* verum; called alſo capillus Veneris; *adianthum* foliis coriandri; *adianthum* vulg. It is the *adiantum* capillus Veneris. Lin.

The true maiden-hair.

It is about ſix inches high, with ſeveral pinnæ of little roundiſh ſinuated or nearly triangular leaves, toward the tops of the ſtalks: it conſiſts of a ſingle ſtem, and is not branched out as that which is commonly ſold in London for it. It is found in Cornwal, and in the mountainous parts of Wales; but is moſt plentiful in the ſouth of Europe, as in France, Italy, &c.

2. *Adianthum* Canadenſe; alſo called adiant. fruticoſum Braſilianum; adiant. Americanum, & capil. Veneris Canad. It is the *adiatuum* pedatum Lin.

American, or Canada maiden-hair.

It reſembles the true, but hath ſpreading branches. It is a native of America, but is cultivated in our gardens, and is the ſtrongeſt and moſt agreeable of all the ſorts.

3. *Adianthum* nigrum; called onopteris maſ. adiant. foliis longioribus, filicula, callitrichum, trichomanes, and polytrichum. According to Linnæus it is the aſplenium trichomanes, or aſplenium frondibus pinnatis, pinnis ſubrotundis crenatis. Common maiden-hair.

Common, or Engliſh black maiden-hair.

It is a ſmall plant without ſtalks; the leaves are long, narrow, compoſed of little roundiſh dark-green ſegments, ſet in pairs along a ſhining black rib; the ſeeds are a fine duſt, lying on the backs of the leaves. It is perennial, grows wild on ſhady grounds, old walls, and rocks.

It hath a mucilaginous and roughiſh taſte, but little or no flavour. Its virtues are the ſame as thoſe of the above two ſpecies, for which it is generally ſubſtituted, and that without any loſs of medical advantages.

4. *Adiant.* album; called alſo ruta muraria; ſalvia vitæ; paronychia; filicula petræa rutæ facie; muraria ſemper virens vulgaris; and *adiant.* montanum. It is the aſplenium ruta muraria Lin.

White maiden-hair, wall rue, rue maiden-hair and tentwort.

It is a native of hot countries, and poſſeſſes ſome degree of the virtues of the above ſpecies.

5. *Adiant.* aureum; alſo called polytrichum aureum; muſcus capillaceus major; aureus capillaris medius, &c. It is the polytrichum commune Lin.

Golden maiden-hair, or goldilocks.

The three firſt ſpecies only are in general uſe with us; the third ſupplies the place of them all. Theſe plants, as do all of the capillary tribe, abound with a neutral ſaponaceous quality, approaching to nitre: they give out, with their mucilage, all their virtue to boiling water.

The beſt preparation is a ſtrong infuſion made with boiling water, and ſweetened with liquorice root. To be drank freely.

The French make a ſyrup of the true ſort, and flavour it with orange-flower water. The Canadians make a ſyrup of theirs, in which they uſe maple ſugar. The London college directs the following form for the ſyr. capil. Veneris, but call it.

Syr. pectoralis. ℞ Fol. trichomanes ſic. ℥ v. Rad. glychi. recent. ℥ iv. Infund. in aq. font. bullient. ℔ v. colaturæ adde. Sac. alb. q. ſ. f. ſyr. ſ. a.

Our confectioners prepare a ſyrup as follows, which they ſell by the name of ſyrup of capillaire.

℞ Decoct. capil. Veneris Canadenſe, ℔ vi. Mel. Britan. ℥ xviii. Sac. alb opt. ℔ vii ſs. m. & ſub finem coct. adde aq. flor. aurant. ℥ iii.

Theſe ſyrups allay tickling coughs from defluxions of thin rheum, and aſſiſt the expectoration of phlegm.

As the virtues of theſe herbs are contained in their mucilage, they loſe nothing by drying. The flavour of the Canada ſpecies may ſuffer by the boiling; but, as a pectoral, that loſs is of no conſequence.

ADIANTHUM ALBUM FILICIS FOLIO. A ſpecies of fern.

ADIANTUM, i. e. Adianthum.

ADIAPNEUSTIA, from α, negative, and διαπνέω, *to perſpire*, or α, neg. δια, *per*, and πνέω, *to breathe*. Defective perſpiration from denſe pores, or ſuppreſſed perſpiration.

ADIAPTOTOS, from α, negative, and διαπίπτω, *to ſtumble*, or *ſlide*. The word ſignifies firm; but in medicine it is the name of a remedy againſt the colic, made of ſtone-parſley, henbane-ſeed, white pepper, &c. made into an electary.

ADIARRHOEA, from α, negative, and διαῤῥέω, *perfluo*, *to flow out*, or *through*. It ſignifies a total ſuppreſſion of all the neceſſary evacuations.

ADIBAT. Mercury.

ADICE, ἀδίκη, a nettle.

ADIPOSÆ ARTERIÆ. They are branches from the phrænic arteries, which are ſpread on the fat that covers the kidnies. See CAPSULARES ARTERIÆ & SPERMATICÆ ARTERIÆ.

ADIPOSA MEMBRANA. The cellular membrane is ſo called, where it contains a white granulated matter, capable only of being fuſed by heat. Dr. Hunter ſays, that it is a compoſition of ductile membranes for the lodgment of oil, connected by a ſort of net-work. It compoſes the greateſt bulk of the body, and is called adipous, where there is fat, and reticular, where there is none. The Doctor farther obſerves, that it is compoſed of two kinds of cells, viz. the reticular, which communicate with each other; and the adipous, which are diſtinct from the other, and do not communicate, but are reſervoirs of the animal oil: what convinces us of this diſtinction is, that, in the anaſarca, the water goes downward whilſt we are in an erect poſture, but the oil does not.

The *adipoſe membrane* does not convey the venereal virus, as is ſuppoſed by Boerhaave.

AIPOSÆ VENÆ. Theſe ſpring from the emulgents, and go to the pinguious covering of the kidnies.

ADIPOSI DUCTUS. The bags or ducts containing the fat.

ADIPSATHEON. The name of a thorny ſhrub in the iſland of Rhodes. Alſo a name of Rhodium.

ADIPSIA. Want of thirſt. Dr. Cullen ranks this as a genus of diſeaſes, in the claſs locales, and order dyſorexiæ. But he thinks it is generally, if not always, ſymptomatic.

ADIPSON, Ἄδιψον, from α, negative, and δίψα, *thirſt*.

Hippocrates applies this word to oxymel; and obſerves, that the ptiſſana, by its glutinouſneſs, is *adipſon*, i. e. a preventor or curer of thirſt.

Medicines were thus named that allayed thirſt, if uſed for that end; and may be applied to ſuch as do not provoke thirſt.

Some cold things by not exhaling the moiſture, and ſome hot ones by ſoliciting the ſaliva, are of this ſort.

The Greeks called liquorice juice by this name.

ADIPSOS. The Egyptian palm-tree is thus named by the Greeks. Its fruit, before it is ripe, is called myrobalans. Theophraſtus calls this tree βάλανος, i. e. *maſt*, from its fruit; but it is called adipſon, becauſe its fruit, before it is ripe, quenches thirſt.

Adipſos is a name of liquorice; and of a catapotium, or pill, compoſed by Aſclepiades, which is made of the ſeeds of cucumbers, purſlane, &c.

ADIRIGE, i. e. Ammoniacum, moſt probably the ſalt.

ADJUNCT, a quality joined to a thing, as heat to fire; coldneſs to ſnow.

ADJUTORIUM. The humerus; alſo an external medicine uſed to aſſiſt internal ones.

ADJUVANTIA. See JUVANTIA.

ADMELLA, i. e. Acmella.

ADMIRABILIS. An hyperbolical epithet to particular preparations: it was generally applied to factitious medical ſtones.

ADNASCENT, of Adnaſcor. To grow to, or cloſe upon.

ADNASCENTIA. See ADNATA.

ADNATA, from *adnaſcor, to grow to.* The outer coat of the eye; called alſo circumcalualis, circumoſſalis, albuginea, and conjunctiva. It is that which makes the white of the eye. This is formed by the tendinous expanſions of its muſcles; or rather owe its whiteneſs to their lying under it, and is not numbered among its proper coats. It is extremely ſenſible, and abounds with blood veſſels, which are very viſible in inflammations. It covers ſo much of the eye as is called the white; and being reflected all round, it lines the two eye-lids, and thus hinders any thing from falling into the orbit. Where it covers the eye-lids, it is vaſcular and papillous. In paſſing over the orbit, it does not end at the cornea, but becomes tranſparent there, and is of different textures in different parts where it is ſpread. The ſclerotica appears under it.

When a foreign body gets between the eye and the eye-lid, it is hooked in the villi: the beſt way to extricate it is, to invert the eye-lid, and to introduce a probe armed with lint and dipped in oil, which will extract it.

The inverted eye-lid proceeds from this coat. Though it is exactly commenſurate to the orbit in health, yet in morbid habits, when it is inflamed, it is thickened and puſſed out. If it does not yield to general remedies, as bleeding, purging, &c. ſcarify it, and if this alſo fails, cut off the redundant part.

ADNATA, ſignifies ſuch parts of animal or vegetable bodies as are inſeparable, as the hair, wool, fruits, horns; or elſe accidental, as fungus, miſleto, and exceſcences.

ADNATA, or Adnaſcentia, are thoſe off-ſets which, by a new germination under the earth, proceed from the lily, hyacinth, &c.

ANDOLESCENS, the iron bars that ſupport the fire in a grate or furnace.

Paracelſus would make a man without a woman, and digeſted ſemen maſculinum in a glaſs placed in a dung-hill, and produced ſomething like a man, according to the aſſertion of ſome of his diſciples; this was called homunculus Paracelſus, but would be as properly named *adoleſcens.*

ADONION, a ſpecies of ſouthernwood.

ADONIS FLOS. Red maithes, or pheaſant's eye; *adonis* annua of Linnæus. The leaves are like thoſe of fennel or camomile; the flowers have many leaves, expanded in the form of a roſe. The ſeeds collect into oblong heads. It is of no particular uſe in medicine.

Three or four ſpecies are deſcribed in Miller's Dict.

ADOR, a ſort of corn called ſpelta and zea.

ADOS, water in which red-hot iron is extinguiſhed.

ADPLUMBATUM, ſoldered with lead.

ADRA RIZA, i. e. rad. ariſtoloch.

ADRACHNE, ſtrawberry bay. It is a ſhrub which grows in the iſle of Candy; it bears fruit twice in the year; its leaves exactly reſemble thoſe of the bay tree, excepting that theſe have no ſmell; the bark is ſo ſmooth and red, that the whole ſhrub reſembles red coral. In Crete and all Greece it is called Ἀδράκλα. Raii Hiſt.

ADRACLA, i. e. Adrachne.

ADRAGANTH, i. e. Gum dragant.

ADRAM, i. e. Sal gem.

ADRARAGI, garden ſaffron, called alſo afan, and alfar.

ADROP. Rulandus calls it azar, lapis ipſe, and azane. Ripley calls it uzifur, or plumbum rubeum. Others call it ſaturnus, i. e. antimony, the matrix of the philoſopher's ſtone.

ADROBOLON, from ἀδρός, *large,* and βῶλος, *a globe, bole,* or *maſs.* The Indian bdellium, which is coarſer than the Arabian, being impure, black, and in large lumps.

ADROTERON. See ALICA.

ADSAMAR, urine.

ADSELLARE, to go to ſtool.

ADSTRICTIO, adſtriction. It either expreſſes the ſtyptic quality of medicines, or the retention of the natural evacuations, by the rigidity of the reſpective emiſſaries. See CONSTIPATUS.

ADSTRINGENS. Aſtringent.

ADULTERATIO. To adulterate, corrupt, or counterfeit. He that counterfeits medicines is often both a robber and a murderer.

ADUNATOS, i. e. Adynamia.

ADUSTA. Aduſt, burnt, ſcorched, or parched, from *aduro, to burn,* &c.

ADUSTION, alſo called Siriaſis; an inflammation about the brain and its membranes, with a hollowneſs of the ſinciput and eyes, a pale colour, and a dry body.

ADY. A palm-tree in the iſland of St. Thomas, which affords plenty of juice, that ferments into wine. The entire fruit is called by the Portugueſe caryoces and carioſſe, the natives call it abanga, ſee ABANGA. The fruit contains a ſtone, the kernel of which, if heated in hot water, gives out an oil of a ſaffron colour, it concretes in the cold, and is uſed as butter.

ADYNAMIA, from ἀ, negative, and δύναμις, *ſtrength, force,* langour, weakneſs, or impotence from ſickneſs or diſeaſe. Alſo drowſineſs, or ſleepineſs, laſſitude, defect of vital powers. In Dr. Cullen's Noſology, this word diſtinguiſhes an order in his claſs Neuroſes: he defines it to be diſeaſes conſiſting in a weakneſs or loſs of motion, in either the vital or natural functions.

ADYNAMON, a factitious wine. It is made of two parts muſt and one of water, which are boiled together till as much is conſumed as there was added of water. It hath the ſame derivation as adynamon.

ÆDOIA, from αἰδὰς, *modeſty.* The ſame as pudenda.

ÆDOPSOPHIA. In the Noſology of Sauvage, alſo of Sagar. It is defined to be a flatus paſſing from the uterus, or from the urinary bladder, through the vagina or the urethra. This flatus is ſometimes very fetid, which circumſtance cannot always be accounted for. It ſometimes happens when women are in labour, and hath been taken for a ſign that the child is dead, but this cannot be depended on; an intolerable ſtench ſometimes attends when the child is living.

ÆGAGROPILA, from αἴγαγρος. The rock-goat, chamois, or gems. It is a little ball found in the ſtomach of goats in Germany, formed of hairs which they lick. Such are found in the ſtomachs of cows, hogs, &c. with us. See BEZOAR.

ÆGEIRINON. Αἴγειρος, a poplar. An ointment ſo called, becauſe the fruit of the poplar, or its catkins, are an ingredient in it.

ÆGEIROS. The poplar-tree.

ÆGIDES, αἰγίδες. Small white cicatrices of the eyes, cauſed by a ſharp humor there; or ſmall white concretions on the pupil.

In inflammations we ſee little white ſpecks on the pupil of the eye, like a film, if an afflux of humors are conſiderable; theſe always diſappear ſpontaneouſly when the inflammation is reſolved and the humors diverted; but if ſharp powders are uſed, or collyriums applied, they oft are hardened ſo as never after to be moved. Theſe ſeem to be what is meant by ægides. See ALBUGO.

ÆGIDION, from αἰγίας, or αἰγὶς. The name of a collyrium for inflammations and defluxions of the eyes.

ÆGINETA (Paulus), a phyſician, who lived in the ſeventh century: Dr. Freind ſays, that his ſixth book is the beſt body of ſurgery that was ever produced before the reformation of learning. But it is ſaid that his greateſt excellence was in the management of diſorders peculiar to the ſex.

The next to him as celebrated is Actuarius.

ÆGILOPS, i. e. Ægylops.

ÆGOCERAS, from αἴξ, *a goat,* and κέρας, *a horn,* fœnugreek, ſo called becauſe the pods were ſuppoſed to reſemble the horns of a goat. Alſo a name of bouceras, which is ſo called becauſe the fruit is corniculated.

ÆGOLETHRON, from αἴξ, *a goat,* and ὀλεθρὸς, *deſtruction.* Dioſcorides, Pliny, and others, take notice of this, and ſpeak of it as a tree, from the leaves of which bees gather honey about Heraclea in Pontus, which honey is ſometimes poiſonous, ſometimes not. Tournefort ſays it is the chamærododendron. See Mem. de l'Acad. Roy. des Sciences, 1704.

ÆGONY-

ÆGONYCHON. Gromwell. So called from αἴξ, *a goat*, and ὄνυξ, *a hoof*, becauſe of the hardneſs of the ſeed.

ÆGOPODIUM, i. e. angelica ſylv. minor.

ÆGOPROSOPON. The ſame as ægidion.

ÆGRITUDO BOVINA. See BOVINA AFFECTIO.

ÆGYLOPS or Ægilops. A diſeaſe in the inward corner of the eye; ſo called from αἴξ, *a goat*, and ὤψ, *an eye*, or *goat's eye*; becauſe, according to ſome, goats are ſubject to this diſeaſe.

Paulus Ægineta calls it anchylops before it burſts, and *ægylops* after. Avicenna calls it garab and algarab. Anchylops and *ægylops*, are but different ſtates of the diſorder called fiſtula lachrymalis, which ſee. The *ægylops* is the fiſtula lachrymalis beginning to diſcharge pus.

It is either ſcrophulous, atheromatous, or of the nature of a meliceris.

Sometimes it is a ſymptom of the lues venerea. Sometimes it is with, and at others without inflammation. If it is attended with eroſion, it terminates in a cancer. In opening this abſceſs, be careful not to cut the edge of the eye-lid, for thus you will cauſe an incurable waterineſs there.

When it is ſtrumous, it proceeds from congeſtion, and the tubercle is round without diſcolouring the ſkin. If it is cauſed by fluxion, pain and redneſs appear, with inflammation all over the eye. Sometimes it begins with a weeping, and is not ſuſpected until a redneſs appears in the eye, and then by a gentle preſſure on the part, a matter is diſcharged, a part of which reſembles the white of an egg. If this matter makes its way into the noſe, it acquires a fœtid ſmell, and is diſcharged through the noſtril.

As to the cure, if the caſe is recent, begin with a cautious uſe of bleeding and purging; or if theſe are contra-indicated, give ſuch alteratives as are moſt eſteemed in ſcrophulous diſorders. The tumor may be reſolved by anodyne and diſcutient applications; but if there is a tendency to a ſuppuration, haſten it, and the diſcharge of the pus with all convenient ſpeed, leſt the bone underneath ſhould be affected; the abſceſs cleanſed, heal it with the tinct. of myrrh and aloes mixed with mel roſar. If the matter hath paſſed alſo under the cilium, uſe a powerful deſiccative, ſuch as ſtrong lime-water, aſſiſted by a compreſs.

If the perioſteum under the tumor is laid bare, an exfoliation muſt be haſtened by a cauſtic, and a paſſage opened into the noſe, after which dry lint alone may ſuffice. Too conſtricting medicines may produce a rhyas, ſee RHOEAS; too digeſtive applications may give riſe to an encanthis.

See Galen, Aetius, Celſus, Paulus Ægineta, Actuarius, Sennertus, Wiſeman, Heiſter, Pott, Bell, Kirkland.

ÆGYLOPS & ÆGILOPS. Names of the holme oak, with great acorns. Quercus *Ægilops*. Lin. In Venice the acorns of this tree are called Vallonia, the name of the city from whence they are brought. They uſe them there for tanning of leather, their diameter is in general about an inch and a half.

ÆGYLOPS, or Ægilops. The great wild oat graſs or drank. The roots are full of ſmall fibres, ſeveral ſtalks riſe from a root, and are jointed. It grows in hedges and the ſides of fields in May. By culture it becomes a ſpecies of corn. In the northern parts of America it is improved to great advantage; and in the low wet boggy grounds in Great Britain, it would be profitable, perhaps, beyond any thing elſe, as it thrives beſt in water. It grows like oats, but in quality is more of the rice kind. A decoction of the roots kills worms.

ÆGYLOPS BROMOIDES, vel Feſtuca Long. Ariſt. C. B. Bearded wild oats. Avena fatua. Lin. The leaves are ſmall, long, and narrow; it conſiſts chiefly of a few ſlender ſtalks, which terminate with oaten ears, but empty huſks, of a bright colour. Theſe have a long beard.

ÆGYLOPS NARBONENSIS, called alſo feſtuca Italica, and gramen feſtuca. Haver graſs. It is common in Sicily and ſome parts of France. It runs up to about a foot high, having but few leaves, which reſemble thoſe of wheat or barley; at the top of the ſtalks are ſmall ears, with huſks containing a ſeed like barley: theſe huſks alſo terminate with a long beard.

ÆGYPTIA MUSCHATA, i. e. Abelmoſch.

ÆGYPTIACA, i. e. Papyrus.

ÆGYPTIACA BALS. i. e. Balſ. Gilead.

ÆGYPTIACUM UNG. an ointment ſo called from its being ſaid to be of an Ægyptian origin, though ſome ſay from its colour, but improbably. Meſue is its ſuppoſed author.

Unguent & Mel Ægyptiacum.

℞ Ærugo Æris ſubtil. pulv. ℥ v. mel Brit. ℥ xiv. acet. acerim. ℥ vii. coq. ſuper lent. ign. ad conſiſt. ung. mollis.

N. B. On keeping this ointment for ſome time the thickeſt part falls to the bottom, and the thinner, which floats on the top, is called mel *Ægyptiacum*. This thinner part is the mildeſt, as the verdegriſe in a great meaſure falls with the more ſolid to the bottom. The principal uſe of this compoſition is to deterge foul ulcers, keep down the fungous fleſh, and to aſſiſt in the cure of venereal ulceration in the mouth and tonſils.

ÆGYPTION. The name of a topic uſed by the ancients in uterine diſorders. The Greeks called the ol. ricini Αἰγύπτιον ἔλαιον.

ÆGYPTIUM ANDROMACHIEMPL.

ÆGYPTIUM CROCEUM UNG. Both theſe are deſcribed by Aetius.

ÆGYPTIUS PESSUS. A peſſary deſcribed by Paulus Ægineta: it is made of honey, turpentine, ſaffron, oil, verdegriſe, &c.

ÆGYPTIUM PHARMACUM AD AURES. The name of one of Aetius's compoſitions.

ÆGYPTIA ULCERA, alſo called Syrian ulcers. Aretæus deſcribes an ulcer of the tonſils and fauces by theſe names; they are attended with a burning pain; the matter diſcharged from them infects the whole frame, and the patient is rendered miſerable by its offenſive ſmell.

ÆGYPTIA ANTIDOTUS, the Egyptian antidote. This is a name, not of one, but of ſeveral compoſitions.

ÆICHRYSON, from ἀεὶ, *always*, and χρυσὸς, *gold*, a name of the ſedum majus.

ÆIGLUCES, from ἀεὶ, *always*, and γλυκὺς, *ſweet*. A ſweet ſort of wine is thus named. As ſoon as the muſt is tunned, the veſſel is placed under water, and there kept all the winter, that it may be cool, and not be completely turned into wine.

ÆIPATHIA. A paſſion of long continuance. Blancard.

ÆITHALES, from ἀεὶ, *always*, and θάλλω, *to be green*, a name of the ſedum majus.

ÆIZOON, from ἀεὶ, *always*, and ζωὴ, *life*, a ſpecies of the ſempervivum, or ſedum.

ÆLIANUS MECCIUS, a phyſician who lived in the time of the emperor Adrian. He wrote well on the diſſection of the muſcles.

ÆLIUS PROMOTUS, an Alexandrian phyſician, who lived in the time of Pompey. He wrote on poiſons and deleterious drugs.

ÆLUROPO (Syr.) is a ſyrup made of the herb catsfoot, which is a ſpecies of gnaphalium.

ÆMBELLÆ, the lacca-tree.

ÆNEA, an epithet given to the inſtrument called a catheter, from the matter of which it was formed.

ÆOLIPYLÆ, ÆOLIPILES, ÆOLIPLES. They are inſtruments rather belonging to natural philoſophy than to medicine. They are hollow, and made of braſs or iron, with a ſmall orifice. In this cavity is put water, which, when heated in the fire, it rarifies, and burſts out with a great noiſe, like a violent blaſt of wind.

ÆON, Αἰὼν, *the whole age of a man*. But Hippocrates uſes it to ſignify the remains of a man's life. It alſo ſignifies the ſpinal marrow.

ÆONION, i. e. ſedum majus

ÆORA, from αἴρω, *to lift up*, to ſuſpend on high. Geſtation, a ſpecies of exerciſe uſed by the ancients, and of which Aetius gives the following account.

Geſtation, while it exerciſes the body, the body ſeems to be at reſt. Of the motion there are ſeveral kinds.

1ſt, Swinging in a hammock, which, at the decline of a fever, is beneficial.

2dly, Being carried in a litter, in which the patient either ſits or lies along. It is uſeful when the gout, ſtone, and ſuch other diſorders attend, that do not admit of violent motions.

3dly, Riding in a chariot, which is of ſervice in moſt chronical diſorders, eſpecially before the ſtronger exerciſe can be admitted of.

4thly, Sailing in a boat or a ſhip. This produces various effects, according to the different agitation of the waters, and in many tedious chronical diſorders proves efficacious beyond what is obſerved from the moſt ſkilful adminiſtration of drugs. Theſe are inſtances of a paſſive exerciſe.

ÆQUINOCTIUM, the equinox. This is when the days and nights are of equal length.

Ælius places the vernal equinox on the 23d of March, and the autumnal on the 25th of September. Paulus Ægineta makes the autumnal a day ſooner. The modern aſtronomers generally fix them on the 22d of March, and the ſame day in September. Theſe ſeaſons are conſidered as unfriendly to health.

AER, Ἀήρ, *air*. It is that tranſparent, elaſtic, ponderous, compreſſible fluid, which ſurrounds the terraqueous globe, and which, when greatly agitated or driven in currents, is called wind.

Some of the properties of *air* are,

1. It is a part in the compoſition of all bodies.

2. It is a common medium by which the union of the parts of bodies is formed and preſerved.

3. It is fluid, and cannot be rendered ſolid by any known means.

4. It is elaſtic; but by contact and coheſion in the parts of bodies it becomes ſolid and unelaſtic; from whence again, by heat, fermentation, &c. it being ſeparated, its elaſticity returns. Heat rarifies, and cold condenſes it.

5. The weight of the *air* is not perceived but in large quantities; nor is the comparative weight eaſily, if at all to be aſcertained, as no two portions are ever of the ſame weight in two parts of the atmoſphere. However, from long and repeated obſervations, the greateſt gravity of the air in Europe is found to be equal (in equilibrio) with 30½ inches of quickſilver in the barometer, and the leaſt raiſes it only to 27½. The weight of the common *air* about the ſurface of the earth, at the time of the middle weight of the atmoſphere, and in every temperate ſeaſon, is to that of water as 1 to 850.

6. *Air* is neceſſary to animal exiſtence. This is evident from the experiments made with the air-pump, though not without ſome exceptions, for toads, vipers, eels, and inſects of all kinds, and fiſh, live in the exhauſted receiver.

7. The particles of *air* are too ſmall for any microſcope to diſcover, and yet they are larger than thoſe of fire, water, oil, and many other fluids. Fire pervades glaſs, oil, water, &c. will paſs through many compact ſubſtances, whilſt *air* is reſiſted by ſtrong paper.

8. *Air* is the vehicle of ſound, of the objects of taſte, of effluvia to the noſe, as is evident from obſervations made on the tops of high mountains, where our ſenſes become duller than when we are nearer the plains.

Numerous and important are the other known properties of the *air*; but as this ſubject is too extenſive to admit of a minute detail of its particulars, after reciting a few of the moſt important obſervations on it, as it is the ſubject of medicine, the reader is referred to the authors mentioned at the bottom of this article.

Air paſſing over clayey ground is moiſt and thick; dry and ſandy ground, it is dry and duſty; dry and ſtoney, it is dry and pure; on the tops of hills it is thin, free from vapours, and cool; in vallies, it is groſs, impure, and hot, though in winter, if the hills are very high, the vales are the coldeſt, becauſe they are overſhadowed: on the declivity of hills the *air* is generally pure, and of a moderate temperature; and in an open country, ſuch as is proper for hunting, the *air* is generally moderate in all its qualities of heat, coldneſs, dryneſs, and moiſture.

North and north-eaſt winds are reckoned bracing and healthy, but the valetudinarian is moſt comfortable when the wind is ſouth and ſouth-weſt. Dry ſeaſons in general are more ſalutary than wet. We eat more and digeſt better in winter than in ſummer. Our diſpoſitions and tempers are greatly affected by the ſeaſons; long eaſterly winds will make chearful people very irritable and moroſe.

An exceſs of gravity in the *air* quickens the circulation, dilates the lungs too much, and by compreſſing the cutaneous veſſels, it drives the blood copiouſly to the brain; whence pleuriſies, peripneumonies, quinſies, head-ach, vertigo, &c.

If the *air* is too light, by retarding the circulation of the blood, and diminiſhing the external reſiſtance to the fluids contained in the pulmonary veſſels, it cauſes an hæmoptyſis, hyſteric, and hypochondriac diſeaſes, rheumatiſm, gout, nervous and intermittent diſorders.

Too hot an *air* weakens the fibres, by enlarging the bulk of the humours; it quickens the circulation, and too much increaſes perſpiration, whence an acrimony is induced in the remaining juices. If this ſtate of the *air* continues, or if cold ſuddenly comes upon it, ardent, bilious, and other fevers follow.

A cold *air* cauſes topical inflammations, ſuch as quinſies, pleuriſies, peripneumonies, by over-diſtending the lungs, from its gravity conſtringing the fibres, and condenſing the humours, and leſſening the perſpiration.

Too dry *air* ſhrivels up the ſolids, increaſſates the fluids, and diſpoſes to fevers.

A too moiſt *air* is extremely injurious; it relaxes and debilitates, it leſſens perſpiration, renders the blood too watery, produces coughs, aſthmas, dropſies, intermittent and nervous diſorders.

From a mixture of theſe different qualities of the *air*, different diſorders are produced: cold and moiſt *air* are bad, but a hot, moiſt, and light *air* is the worſt of all, becauſe of its relaxing putreſcent tendency. Beſides the above evident qualities, there are others that eſcape the ſenſe, though manifeſt by woful effects; ſuch are from infections, malignant miaſmata, exhalations, &c.

It is obſerved by ſome, that vaults, corn magazines, apple garrets, &c. ſhould open to the north, for that point is invariably proper: but the ſouth and weſt are almoſt conſtantly improper. The moſt healthy expoſure, if a houſe is to be built, is found as follows; cut one of the trees that grows there tranſverſely with a ſaw, then cloſely obſerve the rings; the ſide of the tree on which the diſtances between each ring is wideſt, is the moſt healthy expoſure, and the windows of the houſe (all other circumſtances being the ſame) ſhould ever face that way.

The infirm and valetudinary ſuffer much from the diſpoſition and changes of the *air*. Dr. Keil obſerves that, bodies emaciated by ſickneſs or evacuations, draw more than full ones. Dr. Monro ſen. aſſerts, that the body abſorbs more or leſs according to its vigour: on theſe, a reaſon may be given why thoſe who ſuffer by chronical diſtempers feel more uneaſineſs or pain in the evenings, particularly in the ſpring and autumn, than during the day, in the winter and ſummer ſeaſon. The abſorbed power of the body being increaſed by diſeaſe, and the *air* being more replete with matter, it is unſalutary at theſe times, very eaſily accounts for their complaints during thoſe ſeaſons. Hence we diſcern why early going to bed is productive of advantages ſo manifeſt in thoſe diſordered perſons whoſe prudence leads them to early repoſe. Med. Muſ. vol. i. p. 11. 14.

The common *air* of the atmoſphere is a ſulphur, and conſiſts of acid and phlogiſton. Dr. Shebbeare obſerves, in his Theory and Practice of Phyſic, that the particles of *air* are but little attractive of one another, and that fire is the power which keeps them in their conſtantly moving ſtate; that the particles of fire divide thoſe of *air*, and when the ſeparating action of the firſt abates, the attraction of the latter takes place. Admitting fire to be the reaſon of the elaſticity of the *air*, the phænomenon of its being deſtroyed by ſulphureous fumes, &c. is eaſily accounted for, for they repel fire, yea even the fermentation of vegetables is vented by the mineral gas.

Beſides the common, or atmoſpherical *air*, there are various other ſorts diſtinguiſhed by their reſpective characteriſtics; though of theſe, the really different ones from each other are the fixed, the acid, and the alkaline; of theſe and phlogiſton all the other ſorts are formed.

Fixed *air*, formerly called gas, and ſince has been named artificial, factitious, mephitic air, when found in caverns, mineral ſpirit; but factitious or fixt *air* is the general term, and when it produces any noxious effects either in conſequence of the proceſs by which it is procured,

cured, or the manner in which it is applied, it may then be called mephitic *air*.

The common *air* enters in different proportions into the compoſition of all kinds of bodies, and when thus combined, is in a fixed ſtate; when this *air* is let looſe by fermentation, putrefaction, or other means, it reſumes its former elaſticity.

The different proportions of fixed *air*, in the following bodies are as underwritten.

In yellow wax, - -	$\frac{1}{16}$ the part of its weight.
Coarſe ſugar, -	$\frac{1}{160}$
Oyſter ſhells, -	$\frac{1}{80}$
Muſtard-ſeed, -	
Peaſe, - - -	$\frac{1}{40}$
Tartar, -	$\frac{1}{20}$
Human blood, -	$\frac{1}{10}$

All the ſorts of *air* might be termed fixt, as well as that to which this appellation is given, for they are capable of being imbibed by ſome ſubſtance or other, conſequently of being fixed in them, after they have been in an elaſtic ſtate.

Fixed *air* is found at the bottom of pits; it riſes from fermenting liquors; it is one and a half heavier than pure common *air*; water imbibes more than its own bulk of it, flame is extinguiſhed, and animals are deſtroyed by it, even vegetables ſuffer by its influence; when the fixt *air* is ſeparated from chalk and other calcareous ſubſtances, they become cauſtic; it is antiſeptic, powerfully preventing and recovering from putrefaction, whence lime kilns, which diſcharge great quantities of *air* would be uſeful in the neighbourhood of populous towns; in glyſters it hath been very advantageouſly adminiſtered againſt putrid diſorders, and mixed with the drink has been thought to conduce to the relief of patients labouring under putrid fevers; to fixed *air*, the chief property of mineral waters is attributed: the Pyrmont water owes its briſk taſte and ſparkling appearance to it; and it powerfully diſſolves iron when it is mixed with water.

Dr. Hulme, in his publication entitled A ſafe and eaſy Remedy propoſed for the Relief of the Stone, recommends fixed *air* as a vermifuge; alſo his method of adminiſtering it, is by diſſolving ſal. alk. vegetab. gr. xv. in aq. ſimp. ℥iij. then in another veſſel he acidulates the ſame fluid, about an equal quantity, with as much ſp. vitr. ten. as is requiſite for ſaturating the alkali; this done, the patient drinks one of theſe potions, and immediately after it, the other: thus an efferveſcence takes place in the ſtomach, where all the extricated *air* is retained, and from whence it is diſtributed with the chyle, &c. with conſiderable advantage in various other medical intentions. The Dr. farther obſerves, that by this mixture, the reſpective liquors being ſubſtituted for the above named, we may recover an agreeable taſte, &c. in wines, malt liquors, &c. that are become vapid. In order to convey fixed *air* in a ſeparate ſtate into the ſtomach, it is the practice of ſome to uſe the ſal. alk. foſſil. cum crem. tart. gr. v. ad ſaturat. alk. commiſt. They obſerve, that when the ſal alk. veget. is uſed, the *air* is diſcharged before the mixture is completely ſwallowed; but with the ſal alk. ſal marin. the diſcharge of *air* requires ſome time. Hence, in ſuppreſſing vomiting, and in all thoſe caſes in which fixed *air* is uſefully conveyed into the ſtomach, this method excells. Fixed *air* hath been found uſeful in cancerous, conſumptive, ſcorbutic, and other diſorders, where an antiſeptic medicine might be expected to afford relief.

Inflammable *air*. It is found near the roofs of ſubterraneous places; it is chiefly formed of an acid vapour and phlogiſton; it takes fire and explodes like gunpowder on the approach of flame; it burns away, though inviſibly in the day time; it is ten times lighter than common *air*; it may be obtained from any inflammable ſubſtance; it kills animals as readily as fixed *air* does; but in ſome remarkable properties, the fixed and the inflammable *airs* are the reverſe of one another.

Nitrous *air*. It is generated from pyrites and from metals, &c. by means of the ſpirit of nitre. Its uſefulneſs in ſome inſtances ſeems to excel the fixed *air*. One of its moſt conſpicuous properties is the great diminution of any quantity of common *air* with which it is mixed, attended with a turbid red or deep orange colour and a conſiderable heat: this is truly ſurpriſing, in this inſtance, a quantity of *air*, as it were, devours a quantity of another kind of *air* half as large as itſelf, and yet is ſo far from gaining any addition to its bulk, that it is conſiderably diminiſhed by it. The ſmell of the *air* much reſembles that of the ſmoaking ſpirit of nitre. Diſtilled water imbibes about one-tenth of its bulk of this kind of *air*, and then very obſtinately retains it. The nitrous *air* preſerves animal ſubſtances from putrefaction, and reſtores thoſe that are already putrid, in a degree far ſuperior to what is done by fixed *air*. It is peculiarly offenſive to ſeveral kinds of inſects, and probably might be ſo managed as to be deſtructive of worms.

Acid *air*. It is obtained from metals and with the ſpirit of ſalt: or from this ſpirit without the metals or any thing elſe, being only the vapour or fumes thereof. It loſes its elaſticity by coming into contact with water. It renders the water with which it is mixed, very acid. It diſſolves iron very ſpeedily and generates inflammable *air*. It cannot be condenſed by cold, as the vapours of water are, and ſo may properly be called an acid *air*. This acid *air* extinguiſhes flame, and is heavier than common *air*. One-third of it joined with two-thirds of pure water forms a ſpirit of ſalt that equals in goodneſs the beſt that is obtained by the uſual methods. But a ſtill ſtronger ſpirit of ſalt may be made by mixing this acid *air* in a due degree with water.

Alkaline *air* is the vapour of volatile alkaline ſalt; it is not condenſible by cold; it is readily imbibed by water, and therewith forms the volatile alkaline ſpirits; by a combination of the alkaline *air* with water, a ſtronger ſpirit is obtained than by the uſual proceſſes.

Air is injured by candles, &c. burning in it, or by crouds of people breathing in it. A common candle is ſaid to conſume (i. e. render unfit for uſe) a gallon of *air* in a minute, if ſo, how is the due reſtoration made of what is injured by the reſpiration of animals, by flames of every kind, &c. The diminution of common *air* by the burning candles, &c. is in part owing to the precipitation of the fixed *air* from it; which may be effected by ſomething emitted from the burning bodies which has a ſtronger affinity with the other conſtituent parts of the atmoſphere. In part, putrid and other kind of vapours are diffuſed in the *air* by which it is greatly vitiated. But by the vegetation of plants, which imbibe the offending matter, injured *air* is in part reſtored to its former ſtate; the agitation of the waters (as ſeas, lakes, rivers, &c.) contribute to the purification of the *air*. The burning of many materials ſets at liberty their fixed *air*, which in part becoming elaſtic, ſupplies the defect made in the atmoſphere, by the cauſes above mentioned, hence the ſeeming deſtruction of the *air* is but a circulation of it.

The extent of this ſubject and its influence in the healing art, renders an attention to it neceſſary, and the enquirer will meet with much light thrown thereon in his peruſal of the following, viz.

Hoffman, in his Med. Rat. Syſt. artic. de Aere.

Boerhaave on Air. Theſe two authors have treated on *air* both philoſophically and medically; the latter hath collected all that is valuable from both his predeceſſors and contemporaries.

Hale's Statical Experiments. Dr. Fr. Cliffton's tranſlation of Hippocrates on Air, &c. Arburthnot on Air. Huxham on Air and Epidemic Diſeaſes. Shaw's Abridgement of Boyle's Works, in the article Air. Macbride's Eſſay on the Nature and Properties of Fixed Air; and Prieſtley on Different Kinds of Air. Dictionary of Chemiſtry, edit. ii. Percival's Eſſays, vol. ii. and iii. Dobſon on Fixed Air.

ÆRA, cockle, or darnel.

ÆRDADI, ſo Paracelſus names certain ſpirits which he ſuppoſes to live in the air.

ÆREOLUM, a weight of about twenty grains.

ÆRIFICATIO. It is the producing of air from other bodies, or rather, converting them into air.

ÆRITIS, a name of the anagallis.

ÆROLOGICE, that part of medicine which treats of air, explains its properties and uſe in the animal œconomy, and its efficacy in preſerving and reſtoring health.

ÆROMELI, honey; alſo a name for manna. From ἀὴρ, *air*, and μέλι, *honey*.

ÆROPHOBI, from ἀὴρ, *air*, and φόβος, *fear*, according to Cælius Aurelianus, ſome phrenetic patients are afraid of a lucid, and others of an obſcure air, and theſe he calls *ærophobi*. So that,

ÆROPHOBIA, is a ſymptom of the phrenitis. See ÆROPHOBI.

ÆROSIS, an imaginary reſolution of the blood into vapour, ſuppoſed neceſſary to the ſupport of the vital ſpirits, and ſaid to be brought about by the ventilation of the air during inſpiration, in the manner that the flame of fuel is kindled by blowing it.

ÆROSUS (Lapis), ſo Pliny calls the cadmia, which is ſuppoſed to be Galen's cadmia lapidoſa.

ÆRUGINOSUS, of the colour of verdegriſe, or green. This word is often applied to what is diſcharged by vomiting of this colour, and to the bile.

ÆRUGO, the ruſt of any metal, but particularly of copper, called verdegriſe. See Æs.

Theſe are the natural and artificial ſorts, of the firſt is a greeniſh marcaſite, like the drops of iron: it is found in copper mines, but is of no uſe. There is alſo on ſome mountains in Moravia a ſort of green grains like ſand, that is of a graſs green when uſed in painting. It is called the Hungarian mountain, or ſea verdegriſe.

ÆRUGO RASILIS. Hang a copper plate over the ſtrongeſt vinegar ſo as not to touch it, and after ten days ſcrape off the ruſt, which is thus called.

ÆRUGO SCOLECIA. Of this there are two ſorts, viz. the foſſile and the factitious; the foſſile is the beſt, the factitious is made as follows: put ij. ℔ of ſtrong wine vinegar into a Cyprian copper mortar, with a peſtle of the ſame, rub it round until it is ropy, when add a dram of alum, and the ſame quantity of tranſparent foſſile ſalt, or of nitre, beat them well in the ſun during the dog days until the whole is green and ropy, then draw it out in the form of worms.

Applied as a collyrium, being firſt mixed with gum ammoniacum, any of the verdegriſe deſtroys the calloſities of fiſtulas.

ÆS, called alſo cuprum χαλκὸς, Venus, Copper. It is found in many countries, but chiefly in Sweden, Hungary, and Germany.

The ores of copper are of various colours from yellow to black, though generally they are blue, purple, violet, or green: the yellow is pure copper ore, the black contains a portion of ſilver. The ores of copper are ſmelted with great difficulty, and require many fuſions to render them pure. An aſſay may be thus made: firſt calcine a ſmall quantity of the ore, then take two ounces thereof and powder it fine, then mix it with double its weight of the black flux, intermixed with charcoal duſt, after which fuſe it briſkly in a wind furnace, that it may flow thin for half an hour, and the pure copper will be at the bottom.

The chemical character for copper is ♀.

Its gravity is to ſilver as eight is to ten, to gold as eight to nineteen, and to water as eight to one.

It is conſiderably but not entirely fixed in the fire.

It is malleable and ductile into a fine wire.

It is elaſtic and ſonorous.

It melts not before ignition, or a ſtrong white heat, and when melted, if a drop of cold water is let fall upon it, it flies about with violence, ſo that it is dangerous to the by-ſtanders.

It calcines by a weaker red heat into a red powder.

It readily diſſolves in any ſalt, and is perfectly diſſolved in aq. regia, and in the oil of vitriol, if the oil is made hot.

Diſſolved in any acid it gives a green tincture, though aq. fortis ſoon becomes blue after a portion of copper is diſſolved in it.

Diſſolved by fixed alkalies it is green, by the volatile it is blue. Dr. Lewis obſerves, that if the $\frac{1}{1000}$ part of a grain of copper be diſſolved in a pint of water, a blue colour will be produced by adding a volatile alkali to it.

So great is its diviſibility, that one grain diſſolved in ſp. ſal ammon. will tincture 385,200 times its weight of water.

A ſmall quantity of arſenic gives to copper a great degree of hardneſs and whiteneſs: thus pins may be made white and brittle by it. The merc. cor. alb. alſo whitens it.

Copper burns and gives a green flame in the fire or candle. If one part of copper filings is well ground with two parts or more of merc. cor. alb. and then diſtilled in a glaſs retort, the mercury is ſent over pure and in its natural ſtate, and the copper remains intimately mixt with the ſalts in the form of a yellowiſh or reddiſh reſin, which is ſometimes tranſparent, at others opake; this reſin melts at a candle and gives a green flame.

If copper is calcined till all its ſulphur is waſted, it turns to a red aſh, which being expoſed on a tile to the focus of a great burning glaſs, is converted into a deep red glaſs. This glaſs melted on a piece of charcoal in the focus of the ſame glaſs becomes pure copper again. Hence copper evidently conſiſts of a red inflammable ſulphur and a vitrifiable earth, which laſt is its metallic part.

Copper and tin make a good bell-metal, which is uſeful in microſcopes and reflecting teleſcopes.

Copper and zinc form the prince's metal.

Copper and the acid of grapes make verdegriſe.

Copper and calamine ſtone make braſs, which is owing merely to the zinc contained in the calamine. The vapours of the zinc, which join with the copper in making braſs, increaſes the weight of the copper ſometimes to near one half more than its original weight.

Volatile ſpirits receive from a ſmall quantity of copper a deep blue, and if added to ſolutions of it in acids, when ſo far diluted as to appear almoſt or altogether colourleſs, it changes them immediately to the ſame fine colour. If a piece of bright iron be immerſed in the acid ſolution of copper, the acid quits the copper to attack the iron, and the copper, in its ſeparation from the menſtruum, adheres to the iron, which ſoon appears covered with a cupreous coat. On theſe principles very minute quantities of copper diſſolved in liquors may be readily diſcovered.

If copper is ſwallowed in its pure ſtate it is inoffenſive. Some practitioners obſerve that copper when diſſolved is ſtrongly ſtyptic, and ſo far from cauſing exulcerations of the inteſtines, that it heals them: it vomits by its nauſeous ſtimulus, which will continue for ſeveral days. Dr Alſton ſays, in his Lectures on the Materia Medica, that the ærata and the ferrata do not differ much in any thing but the ſtrong nauſea that the firſt produces, and the corroſive quality that the latter poſſeſſes.

Lemery obſerves, that if water lays long in copper veſſels, it acquires a taſte of the metal. He cautions againſt a careleſs uſe of copper veſſels for boiling ſyrups, acids, &c. in; for, though while the ſyrup, &c. are in a boiling heat, if they are continued ſo all the day long, no inconveniency is diſcovered; but in any degree below the heat which keeps up a bubbling in the ſyrup, or whatever elſe, the metal will be corroded, and the preparation injured.

The following preparations are made from this metal:

Ærugo æris, called alſo viride æris, cupri rubigo, verdegriſe. It is copper corroded by a fermented vegetable acid, into a bluiſh green ſubſtance. The copper is made into very thin plates, which are ſuſpended over the vapours ariſing from wine, during its acetous fermentation: or the huſks and ſtalks of grapes are dried, and then being bruiſed, are dipped in wine and made into balls, which are left to ferment until they acquire the acetous quality; when they are broken with the hand, and ſtratified with theſe copper-plates, and left until the verdegriſe is produced. The wine of Languedoc is the beſt for this uſe: but though, in reading a deſcription of the proceſs, the management ſeems very eaſy, yet trifles prevent ſucceſs, and renders it very difficult to obtain. The beſt as well as the greateſt quantity is made at Montpelier, where there is one ſort in powder and another in lumps. The whole proceſs of making this article, as it is now practiſed in Montpelier, may be ſeen in the Med. Muſ. vol. iii. p. 245—250. The ſort which we receive from France is generally mixed with the ſtalks, &c. of grapes, which may be ſeparated by pulverization, they being more difficultly powdered than the verdegriſe itſelf. To purify it, diſſolve in ſix or ſeven times its weight of diſtilled vinegar, then decant and evaporate the ſolution. If good, it is dry, of a beautiful deep green, with a few white ſpots; and when rubbed on the hand with a little ſaliva or water, it forms a ſmooth paſte, free from gritineſs. It is adulterated by mixing pumice-ſtone, marble, vitriol, &c. The two firſt are diſcovered by wetting your thumb, and rubbing the ſuſpected verdegriſe betwixt

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it and your finger, by which the pumice-ſtone and marble becomes white; the latter is diſcovered by burning a little on a tile, by which the vitriol is turned into a red ſubſtance. In ſpirit of wine and in water, this concrete is partially ſoluble; in vinegar it is wholly ſo. If a ſaturate ſolution of it in vinegar is ſet to exhale in a warm place, the greateſt part of the verdegriſe may be recovered in a cryſtalline form; and if theſe cryſtals are diſtilled in a retort, the acetous acid aſcends from them in a highly concentrated ſtate, and the cryſtals are then called diſtilled or calcined verdegriſe, or the vitriol of Venus; if ſet in a damp place to diſſolve, its called the liquor of Venus. Verdegriſe is uſed by dyers, ſkinners, hatters, painters, &c. as well as in medicine: in miniature painting the diſtilled ſort is the beſt. Its uſe, as an external medicine, is to deterge foul ulcers, being firſt mixed with other ingredients, as in the Ung. Baſil. Virid. and the Ung. Ægypt. if it is made into a paſte with ſaliva, or any thing not oily nor unctuous, hard calluſes may be diſſolved therewith. In phagedenic ulcers, and moſt unpromiſing ſores with ichor, fungus, ſtinking diſcharge, and turned edges, yaws, &c copper applied to the ſore parts is uſeful. Foul chancres that yield not to mercury inwardly, has yielded to a ſolution of the vitriol. cœrul. Whether venereal, or ſcorbutic, or what elſe, apply the mel. Ægypt. or other preparations of copper; its ſtimulus helps nature to throw off ſloughs, particularly in ulcerated ſore throats. Internally taken, a vomiting is inſtantly provoked by ſwallowing a grain or two of verdegriſe, ſo for its ſpeedy effect it may be uſed to diſcharge any poiſonous matter received into the ſtomach. Large portions (as half an ounce or more) have been ſwallowed without any other inconvenience than the preſent vomiting, yet in ſmaller quantities, beſides the vomiting, it excites a pain in the ſtomach and griping in the guts, cauſes a teneſmus, ulcerations, and bloody ſtools, difficult breathing, contractions of the limbs, &c. which often terminates in death. Hence great care ſhould be had of copper or braſs veſſels in which acids or fats are boiled, leſt the verdegriſe obtained thereby ſhould be productive of diſeaſes: the ſcurvy in ſeamen is ſuppoſed to be produced by this, as one cauſe. See Lond. Med. Obſ. & Inq. vol. ii. Though acids, &c. while boiling, do not corrode the metal, a ſhort ſpace of time ſerves for the effect when the boiling heat is abated. In caſe of verdegriſe being ſwallowed, give oil and warm water, both by the mouth and by the anus, in order to waſh away the whole of this offenſive matter, and endeavour to excite a diſcharge by vomiting with all poſſible ſpeed; after due evacuations an anodyne may be given, if there is great pain, muſk, or other cordials, with a milk diet, may then be preſcribed.

Verdegriſe cannot be reduced to powder but by levigation.

ÆSECAVUM. Braſs.

ÆS USTUM, burnt copper. Thin plates of copper are laid ſtratum ſuper ſtratum in a crucible, with ſulphur and ſea ſalt, then they are placed over a hot charcoal fire, and there continued till all the ſulphur is conſumed, or until the plates can be reduced to a powder. If good, it is of an iron grey on the outſide, of a reddiſh grey within, and if two pieces are rubbed together, a vermillion red is produced; it muſt alſo be brittle and glittering when broken. It was formerly uſed for deſtroying fungous fleſh.

If the burnt copper is made red hot, and quenched in the ol. lini. nine times, then powdered it takes the name of ſaffron of copper.

ÆS PAUPERUM, copper ore diveſted of its ſilver, when it contains any, is thus named.

AQUÆ CUPREÆ, cupreous or coppery waters. There are ſprings of water which are impregnated with copper, ſuch are the ſprings at Neuſol in Hungary, and at Wicklow in Ireland. They are little different from a ſolution of the vitriol of copper in common water: ſome of theſe ſprings afford vitriol on evaporating them duly. Copper is precipitated from theſe waters by adding pieces of iron thereto. Extremely ſlight impregnations of copper in any waters are diſcovered by their ſtaining poliſhed iron, when immerſed therein, of a copper colour, or by ſtaining a blue with volatile alkaline ſpirits. Theſe waters have been uſed as external detergents, but preſent practice ſeems totally to neglect them.

FLOS ÆRIS, flowers of copper. Copper reduced to ſmall grains, by pouring cold water on it when in a ſtate of fuſion, is thus called. The cold water is poured on the copper as it runs out of the furnace into the receiver.

SQUAMÆ ÆRIS, the flakes of copper. Theſe fly off in hammering this metal when heated. The beſt are of a deep yellow colour, and that ruſt if ſprinkled with vinegar. Theſe from the Cyprian copper-works are called *belitis*.

TINCT. VENERIS. ℞ Ærug. æris ʒj. ſp. ſal. ammon. & ſp. vin. R. aa ℥ ß. m. & ſtent ſimul, donec aqua colorem ſaphirinum acquiſiverit. This tincture is an admirable preparation, with which to make an injection for a gonorrhœa, if care be taken duly to dilute it, and ſkill enough is poſſeſſed to know when the infection is only in the urethra, a perſon may be ſoon and infallibly cured by it; to an ounce of pure water add one drop of the above tincture. Dr. W. Saunders, obſerves in his Lectures on the Mat. Med. that all ſolutions of metals are anti-inflammatory and ſedative, or eaſe pain, provided that the ſolution is not ſo ſtrong as to ſtimulate.

TINCT. VENERIS VOL. ℞ Limaturæ cupri. ʒj. ſp. ſal ammmon. ʒxij. m. This ſolution hath been given internally to the quantity of four or five drops at a doſe, as a diuretic. Boerhaave directs to be given with three drops, in a morning faſting, with a glaſs of mead, and this doſe to be daily doubled until the doſe is 24 drops, which continue for ſome days: thus he hath ſucceeded ſometimes in curing dropſies, though in other inſtances it failed him. When effectual, it produced very copious diſcharges of urine. This tincture is a good ſubſtitute for the Cuprum Ammoniacum of the Edinb. Diſp.

Metallic aſtringents are more active than alum, and more powerful, more eaſily, and more quickly diſſolved in the ſtomach, are more diffuſive and extenſive in their influence on the habit, and to be preferred when ſpeedy effects are to be obtained. Of all the metals, copper is the moſt aſtringent, moſt ſoluble in the ſtomach; but the doſe is difficultly aſcertained, becauſe of the uncertainty of the acid in the ſtomach, whence it is rarely uſed. Dr. Saunders obſerves, that an over doſe of the ærugo æris, is active, ſtimulent, and aſtringent, and ſo quickly proves emetic, as to be thrown up before it hurts: that an under doſe excites a nauſea, and that to uſe it to the greateſt advantage, is to give it in nauſeating doſes. The R. Veneris vol. if given ſo as to purge and vomit, by its ſudden action, ſometimes does wonders.

Dr. G. Fordyce, in his Lectures on the Mat. Med. adviſes to withhold from the uſe of cupreous preparations, when the intention is to ſtrengthen; but when it is deſigned to leſſen irritability, he ſays, they are extremely uſeful, particularly in hyſteric caſes attended with plethora, and in epileptic ſpaſms. In ſeveral inſtances of intermittents, and of mortifications, the preparations of copper, ſuch as were in a ſaline ſtate, as the cuprum ammoniac. the vitr. cærul & the tinct. Veneris vol. were equally efficacious with the bark; in this laſt uſe, the vitr. cærul. to gr. ſs. for a doſe, has effected wonders.

Dr. Brown, in his Natural Hiſtory of Jamaica, prefers preparations of copper, in thoſe dropſies which proceed from a general langour of the ſolid ſyſtem, in which caſe they prove very uſeful as diuretics and ſtrengtheners. He prefers the tinct. Veneris vol. to all other preparations of this metal. He farther remarks, that in hot climates where the body is much relaxed, the vitriol of copper is the beſt detergent of foul ulcers.

See Neuman's Chem. Works. Dict. of Chem. edit. ii.

ÆSALO, ÆSALON, the merlin or hobby, a bird ſo called. It is a ſpecies of hawk.

ÆSCHRION, a phyſician of the Empiric ſect, and a maſter of Galen's.

ÆSCHYNOMENE SPINOSA, a ſpecies of the ſenſitive plant.

ÆSCHYNOMENOUS PLANTS (of *αἰσχύνομαι, I am aſhamed*) ſenſitive plants.

ÆSCULAPIUS, a pupil of Chiron, and a phyſician of Greece. Le Clerc ſays, he was a Phœnician, a nephew of Chanaan, who is Hermes. *Æſculapius* had two ſons, Machaon and Podalirius, both phyſicians. Hippo-

cratesis he ſeventeenth deſcend' at from *Æſculapius*. See PODALIRIUS.

ÆSTAS, Summer. As this is uſually a healthy ſeaſon, health may ſtill be prolonged, if, during the warmer months, we eat but a little at a time, and make a proportionable increaſe in the number of our meals.

ÆSTATES, freckles in the face.

ÆSTHPHARA, incineration, or burning of the fleſh, or any other part of the body.

ÆSTRUS, a ſpecies of beetle.

ÆSTUARIUM, ſtoves or machines for conveying heat to all parts of the body at once.

ÆSTUATIO, the boiling up, or rather the fermenting of liquors when mixed.

ÆSTUS VOLATICUS. Vogel and Cullen place this word as ſynonymous with phlogoſis. It is a ſudden ſcorching heat, with redneſs of the face, that ſoon flies off.

ÆTAS, age. One life; an hundred years; alſo a certain ſtage of life. The ancients reckoned ſix ſtages of life, viz. Pueritia, child-hood, which is the fifth year of our age. Adoleſcentia, youth, reckoned to the eighteenth, and youth properly ſo called to the twenty-fifth year; Juventus, reckoned from the twenty-fifth to the thirty-fifth, Virilis Ætas, man-hood, from the thirty-fifth to the fiftieth. Senectus, old age, from fifty to ſixty. Crepita Ætas, decrepid age, which ends in death. Blancard.

Every age hath its diſeaſes; and Hippocrates obſerves, that thoſe of youth continuing after puberty are difficult to cure. In infancy and old age, many object to the uſe of medicine; but as in both theſe ſtages there is great infirmity; ſo there is a great ſcope both for the practice and the improvement of the medical art: neglect herein beſpeaks an equal ignorance and inhumanity: at a certainty ſome diſorders may be radically cured, and all may be palliated. Infancy may be aided in its advances, and the approaches of age as to its infirmities, may be retarded.

ÆTHALES, from ἀεὶ, *always*, and θάλλω, *to be green*, the houſeleek.

ÆTHER, from αἴθω, *ardeo, ſplendeo*, bright and ſplendid. So the ſky or firmament, and alſo the electric matter has been called; but what is here deſigned is a chemical combination of the acetous acid, phlogiſton, and water, but differing from alcohol of wine (from which it is obtained) by having a far leſs proportion of the two latter principles, of which the alcohol is diveſted by the mineral acid added to it in the preparation of the *æther*. Macquer ſays in his Dict. of Chem. that there is a ſubſtance exactly intermediate betwixt ardent ſpirits and oil. That when the vitriolic acid is mixed with rectified ſpirit of wine, the firſt liquor which ariſes by diſtillation, is a mere volatile ſpirit of wine only; the liquor which ariſes next, is ſpirit of wine deprived of part of its watery principle by vitriolic acid. So is ſpirit of wine eſſentially altered, and approximated to the nature of oil, in proportion to the quantity of watery principle which it hath loſt. If the diſtillation is continued after the *æther* hath ariſen, the vitriolic acid having deprived the ſpirit of wine of all its water, an oil ariſes, which is improperly called ſweet oil of vitriol.

If to the *æther*, obtained by depriving alcohol of wine of its phlogiſton and phlegm, by the addition of the vitriolic acid, you gradually add the nitrous acid, the remaining phlogiſton and water is ſeparated, and the acetous acid is pure, except perhaps for the mechanical mixture of an extremely minute portion of water; and this is the pureſt *æther*. If to ſo much *æther* as is at firſt obtained by the aid of the vitriolic acid, more of the acetous acid be added, more of the phlogiſton and water are ſeparated, and we have the oleum dulce.—Hence obſerve, that alcohol of wine is a combination of the acetous acid, phlogiſton, and water; *æther* prepared with the vitriolic acid is the ſame, but in leſs proportion of the phlogiſton and water; the oleum dulce contains ſtill leſs phlogiſton and water; and the *æther* obtained by the vitriolic acid, with the addition of the nitrous acid, moſt perfectly freed from its phlogiſton and water, ſo is the pureſt acetous acid. Again, a mixture of *æther* and alcohol forms the ſpt. nitri D and the ſpt. vitr. D. of the ſhops; and a compoſition of alcohol æther and oleum dulce forms the liquor anodynus mineralis Hoffmanni.

This fluid, beſides its appellation of *æther*, is by ſome named acidum vitrioli vinoſum; by others ſpiritus ætherеus; and in the Pharm. Edinb. it is entitled ſpt. vini æthereus; and, as it may be obtained by means of the vitriolic, nitrous, and marine acids indifferently, ſo from the name of the acid employed, the terms vitriolic, nitrous, or marine *æther* have obtained. It ſhould be noted that, *æthers* produced by the different mineral acids, poſſeſs particular different properties.

Various are the proceſſes by which *æther* is made, but the following ſeems to be as eaſy as any, and attended with fewer inconveniences. Take a two ounce phial, with a long neck, and broad lip, for the conveniency of pouring; put the ſill of it twenty times, of pure alcohol, in a retort; pour on this, by an ounce at a time, eleven of the ſame meaſures of highly concentrated oil of vitriol; at every addition of the acid, cork the retort, and wet the outſide with cold water, till the heat of the liquor is abated. This is to prevent the evaporation of the *æther*, which the heat generated by the mixture would otherwiſe throw off. Place it in an iron pot half an inch from the bottom, cover the veſſel with ſand to three or four inches above the liquor; lute on a receiver with a cloſe lute, leaving a pinhole on the luting: then apply a heat, gradually, to make it ſimmer; continue this till about one-fourth part begins to riſe in the retort. When this appears, raiſe the veſſel in the ſand, and immediately put out the fire. During the whole of the operation, the receiver is to be kept cool, by letting a ſtream of cold water fall on it, or by wet cloths frequently applied. There is now come over into the receiver *æther*, volatile, vitriolic acid (formed from part of the fixed vitriolic acid, combining with part of the phlogiſton of the alcohol) water, and a portion of the alcohol undecompoſed. The volatile vitriolic acid renders part of the *æther* ſoluble in water; therefore, to this ſubſtance in the retort, we are to add a little cauſtic fixed vegetable alcali, to combine with the ſuperfluous acid, and diſtil again by a heat of one hundred degrees of Farenheit's thermometer; the *æther*, only being vapour in that degree of heat, will come over perfectly pure, and leave the other ſubſtances behind. See the Town and Country Magazine for July, 1769.

The Edinburgh Pharmacopoeia, printed A. D. 1777, contains the following proceſs for making *æther*, liquor æthereus vitriolicus, vitriolic æthereal liquor.

Take of rectified ſpirit of wine 32 ounces by weight, acid of vitriol 16 ounces by weight. Put the ſpirit into a glaſs retort, previouſly heated, and pour the acid to it in one ſtream; gradually mix by gently and often ſhaking; then immediately diſtill in ſand, (heated previous to this operation,) into a receiver cooled by water or ſnow. Regulate the fire ſo as quickly to boil the liquor, and continue to boil until 16 ounces by weight is brought over, then remove the retort from the ſand. To the diſtilled liquor, add two drams of the ſtrong common cauſtic; then diſtill it again from a deep retort into a receiver properly cooled, untill 10 ounces by weight of *æther* are obtained.

Various modes of preparing this fluid may be ſeen in the different writers noted below.

Some of the properties of this liquid are as follow:

It is the moſt light, moſt volatile, and moſt inflammable of all known liquids.

It ſwims on the higheſt rectified ſpirit of wine, as oil does upon water.

It is remarkably cold when dropped upon the hand; and it affects the thermometer in an extraordinary manner, cauſing the quickſilver to fall, when neither water nor ſpirit of wine would produce ſuch an effect.

It is neither acid nor alkaline, therefore perfectly free from that ſaline acrimony with which all the common volatile ſpirits abound.

It is one of the moſt powerful ſolvents known in chemiſtry. It will not mix with acids, alkalies, nor vinous ſpirits. It mixes with twenty times its weight of water, if well ſhook therewith; and is an effectual ſolvent of oils, balſams, reſins, gum reſins, gums, wax, &c.

Macquer obſerves, in his Dictionary of Chemiſtry, that *æther* does not mix with water, as ſpirit of wine does, in all proportions; but that ten parts of water are required to diſſolve one part of *æther*. But a larger proportion of water is more convenient, when the mixture is made to be

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taken as one medicine. He alſo adds, that *æther* diſſolves a ſmall quantity of water.

Its affinity with gold exceeds that of aqua regia therewith.

It extracts gold, wherever it is, from among other baſer metals (i. e. from any one, or all of them) and thus gold is both better and ſooner purified, than by any other means.

It is the lighteſt of all liquors; a bottle that holds 20 ounces of the oil of vitriol, holds but ſeven of *æther*.

Agitated in a phial with the white of egg, lymph, or human blood, it ſeems rather to attenuate them.

The effects of this wonderful preparation, as a ſubject of philoſophy, are too numerous to inſert in this place; the reader is therefore referred to the authors undermentioned, who have written profeſſedly on it. As to its antiquity, it is mentioned in ſeveral old books of chemiſtry; but they do not diſtinctly notice nor deſcribe it, nor yet the manner of producing it: the public attention to it, was firſt excited by a publication in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, A. D. 1730, by a German, who calls himſelf Frobenius. Its medical properties, the moſt valuable, as well as moſt ſuited to the general deſign of this work, we proceed to obſerve, that the late Dr. Ward was the firſt who is known to have uſed it in England: with the *æther* it was that he ſo inſtantly relieved the head-ach, and other pains in the external parts: but for the firſt publication on its internal uſe, we are indebted to Mr. Turner, ſurgeon, in Liverpool, by whom it is prepared for a very extenſive ſale. He mixes two drams of *æther* with ſix or eight ounces of water, and gives from one to four large ſpoonfuls at a time, repeating the doſe as required. Its general effects internally, are anodyne and perſpirative; others give five or ſix drops for a doſe, firſt dropping it on ſugar; it is alſo ſo potent a diuretic, that an incautious uſe of it may produce a diabetes; this is the only inconvenience to which it manifeſts any tendency. In obſtinate head-achs, vertigos, epilepſies, convulſions, hyſteric and hypochondriac diſorders, the palſy, gout, rheumatiſm, flatulent, and other diſorders of the ſtomach and bowels, aſthmas, hiccough, whooping-cough, &c. by its application externally, or adminiſtration internally, or both, the moſt deſirable effects have followed. When it is applied externally, procure a bit of linen rag, of ſuch a dimenſion as to be conveniently covered by the palm of the hand; moiſten the rag with the *æther*, and inſtantly apply it to the part affected, preſſing it very cloſe, ſo as to prevent the eſcape of its fumes, for two or three minutes, in which time the rag will be found dry, and may be taken away. Fred. Hoffman indeed employed it (in as much as his liquor. mineral. anod. may be ranked with it) as a ſedative and antiſpaſmodic.

As to the teſts of the goodneſs of *æther*, Mr. Turner informs us that the moſt perfect ſort is obtained by the aſſiſtance of the vitriolic acid; that it is perfectly colourleſs, and ſtrikes the noſe very ſtrongly with the ſulphureous ſmell; a drop let fall on the hand inſtantly vaniſhes, without leaving any moiſture behind; five or ſix drops dropped together upon a table will diſappear in a few ſeconds of a minute, and leave only the appearance of a large oily ring behind. The beſt *æther* requires the greateſt quantity of water to be mixed with it; if, therefore, to ſix tea-ſpoonfuls of water, in a ſmall phial; you add one of the *æther* to be examined, cork it up, and ſhake them well together, and if, upon ſtanding a little while, ſome of the *æther* appears at the top, in form of oil, ſufficient to cover the ſurface of the mixture, it is good, provided alſo that it anſwers the other methods of trial; but if none appears, or not enough to cover the ſurface of the mixture, it was either adulterated, or not well rectified: if to this mixture of *æther* and water you add a little ſalt of tartar, and any fermentation enſues, the *æther* was not well rectified.

See Malouin's Chimie Medicinale, tom. ii. p. 451. Macquer's Chimie Pratique, tranſlated by Reid. Dictionary of Chemiſtry, edit. ii. Dr. Frobenius's accounts of *æther*, inſerted in the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1733 and 1741. Pharm. Col. Edinb. The Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. ii. p. 176—186. An Account of the extraordinary medicinal fluid called *æther*, by M. Turner, ſurgeon, in Liverpool. Abridgment of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, vol. viii. p. 744. Cyclopedia, edit. A. D. 1778. Beaumé's Diſſertation on *æther*. This laſt is the moſt complete work on this ſubject.

ÆTHERIA HERBA, i. e. eryngo.

ÆTHIOPICUS LAPIS, Ethiopian ſtone. Its colour is like that of greeniſh jaſper; it is found in Ethiopia, is reſolvable into a milky appearance, and hath a biting taſte, but is of no conſiderable value in medicine.

ÆTHIOPIS, Ethiopian clary. Salvia *Æthiopis*. Lin. Its leaves are like thoſe of mullein, hairy and thick; the ſtalk is quadrangular, like that of balm; the ſeeds are two in a cell. A decoction of its root is commended in pleuriſies and rheumatiſms. Raii Hiſt.

ÆTHIOPICÆ (PILUL.) ℞ merc. pur. (cum mucilag. e gum. Arab. extinct.) ʒ vi. ſulph. ant. precip. reſ. guaiac. & ſap. Venet. āā ʒſs) f. maſ. & divid. in pillul. No. ccxl. quarum detur. i. ad. iv. mane nocteque. Dr. Plummer orders in a compoſition of this name and quality, equal parts of calomel and ſulph. aurat. ant. but the above, which is from the Ph. Col. Edinb. is in every reſpect equal to Dr. Plummer's in point of uſefulneſs, but not ſo apt to run off by ſtool.

ÆTHIOPIS ANTIMONIALIS, antimonial æthiops. Dr. Cockburn gives this in his treatiſe on the gonorrhœa, as follows: flux equal parts of antimony and ſea ſalt, in a crucible, and knock off the ſcoria, then rub equal parts of the regulus made in this manner, and mercury together, till they are incorporated. He extols it in cutaneous diſeaſes, glandular obſtructions, and many other chronical diſeaſes; a few grains are given at firſt, and the quantity is increaſed as the patient can bear it. Malouin, in his chemiſtry, gives various proceſſes for uniting antimony with mercury, ſome of which are more ſpeedy and others more perfect in forming this combination.

Dr. Huxham gives the following *æthiopis antimonialis*: ℞ argent. viv. ʒiv. antim. crud. ʒiij. flor. ſulph. ʒij. m. per triturat.

Dr. Plummer highly commends his æthiops in the Edinb. Med. Eſſays, as curative of ſpots, pimples, and flushing in the face, virulent gonorrhœas, ſciatica, rheumatiſms, lues venerea, ulcers with pain and ſwelling in the feet, ſcrophulous diſorders, &c. See PLUMMER's PIL.

ÆTHIOPIS MARTIALIS, martial æthiops. Put filings of ſteel into an unglazed earthen veſſel, with water enough to riſe four inches above the filings; the whole is to be ſtirred every day, and more water ſupplied, as that in the veſſels exhales, ſo that the filings may remain always covered; continue this procedure till they are reduced to a powder of an inky blackneſs. This preparation hath nothing but its troubleſomeneſs to diſtinguiſh it from the common filings.

ÆTHIOPIS MINERALIS. Æthiops, ſo called from its colour, which is like *αἰθιοπὶς, a blackmoor*, from *αἴθω to burn*, and *ὤψ, the countenance. Æthiops* Mineral. The uſual method of preparing this, is to rub equal parts of pure mercury and flowers of ſulphur in a mortar, till the mercury diſappears, and a very black powder is formed; but a more intimate coalition of the mercury with the ſulphur may be effected by melting the ſulphur in an iron ladle, then adding the quickſilver, and ſtirring them together, till the mixture is cold. If the mixture ſeems diſpoſed to flame, which may be known by its ſwelling up, and growing ſuddenly conſiſtent, carefully cover it, thus it is ſoon checked. The ſmall heat neceſſary here is in no danger of diſſipating either the mercury or the ſulphur.

As ſulphur ſo eminently abates the power of all the more active minerals, this medicine is thought by many to be no farther uſeful than as it is of efficacy in the ſtomach and bowels; others aſſert, that it enters the circulation, and is productive of very ſalutary effects. It is true that a portion of the mercury may be ſeparated from the ſulphur, during the paſſage of the *æthiops* through the body. Dr. Cruikſhank ſays, that Mr Hunter from experiments made on himſelf, thinks it probable, that every preparation of mercury is diſſolved in the human fluids, and converted, not only into a new preparation, but conſtantly into the ſame kind of preparation, before it acts on the morbid virus in the ſyſtem. He obſerves, that though quickſilver does not boil, in a heat leſs than 600 of Farenheit's thermometer; yet it may perhaps be wholly converted into vapour in a heat little more than that of the atmoſphere, and this more particularly when its particles

ticles are separated and divided. In this ſtate of vapour, he thinks it paſſes all out of the body, and becomes crude quickſilver. See his Appendix to Mr. Clare's Eſſay on the Cure of Abſceſſes. The doſe is from gr. v. to ℥ ſs. It is equally uſeful with the cinnab. ant. for fumigating venereal ulcers; and, like the cinnabar, it is hard to ſay that it is uſeful any other way.

ÆTHIOPIS VEGETABILIS. Vegetable Æthiops. By burning the ſea-wrack in the open air, it is reduced into a black powder, and is then called *vegetable æthiops*. The ſoap-boilers call this kelp. The beſt is from Scotland. From ℈ i. to ℈ ij. is given twice a day to remove ſcrophulous ſwellings.

ÆTHIOPUS ALBUS, i. e. Merc. alkalizat.

ÆTHNA. Subterraneous, inviſible, ſulphureous fire, which calcines rocks in the earth. The igneous meteors about burning mountains are called Æthnici.

ÆTHOLICES, from *αἴθω, to inflame* or *burn*. Superficial puſtules in the ſkin raiſed by heat, as boils, fiery puſtules, &c.

ÆTIA, *αἰτία*, the cauſe of a diſtemper.

ÆTIOLOGIA, Ætiology, from *αἰτία, a cauſe*, *λόγος, the reaſon of*. A treatiſe on the cauſes of diſeaſes, and their ſymptoms.

ÆTITÆ. See ÆTITES.

ÆTITES, eagle-ſtone, alſo called lapis aquilæ, according to Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy, it ſeems to be of the claſs called earths; the genus is clay; and it, with the geodæ, may rank under a ſpecies which may be named figured clay. It is a roundiſh ſtone of the pebble kind, from the ſize of a hazel-nut to that of a wall-nut, with a hollow in it, in which is a ſmaller ſtone, looſe, and that rattles when ſhaken, generally of a dark ruſſet, or of an aſh-colour. They are found among gravel in many countries, but the beſt comes from the Eaſt Indies.

AETIUS. There were three phyſicians of this name, viz. *Aetius* Sicanius, *Aetius* of Antioch, and *Aetius* of Amida, who lived in the end of the fourth, or beginning of the fifth century. His works are divided into four books or tetrabibli, and each of them into four ſermons, which again are ſubdivided into chapters, but he himſelf divided them into ſix books.

After *Aetius*, as celebrated, ſee ALEXANDER TRALLIANUS.

ÆTOI PHLEBES, eagle veins. According to Ruffus Epheſius, the veins that paſs through the temples to the head, were thus called.

ÆTOLION, i. e. granum cnidium.

ÆTONYCHUM, from *ἀετος, an eagle*, and *ὄνυξ, a claw*, or *nail*, i. e. lithoſpermum.

AFFECTIO, an affection. This is expreſſed in Greek by *πάθος*. It is a diſorder of the whole body, or a part of it, as in the hyſterics, colic, &c. thus by adding an adjective to *affectio*, moſt diſtempers are expreſſed.

AFFEOS. Froth or foam.

AFFIDRA. Ceruſs.

AFFINITAS, Affinity. Chemical affinities, (alſo called elective attractions) are defined a tendency which the different particles of matter have to unite and adhere together, whether theſe particles be heterogene or homogene.

The tranſlator of the Dict. of Chem. ſays in a note under the article *affinity*, that "By the terms *affinity* and elective attraction, we ought to underſtand the power by which the conſtituent parts of bodies unite, and not to ſuppoſe that this power is exerted by any ſimilarity and homogeniety of parts, or by any mechanical traction, as theſe terms ſeem to imply. The cauſe of this power, or the manner in which this union of conſtituent parts is produced, is unknown to us. To theſe terms, therefore, another leſs exceptionable, viz. the power of combination, may be ſubſtituted. In Dr. Macquer's definition of *affinity* are comprehended not only the power by which the conſtituent parts of bodies unite, which is the proper object of chemiſtry; but alſo, the power by which the integrant parts unite, which he calls the *affinity* of aggregation, and which is treated of by writers on natural philoſophy and mechanics under the terms attraction, gravitation, and cohefion. Whether theſe two kinds of union are produced from the ſame cauſe differently modified, as our author thinks, I know not; but their effects are ſo different, that they deſerve to be conſidered ſeparately: the union of integrant parts being only an appoſition of theſe parts, which are capable of being diſjointed by mechaniçal means, and without any change produced upon their properties; and the union of conſtituent parts, or combination, being attended with conſiderable changes of properties, and being incapable of diſjunction by mechanical means."

Attraction is of different kinds in nature, though probably they all depend ultimately on the ſame principles; they are, 1. The attraction of gravitation. 2. The magnetic attraction. 3. The attraction of electricity. 4. The attraction of cohefion or of aggregation. 5. Chemical attraction. The laſt, as already ſaid, is that tendency which bodies have, however different, to unite together and to remain in union: e. g. an acid unites with a metal, an earth, or an alcaline ſalt, and with either of theſe the acid forms one body; which body does not conſiſt of a combination of the properties of the acid and the metal, &c. but theſe loſing their original properties on their union, a new body, different from either, is formed.

Chemical attraction does not take place, but when the reſpective bodies are in a fluid ſtate. Before chemical attraction can take place betwixt two or more bodies, it is neceſſary to deſtroy their attraction of aggregation or cohefion, this is effected by diſſolving them. The component parts of bodies cannot come into the neceſſary contact with each other until the integrant parts of the bodies, which are to act and be acted on, are ſeparated, by a ſolution of them. Dry bodies, however, finely powdered, do not unite chemically. Attraction of aggregation requires only the application of ſurfaces, but chemical attraction abſolutely requires fluidity.

The power in bodies on which their various tranſpoſitions and combinations depend, and which is called their *affinity*, is a term like the Newtonian attraction, which is deſigned to expreſs not the cauſe, but the effect. When an acid ſpontaneouſly quits a metal to unite with an alkali, it is ſaid that it hath a greater *affinity* to the alkali than to the metal; this is only to ſay in other words, that it will unite with the alkali in preference to the metal.

The doctrine of the *affinities* of bodies is of very extenſive uſe in the chemical pharmacy; for as ſeveral proceſſes are founded on it, ſo if an error happens, and thereby the medicine proves unfit for its intended uſe, it may be rendered applicable to other purpoſes, by ſuch tranſpoſitions of their component parts, as are pointed out by the knowlege of their *affinities*. Combinations and ſeparations that are chemical, depend on elective attraction.

Sir Iſaac Newton's table of attractions, which was with the nitrous acid, was the firſt; next to him, Geoffroy improved on the ſubject, then Geller, Bergman, Dijon, Wenzel, Kirwan, &c. ſince them, others have contributed their additions, and from them all, the following table is formed, but chiefly from Bergman's. The ſubſtances in which theſe *affinities* are expreſſed in capital letters on the top of each ſeries, have the greateſt *affinity* with that immediately under it, a leſs affinity with the next, &c. to the end of the ſeries, &c. If any of the remote bodies have been combined with the top one, the addition of any of the intermediate bodies will diſunite them; the intermediate body uniting with the uppermoſt of the ſeries, and throwing out the remote one. Thus in the firſt ſeries of the *affinities* of water, a fixed alkali being placed between the water and inflammable ſpirit, it is to be concluded, that wherever water and ſpirit are mixed, the addition of any fixed alkaline ſalt will abſorb the water, and occaſion the pure ſpirit to be ſeparated. Where ſeveral ſubſtances are expreſſed in one ſeries, it is to be underſtood that any one of theſe bodies which are neareſt to the uppermoſt, will in like manner diſengage from it any one of thoſe which are more remote.

ACID OF VITRIOL.
Vegetable fixed alkali.
Mineral fixed alkali.
Lime.
Magneſia.
Volatile alkali.
Zinc.
Iron.

Lead.

Lead.
Copper.
Mercury.
Antimony.
Water.

ACID OF NITRE.

Vegetable fixed alkali.
Mineral fixed alkali.
Lime.
Magnesia.
Volatile alkali.
Zinc.
Iron.
Lead.
Copper.
Mercury.
Antimony.
Silver.
Water.

MARINE ACID.

Vegetable fixed alkali.
Mineral fixed alcali.
Lime.
Volatile alkali.
Zinc.
Iron.
Lead.
Copper.
Mercury.
Antimony.
Silver.
Water.

LEMON JUICE.

Lime.
Magnesia.
Vegetable fixed alcali.
Mineral fixed alcali.
Volatile alkali.
Zinc.
Iron.
Lead.
Copper.
Mercury.
Antimony.
Water.

DISTILLED VINEGAR.

Vegetable fixed alcali.
Mineral fixed alcali.
Lime.
Magnesia.
Volatile alkali.
Zinc.
Iron.
Lead.
Copper.
Mercury.
Antimony.
Water.

VEGETABLE ALCALI.

Acid of vitriol.
Acid of nitre.
Marine acid.
Acid of tartar.
Acid of lemon.
Diſtilled vinegar.
Aerial acid.
Sulphur.
Expreſſed oil.
Lead.
Copper.
Water.

MINERAL FIXED ALCALI.

Acid of vitriol.
Acid of nitre.
Marine acid.
Acid of tartar.
Acid of lemon.
Diſtilled vinegar.
Aerial acid.
Sulphur.
Expreſſed oil.
Lead.
Copper.
Water.

VOLATILE ALCALI.

Acid of vitriol.
Acid of nitre.
Marine acid.
Acid of tartar.
Acid of lemon.
Diſtilled vinegar.
Aerial acid.
Sulphur.
Expreſſed oil.
Copper.
Water.

QUICK LIME.

Acid of vitriol.
Acid of tartar.
Acid of nitre.
Marine acid.
Acid of lemon.
Diſtilled vinegar.
Aerial acid.
Sulphur.
Expreſſed oil.
Water.

MAGNESIA CALCINED.

Acid of vitriol.
Acid of nitre.
Marine acid.
Acid of tartar.
Acid of lemon.
Diſtilled vinegar.
Aerial acid.
Sulphur.

WATER.

Vegetable fixed alkali.
Volatile alkali.
Alchohol.
Vitriolated mineral alkali.
Æther.
Vitriolic acid.
Vitriolated vegetable alkali.
Alum.
Vitriol of iron.
Mercury ſublimate.

SULPHUR.

Fixed alkali.
Lime.
Magneſia.
Mercury.
Arſenic.
Volatile alkali.
Expreſſed oil.
Eſſential oil.
Æther.
Alcohol.

ALCOHOL.

Water.
Æther.
Eſſential oil.
Volatile alkali.
Fixed alkali.
Liver of ſulphur.
Sulphur.

ÆTHER.

Alcohol.
Eſſential oil.
Expreſſed oil.
Water.
Sulphur.

ESSENTIAL OIL.

Æther.
Alcohol.
Expreſſed oil.
Sulphur.

EXPRESSED OIL.

Æther.
Eſſential oil.
Fixed alkali.
Volatile alkali.
Sulphur.

MERCURY.

Marine acid.
Acid of vitriol.
Acid of tartar.
Acid of lemon.
Acid of nitre.
Diſtilled vinegar.
Aerial acid.

LEAD.

Acid of vitriol.
Acid of tartar.
Marine acid.
Nitrous acid.
Lemon juice.
Diſtilled vinegar.
Aerial acid.
Fixed alkali.
Expreſſed oil.

COPPER.

Acid of tartar.
Marine acid.
Acid of vitriol.
Acid of nitre.
Acid of lemon.
Diſtilled vinegar.
Aerial acid.
Fixed alkali.
Volatile alkali.
Expreſſed oil.

IRON.

Acid of ſugar.
Acid of tartar.
Acid of vitriol.
Marine acid.
Acid of nitre.
Acid of lemon.
Diſtilled vinegar.
Aerial acid.

ZINC.

Acid of ſugar.
Acid of vitriol.
Marine acid.
Acid of nitre.
Acid of tartar.
Acid of lemon.
Diſtilled vinegar.
Aerial acid.
Volatile alkali.

ANTIMONY.

Marine acid.
Acid of ſugar.
Acid of vitriol.
Acid of nitre.
Acid of tartar.
Acid of lemon.
Diſtilled vinegar.
Aerial acid.

See Geoffroy on Affinities, in the Memoirs of the French academy, for the year 1718—Geller's Metallurgic Chemiſtry—Medical Magazine—Dictionary of Chemiſtry, tranſlated from the French, edit. ii.—Dr. Wm. Keir's Inaugural Theſis, De Attractione Chemica. Edinb. 1778.

AFFION, an Arabian name of opium; alſo of an electary in which is opium.

AFFLATUS, or Adflatus. A vapour, or as the country people call it, a blaſt: it affects the body ſuddenly with a diſeaſe; it is a ſpecies of eryſipelas.

AFFLICTIO, Affliction. Though this is not a diſeaſe, it cauſes many. What excites anger, envy, hate, produces diſeaſes from tenſe fibres. What excites fear, grief, joy, or delight, beget diſeaſes from relaxation.

AFFRODINA. Venus.

AFFUSIO. Pouring a liquor upon ſomething, and ſometimes it means the ſame as ſuffuſio, a cataract.

AFIUN. Opium.

AFRICANUS FLOS. The African flower. Gerard ſpeaks of four ſorts, the fourth of which is called othonna, alſo tagetus Indicus minor, caryoph. Indicus, tanacetum Africanum, chryſanthemum Africanum, African marigold.

Miller reckons up thirteen ſpecies, but they are of no repute in medicine. Linæus calls this genus by the name of tagetes.

AFROB. Alchymiſtical lead, i. e. Crude antimony.

AGA CRETENSIUM. The Spaniſh milk thiſtle.

AGALACTIA, from α, negative, and γαλα, *milk*, a defect of milk in child-bed; hence ἀγαλακτος, an epithet given by Hippocrates to a lying-in-woman that hath no milk.

AGALLOCHUM. The aromatic aloe. The accounts given of this wood are ſo different from each other, as well as from the ſpecimens of it that are met with in our ſhops, that it ſeems moſt likely to be unknown amongſt us. Other woods, as the aſpalathus, lignum aquilæ, and calambour, which are ſaid to be of the ſame nature, are ſubſtituted for it. Whatever this article is in reality, it is alſo expreſſed by different writers by the following names, viz. lign. aloe. xyloaloe, ſinkoo, lign. calambac. The Arabians call it cebar, or ſebar, and ſometimes al-cebar.

It is brought from China, and the interior parts of the Eaſt Indies, in ſmall pieces. It is deſcribed as being compact, ponderous, of a yellow or ruſty brown colour, with black or purpliſh veins, ſometimes purple with aſh-coloured veins, and not unfrequently, as being all of a blackiſh colour. Such as brought into Europe is of a bitteriſh, reſinous taſte, and of a light aromatic ſmell. Set on fire it ſeems to melt like wax, emitting while it burns an agreeable fragrance; the degree of this fragrance gives the proof of its goodneſs.

One ounce of this wood yields to ſpirit of wine three drams of a reſinous extract; and to water it yields two drams. If diſtilled with water, it yields an highly cordial oil, in the proportion of half an ounce from one hundred and ſixty ounces. Miller. Dale.

AGALLOCHUM. A name of the calambac wood.

AGALUGI. A name of the agallochum.

AGALLUGUN. A name of the agallochum.

AGAPE, αγαπη, *love*; alſo an afternoon or evening's meal.

AGARICUS AURICULÆ FORMÆ, i. e. Auriculæ Judæ.

AGARICOIDES, a ſort of fungus.

AGARICUM, or Agaricus, Agaric, called alſo fungus laricis. Boerhaave calls it igniarius, becauſe when it is beat out it will take fire at a ſpark, and blaze out. It is named agaric from Agaria, a town in Aſia, where it grows moſt plentifully. It is the boletus pini laricis. Lin.

Above twenty ſorts are diſtinguiſhed by botaniſts, one of which is the touch-wood, or ſpunk.

It grows on the trunks of larch trees, and alſo on ſome others, without any pedicle. Internally it is white, and of an uniform ſtructure; outwardly it is covered with a brown bark, full of ſmall holes underneath. In autumn this ſubſtance is cut off from the trees, ſeparated from its bark, then expoſed to the ſun, which both dries it, and increaſes its whiteneſs. The lighteſt, whiteſt, and moſt free from gritty matter, is the beſt. It hath but little ſmell; when chewed it is at firſt ſweet, then bitter. It gives out its active parts to watery menſtrua, and alſo to ſpirituous; it is with difficulty reduced to powder, except it be firſt moiſtened with a ſolution of gum arabic, and afterwards thoroughly dried. It is cathartic, but hardly ever uſed in the preſent practice, as its operation is both ſlow and unpleaſant, occaſioning ſickneſs, gripes, &c. The doſe is from ʒ i. to ʒ ij.

AGARICUS. A name for the marga candida.

AGARICUS MUSCARIUS. Linæus. The reddiſh muſhrooms alſo called bug agaric. This is one of the poiſonous vegetables that are indigenous in Great Britain. The pillar ſtalk is white, thick, and hollow; thicker towards the top; egg-ſhaped at its baſe; ſurrounded at its middle with a pendulous membrane, and furniſhed with a cap which is large, ſometimes ſix inches or more in diameter; almoſt flat; either white, red, or crimſon colour; and ſometimes beſet with angular, downy, white, or red warts. The gills are white, flat, and inverſely ſpear-ſhaped; the greater number extend from the rim of the cap to the ſtalk, the reſt only half way. When this muſhroom is decaying, the gills become browniſh. It is found in paſtures and woods.

If the juice of this *muſhroom* is rubbed where bugs retreat in the day, it will deſtroy them. If it is infuſed in milk, it is deſtructive to flies the inſtant they ſip it. Haller relates, that ſix perſons of Lithuania, periſhed at one time by eating this kind of muſhrooms; and that others have been driven mad by them. Two or three may be taken without danger, but more will occaſion delirium.

See Withering's Botanical Arrangements. Wilmer's Obſervations on Poiſonous Vegetables. Lightfoot's Flora Scotia, vol. ii. p. 1010.

AGARICUS PIPERATUS. Linæus. Pepper muſhroom, alſo called pepper agaric. It is the fungus piperatus albus, lacteo ſucco turgens. Raii. Alſo the fungus albus acris. B. P. The ſtalk is about two inches high. The hat is convex when young: as it expands, it becomes nearly flat; its colour is a dirty white, with a mixture of grey; it contains a milky juice. The diſk is conſtantly bent inwards: when the fungus is decaying, the hat becomes depreſſed in its centre, and is ſometimes ſeen funnel ſhaped. The lamellæ are cloſe, numerous, and of a pale fleſh colour.

It is very common in woods, near the roots of trees. When freely taken, fatal conſequences are related by ſeveral writers. When this vegetable has loſt its acrid juice by drying, its cauſtic quality ſtill remains.

In caſe of injury from any of the muſhroom tribe, ſee AMANITA.

See Wilmer's Obſervations on Poiſonous Vegetables.

AGARICUS QUERCUS, agaric of the oak, called alſo fungus igniarius. Agaricus pedis equini facie, fungi arborei ad cllychnia. Female agaric, and from its readineſs to catch fire, touch-wood.

It grows in the form of a horſe's hoof; externally it is of a duſky aſh colour, and internally of a duſky red; it is ſoft and tough. The beſt is ſaid to grow on the larger branches of oak trees; but that which is found on other trees is often as good.

It conſiſts of four parts, which preſent themſelves ſucceſſively, 1ſt. The outward rind, which may be thrown away. 2d. The part immediately under this rind, which is the beſt of all, and is uſed to reſtrain hæmorrhages from wounds, and after amputations; it ſhould be beat well with a hammer until it is ſoft and pliable, then ſlices of it of a proper ſize are to be applied upon the open blood-veſſel, whoſe diſcharge it reſtrains, not from its reſtringency, but its texture and adheſive quality: on the firſt application it adheres pretty ſtrongly, but about the end of two days it begins to ſeparate, and ſoon falls off. 3d. A part which adheres to the ſecond, and which is an inferior ſort, may be uſed in leſs important caſes. The 4th, or laſt part, may be powdered, and then uſed for the ſame purpoſes as the ſecond and third ſorts. The beſt time for taking the fungous ſubſtance from the trees is in autumn, when the weather is fine, and after great heats.

As a ſtyptic, this fungus does not appear to poſſeſs any advantages greater than what may be expected from dry lint, as its ſucceſs hath not been manifeſted but when the circulation was ſo languid that lint would not have failed to have anſwered as well. This *agaric* grows on different trees, chiefly on the aſh; it is the boletus igniarius, of Lin. Touchwood, or boletus acaulis pulvinatus lævis, poris tenuiſſimis. Lin.

See Warner's Caſes in Surgery, p. 133, &c. Neale's Obſervations on the Uſe of *Agaric*.

AGASYLLIS. Dioſcorides ſays it is the ſhrub that produces the gum ammoniacum.

AGATHA, i. e. Achates.

AGATHONIS ANTIDOTUS HEPATICA. Agathon's Antidote for the Liver.

℞. Gentian. ʒ vi. R. Enul. C. fol. abs. & fol. nard. Ind. ää ʒ i. m.

AGATY, the name of a tree which grows in Malabar, and affords a fruit that in its ſhape and taſte reſembles the kidney-bean. Raii Hiſt.

AGEM. A name of the Perſian lilac.

AGENESIA. Veneral impotency in man. Vogel. It is ſynonymous with anaphrodiſia, alſo with dyſpermatiſmus.

AGER CHYMICUS. Dorneus ſays that water is the field [*ager*] in which God has ordained that the root of minerals ſhould be fixed, and from whence the trunk and branches ſhoot into the earth.

The uterus is called *ager* naturæ.

AGER, or Agrorum Terra, ſignifies the common earth or ſoil.

AGERATUM. So called, becauſe its flowers preſerve their beauty a long time. It is alſo named balſamita minor; eupatorium; coſtus hortorum minor; ptarmica lutea; herba julia; mentha corymbifera minor, maudlin, ſweet maudlin, or maudlin tanſey. It is the achillea *ageratum* of Linnæus.

Botaniſts have enumerated ſeven or eight ſpecies.

It is a perennial ſlender plant, with undivided, indented, narrow leaves, and yellow naked diſcous flowers, ſet in umbels on the tops of the ſtalks: it is a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, and cultivated in our gardens. It flowers in July and Auguſt, and hath an agreeable ſmell, and a warm bitteriſh taſte. It contains the virtues of coſtmary and tanſey, but is hardly ever uſed: infuſion in water is the beſt preparation.

AGERATUM LATIFOLIUM SERRAT, i. e Balſamita.

AGERATUS LAPIS. A ſtone uſed by coblers to poliſh women's ſhoes. It diſcuſſes, and is gently aſtringent.

AGES. The palm or hollow of the hand.

AGE VITA. The name of an antidote, rather ſuppoſed to be called jugis vita, long, or continual life. It is a medicated wine, made with galangal root, long and white pepper, ſage, ginger, cinnamon, ſaffron, and cloves, boiled in wine.

AGGLOMERATIO, to agglomerate or roll together.

AGGLUTINATIO, Agglutination. Reunion, ſticking together: ſo healers are agglutinants.

AGGLUTINATIO PILORUM. A reducing the hair of the eye-lids that grow inward to their natural order, which is done by any glutinous matter on a probe, and drawing the hairs out, and fixing them where they ſhould remain.

AGGREGATÆ (Glandulæ). Small glands are lodged in the cellular coat of the inteſtines next to the villous; but as they do not appear in an uninjected gut, many anatomiſts ſuſpect them only to be little bits of ſeparated wax.

AGGREGATUM, an aggregate. A body reſulting from the union of many others which are ſmaller, of which the whole ſum is the aggregate.

AGHEUSTIA. Defect or loſs of taſte. Dr. Cullen ranks this as a genus of diſeaſes, in the claſs locales, and order dyſæſtheſiæ. The cauſes are fever, or palſy.

AGIAHALID, an Egyptian tree, alſo called lycio or lycium. It is very large, reſembling the wild pear; its fruit is bitteriſh and ſtyptic, the leaves are ſour and aſtringent.

AGIS. The thigh. See FEMUR.

AGLACTATIO. Defect of milk.

AGLIA. See ÆGLIA & ÆGIDES.

AGLITHES. The diviſion or ſegments of a head of garlick, which we call cloves.

AGLUTITIO. Impeded ſwallowing. See DEGLUTITIO.

AGME, from ἄγω, *to break*. A fracture.

AGNACAT. A tree which grows about the iſthmus of Darien; it reſembles a pear-tree, both as to its general appearance and its fruit, the pulp of which is highly provocative of venery. Raii Hiſt.

AGNANTHUS, from ἁγνος, *chaſte*, and ἀνθος, *a flower*. The chaſte flower. It is taken notice of by Valiant, but of no medical uſe.

AGNATA, i. e. Adnata.

AGNIL, i. e. Indicum.

AGNINA MEMBRANA, vel pellicula. Aetius calls one of the membranes which involve the fœtus by this name, which he derives from its tenderneſs. It is the amnios. This name is adopted by Drelincourt and Bartholine.

AGNINA LACTUCA. Lambs lettuce. See LACTUCA.

AGNOIA, from α, neg. and γινώσκω, *to know*. It is when a patient in a fever forgets his acquaintance. Hippocrates names this circumſtance thus, and obſerves that when it is joined with a rigor, it is a dangerous ſymptom.

AGNUS CASTUS. The chaſte tree; alſo called elæagnon & lygus. It is the vitex of Linnæus.

It

It is called λυγος, *lygus*, as it were oſier, becauſe of the toughneſs of its rods, and chaſte becauſe the matrons who lived chaſte during the feaſt of Ceres laid on them at nights.

It is a ſmall tree or ſhrub of the willow kind, with tough branches, digitated narrow leaves and monopetalous pupliſh flowers, ſtanding in ſpikes on the tops of the branches, followed by a ſmall fruit with four oblong whitiſh ſeeds. It grows in marſhes and on the ſides of rivers in ſome hot countries. It is a native of Italy. The ſeeds are of the ſize of a pepper-corn, and abound with a groſs inſipid oil, of a ſaffron colour, which is eaſily obtained by expreſſion.

AGNUS CASTUS. A ſort of willow called Abraham's balm. See MELISSA. Alſo a name of the balma Chriſti, whoſe oil is called the oil of agnus caſtus.

AGNUS SCYTHICUS. The Scythian Lamb, called alſo in the Scythian language barametz, i. e. lamb, or barometz, or boronetz. This ſort of plant is ſaid to grow in Tartary, Ruſſia, &c. and is deſcribed as growing in the reſemblance of a lamb; but the truth ſeems to be, that when deſigning perſons have met with a plant which ſeemed to have ſome diſtant reſemblance to a lamb, they increaſed the lamb-like appearance by art, and then covered their vegetable ſubject with the ſkin of a young lamb that had been cut out of the ewe for this purpoſe; thus thoſe who were not aware of the difference of a lamb's ſkin whilſt it is in the fœtus ſtate, and after it is yeaned, had theſe ludibriums of art impoſed on them for natural vegetable productions. The Perſian lamb-ſkins called Perſianiſh baranken, are lamb-ſkins which are ſtripped from their lambs in their fœtus ſtate, and thus they being much finer or more delicate, are fitter for the ſumptuous dreſſes of the rich.

AGOMPHIASIS, or Gomphiaſis. A diſtemper of the teeth; it is when they are looſe in their ſockets.

AGONE. Henbane.

AGONIA, from α, negative, and γονος, *an offspring*. Sterility

AGONIA, from ἀγων, *a combat* or *ſtruggle*. Agony, as when there is a ſtruggle between life and death. Alſo fear and ſadneſs of mind.

AGONOS, from α, neg. and γονος, *an offspring*, or γονη, *barren*.

Hippocrates calls thoſe women ſo who have not children, though they might have, if the impediment was removed.

AGOSTUS, from ἀγω, *to bring* or *lead*. That part of the arm from the elbow to the fingers, alſo the palm or hollow of the hand.

AGOUTI TREVA. A plant with fruit like a pomegranate.

AGREDULA. A ſpecies of frog.

AGRESTA, Verjuice. The juice of unripe grapes, or the ſour grape itſelf; it is alſo called omphax.

AGRESTÆ. The immature fruit of the vine.

AGRESTEN. Acid ſtone tartar.

AGRESTIS, wild.

It is applied to vegetables that grow without cultivation.

It expreſſes an ungovernable malignity in a diſeaſe.

It diſtinguiſhes wild from tame animals.

Wild animals afford better nouriſhment than tame ones, and are more heating: the fleſh of wild animals keep longer than that of the tame, and affords leſs excrement. It is owing to their exerciſe that wild animals have their ſalts exalted, and ſo have a higher flavour.

AGRIA, Holly. Alſo a malignant puſtule, of which there are two ſorts; one is ſmall and caſts a roughneſs or redneſs over the ſkin, ſlightly corroding it, ſmooth about its center, ſpreads ſlow, and is of a round figure; this ſort is cured by rubbing it with the ſaliva before having breakfaſted: the ſecond ſort ulcerates, with a violent redneſs and corroſion, ſo as to make their hair fall off; it is of an unequal form, and turns leprous; its cure is the application of pellitory of the wall in the manner of a poultice.

AGRIAMPELOS, from ἀγριος, *wild*, and ἀμπελος, *a vine*. The wild vine. According to Gerard it is the black briony.

AGRIC. The abbreviation by which is meant Georgius Agricola de Re Mettallica, Natura Foſſilium, &c. Baſilian. 1657, fol.

AGRICULTURA, Agriculture. This is not concerned with medicine any farther than in common with all exerciſes, except in the inſtance of benefit ſuppoſed to be received from the vapours which ariſe while ground is freſh or newly turned up, particularly the light gravelly ſoils: though it is to be wiſhed, that in reſpect of preſerving health, more exerciſe was uſed this way; thus many diſeaſes would be eaſily prevented, which, when preſent, are difficult to be removed. It is obſerved to have been the practice of the great Boerhaave, to prevent by labour in his gardens at ſtated intervals, thoſe diſorders which others in vain attempt to remove, which through neglect of exerciſe in health they ſubject themſelves to.

On this ſubject the curious will meet with much ſatisfaction from the Georgical Eſſays by A. Hunter, M. D. Fordyce's Elements of Agriculture and Vegetation.

AGRIELÆA, from ἀγριος, *wild*, and ἐλαία, *an olive*. The wild olive.

AGRIFOLIUM, i. e. Aquifolium.

AGRIMONIA, Common Agrimony, called alſo eupatorium Græcorum, vel veterem, vel verum, and hepciam ſanum, and there is a ſpecies called eupatorium Diſcoridis, vel adoratum, vel aromaticum. The common agrimony, is the *agrimonia* eupatoria, or *agrimonia* foliis caulinis pinnatis, foliolis undique ſerratis, omnibus minutis interſtinctis, fructibus hiſpidis of Linnæus.

Miller takes notice of four ſpecies.

It is a hairy plant with winged leaves compoſed of oblong indented ſegments, with ſmall portions between, ſet on middle ribs, which ſtand alternately on the ſtalk; on the top grows a long ſpike of pentapetalous yellow flowers, followed by little burrs, containing each one or two ſeeds. It is perennial, grows wild in hedges, and about the ſides of fields, and flowers in May.

The leaves have a ſlight bitteriſh aromatic taſte, the flowers are ſmall, ſtronger and more agreeable; they give out their virtues to water and to ſpirit of wine.

It is beſt uſed while freſh, and the tops, before the flowers are formed, poſſeſs the moſt virtue. A conſerve is the beſt form of preparation; an infuſion in water or whey is good.

It is mildly corroborant, and of great efficacy in diſeaſes from a lax habit. Dr. Alſton, of Edinburgh, ſays, that the powder of this herb is the beſt mode of adminiſtering it, when the intention is to corroborate, and that, if thus taken in a large quantity, we may expect many of the effects of the bark from it in agues.

The doſe is ʒi. or more.

AGRIMONOIDES, called alſo pimpinella fol. agrim. nonnullis. It grows on the mountains in Italy; it is of the ſame nature as agrimony.

AGRIOCARDAMUM. Sciatica Creſſes.

AGRIOCASTANUM. Earth-nut, i. e. pig-nut.

AGRIOCINARA. Wild Artichoke.

AGRIOCOCCIMELA, from ἀγριος, *wild*, κοκκος, *a berry*, and μηλεα, *an apple-tree*, i. e. prunus ſylveſtris.

AGRIOMELA. The Crab-apple.

AGRION, i. e. Peucedanum.

AGRIOPHYLLON, i. e. Peucedanum.

AGRIORIGANUM. Wild origanum, or wild marjoram.

AGRIOSELINUM. Wild parſley, particularly the hippoſelinum.

AGRIOSTARI, a ſort of wheat, called triticum Creticum.

AGRIPALMA. Motherwort.

AGRIPALMA GALLIS. Motherwort.

AGRIPPÆ. Thoſe children which are born feet foremoſt, becauſe Agrippa the Roman was ſaid to be ſo born. Theſe births, though reckoned preternatual, are often more ſafe and eaſy than the natural. See PRÆSENTATIO.

AGROSTIS. Couch graſs, or the white briony.

AGRUMINA. Onions, leeks.

AGRYPNIA, from α, neg. and ὑπνος, *ſleep*. Want of ſleep. Intenſe watching. The pervigilium of authors.

AGRYPNOCOMA. The ſame as coma vigil.

AGUAPE. The Braſilian name of the white water lily.

AGUARA QUIYA. Common nightſhade.

AGUIL, i. e. Alhagi.

AGUTIGUEPA OBI BRASILIENSIB. MARGGR. A ſort of lily of a carnation and flame colour.

AGUTIGUEPOOBI BRASIL. i. e. Saggitaria Alexiph.

AGUTI TREVA, or Agouti Treva. A plant with a fruit like the pomegranate.

AGY. A ſort of pepper.

AGYNOS, from α, neg. and γυνη, *a woman*. A name of the agnus caſtus.

AGYRTÆ, from ἀγυρις, *a crowd of people* or *a mob*; or from ἀγειρω, *to gather together*. Quacks, mountebanks, or people who go from place to place to ſell medicines, were called circulatores, circumforanei, ochlagogi, and pharmacopolæ; the laſt of which, though proper to any ſeller of medicine, yet was ſtrictly applied to mountebanks.

AHAMELLA, i. e. Acmella.

AHATE DE PAUNCHO RECCHI. A tree in Malabar, but brought originally from the Philippine iſlands. Raii. Hiſt.

A ſpecies of the anona is alſo thus named.

AHAVACAQUAHUITL. The name of the Spaniſh pear-tree.

AHIUS. Salt ſtone.

AHMELLA, ſee ACMELLA.

AHŒHŒTL. An Indian name for the abias Mexicana.

AHOVAI THEVETI CLUSII, or Aiioai, or Haouvay. The name of a fruit in Braſil, the ſize of a cheſnut, white, and ſhaped like the water caltrops; it is poiſonous. The tree is as large as a pear-tree, the bark white and full of juice, the leaves are always green, the flower conſiſts of one leaf, formed like a funnel, divided at the edge; a piſtil ariſes from the cup, which is the fruit. Inciſions in the bark emit a milky liquor that ſmells like garlick.

Miller takes notice of two ſpecies.

AHUSAL. The ſulphur of arſenic.

AIES. Potatoes.

AIGRE DI CEDRE, ſo the Indians call citron juice, when ſweetened with ſugar.

AIIOAI, i. e. Ahovai.

AILMAD. An Arabian name for antimony.

AIPI, i. e. Caſſada.

AIPIMA COXERA, i. e. Caſſada.

AIPIPOCA, i. e. Caſſada.

AIRA. Darnel.

AISTHETERIUM, from αισθανομαι, *to perceive*. The common ſenſory. Carteſius and others ſay, is the pineal gland; but Willis has demonſtrated it to be where the nerves of the external ſenſes are terminated, which is about the beginning of the medulla oblongata (or top of the ſpinal marrow), in the corpus ſtriatum. Blancard.

AIX LA CHAPELLE. The medical water at this place is volatile, ſulphureous, and ſaponaceous, powerfully penetrating and reſolvent; it alſo contains a portion of iron. Of the three hot European waters of note, viz. that of *Aix la Chapelle*, Bourbon, and Bath, the firſt abounds more eminently with ſulphur, whence it is the hotteſt, the moſt nauſeous and purgative. The Bath is the leaſt poſſeſſed of theſe qualities.

See a treatiſe on the Waters of *Aix la Chapelle* and Borſet, by J. Williams, M. D.

AIZOON, called alſo aloe paluſtris, ſtratiotes, militaris, and ſedum aquatile. An aquatic plant like the aloe. It is taken notice of by Lemery in his Hiſt. de Drogues.

AIZOON DA SYPHYLLON. A ſpecies of ſedum.

AIZOON PALUSTRIS, i. e. Aloides.

AJAVA. So the Portugueſe call a ſeed which is brought from Malabar, and is celebrated in the Eaſt Indies as a remedy in the colic. When the gout affects the ſtomach, theſe ſeeds are very effectual in diſpelling the wind, and procuring ſpeedy relief from this painful diſorder: they ſometimes relieve by procuring a ſtool or two. Dr. Percival takes notice of theſe ſeeds in his Eſſays Med. and Exp. vol. ii.

AJUBATIPITA BRASILIENSIUM. A ſhrub bearing fruit like an almond; but it is black, and contains much oil.

AJUGA. Ground-pine.

AJUGA FOLIO INTEGRO. Poley mountain with lavender leaves.

AKMELLA, i. e. Acmella.

AKON. A whetſtone.

AL. The Arabian article which ſignifies *the*; it is applied to a word by way of eminence, as the Greek ὁ is. The Eaſterns expreſs the ſuperlative by adding God thereto, as, the mountains of God, for very high or the higheſt mountains; and it is probable that *al* relates to the word alla, God; ſo alchemy may be the chemiſtry of God, or the moſt exalted perfection of chemical ſcience.

ALA, a wing. In botany it is the hollow of a ſtalk which the leaf or pedicle makes therewith, and whence a new offſpring uſually puts forth. Sometimes it means the little branches; as when we ſay the ſtocks or ſtems are made with many alæ, becauſe branches grow from the ſtock as ſo many alæ or wings.

It alſo ſignifies a petala of papilionaceous flowers placed between the vexillum and the carina.

It is uſed alſo to expreſs the foliaceous membranes which run the whole length of the ſtem, whence it is called caulis alatus, a winged ſtem.

Alæ, is uſed to ſignify the ſlender membranaceous parts of ſome ſeeds, ſuch as is obſerved in the fruit of the maple, &c.

ALA NASI, or Pinna Naſi, the cartilages which are joined to the extremities of the bones of the noſe, and which form its lower moveable part.

ALA AURIS, or Pinna Auris. It is the upper part of the external ear.

ALA, an arm-pit. To take off the offenſive ſmell which ſometimes is perceived in this part, Dioſcorides and Aetius ſay, that a decoction of wild artichoke in wine, by bringing off much fetid urine, proves a cure.

ALABANDICUS (Lapis) or Alabandinus. A blackiſh ſtone intermixed with ſallow. It is pellucid, and looks as if it was divided by fiſſures into ſegments. Aetius ſays, that the powder of this ſtone makes grey hairs black.

ALABARI. Lead.

ALABASTRA. The green herbaceous leaves that encompaſs flowers; ſome ſay it is the bud juſt peeping out.

ALABASTRITIS. Alabaſter.

ALABASTRON. An ointment ſo called. Myrepſus gives a preſcription for it, and ſays that it is the ſame as that with which Mary anointed the feet of Jeſus Chriſt.

ALABASTRUM, Alabaſter. A kind of white marble; it is very clear: by reaſon of its natural coldneſs, it was formerly uſed to make boxes of, in which to preſerve ſweet ointments; and tombs to bury great perſonages in. It is ſofter than any of the marbles. The alabaſters are not marbles, but ſpecies of the ſolid gypſum. In the foſſil ſyſtem, ſtones are a claſs, one order of which is gypſum, and of the gypſum, the ſolid kinds form a genus. See Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

There is a yellow ſort. Plaiſter of Paris is alſo a ſpecies of it. See GYPSUM. The oriental ſpecies is tranſparent.

ALACAB. Sal ammoniac.

ALÆ. Aetius calls the nymphæ thus; and ſays that if an abſceſs here, or in the pudenda, ſhould extend to the anus, we muſt avoid cutting, for a fiſtula will be the conſequence; but if it extends to the meatus urinarius, an inciſion may be made.

ALÆ INTERNÆ, } Clitoridis, i. e. nymphæ.
———MINORES. }

ALÆ MAGN. OS SPHENOIDES. So Ingraſſias calls the two temporal apophyſes of the os ſphenoides.

ALÆ NASI. See ALA NASI.

ALÆ PARV. OS SPHENOIDES. So Ingraſſias calls the two thin, ſharp, tranſverſe apophyſes of the os ſphenoides, which form the ſuperior orbitary fiſſures.

ALÆMUS. Invincible. So the Greeks call the diamond.

ALAFI. Alkaline ſalt.

ALAFOR, and ALAFORT, alkaline ſalt.

ALAHATIB. The red ſtone.

ALAIA PHTHISIS, from ἀλαὸς, *blind*. A waſting from a flux of humors from the head.

ALAMANDINA, ſuppoſed to be the lapis alabandicus.

ALAMBIC, i. e. Alembic.

ALAMED. Antimony.

ALANABOLUS, i. e. alana terra.

ALANA TERRA, called alſo terra Tripolis, and Tripolitana, and gleba alana. Engliſh oker.

It is a light ſtone of a light red colour. Its lightneſs is ſuppoſed to be the effect of calcination by ſubterraneous

fires. Goldſmiths, braziers, and lapidaries, whiten and poliſh their work with it.

ALANDAHAL. An Arabian name for bitter apple.

ALANFUTA, a vein betwixt the chin and upper lip, formerly opened to cure a fetid breath.

ALA POULI. A male ſpecies of bilimbi.

ALAQUECA. A ſtone found in little poliſhed fragments in the Eaſt Indies, uſed externally to ſtop bleeding.

ALARE EXTERNUM, i. e. Pterygoideus extern. muſc. ſo called from taking their riſe from the wing-like proceſſes of the os ſphenoides.

ALARIS VENA. The inner of the three veins in the bend of the arm: this is attended with an artery, and the median with a nerve; but the outer one, as P. Ægineta long ſince obſerved, is ſafe for bleeding.

ALARTAR. Burnt braſs.

ALASALET. Sal ammoniacum.

ALATAN. Litharge of gold.

ALATERNI. A name of the caſſine, which ſee.

ALATERNOIDES, from *alaternus* and εἶδος, *form*, or *ſhape*. A ſort of alaternus.

It differs from the alaternus, in having three ſeeds joined together in the manner of ſpurge. The alaternus hath three ſeeds incloſed with one common covering, and ſeems to be one berry till opened.

Miller takes notice of three ſpecies.

Alaternoides, a name of the caſſine.

ALATERNUS. Evergreen privet; alſo called phylica, and ſpina burgi Monſpelienſium. It is the liguſtrum Italica of Linnæus.

It is a ſmall ſhrub, whoſe wood is of a light yellow colour, its bark blackiſh; the leaves are diſpoſed in an alternate order, whence its name. It is chiefly uſed for dying: the bark gives a red, and the wood a bluiſh colour to linen.

The celeſtrus Theophraſti, or ſtaff-tree, is another ſpecies: ſo is the caſſine; and alſo the perygua, or caſſioberry buſh. See Raii Hiſt. and Miller, who enumerate ſix ſpecies.

ALATI. Thoſe who have prominent ſcapulæ are ſo called. Such are ſubject to conſumptions.

ALATI PROCESSUS, or Alares. The wing-like proceſſes of the os ſphenoides.

ALAURAT. Nitre.

ALBA TERRA. The matter of the philoſopher's ſtone is ſo called.

ALBADARA. An Arabic name of the ſeſamoid bone of the firſt joint of the great toe.

ALBAGIAZI. An Arabic name of the os ſacrum.

ALBAMENTUM. The white of an egg.

ALBANUM. Salt of urine.

ALBARA. A ſpecies of the white leproſy, ſee Leuce. It alſo ſignifies the white poplar. *Albaras* nigra, is the lepra Græcorum.

ALBARDEOLA. The bird called a ſpoon-bill.

ALBATIO. A chemical term; which ſignifies, to whiten metal, called, blanching of metal.

ALBEDO. Whiteneſs. In urine is obſerved four ſorts of whiteneſs, viz. the cryſtalline, the ſnowy, the limy, and the limpid.

ALBERAS. An Arabic name for the ſtaphis agria.

ALBESTON. Quick-lime.

ALBETAD. Galbanum.

ALBI. Sublimate.

ALBICANTIA (corpora) i. e. Willis's glands. See Cerebrum.

ALBIFICATIO, i. e. albatio.

ALBIMEC. Orpiment.

ALBINUM, i. e. gnaphalium.

ALBIN. INS. The abbreviation for Albin Eleazar, a natural hiſtory of inſects. London, 1720, 4to.

ALBIR. Pitch got from bark of the yew-tree.

ALBO ROMANO PULV. i. e. magneſia alba.

ALBOR. Urine.

ALBORA. A ſort of itch, or rather leproſy. Paracelſus ſays, it is a complication of the morphew, ſerpigo, and leproſy. When cicatrices appear in the face like the ſerpigo, and then turn to ſmall bliſters of the nature of morphew, it is the *albora*. It terminates without ulceration, but by fetid evacuations in the mouth and noſtrils; it is alſo ſeated in the root of the tongue. Internal medicines, as well as corroſive ones, are forbid.

ALBORCA. Mercury.

ALBOT. A crucible.

ALBOTAT. Ceruſs.

ALBOTIM, or Albotai. Turpentine.

ALBOTIS. See Terminthus.

ALBUCASIUS, i. e. Albucaſis.

ALBUCHASIUS, i. e. Albucaſis.

ALBUCASIS. An Arabian phyſician; called alſo Albucaſius, Albuchaſius, Ab-ul-caſem, Buchaſis, Bulcaſis, Galaf, Alfaharavius, and Azaravius. He was, in the eleventh century an excellent ſurgeon. He excelled in the diagnoſtic part, and in deſcribing the ſymptoms of diſeaſes.

ALBUGINEA TUNICA. The inner proper coat of the teſticle is thus named, from its white and tranſparent colour. It is a ſtrong, thick, white membrane, ſmooth on the outward ſurface, rough and uneven on the inner: into the upper part of this membrane are inſerted the blood-veſſels, nerves, and lymphatics, which ſend branches into the teſticles.

This coat being diſtended, is the cauſe of that pain which attends an inflammation of the teſtes.

Albuginea is alſo a name of the adnata, which ſee.

ALBUGINES. See Albugo.

ALBUGINOSA HUMOR. So the aqueous humor of the eye hath been called.

ALBUGO CORALLII. A name of the magiſtery of coral, which it hath obtained from its whiteneſs.

ALBUGO OCULORUM. The white ſpeck on the eyes. The Greeks generally named it leucoma; the Latins, albugo, nebula, and nubecula: ſome ancient writers have deſcribed it under the names of pterygium, pannus oculi, onyx, unguis, and ægides. It is a variety of Cullen's caligo corneæ. With us it hath various appellations, as, a cicatrice, film, haw, a dragon, pearl, &c.

It may be obſerved, that all cicatrices appear white in the black part of the eye; for the cornea being thickened, the moſt eminent part turns white: aſtringents thicken theſe cicatrices.

Some diſtinguiſh this diſorder by nubeculæ, when its ſeat is ſuperficial; and *albugo*, when it is deep. Others make the following diſtinctions, viz. when the ſpeck appears of a ſhining white, and without pain, it is called a cicatrice; when of an opake whiteneſs, an *albugo*; ſeated ſuperficially, it hath been termed a ſpeck; and more deeply, a dragon; if an abſceſs was the cauſe, its contents hardening between the laminæ of the cornea, cauſes it to project a little, and then it is called a pearl.

The cauſes are various; as inflammation in the eye, abſceſs in the cornea, eroſion, meaſles, ſmall-pox, wounds, burns, &c.

When deep, the cure is difficult; when the conſequence of a wound or ulcer, they are rarely cured; when cauſed by an imprudent uſe of vitriolic collyriums, and when they alter the natural ſhape of the eye, the prognoſtic is as unfavourable. Thoſe which follow an inflammation, generally diſappear ſpontaneouſly.

Happening after the ſmall-pox, meaſles, or other inflammatory cauſes, the utmoſt haſte ſhould be made to relieve, by bleeding, purging, bliſtering, diuretics, and an abſtemious diet. Avoid cold and aſtringent collyriums; but the fumes of coffee, or of the decoction of the woods, may be uſeful. When theſe ſpecks are very ſmall, they often ulcerate; but theſe ulcerations are ſoon healed by the application of the pulv. rad. irid. paucul. facc. cryſtal. or, as is juſtly preferred by many, the aq. ſapph. If the diſorder hath been of long ſtanding, the cure is very difficult; however, the following methods may be attempted. Expoſe the diſeaſed part of the eye to the fumes of camphorated ſpirit of wine directed through a quill: this, by a continued uſe, may abrade the ſpeck. This method ſeldom fails to excite ſome degree of inflammation, by which the cure is effected; though when the inflammation is thus produced, it muſt be removed by the common methods with all poſſible ſpeed. To this end, the following have been alſo applied with ſome degree of ſucceſs, viz. the juice of celendine, the gall of eels, or of the pike, or of a partridge, and the oil of box: if theſe prove too ſharp, let them be diluted with water, or with a thin ſolution of gum dragon: apply any of theſe once in twenty-four hours; and half an hour after the application, waſh

it

it off with a little brandy and water. The aq. ſapph. alone ſometimes ſucceeds. When the film is very tough, and the eye not inflamed, common glaſs finely levigated may be blown upon it through a quill, and repeated once in a day or two. Dr. Kirkland thinks that in general, when ſmall opacities upon the cornea are curable, and if the cure is undertaken as ſoon as the removal of inflammation admits, nature, aſſiſted by ſtrengthening the eye with cold water, will effect the cure. See UNGUIS. See Kirkland's Inquiry, vol. i. p. 492.

ALBUM (Balſ.) i. e. balſ. capivi.

ALBUM (Balſ.) ℞ Acet. lytharg. ad conſiſt. mellis evaporat & ol. roſar. ää p. æq. m.

ALBUM CANIS, i. e. Album Græcum.

ALBUM GRÆCUM. The white dung of dogs; alſo called ſpodium Græcorum, nihil *album*, *album* canis, and cynocoprus. It is diſcutient, and was formerly applied to the inſide of the throat in quinſies, being firſt mixed with honey; a cataplaſm of alb. Græc. p. i. & conſ. roſar. rub. p. ii. was applied acroſs the throat. See Neuman's Chem. Works.

ALBUM HISPANIÆ, i. e. Album Hiſpanicum.

ALBUM HISPANICUM. Spaniſh white. It is alſo called bianca Alexandrina. It is made from tin, in the ſame manner that ceruſs is made from lead; alſo from biſmuth. It makes the ſkin appear white.

ALBUM OLUS. Lamb's lettuce, or corn-ſallad.

ALBUM NIGRUM. Mouſe-dung.

ALBUM JUS. White broth. Boil whiting, haddock, cod, or any ſuch white-grained fiſh, in water, with a little oil; alſo a ſmall quantity of aniſe and leeks. When the fiſh is par-boiled, add a little ſalt.

ALBUMEN OVI. White of egg; called alſo albumor, ovi albus liquor, ovi candidum, ovi albor, albamentum, &c.

The white of an egg is a pellucid, viſcous liquor; is thinner towards each end, and thicker in the middle. It ſupplies the fœtus bird with its firſt nouriſhment, and bears a great analogy to the ſerum of the blood. In each egg there are two *albumens*, involved in their proper membranes: of theſe, the one is very liquid, and is next to the ſhell; the others is more denſe and viſcous; it immediately ſurrounds the yolk. There are alſo two branches of umbilical veins in the egg; one goes to the white, and the other to the yolk. The white is ſpecifically lighter than the yolk: it is condenſed by heat, in which the yolk retains its ſoftneſs. The yolk is dried more in boiling than roaſting; when it becomes warm by incubation, it is more humid, and like melting fat.

The chick in the egg is firſt nouriſhed by the thinner or outer *albumen*, then by the inner and more viſcous, and laſtly by the yolk. The umbilical veins that go to the white, when it is ſpent, wither, and leave no ſigns of their having exiſted, by the time that the chicken is hatched. During the whole incubation, the white is as ſweet as when the egg was new laid.

Boerhaave obſerves, that the white of egg is neither acid, alkaline, nor ſpirituous; that it is inodorous, inſipid, and ſo free from acrimony, that if it is applied to naked nerves it is ſcarcely perceived; and yet in twenty-one days, in the heat of 93 degrees by Faren thermom. a chicken is formed; that 80 degrees is inſufficient, and 100 deſtroys the fœtus and the egg too, with reſpect to the production of a chicken.

If an egg is ſteeped in water heated to 80 degrees, it loſes its tenacity; part exudes through the ſhell at the broad end, and the reſt becomes ichorous and putrid. If the freſh white is thrown into boiling water, it inſtantly coagulates.

The white of egg forms a more ſolid coagulum than ſerum, but in other reſpects they are the ſame if put into boiling water; alcohol of wine coagulates the white of egg, and it does the ſame with ſerum, on which account alcohol is applied to bleeding wounds as a ſtyptic.

A little putrid white of egg taken into the ſtomach, occaſions a naufea, horror, fainting, vomiting, diarrhœa, and gripes; it inflames the bile, excites heat, thirſt, fever, and diſſolves the humors like the plague. On the contrary, the white of freſh-laid eggs, if taken while warm from the hen, is extremely nouriſhing to the infirm; it may be taken in luke-warm milk; but if any other heat is applied to it, the nutritious quality will be deſtroyed. The freſh white of egg prevents burns from riſing in bliſters, if it is uſed immediately after the accident: it mitigates inflammation of the eyes, and preſerves the face from ſun-burning. In pharmacy, it is uſed as a medium to render balſams and turpentines, &c. miſcible with aqueous fluids; but as it diſagrees with many ſtomachs when thus taken, a mucilage of gum arabic may ſupply its place, it being as good a medium in ſimilar circumſtances, and not apt to offend the tendereſt ſtomach.

ALBUMOR, i. e. Albumen ovi.

ALBURNUM. The ſoft-er and paler part of wood next the bark; artificers call it the ſap, to diſtinguiſh it from the heart, which is deeper coloured, and harder.

ALBURNUS AUSONII. A little river fiſh like an anchovy.

ALCA (or Alka) Hoieri. A bird called the auk or razor-bill.

ALCAHEST. The univerſal menſtruum, or diſſolvent. A name firſt uſed by Paracelſus, and derived from the German words *al* and *geeſt*, i. e. *all ſpirit*. Van Helmont borrowed the word, and applied it to his invention, which he called the univerſal diſſolvent. As it is difficult to ſay whether the falſity or folly of what is handed down to us with reſpect to this article be the greateſt, the curious are referred to the writers themſelves, to whom we are obliged for what is ſaid concerning it. See Paracelſus de Viribus Membranorum, lib. ii. cap. vi. Eph. Germ. D. xi. ann. 8. app. 3. Helmont Complexiorum atque Miſtionum elementalium figmentum, ſect. 27—29. Helmont Poteſt. Medic. ſect. 3—24. Helmont Arbor Vitæ. Boerhaave's Chemiſtry.

Alcaheſt is alſo a name of the liquor of flints. See SILEX.

ALCALI, or Alkali, of *al*, and *kali*, i. e. *of* or *from kali*. *Alkali*, becauſe a great quantity of that kind of ſalt is obtained from a plant called kali, the name *alkali* hath been given to the fixed ſalt of all plants; and that becauſe an effervеſcence does ariſe upon mixing an acid liquor with the ſalt, all volatile or fixed ſalts, and all terreſtrious matters which ferment with acids, have come to be called *alkalies*. The herb kali, which grows on the ſea coaſts, when dried and burnt, affords a lixivium, which if evaporated is the fix alkaline ſalt.

Alkalies are mineral, vegetable, and animal; or they are either earthy or ſaline.

Earthy *alcalies* are thoſe ſubſtances, which of themſelves ſcarce diſſolve in pure water; but if added to acids, form a tertium quid. Of this ſort are chalk, limeſtone, crabs eyes, oyſter ſhells, egg ſhells, &c. Thus if pure water is acidulated with oil of vitriol, ſcrape chalk into it, it ferments, and during the ferment, the water hath a briſk taſte; and when enough of chalk is added, the acid is loſt, ſo that no experiment can diſcover the acid, except you firſt ſeparate it: and this is a certain characteriſtic, or the proper meaning of an *alkali*, viz. it is the reverſe of, or natural oppoſite to acid.

The ſaline *alkalies* are fixed and volatile. The latter of which differ from the former only in volatility and its conſequences; it riſes ſooner than the rectified ſpirit of wine, it regenerates nitre and ſea ſalt from their ſpirits, only the ſalts ſo recovered are ſemi-volatile, reſembling ſal ammoniac.

Tachenius is ſaid to have firſt made the fixed vegetable *alkali*; he eſtabliſhed the general uſe, but it was uſed long before his time; and it hath been ſaid that the burning of vegetables is the only ſource of fixed alkaline ſalts, but the evaporation of ſeveral mineral waters preſents us alſo with pure fixed alkaline ſalt. A fixed *alkali* is the baſis of ſea ſalt, &c. burning is the only ſource of the fixed vegetable alcaline ſalt.

Sal abſinthii. Salt of wormwood.

Put any quantity of wormwood, moderately dried, into an iron pan, and with a gentle fire reduce it to white aſhes; then keep them red-hot for ſome hours, often ſtirring them, that what oily matter remains may be burnt out; then boil the aſhes in water, filter the liquor through paper, and evaporate to dryneſs. After the ſame manner fixed alcaline ſalts are obtained from all the vegetables which yield this kind of ſalt. The oily matter is known to be duly burnt out, when, on ſtirring the aſhes in the pan, there

there follows none, or very little flaming, nor even ſparkling. The herbs uſed for this purpoſe ſhould neither be very dry, nor very old, for then they afford leſs ſalt. The ſubject ſhould neither be permitted to flame, nor to burn with a cloſe heat, as when charcoal is burnt, for both theſe methods leſſen the quantity of ſalt.

Sal tartari. Salt of tartar.

Include either the red or white tartar in a proper veſſel, and ſo expoſe it to the fire, that the oil of the tartar may be burnt out; after which diſſolve it by boiling it in water, or ſteeping it in warm water; filter the ſolution through paper, and evaporate to dryneſs in a clean iron veſſel, obſerving towards the end of the operation to keep the matter continually ſtirring with an iron ladle, to prevent its ſticking to the bottom of the veſſel.

Of all the ſubjects from which a fixed *alcaline* ſalt is obtained, tartar yields the largeſt quantity, and with the leaſt trouble.

Sal alkalinus ſalis marinus. The alkaline ſalt of ſea ſalt.

Take cubical nitre four ounces, and charcoal five drams; mix them well by trituration, then inject the mixture by little and little into a red hot crucible. A deflagration, or a bright flame, with a hiſſing noiſe happens, on each injection. The whole quantity being thus deflagrated, continue the fire ſtrong for half an hour.

This mineral fixed *alkali* differs from that of vegetables, in being much milder to the taſte, not ſo readily diſſolving in water, not deliquating in air, (therefore may be given in the form of powders) eaſily aſſuming, like neutral ſalts, a cryſtalline form. Theſe cryſtals are priſmatic, greatly reſembling thoſe of the ſal mirab. Glaub. See NATRON.

Fixed alkaline ſalt is obtainable from ſea ſalt and nitre, and from all vegetables, except perhaps ſome of the volatile acrid kind, which impreſs the noſe ſharply with their ſcent, ſuch as muſtard-ſeed, garlic, &c. they contain parts that are volatile, and become volatile ſalt. The fixed ſalt of ſome plants vary greatly from one another, in ſtrength, &c. if taken in the ſtate wherein they are firſt extracted from the aſhes; they ſometimes contain a conſiderable proportion of neutral ſalt of the vitriolic or of the muriatic kind; to diſcover which, ſhake a ſtrong ſolution of the ſuſpected ſalt in a phial, and about an equal quantity of the ſp. vini R. if the ſalt is purely alkaline, the two liquors on ſtanding for a moment will ſeparate, the ſpirit riſing to the top, but both will be tranſparent as at firſt; but when neutral ſalts are mixed with the alkaline, though in a very ſmall proportion, the ſpirit produces inſtantly an opake milkineſs in the ley, and on ſtanding a few minutes, a ſaline matter falls to the bottom. Sometimes a bitter cryſtalline hard ſalt, that is neither acid nor alkaline, is found among the fixed alkaline ſalt; but as it does not eaſily diſſolve even in hot water, it is eaſily ſeparated by means of cold. (e. g.) Take ſix pounds of the ſuſpected ſalt, and put it into twenty pints of rain or other ſoft water, the parts that do not eaſily diſſolve falling to the bottom, the pure liquor may be preſently decanted, and the alkaline ſalt recovered by evaporation. This hard ſalt is never met with in making the ſalt of tartar, but in pot-aſh it is often found. The ſalts of the leaves, and other herbaceous parts of plants, are more difficultly brought to a ſtate of purity, then thoſe of the more woody and compact, a portion of the oil being ſo tenaciouſly retained: it is true, ſome endeavour to retain this oil in the ſalt by burning the vegetables in a ſmothering heat until they are reduced to aſhes. They do this to render the ſalt more mild; but the mineral *alkali* is ſufficiently free from acrimony to ſet eaſy in the moſt irritable ſtomach, when adminiſtered in the uſual modes. Tachenius and Boerhaave, with many others, prefer theſe ſalts when their oil is retained: but as they had no view therein but what is anſwered in the mineral alkaline ſalt, the uſe thereof will at once appear more eligible, as its ſtrength is more certain, and its freedom from any empyreumatic oil, ſecures it from exciting nauſeas. Woormwood, broom, bean-ſtalks, mint, carduus, and all of the thiſtle kind, yield a good proportion of this ſalt, and that tolerably free from other kinds of ſaline matter.

The ſtrongeſt *alkali* is nitre diſſolved with the regulus of antimony, then ſet to cool, when the nitre will be found at the top, of a yellow colour. To diſcover the ſtrength of theſe ſalts, let a quantity of the ſpirit of ſalt be ſo diluted that ſixteen drams of it may exactly ſaturate one dram of pure *alkali*; if then a ſolution of a dram of any given ſalt be ſaturated with the ſame acid liquor, ſo many drams or parts of a dram of the acid as are required for the ſaturation, ſo many $\frac{1}{16}$ths or parts of $\frac{1}{16}$ths of pure *alkali* does the given ſalt contain.

Fixed *alkali* ſalts are rendered more active and even cauſtic by the addition of quick-lime, as appears in the making of lix. ſapon. cauſtic. com. and by the union of lime and alkaline ſalt in a liquid ſtate, oils, fats, &c. are more powerfully diſſolved than by either of them in a ſeparate ſtate. The volatile alkaline ſalt is as greatly heightened in ſome of its qualities by quick-lime as the fixed is: lime renders the volatile alkaline ſalt permanently liquid, prevents its concretion, and prevents its effervescing with an acid, whence it is probable that the lime acts on *alkalies* by abſorbing their air.

The ebullition which ariſes on mixing an *alkali* with an acid is not from their antipathy, but affinity, or aſſociating principle; the acid and *alkali* ſo ſtrongly ruſh to each other, that the air and water are forcibly impelled, whence the commotion. Alkaline ſalts attract acids more forcibly than they attract water.

Alkaline ſalts obtained from different plants, putrified by calcination from all their oil, and by deliquation in the air, by which only the *alkali* diſſolves, are all (except from ſome of the marine) ſo much alike, as not to be diſtinguiſhed by any known method of trial. It is true, that ſo far as difference may ariſe from different management in the preparation, diſtinctions may be pointed out: a variation in the heat by which the plant is calcined occaſions a difference in the acrimony of the produce; uſing the aſhes freſh burnt, and after being long expoſed to the air, and applying the water hot or cold with which the ſalt is to be ſeparated from the aſhes, makes a conſiderable difference; for by expoſure to the air, *alkalies* that have been made cauſtic by quick-lime loſe their adventitious acrimony; neutral ſalts are found in the aſhes of ſome vegetables, and boiling water takes them up with the alkaline; but cold water extracts from theſe aſhes the alkaline ſalts alone, except it be uſed in too large quantities or permitted to ſtand too long upon them; and the reaſon why pot-aſhes have leſs neutral ſalt than the alkaline ſalt made by chemiſts is, that the chemiſts uſe hot water, but the pot-aſh makers uſe cold water to make the aſhes into ley. It is the ſame with the volatile as with the fixed ſalts, they do not differ from one another ſo much as they do from themſelves in different ſtates of purity.

Fixed alcaline ſalt is not ſimple and pure, but is an earth whoſe ſaline part in a ſeparate ſtate is volatile; this is evident in the preparation of the lixiv. tart. which ſee.

The properties of vegetable fixed alkaline ſalt are,

It is fixed and fuſible in the fire.

It is fuſible with any ſtone that ſtrikes fire with ſteel: with ſand, &c. it produces glaſs.

It deliquates in air, and diſſolves in leſs than its weight of water.

It does not aſſume a cryſtalline form.

It is not acted upon by vinous ſpirits.

It hath a fiery or acrid taſte, the urinous taſte which it excites, is only after the ſalt has altered the ſaliva.

It is inodorous, attracts every acid, and lets looſe all volatile ſalts that are fixed by acids.

If effervesces with acids, and when ſaturated with them a neutral ſalt is formed.

It turns the purple of violets, and changes roſes to a green colour.

Applied to a living human body it attracts the moiſture therefrom, then inflames and corrodes the part, and forms a mortification, or is cauſtic.

It deterges and cleanſes.

It precipitates earthy and moſt metallic bodies diſſolved in acids.

It unites with oils both diſtilled and expreſſed, and forms a ſoap.

Its greateſt affinity is to acids.

It attracts air ſo ſtrongly as not to part with it until an acid ſets it at liberty.

Added

Added to ſpirit of nitre or ſpirit of ſalt, it brings thoſe ſpirits back to their own ſalts reſpectively, that is, nitre and common ſalt are thereby formed.

It turns a ſolution of ſublimate in water yellow or red.

As a medicine, if largely diluted with water and taken in a bed or a warm room, it promotes perſpiration; but its tendency is more directly to urine, and this is promoted by the patient reſting in a cool ſituation. It looſens the belly, and renders the effect of purgatives more laſting, and is peculiarly uſeful againſt that conſtipation of the bowels which is generally attendant on the ſtudious and ſedentary. It deſtroys acidity in the primæ viæ, converting them into a mild apperient ſalt, and thus removes a cauſe of many chronical diſeaſes. It reſolves viſcid and glutinous humours, by which, and its gentle ſtimulus, obſtructions are removed, and wherever it paſſes ſecretions are promoted. It looſens the texture of calcareous concretions by ſtrongly attracting their air, and made into a ley with a ſmall quantity of lime this power is increaſed. In thoſe flatulent diſorders which riſe from a defective bile it affords great relief.

The doſe may be from gr. ij. to ʒij. twice a day, but always plentifully diluted; the doſe of ʒij. ſhould be mixed with at leaſt ℥xx. of water. Conſiderable doſes may be long continued, as is evident in thoſe who take the lixiv. ſapon. to remove calculous complaints.

As a principal medical effect of alkaline ſalt, is to attenuate the blood and humours, it is obviouſly improper in the ſcurvy, and all thoſe diſorders in which the texture of the blood is already too much enfeebled; in particular diſorders, this medicine is hurtful by increaſing that colliquation which is always obſerved to attend them. It is probable, that the reſtrictions on the Jews with reſpect to their diet, was in part from the ſpeedy putreſcence to which the prohibited ſubjects tend; animal food is all alkaleſcent, but ſome more ſo than others; all fiſh ſoon putrifies, but thoſe without ſcales, and the ſhell fiſh the ſooneſt.

The volatile alkaline ſalt is either in a dry or liquid form; when dry it is called ſalt, when liquid it is called ſpirit; the ſalt is obtained by ſublimation, the ſpirit by diſtillation. The ſpirit is only the ſalt diſſolved in water, and differs not from it but in the liquid form, and the conveniencies of its fluidity, ſuch as its more readily uniting oil with water, &c.

The volatile alkaline ſalt hath been chiefly obtained from the horns of deer, by diſtilling them in large iron pots, with a fire gradually increaſed to a ſtrong red heat; but in the ſame manner as is here directed, for the ſalt, ſpirit, and oil of hartſhorn; a ſimilar ſalt, ſpirit, and oil may be extracted from all ſolid animal ſubſtances, from blood dried by a gentle heat, from urine firſt evaporated to the conſiſtence of honey, and putrified. Urine, diſtilled with the addition of quick-lime, yields an extremely pungent ſpirit. Ivory, and the bones of animals, are uſed for this purpoſe; bones are, indeed, ſo far preferable to hartſhorn, that without being defective in any perfection obſervable in the horns of their produce, the ſalt and ſpirit from bones require leſs rectification, are more palatable, and leſs diſguſtful to the ſtomach, and the ſpirit retains its limpid appearance longer than does that from horns; when bones are uſed, their fat muſt be extracted firſt by long boiling. Wood-ſoot affords a ſalt, ſpirit, and oil, not differing from thoſe from hartſhorn, except in that it is not ſo eaſy to rectify. Sal ammoniac, being mixed with any fixed alkaline ſubſtance, its acid quits it, and being retained by the fixed *alkali*, the volatile alkaline ſalt of the ſal ammoniac is obtained, and with very little trouble rendered perfectly pure; the ſpirit of ſal ammoniac is free from the inconveniencies which attend thoſe ſpirits obtained from horns, ivory, bones, &c.

Spiritus, ſal, & oleum cornu cervi.

The ſpirit, ſalt, and oil of hartſhorn.

Diſtill pieces of hartſhorn in an iron pot, furniſhed with an earthen head, and a large receiver well luted, on an open fire, gradually raiſed almoſt to the higheſt red heat. A phlegm ariſes at the firſt, a ſpirit follows, then comes a volatile ſalt mixed with an oil, this oil at firſt is yelloviſh, but the diſtillation being continued, its colour deepens to a dark red almoſt black: in the bottom of the pot there remains a black coal, called harts black, from its being the remains of hartſhorn, it is as good as ivory black when ground fine; this reſiduum, if taken out and burnt to whiteneſs in the open air, is the burnt or calcined hartſhorn.

If the aqueous liquor is not removed before the ſalt comes over, a part of the ſalt diſſolves in it, and thus forms what is called ſpirit; but it is uſual to let all come over into the receiver that can be obtained, before any ſeparation is made; if it is required to have the whole of the ſalt ſolid and dry, the phlegm ſhould be removed as ſoon as the ſalt begins to ariſe, which may be known by the appearance of white fumes; and that this may be commodiouſly done, the receiver ſhould be left unluted until this firſt part of the proceſs is finiſhed.

The oil ſeparates from the phlegm and ſpirit by filtration through wetted paper, the two latter paſſing through, and the oil remaining on the filter.

The phlegm may be ſeparated from the ſpirit by diſtillation, in a tall veſſel with a gentle heat; the ſpirit will come over into the recipient, and the phlegm remain behind. In all diſtillations of the ſpirit, greateſt part of the ſalt comes over before the phlegm, and the proceſs ſhould be continued no longer than till ſo much of the phlegm has followed as is nearly ſufficient to diſſolve it; that part of the ſalt remaining undiſſolved may be a criterion to the purchaſer of the ſtrength of the ſpirit. The ſpirit may be rendered ſtill purer, if to every pint of it ʒij. of pot-aſh is added, and then being put into a retort the ſpirit is gently diſtilled, for thus any remaining oil is left behind with the fixed alkali.

The ſpirit may be divided into a volatile ſalt and phlegm by diſtilling it in a very tall and narrrow cucurbit; the ſalt will ariſe and adhere to the head in a dry form, and the phlegm remain behind.

To free the ſalt from the oil, ſublime it from twice its quantity of pot-aſh, for the oil will be detained thereby, and the volatile ſalt riſes pure. But a ſpeedier method is, firſt to ſublime the ſalt from an equal weight of chalk, and afterwards from a little rectified ſpirit of wine.

Spiritus & ſal volatile ſalis ammoniaci.

The ſpirit and volatile ſalt of the ammoniac ſalt.

Take of any fixed alkaline ſalt ℔i. ſs. crude ſal ammoniac ℔i. of pure water ℔iv. mix in a retort and with a gentle heat draw off ℔ij. of ſpirit.

Take of crude ſal ammoniac ℔ij. pure white chalk ℔iv. mix them well, having firſt ſeparately powdered them, then ſublime the ſalt with a ſtrong heat.

Perhaps the following method for making this ſalt will be found preferable. Take the whiteſt ſal ammoniac, dry it well while in large pieces, picking out every part that ſeems diſcoloured; then take the cleaneſt chalk and dry it thoroughly, by heating it as hot as boiling water but not hotter, powder it well and dry it again, mix the ſal ammoniac intimately with the chalk by trituration, while they are in this dry ſtate, in the proportion of five parts of chalk to four parts of the ſalt; put them into a retort with a thick ſhort neck and the orifice cut very wide; fit to it a ſmall receiver with a long neck and lute them well together; then put them into a ſand pot, and ſublime the ſalt gradually, never ſuffering the lower part of the receiver to grow hot, let the fire, however, be raiſed to a ſtrong heat at the latter part of the operation. When the whole is grown cold break the receiver, and ſeparate ſo much of the ſalt as appears white and pure from the diſcoloured; preſerve it from exhaling, which would not only leſſen its ſtrength, but alſo dull its tranſparent appearance: the leſs ſightly pieces may be kept for making the ſpirit. volat. arom. or the fictitious ſpirit C. C. or it may be purified by reſubliming. Care muſt be taken that no air get to the ſalt and chalk after they are powdered, for they both will attract moiſture, which will leſſen the quantity of volatile ſalt by melting it and running down the ſide of the receiver as a ſpirit; the fire muſt not be hurried leſt the retort or the receiver burſt, nor be too great, leſt the ſalt be prevented thereby from forming on the ſides. Sometimes a cake of crude ſal ammoniac is found at the top of the chalk after ſublimation, which may be uſed for making volatile ſpirit; this crude ſalt is alſo found in the ſide of the neck of the retort.

This volatile ſpirit and ſalt are more grateful to the ſtomach than thoſe of hartſhorn, and therefore are judiciouſly

preſcribed in all the intentions which that ſpirit and ſalt are given to anſwer: they are the pureſt of all the medicines of this kind, though ſomewhat more acid than thoſe produced directly from animal ſubſtances, which always contain a portion of the oil of the ſubject, and receive from thence ſome degree of a ſaponaceous quality; but diveſted of their oil, they differ not from the ammoniac ſpirit and ſalt.

The volatile alkaline ſalt is very penetrating and pungent to the ſmell and taſte, the only concrete ſalt that in its pure ſtate emits ſenſible effluvia; it diſſolves oils, reſins, fats, &c. more languidly than the fixed alkalies, on account perhaps of its not being ſuſceptible of any conſiderable heat by which its menſtrual power might be promoted. In the bodies of animals it operates more powerfully than the fixed alkaline ſalt, both as reſolvent and ſtimulant, and is more diſpoſed to paſs off by the pores of the ſkin, and leſs by the groſſer emunctories, and acts more remarkably on the nervous ſyſtem; it is peculiarly uſeful in lethargies, apoplexies, hyſteric and hypochondriac diſorders, languors, head-ach, flatulencies, and other ſymptoms attending theſe complaints; in languors and faintings, this ſalt often gives immediate relief; in low fevers, ſlow vernal intermittents, it is an efficacious remedy; it it relieves rheumatic pains, and, joined with bliſters and aloetic purges, happy effects have enſued: ſome admit of volatile alkaline ſalts in putrid diſeaſes; but the vegetable acids, ſuch as the acet. diſtil. accompanied with bliſters, are not to be controverted in this caſe, as being the moſt eligible adminiſtration; and the ſpir. nitri. D. far preferable (when fainting happens in putrid fevers) to the ſpir. C. C. In inflammatory fevers the uſe of alkaline ſalt is far ſuperior in the beginning to what it is in future periods, and this more eſpecially if joined with the acetous acid, as in the ſpirit Mindereri.

The doſe of volatile alkaline ſalts may be from gr. ij. to ℈ i. given in a draught or in a bolus, in which latter form, to prevent the pungency of the ſalt from affecting the throat, it may be proper to mixt it with a ſolution of gum dragon, or ſome other mucilaginous ſubſtance.

Sp. ſal. ammon. dulc.

Dulcified or ſweet ſpirit of ſal ammoniac.

Take of a fixed alkaline ſalt ℔ ſs. of crude ſal ammoniac ℥iv. of proof ſpirit ℔ iij. mix and with a gentle heat draw off ℔ i. ß.

The volatile *alkalies* (not cauſtic) are averſe to a union with vinous ſpirits by ſimple mixture; yet a ſolution of them in ſp. vin. R. is obtainable by adding it along with water, as in this proceſs. This preparation is deſervedly in great eſteem both as a menſtruum and a medicine; it is a ſolution of alkaline ſalt in ſpirit of wine, for though proof ſpirit is uſed, its phlegm does not riſe; it only ſerves to facilitate the action of the pure ſpirit upon the ammoniac ſalt: it might, perhaps, for ſome purpoſes, ſuch as making the ſp. vol. arom. &c be more adviſable to make a dulcified ſpirit with the ſpirit of ſal ammoniac that is made with quick lime, for it may be mixed at once with rectified ſpirit of wine in any proportion, without any hazard of ſeparating the volatile *alkali*; ſuch a compoſition may be thus formed, and may be named

An extemporaneous dulcified ſpirit of ſal ammoniac.

Take the ſpirit of ſal ammoniac prepared with quick lime ℔ i. rectified ſpirit of wine ℔ i. mix.

Spiritus volatilis cauſticus. vel

Spirit. ſal. ammon. cum calx. viv. ppt.

The volatile cauſtic ſpirit, or ſpirit of ſal ammoniac, prepared with quick lime.

Take crude ſal ammoniac ℔ ij. quick lime ℔ ij. pure water ℔ iv. quench the lime in the water, and then put it into a retort, then add to it the powdered ſalt, immediately adapting a receiver, for the pungent ſpirit riſes on the firſt contact of the lime with the ſalt, and with a gentle heat draw off ℔ ij.

Or take crude ſal ammoniac ℔ iv. quick lime ℔ v. pure water three gallons. Quench the lime in part of the water, and put it into a tin alembic, or a glaſs retort; then add the remaining part of the water and the ſal ammoniac only broke into little pieces. Diſtill over a gentle heat ℔ x. or xij. for good ſpirit, then change the receiver, and diſtill as long as the ſpirit ſmells of ſalt, and keep it inſtead of water for the next operation. N. B. The ſpirit is very ſtrong if five times the weight of the ſal ammoniac is drawn off. But to agree with this ſpirit of the London College, drawn with ſalt of tartar, only three times the weight muſt be allowed.

This ſpirit, prepared with quick lime, is thought to be too pungent and acrid for internal uſe, but in the dilute ſtate of adminiſtering this ſort of medicine it is as ſafe as that prepared with an alkaline ſalt. It is an excellent menſtruum for ſome vegetable ſubſtances, as the cort. Peruv. &c. and when ſaturated with ſuch ingredients, it is ſo ſheathed as to be as ſafe as the other. It is too common to meet with the ſp. C. C. and the ſp. ſal ammon. cum ſal. alk. ppt. mixed with this ſpirit prepared with lime; this fraudulent practice is to increaſe the pungency of the ſp. C. C. &c. and is thus detected: add to the ſuſpected ſpirit about one fourth of its quantity of rectified ſpirit of wine, which will precipitate a part of the volatile ſalt; but if mixed with that made of lime, no effect will be produced. The powder that is precipitated, may alſo be laid on a ſpoon and held over a candle, when, if it flies off, it is good, otherwiſe not.

The ſp. ſalis ammoniac. cum calx. viv. ppt. appears in many caſes preferable to that prepared with an alkaline ſalt. It is better ſuited for the ſp. vol. aromat. and ſp. vol. fætid. as being perfectly miſcible with the ſp. vini rect. in any proportion, without any ſeparation of its volatile alkaline part, and as being a more powerful menſtruum for ſome difficultly ſoluble oils. The eau de luce, for example, is made with the ſp. ſal. ammon. cum calx. viv. & ol. ſuccin. rect. but the oil muſt be rectified until it hath loſt its ſmell, and is become limpid, and then the proceſs will be as follows:

℞. Ol. ſuccin. rect. ut ſupra gt. xxxvi. alcohol. vini. ℥ ſs. bene miſce, & adde paulatim ſp. ſal. amnion. cum calx. viv. ppt. ℥ vi. f. eau de luce. This appears milky, but if required limpid, it may be made ſo by diſtillation; or if it is only deſigned for ſmelling to, it may be tinged of a fine blue colour, with a drop or two of a ſolution of copper. See Malouin's Chemie Medicinale.

Divers mixtures of volatile and vinous ſpirits, flavoured with aromatic and other oils, or tinctured with different ingredients, according to the intention of the preſcribers, have been, and yet may be, uſed with great advantage. Of this ſort are the following:

Spiritus volatilis aromaticus, called alſo ſpiritus volatilis oleoſus, and ſpirit of ſal volatile.

℞ Ol. n. m. eſſent. & ol. limon. eſſent. ad ℥ ii. ol. caryophil. eſſ. ℥ ſs. ſp. ſal. ammon. dulc. ℔ ij. m. Diſtill theſe with a gentle heat. This is from the Pharmacop. Collegii Lond. But the following is equally agreeable.

Sp. vol. aromat.

℞ Sp. ſal. ammon. cum calx. viv. ppt. ℔ iij. ſp. vin. ten. ℔ viij. miſce in retorto & adde piperis Jamaic. ℔ ſs. caſſ. lign. ℥ ij. eſſen. limon. ℥ i. elic. in baln. arenæ. Diſtill theſe gently until there is a cloudineſs in the drops, then change the receiver, and draw off as long as it ſmells of any thing; this weak ſpirit will do to mix with the next diſtilling inſtead of water, in caſe the ſalt inſtead of the ſpirit of ſal ammoniac ſhould be uſed. N. B. If ſalt be uſed, take ſal. vol. ammon. cum creta fact. vel calx viv. ℔ ij. ſolv. in aq. font. ℔ iij.

To diſtinguiſh betwixt the ſp. vol. arom. made with the ſp. ſal. ammon. cum ſal. tart. or the ſp. ſal. ammon. cum calx. viv. put a ſmall quantity of the ſpirit to be proved into a phial, and add to it a ſmall quantity of the ſal vol. ammon. pulv. ſhake them; and if the ſpirit diſſolve the ſalt, it is made with lime; but if it remains undiſſolved, or in a ſmall degree, it is without lime, and of a due ſtrength.

After theſe methods of making the ſp. vol. arom. a volatile oily ſpirit may be prepared occaſionally, and at pleaſure, adapted to particular purpoſes, by chuſing an eſſential oil proper for the intention; thus in hyſteric caſes, where the uterine excretions are deficient, a ſp. vol. aromat. may be made with the oils of rue, ſavin, penny-royal, aſſa fœtida, &c. For weakneſs of the ſtomach, the oil of mint may be taken; for a cephalic, the oils of marjoram, lavender, and roſemary; againſt fainting and coldneſs, the oil of cinnamon; to remove flatulencies, the oil of anniſeeds and ſweet fennel. The ſpirits thus made by ſimple mixture, or by dropping eſſential oils into ſp. ſal ammon. dulc. with which they eaſily mix, are no wiſe inferior in medical

medical efficacy to thoſe prepared by diſtillation, though the tinge which they receive from the oil may render them to ſome perſons leſs ſightly.

There are ſome vegetables that do not become acid by putrefaction; and from theſe no vinous ſpirit can be produced by fermentation, and to this claſs belong moſt of the acrid aromatics; Boerhaave calls them alkaleſcent, ſome of which are the alliaria, allium, arum, aſparagus, braſſica, capſicum, cardiaca, centaur min. cochlearia, cepæ, naſturtium aquat. & hort. porrum, raphani com. & ruſtic, rutæ, ſinapi, &c.

That morbid quality in the blood, called an alkaline acrimony, is known to be preſent by the thirſt after, and deſire of ſour things, loſs of appetite and averſion to alkaleſcent food, nidorous eructations, putrid ulcers on the lips, tongue, and other parts in the mouth, bitterneſs in the mouth, ſickneſs in the ſtomach, and a frequent diarrhœa, a ſenſe of heat, laſſitude, and general uneaſineſs, a diſſolution of the texture of the blood, the urine high coloured and red.

This alkaline acrimony producing a putreſcency in the blood, &c. is to be remedied by the ſame means as the ſea ſcurvy and other putrid diſorders.

ALCALINUM, (Infuſio)

℞ Sal tart. ℥ ſs. croc. Anglic. ʒ ſs. rad. liquorit. rec. ℥ij. aq. font. bulliens. ℔ iij. infund. per horas vi. vel. vii. & cola. Vel.

℞. Fol. abſinth. vulg. ſicc. ℥ ſs. ſal. tart. ℈ ij. infund. in aq. font. bullient. ℥ xij. colaturæ. adde aq. juniperi ℥ ij.

Theſe are uſeful methods of adminiſtering the fixed alkaline ſalt; ſmall doſes may be given warm every three or four hours, interpoſing a purge now and then, when ſuch medicines are required. If intermitting fevers return, this method, for a few days, is an excellent preparation for the bark.

ALCALISATIO, Alcalization. The impregnating any thing with alkaline ſalt.

ALCANCALI. The name of an antidote compoſed in the form of an electary, and made of many ingredients, it is commended in fevers. See MYREPSUS.

ALCANNA. Eaſtern privet. Alſo iſinglaſs, and the anchuſa.

ALCARNI. A name of a confect made by Meſſue.

ALCAOL. The lac acetoſum ſive mercurius, vel philoſophorum: ſo the ſolvent for the preparation of the philoſopher's ſtone is called.

ALCARA. A cucurbit. See ALKARA.

ALCE. The elk. Its a large animal of the deer kind, met with in Muſcovy, Germany, and very cold countries. The hoof of the hind foot on the left ſide, hath been celebrated againſt epilepſies, from a ridiculous opinion that the *elk* is himſelf ſubject to diſorders of this kind, and prevents or removes them by ſcratching his ear with his hoof. The hoof ſhould be choſen that is heavy, compact, ſmooth, bright, and black.

ALCEA. German, leopard's bane. Alſo the Vervain mallow.

ALCEA INDICA. Yellow marſh-mallow. Alſo Abelmoſch.

ALCEA ÆGYPTIACA VILLOSA i. e. Abelmoſch.

ALCEBER. i. e. Agallochum.

ALCEBRIS VIVUM. i. e. Sulphur Vivum.

ALCEDO. A bird called the king's fiſher. It is alſo called iſpida, halcyon, alcyon fluviatilis, piſcator regis. In China their neſts were formerly eat as dainties. It is ſaid to make its neſt in the ſea, and then it is a ſign of fair weather, whence the word halcyon days, i. e. calm and peaceable times.

ALCHABRIC. i. e. Sulphur Vivum.

ALCHACHIL. Roſemary.

ALCHARITH. Quickſilver.

ALCHEMIA, or Alchymia, Alchemy. That branch of chemiſtry that relates to the tranſmutation of metals. The Arabic particle is added by way of eminence, to diſtinguiſh it from common chemiſtry.

ALCHERON, (Lapis.) The ſtone in the gall bladder of a bull, cow, or ox, called bezoar bovinus.

ALCHIEN. This word occurs in the Theatrum Chymicum, vol. v. and ſeems to ſignify that power in nature by which all corruption and generation are effected.

ALCHIMELECH. The Egyptian melilot, called alſo melilotus corniculis reflexis minor. This plant is ſmall, and ſpreads on the ground, its leaves are like trefoil, the flowers are ſmall, long, and grow in cluſters, are of a ſaffron colour, and are ſweet ſcented. It hath ſmall pods with a black ſeed inclined to red, and bitteriſh in the taſte. Raii Hiſt.

ALCHIMILLA, called alſo pes leonis ſtellaria, and in Engliſh lady's mantle, and lion's foot.

It flowers from May to Auguſt, the leaves ſeem as if folded together, whence the name lady's mantle. The leaves are gently aſtringent, the root is of the ſame quality, but this plant is not in any repute as a medicine.

Miller takes notice of twelve or thirteen ſpecies.

ALCHIMILLA MONTANA MINIMA. i. e. Percepier.

ALCHIMILLA ROTUNDI FOLIA AUREA HIRSUTA. Golden Saxifrage.

ALCHIMILLA SUPINA GRAMIN. FOL. i. e. German Knot Graſs.

ALCHITRAN. Oil of juniper, alſo the name of a dentrifice of Meſſue's.

ALCHIMIA. i. e. Alchemia.

ALCHOLLEA. A ſort of animal food made of beef or other fleſh, pickled and dried, then boiled and potted for keeping. It is uſed by the weſtern Moors. See Philoſ. Tranſ.

ALCHYMY. A compoſition of copper with a ſmall quantity of arſenic, which mixture reſembles ſilver.

ALCIBIADION. i. e. Anchuſa.

ALCIBIADIUM. i. e. Echium, and Anchuſa.

ALCIMAD. Antimony.

ALCIOT, i. e. Alchiotl.

ALCMÆON. A diſciple of Pythagoras, whoſe favourite ſtudy was phyſic. He is ſaid to have been acquainted with the tuba Euſtachiana, perhaps becauſe he ſaid that goats reſpired by their ears.

ALCOB. Sal ammoniac, alſo burnt braſs.

ALCOCALUM. Artichoke.

ALCOEL. i. e. Lac Actoſum, i. e. the ſolvent with which the philoſopher's ſtone is prepared.

ALCOFOL. Antimony.

ALCOHOL, or Al-ka-hol. Its an Arabian word, ſignifying an impalpable powder, which the Eaſtern women uſe as a kind of paint for their faces, or otherwiſe as an improvement to their complexions. And as this powder, being an impalpable one, was called alcohol, this name was given to other ſubtile powders; ſo the name was given to ſpirit of wine exalted to its higheſt purity and perfection. See VINUM ADUSTUM.

It is a combination of the acetous acid, phlogiſton, and water. See ÆTHER.

ALCOHOL MARTIS. It is the filings of iron ruſted by adding wine to them. When the whole is perfectly ruſted, pure ſpring water is repeatedly added, until all that is urinous is waſhed away, and the remaining powder is the *Alcohol*.

ALCOL. Vinegar. See ALCOHOL.

ALCOLA, i. e. Aphthæ, which ſee. Paracelſus ſays it is the tartar or excrement of urine, whither it appears as ſand, mucilage, or otherwiſe.

ALCOLITA. Urine.

ALCOLISMUS. Reducing any thing to powder by corroſion.

ALCONE. Braſs.

ALCOOL, i. e. Alcohol.

ALCOR. Burnt copper.

ALCORE. A ſort of ſtone with ſpots reſembling ſilver.

ALCTE. It is the name of a plant mentioned by Hippocrates; Foeſius thinks it is the elder.

ALCUBRITH Sulphur.

ALCYON. The bird called the King's-fiſher.

ALCYONIUM. Baſtard ſpunge. It is a ſpungy plant formed on the ſea ſhore, or rather a froth of the ſea hardened by the ſun; it is of different ſhapes and colours. It is difficult to ſay what the Greeks called by this name. Dioſcorides names five ſorts, viz.

1. *Alcyonium* Durum. Hard baſtard ſpunge.

2. Farraco.

2. Farrago. Called alſo favago auſtralis, *alcyonium*, veſſicaria marina nigr.

3. *Alcyonium* Vermiculatum, or vermiculate. Vermiculate baſtard ſponge.

4. *Alcyonium* Stuppoſum. Lemmery calls this *alcyonium* molle. Thready baſtard ſponge.

5. *Alcyonium* Tuberoſum. Lemmery calls this *alcyonium* foraminoſum. Tuberoſe baſtard ſponge.

There are many other ſpecies; they are calcined with a little ſalt as dentrifices, and are uſed to remove ſpots on the ſkin.

ALDABARAM. A name of the ſeſamoid bone of the great toe. See ALBADARA.

ALDIN. ET ALDIN. HORT. FARN. i. e. Exact. Deſcript. rarior. quarandum Plantarum Horti. Farneſiani Tobiæ *Aldini*. Rome 1625, fol.

ALDROV. MUS. MET. i. e. Ulyſſis *Aldrovandi* muſeum Metallicum Bononiæ, 1648, fol.

——— DE QUAD. BISUL. i. e. *Aldrovandus* de quadrupedibus biſculcis.

——— De QUAD. i. e. *Aldrovandus* de quadrupedibus digitatis.

——— DENDR. i. e. *Aldrovandi* dendrologia Bonon. 1668.

——— EXANG. i. e. *Aldrovandus* de Animalibus exanguibus. Bonon. 1642.

——— DE QUAD. i. e. *Aldrovandus* de Quadrupedibus.

ALEC, or Alech. Vitriol.

ALECHARITH. Quickſilver.

ALECTORIA, or Lapis Alectorius, from ἀλέκτωρ, *a cock*. It is ſaid to be found in the ſtomach of a cock, ſome ſay of a capon after it is four years old. It is tranſparent, and about the ſize of a bean.

ALECTOROLOPHUS. Yellow rattle.

ALEFANTES, i. e. Flos Salis.

ALEIMMA. A greaſy ointment without wax to give it a conſiſtence.

ALEION. Copious. Hippocrates uſes this word as an epithet for water.

ALEIPHA. Any medicated oil.

ALELAION. It is oil beat up with ſalt to apply to tumors. Galen frequently uſed it.

ALEMA. Boiled meat.

ALEMBACI. Burnt lead.

ALEMBIC. Quickſilver.

ALEMBICUS. This word is half Arabic and half Greek, from the Arabic particle *al* and ἄμβιξ, which is again derived from ἀμβαίνω for ἀναβαίνω, *to aſcend*. Seneca calls it in the Latin language *miliarium*; in Engliſh it is called *alembic* and Moor's head. It is a copper cap tinned in the inſide, made like to a head in which the pipe (before worms were contrived) which paſſes through a tub of cold water is fixed to receive the vapour from the heated cucurbit or body, to convey it to the receiver. Before retorts were uſed ſo commonly, the matter diſtilled was put into a veſſel called a body, with a head placed on it to receive the vapour, whence it was conveyed by a canal, called the roſtrum or beak, to the receiver; this head is properly the *alembic*, and is called *alembicus* roſtratus, i. e. the beaked *alembic*, to diſtinguiſh it from *alembicus* cæcus, or blind *alembic*, which is without a canal, as it is to receive dry ſubſtances that are ſublimed into it. The ſtill head is properly an *alembic*; the body of the *alembic* was placed over a fire or in hot water.

ALEMBROTH. A Chaldee word importing the Key of Art; ſome explain it by ſal mercurii, or ſal philoſophorum & artis; others ſay it is named elembrot & ſal fuſionis, or ſal fixionis. *Alembroth* deſiccatum is ſaid to be the ſal tartari; hence this word ſeems to ſignify alcaline ſalt, which opens the bodies of metals by deſtroying their ſulphurs, and promoting their ſeparation from the ores.

ALEM ZADAR, i. e. Sal ammon. crud.

ALEMZADAT, i. e. Sal ammon. crud.

ALEOPHANGINÆ PILULÆ, i. e. Pil. aromaticæ Meſſuc. Joined with hellebore it hath been called pil. *alophang.* capitales & ſtomachicæ.

ALEOS, from ἀλέω, *heat*. Taken as an adjective it ſignifies *heaped, crouded, condenſed, continued*; as a ſubſtantive, *heat* or *warmth*.

ALEPENSIS. A ſpecies of aſh-tree, which produces manna.

ALES. The name of a compound ſalt. When this word is uſed as an adjective, it ſignifies *heaped*, or *crouded*, or *condenſed*. Sometimes it ſignifies *contracted*, as the uterus being contracted.

ALES CRUDUM, Crude Ales, i. e. thoſe drops which often fall in the night in June.

ALESCH, i. e. Alumen Plumoſum.

ALETON. Meal, from ἀλέω, *to grind*.

ALEURON. Meal, from ἀλέω, *to grind*. Strictly it is the meal of wheat, though commonly applied to other ſorts.

ALEXANDER, named Trallian, from Tralles, a city of Lydia, the place of his birth. He flouriſhed in the ſixth century. He is the only writer of the latter ages who ventured to form his own plan, or who can claim the character of an original. He is exact in diagnoſtics, and his method of cure is rational. He confines himſelf to deſcribe and cure diſorders, and in theſe is his excellency. In his curative part he excels both Hippocrates and Galen. After *Alexander*, as celebrated, is Ægineta (Paulus.) See a compendium of *Alexander*'s writings tranſlated in to Engliſh, by Dr. Milward, Lond. 8vo. 1734.

ALEXANDRIA. A name of the bay-tree called Daphne.

ALEXANDRI ANTIDOTUS AUREA. Alexander's golden antidote. Myrepſus gives the preſcription; it is compoſed of animal, vegetable, and mineral ſubſtances, and contains about ſeventy ingredients.

ALEXANDRI REGIS COLLYRIUM SICCUM. King Alexander's dry medicine for the eyes. It was made of ſaffron, Celtic nard, and kennel coal.

ALEXANDRINA. The laurel of *Alexandrina*.

ALEXANDRIUM EMPL. VIRIDE. A plaſter deſcribed by Celſus, made with wax, plumoſe alum, &c.

ALEXANTHI, i. e. Flos Æris.

ALEXICACA. an antidote.

ALEXICACON, an amulet againſt poiſon, from ἀλέξω, *to repel*, and κακὸν, *evil*.

ALEXION. The name of a phyſician who lived in the time of Cicero.

ALEXIPHARMACA. Alexipharmics, from ἀλέξω, *to repel*, or *drive away*, and φάρμακον, *poiſon*. Theſe ſort of medicines, though counter-poiſons, yet chiefly relate to the cure of malignant fevers; but from theory, alexipharmics are what paſs through the ſkin, or what drives the ſuppoſed poiſon through the pores. See SUDORIFICA, DIAPHORETICA, and ALEXITERIA.

ALEXIPHARMACA, one of the names by which the Greeks expreſſed amulets.

ALEXIPPUS. The name of one of the phyſicians of Alexander the Great.

ALEXIPYRETICUM. Alexipyretos, or Alexipyretum, from ἀλέξω, *to drive away*, and πυρέτος, *a fever*. A remedy for a fever, or πῦρ, *fire*.

ALEXIR, i. e. Elixir.

ALEXITERIA, Alexiterials, from ἀλέξω and τηρέω, *a preſervative from contagion*. Hippocrates uſed the word *alexiteria* to expreſs help or remedies; but later writers uſe it to expreſs remedies againſt the poiſonous bites of animals.

Aqua lactis *alexiteria*.

Alexiterial milk water.

Formerly milk was uſed in preparing it, whence lactis in the name, but now it is made as follows, by the Pharm. Col. Lond. and is named

Aq. *alex.* ſimplex.

Simple *alexiterial* water.

℞ Fol. menth. vulg. rec. ℔ j. ſs. angelic. rec. & ſummit. abſinth. maritim. ää ℔ i. aq. font. q. ſ. elic. cong. iii.

Its chief uſe is to fill up juleps and mixtures after their principal parts are put together.

Aq. *alexiteria* ſpirtuoſa.

Spirituous *alexiterial* water.

℞ Fol. menth. vulg. rec. ℔ ſs. angelic. rec. & ſummit. abſinth. maritim. rec. ää ℥iv. ſp. vini. ten. cong. i. elic. cong. i.

Aq. *alexiteria* ſpirituoſ. cum aceto.

Spirituous *alexiterial* water with vinegar.

℞ fol. menth. vulg. rec. angelic. rec. āā ℔ ß. ſummit. abſ. maritim. ℥iv. ſp. vini ten. cong. i. aq. font. q. ſ. elic. cong. i. & poſtea adde acet. acerim. ℔i. This is an antiſeptic ſudorific. It is ſubſtituted for the aq. theriac. comp. of former diſpenſatories, and the aq. epidemica, or plague water, of the preſent Edinb. Pharmacop. The angelica beſt covers the diſagreeable flavour of the vinegar, therefore the quantity of it is larger in this laſt than in the two preceding waters. Perhaps it would be better to add the vinegar only as wanted in extemporaneous preſcription, for it is apt to precipitate the more valuable parts of the ingredients.

Some ſay that alexipharmics are medicines againſt poiſon, taken inwardly, and *alexiterials* are for poiſons externally communicated, but this diſtinction is not to be regarded.

Troch. *alexiterial.*

Alexiterial troches.

℞ zedoar. & ſerp. v. chel. 69. āā. ʒi. ſ. cort. exterior. citri. & ſem. angelic. āā. ʒi. bol. arm. ʒß. ſacc. cand. pondus totius mucilage. gum. trag. q. ſ. f. troch.

ALFACTA. Diſtillation.

ALFADIDAM. The ſcoria of gold, iron, or copper; alſo burnt copper.

ALFATIDA. Burnt copper, or the ſcales flying off from copper.

ALFATIDE. Sal ammoniac.

ALFESERA, or Alpheſera. The name of a confect deſcribed by Meſſue; from the Arabic particle *al*, and *feſera*, or *pheſera*, the root of the vitis alba.

ALFIDAS. Ceruſs.

ALFOL. Sal ammoniac.

ALFUSA. Tutty.

ALGA, called alſo ulva, fucus marinus, graſs-wrack, wrake, ſea-weed, or graſs, and ſea-moſs. See KALI.

There are three kinds, one broad, a ſecond oblong and reddiſh, and a third ſort which is white, &c. It is a ſubmarine plant. The moſt noted ſpecies is the *alga* marina, which is gathered on the ſea-coaſts of Scotland and Ireland, to be burnt into aſhes for the making of ſoap, glaſs, &c. Its leaves ſomewhat reſemble thoſe of the oak tree in ſhape, with bladders of ſlippery matter on them. On the coaſt of the Mediterranean ſea, a ſpecies of *alga* is gathered and dried to feed oxen with.

The ſeeds of the *alga* are more perfect than thoſe of the fucuſes, for its veſſels gape when perfect, and the ſeeds fall out. Raii Hiſt.

ALGA MARINA LATIFOLIA VULGATISSIMA. The comon ſea-wrack. See KALI.

ALGA MARINA POROSA. A ſpecies of ſea-plant called eſchara.

ALGA TINCTORIA. Purple ſea-wrack.

ALGALI. Nitre.

ALGALY. An hollow leaden probe or catheter.

ALGAMET. Coals.

ALGARAB, i. e. Anchilops.

ALGAROT. See ALGEROTH.

ALGAROTHI, (Pulvis.) So called from Victorius Algaroth, a phyſician of Verona, and its inventor. It is the ſame with the mercurius vitæ, which ſee. It is only the antimonial part of the butter of antimony, ſeparated from ſome of its acid by waſhing it in water. It is taſteleſs, but violently emetic, in doſes of two or three grains. It is prepared with antimony and ſublimate, or by mixing water with the butter of antimony, which precipitates a white powder, &c.

ALGATIA. Civet.

ALGEDO. The running of a gonorrhœa ſtopping ſuddenly after it appears.

When it thus ſtops a pain reaches to the anus, or to the teſticles, without their being ſwelled, and ſometimes this pain reaches to the bladder, in which caſe there is an urging to diſcharge the urine, and which is with difficulty paſſed, and in very ſmall quantities at a time. The pain is continued to the bladder by the urethra; to the anus by the acceleratory muſcles of the penis; and to the teſticles by the vaſa deferentia, and veſiculæ ſeminales.

In this caſe, calomel repeated ſo as to purge, brings back the running, and then all difficulty from this ſymptom ceaſes. If the pain is great, and a ſanguine plethora requires it, bleed, and give the following.

N° 5.

℞ calom. ppt. gr. xv. opii. gr i. conſ. roſar. q. ſ. f. bol. h. ſ. ſumend. & mane proxim. capt. hauſt. ſeq.

℞ infuſ. ſen. cum tamarind. ℥iii. f. hauſt.

Muſitanus and Cockburn have both of them written on this ſubject.

ALGEMA, or Algematodes. Uneaſineſs, pain. Hippocrates often uſes the word ἄλγημα to ſignify the diſeaſe whence the pain proceeds. James's Med. Dict.

ALGEMET. Coals.

ALGERIÆ, or Algerie. Lime.

ALGEROTH. The ſame as Algaroth. See ALGAROTHI.

ALGIBIC, i. e. Sulphur Vivum.

ALGIDA, Algid. Numb, withered, chill.

ALGODON. A name for aminia.

ALGOIDES. An aquatic plant with imperfect and hermaphrodite flowers; its leaves reſemble thoſe of the alga, ſo is ſuppoſed to take its name therefrom. It is alſo named equiſetum polygonoides. Ray takes notice of three ſpecies, but it is of no medical importance.

ALGOR. In Sauvage and Sagar's Noſology, it ſeems to be a ſudden chilline ſs affecting a perſon.

ALHAGI. The pliant thorny Syrian broom; called alſo agul & almagi Arabibus, geniſta Spartium ſpinoſum, ſpinoſum Syriacum.

It is a ſpecies of thorn; it grows to about a cubit in height; it bears purple-coloured flowers, which are ſucceeded by pods and purple ſeeds. It is commonly met with in Perſia and Meſopotamia, where the inhabitants gather from it a ſort of manna, in grains about the ſize of coriander ſeeds. The Arabians call this manna tereniabin, or trangebin. Raii Hiſt.

There is another ſpecies called *alhagi* maurorum.

ALHANDALA. An Arabian name for the colocynth.

Troch. *alhandal.* The troches of *alhandal.*

℞ colocynth. pulv. gum. arabic. tragac. bdel. āā ʒvi. aq. font. q. ſ. f. troch.

This compoſition is as old as Meſſue, but is now not uſed.

ALHANNA, i. e. Alana terra.

ALHASEF, or Aſef. A ſort of puſtule, called alſo hydroa.

ALIA SQUILLA. The prawn.

ALICA. A ſort of food admired by the ancients; it is difficult to ſay whether it is a grain or a preparation from ſome ſpecies thereof: many writers ſpeak of it as a ſort of wheat, but upon the whole it ſeems to be a kind of meal made into ſlummery, to be eaten with milk, &c. Salmaſius ſays that *alica* is one ſort of the chondrus of the Greeks, which was grain broke into large fragments, or rather only freed from the huſks, but not ground in a mill.

ALICES. Little red ſpots in the ſkin, which precede the eruption of puſtules in the ſmall-pox.

ALICORNU, i. e. Unicornu.

ALIENATIO MENTIS, i. e. Delirium.

ALIENUM. In a medical ſenſe it is any thing foreign and troubleſome to the body. Sometimes it means corrupted.

ALIFORMIS, (Proceſſus) i. e. Pterygoides (proceſſus). From *ala*, *a wing*, and *forma*, *the ſhape of.*

ALIGULUS. A confection.

ALILAT, or ἀλιτ῀ς, an Arabian name for Lucina, or the goddeſs which the Greeks ſuppoſed to preſide over child-birth.

ALIMA. A ſort of ſand found in gold mines, from which lead is obtained.

ALIMENTA, Aliment; or food both ſolid and liquid: from *alo*, *to nouriſh.* It is ſuch matter as contains an oily, inſipid, or ſweetiſh mucilage, convertible by the actions of the body into an alkaleſcent glue, of which all our ſolids and fluids are formed, and by which their waſtings are repaired. Next to air, food is the moſt neceſſary thing for the preſervation of our bodies; and as on the choice thereof our health greatly depends, it is of as great importance to underſtand, in general, what is the propereſt for our nouriſhment; and in particular deviations from health, what is the beſt adapted to reſtore us.

Our blood and juices naturally incline to a putrid acrimonious quality: freſh chyle, duly received, prevents

this deſtructive tendency, and preſerves in them that mild albuminous ſtate that alone conſiſts with health. An animal diet affords the moſt of this bland nutritious mucilage, watery fluids dilute the too groſs parts, and carry off what is become unfit for uſefulneſs.

From the make of the human ſtomach, which reſembles that of carnivorous animals, and from obſervations, which prove that, the fleſh of animals alone contains the gelatinous lymph ready prepared, which is ſuited for the recruit of our frame, it is obvious what ſort of diet is the propereſt for mankind: it is only the ſmall portion of jelly which is ſeparated from the farinaceous parts of vegetables, that after being much elaborated, is converted into the animal nature: yet in robuſt habits, and when ſtrong exerciſe is uſed, the uſe of vegetables prevents both repletion and a too great tendency to an alkaleſcent acrimony of the blood. In hot climes, as well as againſt the conſtitutional heat of particular perſons, vegetables are demanded in the largeſt portion: in colder countries, and particularly in languid habits, they have but little ſhare in the liſt of *aliments*.

Animal ſubſtances then are the propereſt food for man; they only contain nutriment ready for our uſe; and they afford us the higheſt reliſh while our appetite continues. Fiſh is an inferior kind of animal diet, and even this will ſate the appetite before the ſtomach is duly filled. Vegetables may be eaten after either fleſh or fiſh; few herbs or fruits ſatiate ſo much as that the ſtomach may not be filled with them, when it is already ſatisfied with fleſh or fiſh; whence it may be obſerved, that no diet which is very nouriſhing can be eat to fulneſs, becauſe its nutritious parts are oily and ſatiating.

Again, health depends on a certain degree of heat in the body, and it is the craſſamentum of the blood that attracts and maintains it; it is alſo obſerved above that animal food alone contains the proper matter for our ſupplies; whether then we regard the vigorous or infirm, one general rule directs, viz. to exceed in the uſe of animal or vegetable food as the preſent habitual heat riſes or falls from that medium in which the individual's health conſiſts. In perfect health a mixture of vegetables in ſome degree is generally required, for a loathing is ſoon the conſequence of animal food alone; hence if not to nouriſh, yet to attemperate, they have their uſe: hot acrid habits too receive from milk and vegetables the needful for correcting their exceſſes; but in cold, pituitous, and nervous habits, who want moſt nouriſhment from leaſt digeſtion, and from the ſmalleſt quantity of food, animal diet is alone to be preferred.

Thus much being offered as general principles with reſpect to the matter and quality of our *aliment*, the valetudinarian may eaſily regulate his diet with ſome advantage to himſelf by an attention to the few enſuing particulars.

In winter eat freely, but drink ſparingly; roaſt meat is to be preferred, and what is drank ſhould be ſtronger than at other ſeaſons: in ſummer let thirſt determine the quantity to be drank, cold ſtomachs never require much; boiled meats and vegetables, if not otherwiſe contradicted, may now be more freely uſed.

Lax habits require the winter's diet to be continued all the year, and rigid ones ſhould be confined to that of ſummer.

Fat people ſhould faſt at times, but the lean ſhould never do ſo.

Thoſe who are troubled with eructations occaſioned by their food, ſhould drink but little, lay long in a morning, and uſe ſome unaccuſtomed exerciſe.

The thirſty ſhould drink freely, but eat ſparingly.

In general, let moderation be obſerved, and though no dinner hath been had, a light ſupper is at all times to be preferred.

After very high-ſeaſoned meats a glaſs of water acidulated with the elix. vitr. a. or in very weak ſtomachs the elix. vitr. d. is far more aſſiſtant to the work of digeſtion than the common method of taking brandy.

See Haller's Phyſiology, on Hunger, Thirſt, Food, and Drink; Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic: among the ancients, what Galen hath ſaid on diet is the foundation of moſt that has been publiſhed ſince on the ſubject.

ALIMUM, i. e. Arum.

ALINDESIS, or ἀλίνδησις. A bodily exerciſe, which ſeems to be rolling on the ground, or rather in the duſt, after being anointed with oil. Hippocrates ſays that it hath nearly the ſame effects as wreſtling.

ALINTHISAR, i. e. Uvulæ procidentia.

ALIOCAB, i. e. Sal ammoniac.

ALIPÆNOS, or Alipantos, from α, neg. and λιπαίνειν, *to grow fat*. Any external dry remedies that have no fat in them.

ALIPASMA, from ἀλείφω, *to anoint*. A powder which when mixed with oil is rubbed on the body to prevent ſweating.

ALIPILI, from *alarum pilos*. Servants who attend on baths were ſo called from their pulling off hairs from the arm-pits with tweezers.

ALIPTÆ, from ἀλείφω, *to anoint*. Servants of the baths whoſe office was to anoint the perſons after bathing.

ALISMA MATHIOLI, i. e. Doria.

ALISMA. A name of a ſpecies of water plantain.

ALISMA. A name of the German leopard's bane.

ALISTELES. Sal ammoniac.

ALITURA. Nutrition.

ALKAFIAL. Antimony.

ALKAHEST, i. e. Alcaheſt.

ALKAHEST GLAUBERI, i. e. Sales alkalinæ.

ALKA HOIERI, i. e. Alca Hoieri.

ALKAHOL, i. e. Alcohol.

ALKALE. The fat of a hen.

ALKALI, i. e. Alcali.

ALKALI FIXUM (Sal.) i. e. Pot-aſh, or the ſalt obtained from lixivium of the aſhes of any burnt vegetables. See ALCALI.

ALKALI VOLATILE (Sal.) i. e. Alcali volat. (ſal.) See ALCALI.

ALKALIA. A veſſel.

ALKANRI, or Alcanri, a name given by Meſſue to a confect.

ALKARA, or Alcara. A cucurbit, ſo called becauſe it is ſhaped like the cucurbita or gourd.

ALKARANUM, i. e. Duenec viride.

ALKASA. A crucible.

ALKAUT. Mercury.

ALKAZOAL. A crucible.

ALKEKENGI. Winter cherry; alſo called halicacabum, ſolanum veſicarium, verſicaria vulg.

Miller takes notice of twelve ſpecies. The ſpecies uſed in medicine is the phyſalis alkekengi. Lin.

It is a low plant with unbranched ſtalks, heart-ſhaped acuminated leaves ſtanding in pairs on the joints, and whitiſh bell-ſhaped flowers; the flower-cup changes into a pentagonal bladder, which burſting diſcovers a red fruit like a cherry, which contains a juicy pulp and many ſmall ſeeds. It grows wild in France, Germany, and Italy, and thrives well in our gardens. The fruit ripens in October, and continues to December, when the plant dies to the ground.

Theſe cherries have an acidulous and not unpleaſant taſte with a bitteriſhneſs, but their covering is very bitter.

They are diuretic, but neither heat nor irritate; five or ſix cherries, or an ounce of their juice, as a doſe, and if given in the ſtrangury from cantharides, a ſpeedy relief is obtained. ℥ij. of the berries infuſed in a pint of water is extolled in the jaundice: but they are rarely called for in the Engliſh practice.

ALKERNES. See CHERMES. A confect made of the juice of kermes berries, &c. is thus named; it was invented by Meſſue.

ALKERVA. An Arabian name for the Palma Chriſti, and alſo for the ol. ricini.

ALKES. Burnt braſs.

ALKERTAN. An Arabian name for the oil of cedar. See CEDRIA.

ALKIAN. The ſpirit of which digeſts food, nouriſhes and ſupports man.

ALKIBRIC, Alchibric, Alchibert, Algibic, Alkibic, Alchabric, Alkibric, according to ſome, the ſulphur vivum is meant by theſe words; but others ſay they ſignify an incombuſtible ſulphur.

ALKIMIA, i. e. Alchemia.

ALKIN. Pot-aſh.

ALKIR. Smoke of coal.

ALKITRAM. Tar.

ALKOL, i. e. Alcohol.

ALKOSOR. Camphor.

ALKI PLUMBI. It ſeems to be the face. ſaturni.

ALLA, Ale. The ancient Saxons called it *ael*, as do the Danes now. The Germans firſt invented and brought it into uſe.

Ale is diſtinguiſhed from beer, by the firſt being freſh or new, and the other kept until the remaining gas ſylveſtre is deſtroyed, or incorporated with the liquor, ſo as to loſe its elaſticity, or at leaſt a part of it.

Beer is called by the Latins *cerevifia*, from *cerere*, becauſe corn, of which Ceres is the goddeſs, is its principal ingredient; alſo liquor *Cereris*, the *liquor of Ceres: vinum hordeaceum, barley wine*; *vinum regionum ſeptentrionalium*, becauſe it is drank inſtead of wine by the northern people.

Ale is flatulent, and ſo ſometimes produces colics, and the cholera morbus; it is aceſcent, but it does not produce calcareous diſeaſes, as is aſſerted by many. It is obſerved that thoſe who drink *ale* conſtantly, are ſtronger than thoſe who drink wine, and that thoſe who do not drink any ſtrong liquors cannot labour ſo well as thoſe who do; but this does not appear to be the truth: men in health, and accuſtomed to toil, but who never drink any ſtrong liquors, undergo the moſt fatigue, and live longer than thoſe who daily uſe them. Cordials are only deſigned for the infirm, and to fit the healthy for extraordinary exertions; but as they occaſionally may enable the vigorous to execute great undertakings, they alſo proportionably deſtroy the power of nature, and cauſe a premature old age. A conſtant uſe of wine, ale, &c. keeps up a conſtant fever, in moſt who uſe them freely, by which, deſtruction is ſurely the conſequence, though ſomewhat ſlower than the general confeſſed poiſons.

If malt liquor, of any degree of ſtrength, is become flat and tartiſh, as it is uſed, it ſhould be drawn out of the caſk into a jug, in which as many drams of powdered chalk is put as there are to be pints of liquor, thus a new ferment will be raiſed, a ſprightly taſte will be reſtored to the liquor, and its acidity will be deſtroyed.

Taſt liquors of this kind are apt to produce a dyſury, ſtrangury, or a gonorrhœa, in which caſes, give the perſon ſo complaining, a ſmall quantity of brandy.

Ale being in ſome countries cheaper than wines, hath occaſioned it to be medicated for the ſame purpoſes as wines ſo treated; and there are two ways of impregnating malt liquors with medicinal ſubſtances; firſt, by macerating the ingredients in the *ale*, after it is duly fermented; ſecondly, by adding them to the liquor while it is fermenting, that by the power of fermentation the medicinal virtues may more fully be extracted; nutmeg, for inſtance, one dram of it powdered, will flavour a large vat of fermenting *ale*, but when the fermentation ceaſes, it flavours but a very ſmall quantity.

This is an agreeable bitter, and far preferable to any of the purls.

Cereviſia amara.

℞ rad. gent. cort. limon. rec. ad ℥iv. piper. long. ℥i. cereviſ. Cong. i. infund. fine calor.

Cereviſia antiſcorb.

℞ fol. cochl. hort. rec. m. viii. raſſ. guaiac. ℥i. ſenn. coriand. ℥ii. fol. ſenn. ℥ſs. infund. in cereviſ. recent. durant. fermentat. Of theſe medicated *ales* ℔ ß. may be taken night and morning.

ALLABOR. Lead.

ALLABROT. A ſort of factitious ſalt.

ALLANTOIDES, from ἀλλᾶς, *farcimen*, or *inteſtinum fartum, a gut ſtuffed*; and εἶδος, *likeneſs*, i. e. Allantois.

ALLANTOIS, from ἀλλᾶς, *a ſauſage*, or *hog's pudding*, becauſe in ſome brutes it is long and thick. It is alſo called alantoides, and the urinary membrane. It is one of the membranes called the ſecundines.

Some aſſert, and others deny, the exiſtence of this membrane in the human ſpecies. Dr. Hale ſays, if you firſt find the hole whence the urine came forth, if the allantois is too much torn, you may blow up this membrane with a pipe, to its full dimenſions, and thus you can ſeparate much of it from the chorion. De Graaf ſays, that all the membranes of the ſecundines will appear diſtinct by blowing, with a pipe, into a hole made through the chorion; and that the *allantois* is no where perforated by the funis umbilicalis, for the funis does not paſs through any of the membranes, it only adheres to the inſide of the amnios. Dr. James ſays, that the *allantois*, or urinary membrane, does not cover the whole fœtus, but only that part of it which reſpects the chorion, and does not lie on the placenta; for the *allantois* cannot be extended any farther than to the edge of the placenta, where the amnio and chorion are ſo cloſely joined by fibres, that no membrane can come between them, wherefore the *allantois* is not every where faſtened to the chorion, and conſequently is not of the ſame ſhape as the other membranes.

This membrane contains the urine that is diſcharged from the bladder: what paſſes from the bladder into the urachus cannot, in a natural ſtate, return by it. There have been inſtances of perſons diſcharging their urine at the navel.

The liquor may be forced from the bladder to the *allantois* by fitting a pipe to it, and from the *allantois* to the bladder. If you raiſe the *allantois* a little, and ſqueeze it with the hand, you force the liquor into the bladder and through the penis.

Neither artery nor vein can be diſcovered in this membrane.

Whether or no any anatomiſts have ever demonſtrated this membrane, not any of them has given a diſtinct figure of it; all the engravings which are deſigned to repreſent it, are too incorrect to afford us a diſtinct idea. Dr. Hunter, in his lectures, abſolutely denies the exiſtence of this membrane, except in brutes.

See on this ſubject what Dr. Hales hath inſerted in the Philoſ. Tranſ. abr. vol. iv. and Monſ. Littre in the Mem. Acad. des Sciences, 1701.

ALLARINOCH. Lead.

ALLELUJA. Wood ſorrel.

ALLENCE. Tin.

ALLIAR ÆRIS. A term uſed in preparing the philoſopher's ſtone, to ſignify philoſophical copper, which is alſo called water of mercury, white copper, and many other names.

ALLIARIA. Sauce alone, or jack by the hedge; alſo called pes aſſininus, and heſperis allium. It is the eryſimum alliaria. Lin.

This plant hath roundiſh, heart-ſhaped, ſlightly indented leaves, and firm upright ſtalks, on the tops of which, and in the boſoms of the leaves, come forth cluſters of white flowers, followed by oblong bivalvous pods full of black ſeeds. It is biennial, grows in ſhady waſte places, and in hedges, and flowers in May.

The leaves are ſomewhat acrid, and of a garlic ſmell; on drying they loſe much of their ſcent, and alſo of their taſte. Its medical virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of the onion tribe, but is not much in uſe.

ALLICOLA. A name of petroleum.

ALLIGATURA. Scribonius Largus uſes this word for *a ligature* or *bandage*.

ALLII (Infuſ.) See ALLIUM.

ALLIO (Oxym. ex.) See ALLIUM.

ALLIO (Syr. ex.) See ALLIUM.

ALLIO PRASSUM. Viper's garlic.

ALLIOTICUM, from ἀλλάσσω, *to alter* or *vary*; an alterative medicine.

ALLIUM. Common garlic. Called alſo, from its antiputreſcent property, theriaca ruſticorum. It is the *allium* ſativum, or *allium* caule planifolio bulbifero, bulbo compoſito, ſtaminibus tricuſpidatis, Linn.

It hath long and graſs-like leaves, a ſingle ſtraight hollow ſtalk, bearing on the top a cluſter of ſmall white flowers, each of which is followed by a fruit about the ſize of a pea, full of dark-coloured roundiſh ſeeds. The roots are bulbous, of an irregular roundiſh ſhape, with ſeveral fibres at the bottom; each root is compoſed of a number of ſmaller bulbs, called cloves of garlic, incloſed in one common coat. It grows wild in Italy, Sicily, and other warm countries; but in England it is raiſed in gardens from ſeed.

Miller and Dale enumerate eleven or twelve ſpecies.

The roots are the part uſed in medicine; their virtues conſiſt of a very acrid putreſcent volatile ſpirit, the principal effect of which is to warm and ſtimulate the ſolids, attenuate viſcid humours, and to reſiſt putrefaction. Applied to the ſkin they excite inflammation there; and ſometimes raiſe bliſters; they are uſed as a ſtimulating epithem applied to the ſoles of the feet, in the low ſtage of acute diſtempers, for raiſing the pulſe and relieving the head.

Sydenham fays that garlic excels all other applications for occafioning a derivation from the head in fevers of any kind; and he farther obferves, that the efficacy of garlic thus applied, is more fpeedy than that of cantharides, and this without the objection of a diffolution of the juices being endangered, as when the common bliftering plafter is applied. The following is the method of making and applying this fort of cataplafm.

Cataplafm. ex allio.

℞ *allium* rec. cont. & mices panis albi. āā. p. æq. acet. acerim. q. f. f. catapl. plantis pedis applic. & repet. omn. noct.

Sometimes this cataplafm caufes much pain, but this would not happen if it was removed as foon as an inflammation appeared, and immediately after another cataplafm of bread and milk was to fupply its place.

The cloves of freſh garlic are bruifed, and applied to the wrifts as a cure of agues; and to the bend for the arm to cure the tooth-ach; held in the hand they relieve hiccoughing; beat with common oil into a poultice, they refolve fluggifh humours; and if laid on the navels of children, they deftroy worms in the inteftines.

If garlic is taken inwardly, its action manifefts itfelf through the whole habit, the breath, urine, and the matter of perfpiration are all fcented with it. If cows happen to eat the leaves of garlic their milk will be ftrongly impregnated with its flavour.

In cold phlegmatic habits it is highly ufeful by its corroborant, expectorant, and diuretic effects; in humoral afthmas it gives relief when the patient is oppreffed with vifcid phlegm. In thefe inftances the oxymel and fyrup are excellent forms for adminiftering it. The vinegar and honey coincide with the intention of garlic, as a detergent and deobftruent in diforders of the breaft.

Oxymel ex allio.

℞ rad. *allii* rec. incif. ℥ i. fs. fem. carui & fœniculi. D. āā ʒ ij mel brit. ℥ x. acet. acerim. ℔ fs.

Pour the vinegar, boiling hot, upon the garlic and feeds, and cover them immediately; when cold, ftrain, then diffolve the honey in the ftrained liquor by means of a water bath. Some prefer this medicine, when prepared with a dulcified mineral acid, inftead of vinegar, for the vinegar contains a portion of vifcid matter fimilar to that which offends in afthmas, &c. befides, the mineral acid covers the offenfivenefs of garlic more than vinegar does.

Syrupus ex allio.

℞. *allium* rec. incif. ℔ ij. aq. font. bullient. ℔ ij. Macerate thefe in a clofe veffel for twelve hours, then in a gentle heat diffolve a proper quantity of fugar in the ftrained liquor, to make a fyrup. This is an alternative for the oxymel, and may be ufed when the honey difagrees.

Hoffman fays, that if the cloves of freſh garlic are boiled in milk, they are one of the beft anthelmintics; but the beft way of taking garlic is in the form of a pill or a bolus.

In hot bilious conftitutions, garlic is improper, for where there is irritation and acrimony already, it produces flatulence, head-ach, thirft, heat, and other inflammatory fymptoms: a free ufe of it foon promotes the piles in habits difpofed thereto.

In drying this root it lofes $\frac{9}{10}$ths of its weight, but freſh or dry it equally gives out its virtues to boiling water, vinegar, or brandy; and an infufion in the latter is highly ufeful to relieve or prevent uneafinefs in the ftomach and bowels from a gouty caufe.

Infufio allii. *Infufion of garlic.*

℞ rad. *allii* rec. incif. ʒ ij. fp. vin. gal. ℔ i. m. cochl. magn. vel. ii. h. f. fumed. vel bis in die.

Garlic fhould never be boiled; its virtues refides in an oil that eafily evaporates in a boiling heat, and thus leaves it quite inert. This oil is fmall in quantity, but very active; it is yellowifh and ropy: but the juice may be inſpiſſated into an extract by a gentle heat.

Rectified fpirit of wine digefted on dry garlic roots, extracts its virtues more readily, and more perfectly, than either water or vinegar.

ALLIUM ALPINUM. Spotted ramfons.

ALLIUM AGNINUM. Spotted ramfons.

ALLIUM GALLICUM. A name of the portulacca; and (perhaps through miftake) it is writ by fome as a name of the inula ruftica.

ALLIUM LATIFOLIUM LILIFLORUM. A fpecies of moly.

ALLIUM HOLMENSO,
ALLIUM MAXIMUM,
ALLIUM SPHÆRICEO,
ALLIUM SYLVESTRE. } The names of different of leeks.

ALLIUM MONTANUM. Spotted ramfons.

ALLIUM MONTANUM LATIFOLIUM MACULATUM,
ALLIUM ALPINUM,
ALLIUM AGNINUM, } Species of garlic, under the title of ophioſcoroden.

ALLOBROGICUM VINUM. A fort of auftere wine, produced in Savoy and Dauphiné.

ALLOCHOOS, one who talks deliriouſly.

ALLŒOSIS, or ALLŒOTICOS, } alteration by proper means from ſickneſs to health.

ALLOGNOON, from ἄλλος, *another*, and γνόω, *to know*. To be delirious, or to conceive of things different from what they really are.

ALLOGOTROPHIA. A diſproportionate nutrition, when one part of the body is nouriſhed diſproportionately to another. Blancard.

ALLOPHASIS, from ἄλλος, *another*, and φάω, to ſpeak. A delirium, or to ſpeak of things different from what they are. Hippocrates often expreſſes light-headed, by the word ἀλλοφασσοντες.

ALLOTRIOPHAGIA. i. e. Pica. A greedy eating of unuſual things for food.

ALMA, ἄλμα, *water*; and the firſt motion of a fœtus to free itſelf from its confinement.

ALMABRI. A ſtone like amber.

ALMAG. The abbreviation of almageſtum.

ALMAGER, i. e. Sinopis, or rubrica ſinopica.

ALMAGRA, the bolum cuprum: alſo a name for the white ſulphur of the chemiſts.

ALMAKANDA. Litharge.

ALMAKIST. Litharge.

ALMANDINA, a ſpecies of garnet.

ALMARAGO. Coral.

ALMARCAB. Litharge.

ALMARCARIDA. Litharge of ſilver.

ALMARCAT. The ſcoria of gold.

ALMARGEN. Coral.

ALMARKASITA. Mercury.

ALMARTACK. Powder of litharge.

ALMATATICA. Copper.

ALMECASIDE, or Almechaſide. Copper.

ALMELILETU. A word uſed by Avicenna, to expreſs a preternatural heat leſs than that of a fever, and which may continue after recovery.

ALMENE, i. e. Sal lucidum; alſo ſal gemmæ.

ALMETAT. Scoria of gold.

AMISA. Muſk.

ALMISADAR, or Almiſadir, or Almizadar, or Almizadir. Prepared ſal ammoniac.

ALMISARUB. Earth.

ALMIZADIR. Prepared ſal. ammoniac, alſo verdigriſe.

ALMYZA. An Arabian name for quicklime.

ALMYZINTHRA, ſuppoſed to ſignify quicklime. This word often occurs in Myrepſus.

ALNEC. Tin.

ALNERIC, i. e. Sulphur vivum.

ALNUS. The alder-tree, of which Miller enumerates ſeven or eight ſpecies. The ſorts known in medicine are the following, but are rarely if ever uſed in the preſent practice.

ALNUS, and Alnus rotundi folia glutinoſa viridis. The common alder tree.

ALNUS NIGRA vel Frangula. The rhamnus frangula. Lin. The black alder.

The common alder is tall and coniferous, grows in watery places, with little branches; its leaves are clammy, the bark is of a blackiſh brown, and the wood is reddiſh.

All the parts of this tree are aſtringent and bitter, the bark is the moſt aſtringent; a decoction of it hath cured agues, and is often uſed to repel inflammatory humours in the throat.

The black, or berry-bearing alder, is alſo found in moiſt woods; it is rather of the ſhrub kind. The inner yellow bark of the trunk or root given to ʒ i. vomits, purges, and

and gripes, but joined with aromatics it operates more agreeably; but an infuſion, or decoction of it in water, inſpiſſated to an extract, acts yet more mildly. The berries of this ſpecies of alder are purgative, they are not in uſe under their own name, but are often ſubſtituted for buckthorn berries; to diſcover which, obſerve that the berries of the black alder have a black ſkin, a blue juice, and two ſeeds in each of them; whereas the buckthorn berries have a green juice, and commonly four ſeeds.

ALOE, a plant which affords the purging gum of the ſame name; all the ſpecies, of which Miller enumerates thirty-ſeven, have thick fat leaves, like thoſe of the houſeleek, but much larger, running two or three feet higher, the inſpiſſated juice of the whole plant is gum *aloe*. An erroneous notion prevails, of the *aloe* plant blowing but once in a hundred years; any ſkilful gardener makes them flower at any time by ſetting them in a bed of tanner's bark. The beſt is ſaid to grow in India, but all Aſia produces excellent plants; in moſt warm climes they are produced, as in the Weſt-Indies, &c. It is reported that Alexander landing on the iſland of Succotora, in one of his expeditions, took notice of the *aloe* plant, and from that it was brought into uſe.

Of the gum we have three kinds in the ſhops.

1. *Aloe* Succotrina vel Zocotorina, Succotorine *aloes*.

It is imported from the iſland Succotora, in the Indian ocean, wrapped in ſkins; it is obtained from the *aloe* Socotorina anguſti folia ſpinoſa flora purpures. Com. Hort. i. p. 9. t. 48. The *aloe* (perfoliata) floribus pedunculatis cernuis corymboſis ſubcylindricis. var. ξ Lin. It is bright on its ſurface, and of a reddiſh colour, with a purple caſt; but when powdered it is of a golden hue; it is hard and friable in very cold weather, but in ſummer it ſoftens very eaſily betwixt the fingers. It is extremely bitter, and alſo accompanied with an aromatic flavour, but not ſo much as to cover its diſagreeable taſte. Its ſcent is rather agreeable, being ſomewhat ſimilar to that of myrrh.

2. *Aloe* hepaticæ, vel *aloe* Barbadenſis. The common, or Barbadoes, or hepatic *aloes*. *Aloe* (perfoliata) floribus pedunculatis cernuis corymboſis ſubcylindricis. var. vera. foliis ſpinoſis conſertis dentatis vaginantibus planis maculatis. Lin. The beſt is brought from Barbadoes in large gourd ſhells; an inferior ſort in pots, and the worſt in caſks. It is darker coloured than the Succotrine, and not ſo bright; it is alſo drier, and more compact, though ſometimes the ſort in caſks is ſoft and clammy; to the taſte it is intenſely bitter and nauſeous, being almoſt totally without that aroma which is obſerved in the Succotrine; to the ſmell it is ſtrong and diſagreeable.

3. *Aloe* caballina, vel *aloe* Guinenſis. Horſe *aloes*. It is not eaſy to believe, as is generally reported, that this is only the more impure part of the Barbadoes *aloe*, becauſe the difference does not conſiſt in the purity, but in the quality. It is very diſtinguiſhable from both the others by its ſtrong rank ſmell; in other reſpects it ſo agrees with the Barbadoes ſpecies as to be often ſold for it. Sometimes its purity and clearneſs are ſuch, that they cannot diſtinguiſh it from the Succotrine *aloe*; but either its offenſive ſmell, or its want of the aromatic flavour, betrays it.

The general nature of theſe three kinds are the ſame, ſo may all be conſidered in the following as one, their particular differences only conſiſt in the different proportions of gum to their reſin, and in the flavours they poſſeſs, which renders them more or leſs diſguſtful for internal uſe. From their intenſe bitterneſs they have received the name of ſel naturæ.

Aloes conſiſt of a ſmall portion of reſin, and a large one of gummy matter; to ſeparate which, boil four ounces of *aloes* in a quart of water, until it is diſſolved; let this ſolution ſtand in a cool place all the night, by which time the reſin will be depoſited at the bottom of the veſſel, the gum continuing in its diſſolved ſtate, but by evaporation is recovered in a ſolid form. Twelve ounces of the Barbadoes *aloes* yields nearly four ounces of reſin, and eight of a gummy extract. The ſame quantity of the Succotrine yields three ounces of reſin, and nearly nine of gummy extract; and the horſe *aloes* two ounces of reſin, and nine of gummy extract.

The *aloes* may be purified by ſolution in water, and an evaporation ſo immediately after, that the reſin may not have time to ſettle.

When the reſin ſettles from the watery decoction of the *aloes*, the impurities ſubſide therewith, and are to be ſeparated by diſſolving the reſin in ſpirit of wine; then, after a due ſeparation of the ſolution from its ſediment, the reſin is to be reſtored by evaporating the ſpirit with a gentle heat.

The reſin of *aloes* hath but very little ſcent; that from the Succotrine hath very little taſte, from the Barbadoes a ſlight bitter, and from the horſe ſpecies ſomewhat more of the aloetic flavour.

The gummy extracts are leſs diſagreeable than the crude *aloes*; that of the Barbadoes ſmells rather ſtronger than that of the Succotrine; but in taſte is leſs ungrateful than it; that of the Succotrine hath very little ſmell, and is ſcarcely unpleaſant to the taſte; that of the horſe *aloes* hath a rank ſmell, but its taſte is not worſe than that of the Succotrine.

In the reſinous part conſiſts the vulnerary and balſamic qualities, hence for external uſes the Barbadoes is the beſt; internally, however prepared, it hath very little cathartic power. In the gummy extract reſides the purgative, and all the other qualities. The gum of the Succotrine aloes purges more, and with greater irritation, than the gum of the Barbadoes; the former is therefore to be preferred where a ſtimulus is required, as when the menſes are to be excited; the latter may be preferred for common purges. Of all the known purges, this gum is almoſt, if not quite, alone in being friendly to the ſtomach; ſome are eaſily moved by it, others not; ſometimes it operates immediately, and its effects ceaſe, as is common with other purges; and ſometimes it produces no ſenſible effect with the firſt doſes, but when it does anſwer, it continues the effect longer than any other purgative, keeping the body ſoluble during ſeveral days, and it does not induce a coſtiveneſs after its purging effects are over; hence a good ſolution in coſtive habits. In ſmall doſes twice a day it occaſions a conſiderable irritation about the anus, and ſometimes a diſcharge from the hæmorrhoidal veſſels, hence it is an excellent remedy, when uſed to relieve nervous diſorders, we would promote ſuch an evacuation; when this effect is not the conſequence of ſmall doſes, they cleanſe the firſt paſſages, attenuate viſcid humours in the remote parts, warm the habit, and promote the ſecretions. When vapours diſturb the phlegmatic and ſedentary, by aſcending into the head, this drug is peculiarly proper; cachectic habits, and oppreſſions in the ſtomach from viſcid crudities, when cauſed by irregularity, are ſingularly relieved by it. It is powerfully antiſeptic, and in common with bitters and purgatives, is an anthelminthic. In all diſeaſes of the nervous tribe, aloes is the propereſt purge; and the beſt preparations for this purpoſe are the pil. Rufi, or the tinct. ſacra ſpirituoſa. Its efficacy in the jaundice is very conſiderable, it promotes an appetite, and for this end the vin. aloet. alk. is peculiarly beneficial. It is a ſuccedaneum to the bile, and is neceſſary in all caſes where the bile is defective either in quantity or quality.

Aloes purge in flatulent cold habits where there is no inflammation; but when the blood is inflamed, the belly very coſtive, the urine high-coloured, then it produces no ſuch effect: on the contrary, the oftener this medicine is repeated in this latter habit of body, the more aſtringent it will prove. In hot, bilious conſtitutions, it is injurious by heating the blood, and inflaming the bowels; in ſuch habits, if it is required, it will be neceſſary to mix a ſmall quantity of nitre with each doſe, or to uſe the elix. proprietatis vitriolicum. In diſpoſitions to the gravel, as well as during the paſſage thereof from the kidnies through the ureter, aloetic purges are improper.

The doſe of crude *aloes*, or of the gummy extract, may be from gr. x. to ʒ i.

Alcaline ſalts leſſen the purgative quality of *aloes*; and long boiling quite deſtroy it.

This gum is ſometimes adulterated with acacia, at others with gum arabic.

Accompanied with heat, the crude *aloes* may be all diſſolved in water; but when it is cold, it lets fall its reſin. A mixture of pure water two parts, and proof ſpirit one part, perfectly diſſolves it without heat; but rectified ſpirit of wine diſſolves it moſt ſpeedily. If water or wine is the menſtruum, the *aloes* becomes tenacious, and diſſolve ſlowly; in this caſe, white ſand ſhould be well mixed

with the powdered *aloes*, before being added to theſe laſt mentioned fluids.

Cloves cover the offenſiveneſs of *aloes* the moſt perfectly, but their heat admits not of a due quantity being uſed for this purpoſe. The canella alba anſwers tolerably, and without any inconvenience; but ſome preſer the caſſia caryophyllata for this purpoſe.

The following are the principal preparations of *aloes*.

Elix. aloe. *The elixir of aloes.*

℞ Tinct. myrrh. ℔ ij. *aloe* Succot. & croc. Anglic. ää ℥ iij. m.

This was called elix. proprietatis, and was the elix. prop. of Paracelſus, who attributed to it very extraordinary properties, and ſo named it the Elixir of Property to Man. The original method of preparing it is improved in the above preſcription; for if myrrh, *aloes*, and ſaffron are digeſted together, the menſtruum will ſoon ſate itſelf with the *aloes* and ſaffron, ſo as ſcarce to take up any of the myrrh, whilſt a tincture already extracted from myrrh, readily diſſolves the *aloes* and ſaffron in a large quantity.

The doſe to children may be from gt. x. ad xl. and to adults to a tea ſpoonful.

The pil. Rufi, and this elixir, may be ſubſtituted for each other.

Elix. proprietatis vitriolicum. The vitriolic elixir of property.

℞ Myrrh. pulv. ℥ ij. *aloe* Succot. ℥ i. croc. Anglic. ℥ ſs. ſpirit. vitriol. dulc. ℔ i. ſs. m. digere, 6 dies in B. A.

The mineral acid, as uſed formerly, precipitated the ingredients; but when this acid is previouſly combined with the vinous ſpirit, it neither precipitates them, nor reſtrains the diſſolving power of the vinous ſpirit. In hot conſtitutions, and weakneſs of the ſtomach, this is preferable to the elixir *aloe*

Tinct. aloetica volatile. The volatile aloetic tincture.

℞ Spec. hier. picr. ℥ i. ſpt. ſal. ammoniac. dulc. vel ſpt. ſal. ammon. cum calx. viv. fact ℔ i. m. f. tinct.

This is an elegant preparation of its kind, requiring very little, if any aſſiſtance, from aromatics, to render it agreeable to the palate; the ſpirit abating the offenſiveneſs of the *aloes*, and the *aloes* ſheathing the pungency of the ſpirit. The ſpt. ſal. ammon. cum ſal. tart. fact. does not diſſolve near the quantity of *aloes* that the ſpirits preſcribed do.

Vinum aloeticum alkalinum.

℞ Sal tart. ℔ ſs. *aloe* Succot. croc. Anglic. & myrrh. ad ℥ i. ſal. ammon. crud. ʒ vi. vin. alb. mont. ℔ ij. m.

Let theſe be macerated cold for a week, then the clear liquor may be poured off for uſe. If the myrrh and ſaffron are macerated firſt, and after them the reſt of the ingredients are added, a more perfect medicine will be obtained.

This is the elix. proprietatis of Helmont, with ſome little alteration. It is a better ſtomachic than the elixir of *aloes*, for which it may be uſed; it is more effectual too in promoting the ſecretions; and, with good advantage, it is adminiſtered to promote the urinary diſcharge, and to cleanſe the kidnies; and, in moſt reſpects, excels the elixir of *aloes*.

The doſe is from ʒ i. to ʒ iij.

Other preparations, whoſe principal ingredients is *aloes*, are the Hiera Picra, which ſee; the tinctura ſacra, ſee Sacra (Tinct.); the pil. Rufi, ſee Rufi (Pil.); and the pil. aromaticæ, ſee Aromaticæ (Pil.)

Of this kind too are the famed Scotch pills, and Hooper's female pills. They ſeem to be no other than the aloes rolled up with what gives them their peculiar ſcent.

ALOE PURGANS. See Aloe.

ALOE AROMATIC, i. e. Agallochum.

ALOE LIGN. i. e. Agallochum.

ALOE 4, ſeu Aloe Paluſtris, i. e. Aizoon.

ALOE BRASILIENSIS, i. e. Caraguata.

ALOE PALUSTRIS, ſee Aizoon and Aloides.

ALOEDARIA. Compound purging medicines, ſo called from having aloes as one ingredient.

ALOGOTROPHIA, from ἀλογῶς, *diſproportionate* and τρέφω, *to nouriſh*. Unequal nouriſhment, as in the rickets.

ALOHAR. Quickſilver.

ALOHOC. Quickſilver.

ALOID. The abbreviation of aloidaria.

ALOIDES, water aloes, or freſh water ſoldier; alſo called aloe paluſtris, aizoon paluſtris, militaris aizoides, and ſtratiotes.

Its leaves reſemble thoſe of the aloe, it grows in water, and on watery grounds; the leaves and flowers are always above the water. It is met with in ſeveral parts of England, and flowers from June to Auguſt.

Mountebanks ſhew the fibres, which are its roots, for worms. They put them in bottles of water to make them appear thicker.

ALOMBA. Lead.

ALOOC. Lead.

ALOPECES. (Lat. Vulpes). The muſcles called pſoæ.

ALOPECIAS OPPIANI. The ſea fox.

ALOPECIA. Baldneſs, the falling off of the hair, from ἀλωπηξ, *a fox*, becauſe the fox is ſubject to a diſtemper that reſembles it. When the bald part is ſmooth and winding, like the track of a ſerpent, it is called ophiaſis; but the general name of all the different appearances of bald places is area, which name is taken from the area in a garden, which is a ſpot on which nothing grows; though Blankard ſays, that the hair falls off areatem, by ſhedding, whence in general this diſeaſe is called area.

Theſe diſorders ſeem to have been more common among the ancients than they are in our days. Celſus ſays, that the *alopecia* comes at any age, but the ophiaſis only affects infants; and Sennertus obſerves, that they both are common to all ages, though they are moſt frequently met with in childhood, and often ſucceed the tinea, achores, and favi.

The cauſe is a faulty humour that deſtroys the roots of the hair, and that ſometimes only perverts the humour that nouriſhes them, in which caſe the hairs turn white, yellow, &c. according to the different quality of the morbid humour. Galen ſays, that eating muſhrooms may cauſe that bad quality in the humours which produces theſe diſorders; and alſo that malignant and contagious diſeaſes of various kinds may produce the ſame effect.

The *alopecia* ſpreads itſelf on the beard, as well as on the hairy ſcalp, and is irregularly formed. The ophiaſis uſually begins at the back part of the head, and creeps about the breadth of two fingers, till it hath extended its two heads to both the ears, and ſometimes to the forehead, till both heads meet in one. The ophias ſeems to be more malignant than the *alopecia*, ſince that in it not only the roots of the hair, but alſo the cuticle is corroded as far as the roots reach; the ſkin alſo changes its colour, and is ſometimes pale, at others darker coloured, and if pricked, a ſerous blood iſſues out.

Theſe diſorders differ from the tinea; in the latter the excoriations, and exulcerations are deeper, and often the hair does not grow again.

In infants theſe diſorders commonly go off as age advances; but in adults, the cure, eſpecially of the ophias, is very difficult. If the part does not grow red with friction a cure is vainly attempted; but in proportion as a redneſs appears readily on rubbing the part, the cure may be expected to be eaſy and ſoon effected. If a leproſy is the cauſe, the caſe is incurable. The beſt prognoſtic is when hairs begin to puſh out on the edges of the areas.

As to the cure, if any other diſeaſe attends, begin by removing it, which done, it often falls out that the *alopecia*, &c. depending thereon is removed alſo. Before the hair falls off, if ſigns of the approaching diſeaſe attend, gentle repellents and corroborants may be uſed; but if the diſeaſe is formed, repellents muſt be omitted, the head muſt be ſhaved, then waſhed with ley in which is infuſed the abrotanum polytricham, and ſuch like herbs, after which let the part be rubbed with a flannel or other coarſe cloth until the ſkin grows red; this done, applications of muſtard, white lily roots, nitre, tar, the aſhes of ſouthernwood may be directed, as the preſcriber's intention ſeems moſt likely to be anſwered by one or the other.

The topics uſed in the achores (which ſee) are well adapted to this caſe.

Begin with the milder applications and proceed gradually, as diſcretion admits. If the ſkin grows more red, or is more eaſily made ſo by rubbing the part, moderate the applications; the milder ſort of dreſſings may continue all the day and night; but the more active only until the ſkin is ſenſibly affected by them. See Celſus, Sennertus.

ALO-

ALOPECUROS, from ἀλωπηξ, *a fox*, and οὐρα, *a tail*; fox-tail; alſo called gramen, alopec, ſpica brevi, and gramen ſpicati tomentoſum.

It is a tender herb, with a ſhort ſpike reſembling a fox's tail, white and thin; the ſtalks have many joints, and are beſet with graſs-like leaves covered with ſoft hair. It is plentiful in the ſouthern parts of Europe, but not of any note in medicine.

Ray enumerates fourteen ſpecies.

ALOPEX. The name of a particular kind of ſea-fiſh.

ALOSA. The ſhad.

A ſea-fiſh the ſize of a ſalmon, with large ſcales, but thin and eaſily taken off. In its head is a ſtoney bone of an alkaline nature. This fiſh is the beſt for eating in ſpring, but if pickled it keeps well all the year.

ALOSAT. Quickſilver.

ALOSOHOC. Quickſilver.

ALOSANTHI. Flower of ſalt.

ALP. The bird called alſo rubicilla, which ſee.

ALPAM. A plant growing in Aregatti and Mondabelle; it is noted by Ray in his Hiſtory of Plants, but it is not known as medicinal.

ALPHABETICUM CHYMICUM. The chemical alphabet. The following is from Raymond Lully, but of what uſe is not eaſy to imagine.

A	ſignificat.	Deum.
B	- - -	Mercurium.
C	- - -	Salis petram.
D	- - -	Vitriolum.
E	- - -	Menſtruale.
F	- - -	Lunam claram.
G	- - -	Mercurium noſtrum.
H	- - -	Salem purum.
I	- - -	Compoſitum lunæ.
K	- - -	Compoſitum ſolis.
L	- - -	Terram compoſiti lunæ.
M	- - -	Aquam comp. lunæ.
N	- - -	Ærem comp. lunæ.
O	- - -	Terram comp. ſolis.
P	- - -	Aquam comp. ſolis.
Q	- - -	Ærem comp. ſolis.
R	- - -	Ignem comp. ſolis.
S	- - -	Lapidem album.
T	- - -	Medicinam corporis rubei.
U	- - -	Calorem fumi ſecreti.
X	- - -	Ignem ſiccum cineris.
Y	- - -	Calorem balnei.
Z	- - -	Separationem liquorum.
⧖	- - -	Alembicum cum cucurbita.

ALPHENIC. An Arabian word for ſugar-candy, or barley-ſugar.

ALPHESERA, i. e. Alfeſera.

ALPHITA, the plural of ἄλφιτον. The meal of barley that hath been hulled and parched. Hippocrates uſes this word for meal in general; Galen ſays, that χρίμνα, is coarſe meal, ἄλευρα, is fine meal, and ἄλφιτα, is a middling ſort.

ALPHITEDON. It is when a bone was broken into ſmall fragments like alphita, i. e. bran.

ALPHITON. A haſty pudding. Thus the Greeks call it, but the Roman name is polenta; it is made of barley meal, moiſtened with water, wine, mum, or any other liquor. The ſoldiers had it in common uſe.

ALPHUS, ἄλφος, from ἀλφαίνω, an old word for *to change*, becauſe it changes the colour of the ſkin.

This diſorder is a ſpecies of that ſort of white leproſy called vitiligo, and which is divided into the *alphus*, melas, and leuce; in the *alphus* the ſkin is white and roughiſh, not all over but in ſpots, ſometimes the patches are broad: it has the ſame origin as the leuce & lepra, and bears the ſame analogy to the leuce as the ſcabies to the lepra; the firſt is ſuperficial, chiefly affecting the ſkin; the ſecond ſinks deeper into the fleſh: but theſe are all diſorders that only differ in their degrees of inveteracy.

Oribaſius commends lime water as a lotion in all the ſpecies of this diſorder, and ſays that the *alphus* requires a thin lime-water, the ſcabies a thicker or ſtronger, and the lepra the ſtrongeſt. Actius commends, as equally proper for the white or the black *alphus*, the following liniment:

℞ Fol. ficu ſulph. viv. & alum. rup. ää. p. æq. acet. acerim. q. ſ. f. linim. cum qua inung. partes affect.

Purging medicines ſhould precede externals.

The baln. tepid. vel frigid. ſal nitri, & decoct. cort. ulmi, generally ſucceed.

See Celſus. Actuarius Method. Medend. Oribaſius de Morb. Cutan. Curat. Aetius's Tetrac. iv. Germ. cap. i. 132.

ALPINA FILICIS FOLIO MAJOR. A ſpecies of the alectorolophus.

ALPINI (Balſ.) i. e. Balm of Gilead.

ALPIN. ÆGYPT. The abbreviation for Proſperus *Alpinus* de Plantis Ægypt.

ALP. EXOT. The abbreviation for Proſperi *Alpini* de Plantis exoticis.

ALP. PL. ÆG. The abbreviation for P. *Alpini* de Plantis Ægypti.

ALQUIFOU, or Arquifou. It is a ſort of lead ore, which, when broken, looks like antimony. It is uſed by the potters to give a green varniſh to their works, and thence is called potter's ore. It is met with in Cornwal, &c. The potters mix a ſmall portion of manganeze with the *alquifou*, and then the varniſh or glazing on their ware is of a blackiſh hue.

ALRACHAS. Lead.

ALRATICA. A partial or total imperforation of the vagina. It is an Arabic word.

ALSAHARAVIUS. See Albucasis.

ALSAMACH, or Alſemach, an Arabic name for the great hole in the os petroſum.

ALSECH, i. e. Alum, plumos.

ALSELAT. Burnt copper.

ALSEMACH, i. e. Alſamach.

ALSINASTRUM. A plant found in boggy places; its roots is fibrous and white, the ſtalk hollow, divided into cells lengthwiſe; and that part which is in the water is of a purpliſh colour, the reſt of a pale green; it bears white flowers in July and Auguſt. There are three ſpecies, but of no conſequence in medicine.

ALSINE, from ἄλσος, a *grove*, becauſe it delights in ſuch places on account of their ſhade. It is alſo called morſus gallinæ; in Engliſh, chick-weed and mouſe-ear; this laſt name is from its leaves reſembling the ears of mice.

There are twenty-two ſpecies.

It is a ſmall creeping herb, and too generally known to need a deſcription; in ſhady cultivated ground it is to be met with the greateſt part of the year, but it is alſo in more expoſed places, where it appears in the middle of winter, and dies in the middle of ſummer.

It is cooling, but of too little conſequence to be noted as a medicine. It is uſed to promote an appetite in linnets and Canary-birds.

ALSINE. A name of ſome ſpecies of veronica; alſo of a ſpecies of ſaxifraga, or rue whitlow graſs.

ALSINE BACCIFERA. One of the ſpecies of alſine.

ALSINE CORNICULATA. A ſpecies of myoſotis.

ALSINE FORMIS, called alſo *alſine* paluſtris, and portulaca exigua. In Engliſh, ſmall water-chickweed, or purſlane, or blinks.

It flowers in ſpring, is found in boggy ground, but of no known medical uſe.

ALSIRACOSTUM. The name of a compound medicine in Meſue, called alſo ſiracoſtum.

ALSNICIUM. A ſpecies of apium, much uſed in Germany.

ALSURENGIAM. An Arabic name for hermodactyls.

ALT. The abbreviation for alter and Altdorf.

ALTAFOR. Camphor.

ALTARIS ET ALTARIT. Quickſilver.

ALTERANTIA. Alteratives. They are thoſe medicines that are ſuppoſed to make a change in the blood for the better, without any manifeſt operation or evacuation. Whatever other general operations may be proper to any medicines, all of them may be uſed as *alteratives*, and the moſt powerful *alteratives* are evacuants, given in diminiſhed doſes, if repeated at proper intervals; by giving them thus, or mixed with ſuch other *alteratives* as the caſe may indicate, though the diſcharge they promote, when given in full doſes, is not increaſed, they paſs into the blood, and the ſecre-

fecretions are promoted, whereby the faulty natural excretions are regulated.

Purging, vomiting, diuretic, and other evacuants, are here uſeful, as aloes, antimony, nitre, quickſilver, &c.

ALTERCANGENON, or Altercum, i. e. Hyoſcianius.

ALTEY PLUMBI, or Alky Plumbi. Moſt probably the ſacc. ſaturni.

ALTHÆA, from ἀλθος, *a remedy*; called alſo biſmalva, hibiſcus, ebiſcus, malvaviſcus, ibiſcus, in Engliſh marſhmallow. It is the *althæa* officinalis foliis ſimplicibus tomentoſis, Linn.

It is a ſoft hoary plant, with oblong undivided leaves, and pale fleſh-coloured monopetalous flowers cut deeply in five ſections, ſet in a double cup, the outermoſt of which is divided into nine parts, the inner into five; the fruit conſiſts of a number of capſules ſet in form of a flat diſk, containing each a ſingle ſeed; the roots are long and ſlender, with ſeveral fibres, of a pale yellowiſh colour on the outſide, and white within. It grows wild in marſhes and other moiſt places in England, though it is frequently cultivated in gardens. It is perennial, and flowers from June to near the end of ſummer.

All the parts of this plant abound with a mucilaginous matter almoſt both inodorous and inſipid. The dry roots, if boiled in water, give out near half their weight of gummy matter, the leaves afford nearly one-fourth of their weight, the flowers and ſeeds ſtill leſs.

All its virtues depend on its ſoft mucilage, which obtunds and incraſſates acrid fluids, moderates tickling coughs which proceed from defluxions on the fauces and lungs, gives relief in hoarſeneſſes, eroſions of the ſtomach and inteſtines, dyſentery, difficulty and heat of urine, and relaxes the paſſages in nephritic complaints, in which laſt caſe the decoction, which is the beſt preparation, ſhould not be ſlimy; two or three ounces of the freſh roots may be boiled in a ſufficient quantity of water to a quart, to which one ounce of gum arabic may be added and two drams of nitre.

A decoction is the beſt preparation and moſt agreeable to be taken, but requires that large quantities be uſed. An ounce of the dried root may be boiled in water enough to leave two or three pints to be poured off for uſe: if more of the root is added the liquor will be diſagreeably ſlimy; if it is ſweetened by adding a little of the root of liquorice it will be very palatable. Some prefer the infuſion, as long boiling deſtroys part of the viſcidity of this plant.

The London college gives the following form for a ſyrup.

Syr. althææ.

℞ Rad. *alth.* ſic. ℔ i coq. in aq. font. ℔ viij. ad ℔ iv. colaturæ adde ſacc. alb. ℔ iv. f. ſyr.

The form for this ſyrup is from Riverius, but the firſt preſcription was from Fernelius. More water ſhould be added to give this ſyrup its greateſt perfection, but at the beſt it is hardly worth keeping.

The London college alſo orders the following ointment, in which the root of this plant is a part of the compoſiton.

Unguentum ex althæa. *Ointment of marſhmallows.*

℞ Ol. e mucilaginibus ℔ iij. ceræ flav. ℔ i. reſ. flav. ℔ ſs. tereb. com. ℥ ij. m. & liquieſc. ſuper igne lente.

This ointment receives nothing from the marſhmallows, ſo might as well be excluded from the ſhops. It is in the ol. e mucilag. that the roots of marſhmallows are boiled; but mucilages do not communicate any virtue, as mucilages or as emollients either to oily or to unctuous ſubſtances: hence as an emollient, which is the deſign of this ointment, there is no juſt pretenſion to it.

The cuſtom of throwing marſhmallow leaves into hot water when uſed to ſet over for curing the piles, is no leſs uſeleſs, for nothing of the mucilage ariſes therefrom with the watery vapours.

There are many ſpecies of the *althæa*, but this alone is in uſe.

The great comfrey root is preferable in all the caſes wherein the *althæa* is uſed.

ALTH. THEOPHRASTI FLORE LUTEO, called alſo *alth.* Indica, ibiſcus Theophraſti, abutilon, and in Engliſh the yellow marſhmallow.

It is cultivated in gardens, and flowers in July. Its appearance (except for the colour of the flowers) and its medical virtues are ſimilar to the above ſpecies.

Miller enumerates ſixteen ſpecies of this yellow flowered kind.

ALTHÆA ARBOREA MARITIMA GALLICA. Sea mallow tree.

ALTHÆÆ FOLIIS CANNAB. i. e. Bangue.

ALTHANACA, or Althanacha. Orpiment.

ALTHEBEGIUM. An Arabian name for a ſort of ſwelling, ſuch as is obſerved in cachectic and leucophlegmatic habits, and ſuch as is ſeen under the eye-lids of thoſe who ſleep too much.

ALTHEXIS, from ἀλθεῖν, *to cure* or *heal*. It ſignifies the cure of a diſtemper.

ALTIHT. The laſerpitium of the ancients.

ALTIMAR. Burnt copper.

ALTIMIO. The ſcoria of lead.

ALTINCAR. A ſort of factitious ſalt uſed in the purgation and ſeparation of metals.

ALTINGAT. Ruſt of copper, or flowers of copper.

ALTINURAUM. Vitriol.

ALITH, i. e. Aſſa Fœtida.

ALTOLIZOL. An unintelligible word of Helmont.

ALTUS. When this word is joined to *ſoper* it means found ſleep, as in a lethargy, &c.

ALU. See ARE-ALU.

ALUACH. Pure or refined tin.

ALUCO. A ſpecies of owl.

AL-UD. An Arabic name of agallochum.

ALUDEL. A chemical ſubliming veſſel. Many are to be employed at once; the matter to be ſublimed is put into a body or pot, the upper part is fitted into the *aludel*, and this *aludel* into another, &c. to the top *aludel* a head or alembic is fixed to receive the ſublimed matter.

ALUDIT. Mercury.

ALUECH, i. e. Aluach.

ALUFIR. Redneſs.

ALUM. The herb comfrey.

ALUMBAIR. Butter.

ALUMBOTI. Calcined lead.

ALUMEN. Alum. It is a ſalt. The Greeks called it στυπτηρία. In natural hiſtory, it is a genus of ſalt, in the order of earthy neutral ones. Its generic character; it conſiſts of the vitriolic acid and a clayey earth, and changes the purple juices of vegetables into a red colour. Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

The preſent practice employs only the two laſt of the following ſpecies, but as all the four have been in uſe they all demand a ſhare of our attention.

1. *Alumen* plumoſum officinarum, alſo called amianthus, aſbeſtus, &c. Earth flax.

It is entirely rejected from medicinal uſes, being more dangerous than uſeful; it is a ſpecies of amianthus (which ſee), which from its plumated appearance obtained the name of *alumen* plumoſum; and thence too it is probable its admiſſion into the number of medical articles.

2. *Alumen* plumoſum verum, alſo called *alumen* ſciſſile, *alumen* jamenum, *alumen* plumeum, *alumen* trichites. The plumoſe, feathered, or hairy *alum*.

It ſometimes ſhoots upon the ſurface of thoſe minerals that afford the factitious *alum*, and is alſo found on other bodies in the form of fibrous efflorescences, and from this form hath obtained the names of *alumen* plum. &c. It ſeems to be the native *alum* of the ancients; and is formed by a natural evaporation of water that hath paſſed over beds of *alum* ſtone.

3. *Alumen* com. Common alum, alſo called *alumen* cryſtallinum, *alumen* rupeum, *alumen* factit. Factitious or rock *alum*; alſo Engliſh *alum*.

4. *Alumen* Romanum. Roman *alum*; alſo called *alumen* rubrum, *alumen* rutilum, *alumen* rochi Gallis. Rock, roch, red, or Roman *alum*.

Theſe two latter agree in their general qualities. The greateſt quantity of them are artificially produced from different minerals, ſuch as a blue ſlate, which is found about Scarborough in Yorkſhire, Preſton in Lancaſhire, a whitiſh ſtone at Tolfa near Rome: theſe ſtones by calcination become richly aluminous, they are then ſteeped in water, freſh ſtones being put to the ſame water ſeveral

times; to this water (after having obtained what it can from calcined ſtones) is added a ley made with pot-aſh, and after this a quantity of urine; this laſt is to caſt off ſome improper parts, and to prevent the alum from being too hard; the alcaline lixivium is neceſſary for bringing the alum into a ſolid form; it is by evaporation that the cryſtals are obtained.

A bituminous earth is met with near Hall, in Saxony, which by expoſure to the air grows hot, and at length burſts into a flame. In Sweden are ferrugineous pyritæ, from which both *alum* and vitriol are obtained.

The Engliſh, or common *alum*, is colourleſs, and commonly in large maſſes, into which it is caſt by melting the cryſtals after the *alum* is perfectly made, and then pouring the fuſed matter into veſſels whoſe cavities give the forms it appears in. The Roman *alum* is of a reddiſh colour, and in ſmall cryſtalized maſſes; but its chief difference from the Engliſh, is in its being leſs ſtyptic, and leſs nauſeous. The name of roch, or rock *alum*, is applied to the Engliſh by us, on account of the hardneſs and ſize of the maſſes; but foreigners apply it to the Roman, on account of the hard ſtone, or rock, from which it is extracted.

Alum hath a peculiarly ſharp, rough, aſtringent taſte; it melts over a gentle fire, ſending up in a vapour a ſixth part, or more of its weight, and becomes a light, white, ſpongy ſubſtance, called burnt *alum*; it is the only ſalt, that with other animal ingredients, or vegetable matters, will make the black phoſphorus; it diſſolves in about twelve times its weight of water; ſolutions of it change the blue colours of vegetables into a purple or red, and an infuſion of galls, turbid and whitiſh. Upon adding a fixed alkaline ſalt to a diſſolution of *alum*, its earth is precipitated, and its acid uniting with the alkali, forms a tart. vitriolat.

It is uſed by dyers to ſtrike, fix, clear, and brighten their colours; by dipping paper in it, ink is prevented from ſpreading on it; vintners fine their liquors with it; fiſhers uſe it to dry codfiſh with; and bakers mix it with flour to make their bread white: againſt this laſt uſe of *alum* great objections have been made, but without any juſt pretence, for it is entirely innocent. Thoſe who repreſent it as very injurious, ſhould conſider that in every pint of pump-water that is generally drank in London (where this practice moſt prevails) as much *alum* is taken, or as much of a mixture of the vitriolic acid and limeſtone, or other matters, any of which are far more exceptionable than *alum*.

Medicinally it is uſed as a powerful aſtringent; as ſuch it is preſcribed to preſerve the gums, alſo to reſtrain uterine hæmorrhages, and check the fluor albus; but though in theſe ſort of fluxes it is highly commended, it is rarely and with great caution to be admitted in diarrhœas and dyſenteries, See STYP. HELV. (Pulvis). Though celebrated as an aſtringent in ſome caſes, it is no leſs extolled in the colic and other painful diſorders of the bowels, attended with obſtinate conſtipation. See Percival's Eſſays Med. and Exp. vol. ii. The doſes in theſe caſes are from ten to twenty grains, and may be repeated every four, eight, or twelve hours; and when duly perſiſted in, proves gently laxative, mitigates the pain, abates flatulence, mends the appetite, and ſtrengthens the organs of digeſtion. *Alum* is powerfully tonic, and it is reaſonably ſuppoſed to contribute to the relief of pain in the inteſtines, by blunting the morbid ſenſibility of their nerves. As the mineral acids do, it coagulates the blood and juices. In robuſt habits, after due bleeding and purging, it cures agues: either of the following uſual forms may be given in a morning faſting, until the deſired relief is obtained.

℞ N. m. major. & pondus ejus *alum*. rup. ſ. pulv. in tres partes divid. cujus cap. i. omn. mane jejuno.

Vel,

℞ Cort. Peruv. ſubtil. pulv. ʒ i. ſerum *alum*. ℥ vi. m. f. hauſt. mane jejun. ſummend.

The Roman *alum* is counterfeited with common *alum* coloured; but break it, and the counterfeit will be found pale within, while the true is of a deeper red.

Alum conſiſts of the vitriolic acid, a metallic earth, and water; of which laſt its contents are nearly one half of the weight of the whole. Expoſed to a moderate heat, great part of the water flies off in vapour: urged by a ſtronger heat, the acid ſpirit ariſes, leaving the earth behind. The earth may be ſeparated by diſſolving *alum* in water, then adding a ſolution of alkaline ſalt to it until a milkineſs appears, when on ſtanding a little, the earth is precipitated; and by a few ablutions, in boiling water, is totally freed from all its alkaline parts. From this earth *alum* may be regenerated by the addition of the oil of vitriol.

There are many preparations of this drug in uſe, the chief of which are as follow:

Alumen *Febrifugum*, *Febrifuge* Alum.

℞ *Alum*. ℥ iij. in aq. card. ℔ i. ſs. ſolut. cui adde paucul. ſang. drac. colatur. evapor. ad ſicc.

Doſ. ℈ i. ante paroxyſma.

It is alſo called ſaccharum *aluminis*, or ſugar of *alum*.

Aq. Aluminoſa.

℞ *Alum*. rup. ʒ i. aq. font. ℥ vi. m. This is of excellent uſe if ſpungy ulcers are waſhed with it.

Aq. Aluminoſ. Bateana, *Bate's* Alum-*water*.

℞ *Alum*. rup. & vitr. alb. ää ℥ ſs. ad pulv. ſubtil. redact. & adde aq. font. bullient ℔ ij. & filtret. pro uſu.

In ſome of our public hoſpitals, two ounces of each of the ingredients are added to a quart of water.

Alum. *Uſtum*, *Burnt* Alum.

It is only *alum* dried in an iron ladle or an earthen veſſel over a gentle fire, by which it becomes white, light, and ſpungy. It is uſed as an eſcharotic when fungous fleſh riſes in ulcers; but it makes the edges of the part to which it is applied callous. Mixed with the ſugar which is uſed to ſweeten cordial waters, it precipitates the milkineſs that appears when newly diſtilled, and which ſometimes continues if not prevented.

Coagulum Aluminoſum, Alum *Curd*.

℞ Albuminis ovi q. v. & cum paucul. *alum*. conquaſſat. donec coagulum. form.

Riverius firſt gave this preſcription; it is a uſeful application to inflamed eyes; if applied over the eye-lids at bed-time every night, it prevents defluxions: bleeding and purging ſhould precede its uſe, and bliſters ſhould accompany.

Serum Aluminoſum, Alum *Whey*.

℞ Lact. vac. ℔ i. coq. cum *alum*. pulv. ʒ i. donec coagulum apparet & cola.

Its elegance is much improved by adding a few red roſe leaves to the whey whilſt hot, and then ſweetening it with ſugar.

A quarter of a pint is given three or four times a day againſt immoderate uterine fluxes, on the diabetes, and before the return of intermitting fevers. If it cauſes the heart-burn, give ſome abſorbent medicine with it.

ALUMEN CATENUM, or Catinum. A name of the pot aſh.

ALUMEN GLACIALE. So *alum* that appears like ice was called by the ancients.

ALUMINOSA (AQ.) See ALUMEN. The purging mineral waters are alſo called *aluminoſæ*.

ALUMINATIO. To nouriſh or feed.

ALUNSEL. A drop.

ALUS. Comfrey.

ALUS GALLICA. Comfrey.

ALUSAR. Manna.

ALUTA. Leather, ſuch as plaſters are ſpread on.

ALUTA ÆGYPTIA. The ſame as aluta.

ALVEARIUM, from *alveare*, *a bee-hive*. The bottom of the concha or hollow of the external ear; it terminates in the meatus auditorius. It is in this cavity where the ear-wax is principally lodged.

ALVEOLARIA PROCESSUS. See MAXILLA SUPERIOR OSSA.

ALVEOLI. The ſockets in the jaws in which the teeth are ſet; they are lined with a very ſenſible membrane, which is alſo wrapped about the roots of the teeth. There are uſually ſixteen of theſe *alveoli* or ſockets in each jaw.

ALVEOLUS. A little ſocket or trough.

ALVEUS. Medicinally it is applied to many tubes or canals, through which ſome fluid flows, particularly to ducts which convey the chyle from the receptacle thereof to the ſubclavian vein.

ALVIDUCA. Applied to medicines, it means thoſe which purge.

ALVI FLUXIS. i. e. Diarrhœa.

ALVUS. The belly. Celſus uſes this word for the belly, relative to the inteſtinal diſcharge, as Hippocrates and others uſe the words κοιλία, or κοιλίη.

ALYCE, from ἀλύω, *to be anxious*, i. e. that anxiety which is attendant on fevers, it is the ſame as ALYSMOS, which ſee.

ALYPIA. } i. e. Alypum.
ALYPIAS, }

ALYPUM, from α, neg. and λύπη, *pain*. The herb terrible. It is alſo called white turbith. Frutex terribilis, empetrum, thymelæa, & globularia fruticoſa.

It is of no account in medicine; it is a ſpriggy plant, reddiſh, with ſlender ſprays, fine leaves, and thin ſoft flowers; the root, like that of beet, ſlender and full of an acrid juice, the ſeeds have a purgative quality; it is found in maritime places.

ALYPUM. A ſpecies of ſpurge.

ALYSMOS, from ἀλύω, *to be uneaſy* or *anxious*. Hippocrates uſes it to expreſs that uneaſineſs that is attendant on acute diſeaſes, which makes the patients toſs about, and that they cannot reſt long in the ſame poſture. Duretus diſtinguiſhes between the ἄλυσμὸς ἀνίμετος and the ἄλυσμος ναυτιδης. The firſt is cauſed by an oppreſſion of the vital powers, the latter by ſickneſs in the ſtomach; but of this *alyſmos* (i. e. anxiety) there are reckoned four ſorts, two of which are attended with fever, and two without.

1. Without fever.

Cauſed by ſomething uneaſy in the ſtomach, hence an irregular contraction of the heart, a difficult paſſage of the blood through the lungs, and conſequently this anxiety. Uneaſineſs of the ſtomach by ſympathy, as from a ſtone in the kidneys, &c. produces this diſorder.

2. Without fever.

Cauſed by vapours or ſpaſms in the ſtomach, or other viſcera of the belly, as in the cholera morbus, hyſterics, &c.

3. With fever.

From a difficulty in the paſſage of the blood through the lungs, which may be from a ſpaſmodic ſtricture in the ſmaller veſſels, in which caſe the blood is thrown by gluts into the larger. In inflammatory fevers, this ſymptom is attended with a low pulſe, oppreſſion in the breaſt, and difficult breathing.

4. With fever.

It happens when a ſtricture of the vena porta prevents a free circulation of the blood in the lower belly, in this caſe there is great weight and oppreſſion of the hypochondria. This often ends in a polypus, and ſo by conſequence death, or a gangrene in the liver, whence a fatal putrid diarrhœa.

ALLYSSOIDES, from εἶδος, *form*, and *alyſſum*, as being formed like alyſſum.

Miller mentions four ſpecies.

The flower is in the form of a croſs, conſiſting of four leaves; out of the flower-cup the pointal ariſes, which afterwards is an elliptical thick fruit, with two cells filled with round and flat ſeeds, with borders round them.

Of no remarkable medical efficacy.

ALYSSON, a name of ſome ſpecies of veronica.

ALYSSON SILIQUA LATA ASPERA. A ſpecies of lunaria.

ALYSSUM. Madwort, from α, neg. and λύσσα, that madneſs which the mad dog occaſions by his bite.

The flowers conſiſt of four leaves expanded in the form of a croſs, the fruit is ſhort and ſmooth, containing many round ſeeds.

Boerhaave takes notice of twenty ſpecies, all which are eſteemed diaphoretic.

The *alyſſum* of Galen is thought to be a ſpecies of marrubium.

The *alyſſum* of Pliny is ſuppoſed to be the mollugo.

ALZEMAFOR. Cinnabar.

ALZILAT. The name of a weight of three grs.

ALZOFAR. Burnt copper.

AMA, AME, or AMES. A ſort of ſmall cake. Aretæus uſes this word to compare the quantity of hellebore for a doſe.

AMALGAMA. In chemiſtry it is a ſubſtance produced by mixing mercury with a metal.

All metals may be amalgated with mercury, except iron; but gold amalgamates the moſt readily of any of them, ſilver next, lead and tin next, copper with difficulty, and iron ſcarce at all.

To amalgamate gold is to reduce it to a paſte by uniting it with with mercury; with this paſte ſilver and other metals are gilt.

Amalgama *of gold.*

Diſſolve pure gold in aqua fortis until the liquor is ſaturated, dilute the ſolution with twelve times its quantity of pure water, put into it ſome poliſhed plates of copper, and the powder of gold will fall upon them; let it ſtand in a due degree of heat until the liquid is no longer turbid by adding copper; ſhake the plates, that all the gold may fall to the bottom, pour off the liquor, waſh the precipitated powder with water, dry it, and in a glaſs mortar reduce it to an *amalgama* with mercury. After the *amalgama* is once formed, this, and all the reſt, will receive more and more mercury, at the pleaſure of the operator.

By amalgamation we ſee that mercury is the true ſolvent fluid of metals. All the metals may be mixed together by being firſt made into an *amalgama*.

There are various methods of making *amalgamas*, which may be ſeen in any of the ſyſtematical chemical writings.

All *amalgamas* are white, from whatever metal prepared.

The chemical character of *amalgama* is A. A. A.

Amalgama *of ſilver.*

Precipitate pure ſilver from aqua fortis, and proceed as with copper.

Amalgama *of lead.*

Melt pure lead in an iron ladle, then put to it an equal quantity of pure mercury made hot, ſtir them with an iron rod, to mix them, let them cool, and then you take out a ſilver-coloured maſs which is hard, but by rubbing becomes ſofter; put this maſs into a glaſs mortar, and rub it, and add what quantity of mercury you pleaſe, and it will be united to it moſt intimately.

Amalgama *of tin.*

Proceed as with lead.

Amalgama *of copper.*

Saturate the beſt aqua fortis with pure copper, then dilute the ſolution with twelve times its quantity of pure water; into the liquor, when it is hot, put plates of poliſhed iron, and the copper will precipitate as the iron diſſolves; proceed till no more copper falls, pour off the liquor, and waſh the precipitated powder with hot water until it is inſipid, dry the powder perfectly, put it in a glaſs mortar, and by rubbing, incorporate an equal quantity of hot mercury.

AMALGAMATIO, Amalgamation, or to amalgamate. Rulandus defines it, a calcination of metals by mercury.

AMALT. The abbreviation for amalthæum.

AMAMELIS. The *amamelis* of Hippocrates is generally allowed to be the ſame with the epimalis of Dioſcorides, which is the ſmall baſtard medlar.

There is another medlar in Italy, called the epimelis, alſo ſetanium.

AMANDINUS (Lapis.) A gem of various colours; ſome medical virtues are fabulouſly attributed to it.

AMANITA (Fungi et Tubera.) The fungus productions called muſhrooms, truffles, &c.

Among the ancients theſe are not taken any notice of, except by Oribaſius, Paulus Æigneta, and N. Myrepſus.

Tournefort enumerates eighty-three ſpecies.

Nero called muſhrooms βρῶμα θεῶν, *the victuals of the gods*, becauſe the emperor Claudius died by eating them, and was afterwards deified.

The different ſpecies are alſo called boletus cervi, tuberca cervina; champignons by the French, morille, muſhroom, &c.

Amanitæ now are underſtood of the fungus terræ, the only ſorts of which in uſe, are the muſhroom and the morille.

The true muſhroom, called by the French, champignon, is known by its external whiteneſs, and by being of a pale red within when young, and of a deeper red when older; it is, at its firſt appearance, of a round figure, and not much larger than a ſmall nut; after they have a little unfolded

unfolded their membranes, they appear red, full, and close; on the top is a disagreeable softness, equal and white, the matter within is very white, with short and thick stalks. They grow in meadows and commons that have a good soil: they should be gathered for eating as soon after springing up as possible, for they contain an oily and a saline part, and if they stay long before they are gathered, their salts become more active and hurtful; hence those which grow on hot beds, having more oil, are the best.

To various causes are attributed the disagreeable effects, which some persons experience after eating them, among which the following is noted by many as probable: in the stalks, the globular parts, and between the little membranes, may be observed, with a good glass, many small worms shaped like adders, and with scarlet heads, some mushrooms contain more, others fewer of these animalculæ, to avoid which, examine the mushrooms well, and wash those that are to be eaten in salt and water, throwing away those that have many of these worms. See Mytilus.

When offended by eating them, some of the following symptoms are produced; a qualmness first affects the patient, which increases to a considerable degree of sickness, swelling of the stomach or of the belly, restlessness, giddiness, a palpitation of the heart, heartburn, colic, hiccough, diarrhœa, accompanied with a tenesmus, flushing heat in the skin, with more or less of redness there, and swelling in the face, and sometimes a sensation all over the body, which resembles what is felt from a general swelling; the patient stares in an unusual manner, all objects appear different from what they did before; a difficulty of breathing comes on, and the mind is strangely confused: delirium, trembling, watching, fainting, cold-sweats, apoplexies, and convulsions have been consequences following the use of this sort of fungus.

For the relief of persons under these circumstances, as speedily as possible give from gr. x. to ℈i. of white vitriol, dissolved in a draught of warm water; and if the sickness is still urgent, repeat the same quantity two or three times, that the stomach may be well emptied; after which give a draught now and then, made of sharp vinegar, a large spoonful in a glass of water, which sweeten to the palate. The poison is not of the acrid kind, so fat broths and oily medicines are useless. After evacuations upwards, procure a passage downwards; if the patient cannot swallow purgatives, let cathartic glysters be given. After due evacuations upward and downward, besides the vinegar as above, cyder, and perry, that is brisk and sparkling, may be now and then given. Dr. Mead extols the saline mixture. If any paralytic symptoms appear, apply sinapisms or blisters. Perhaps electricity may be happily used in such like instances.

The morille is a kind of spring mushroom, as large as a nut, oblong, shrivelled, tender, porous, and cavernous, like the honey-comb, of a yellowish white colour, or inclining to red, and sometimes blackish; they are not so frequently hurtful as the common mushrooms. They are met with on moist grassy soils, in woods, and on the roots of trees.

AMARA. Bitters.

Bitterness is occasioned by an acid, joined with an earthy alkaline, and sulphureous substance.

Bitters lose their bitterness by the addition of alkaline salts.

Bitters yield their virtues both to watery and spirituous menstrua; they yield very little of their taste by distillation, either to water or to spirit, nay, the bitterness is so tenaciously detained as to be improved in many extracts.

They participate of the virtues of astringents and aromatics. Their general effects are, to constringe the fibres of the stomach and intestines, to warm the habit, and to promote the natural evacuations, particularly of sweat and urine. In weakness of the stomach, loss of appetite, indigestion, and the like disorders, proceeding from the laxity of the fibres, or a coldness of the habit, medicines of this tribe do singular service. On the contrary, when the fibres are too tense, or when the heat of the constitution exceeds what health requires, bitters very sensibly increase these disorders, and if their use is persisted in, the consequences may be fatal

Strong *bitters* are the most diaphoretic, and agreeable ones the most stomachic; as stomachics, *bitter* infusions should not be strong, but light and agreeable.

Bitters are supposed to be powerful anthelmintics, but worms live longer in an infusion of aloes, than in rose water; hence they do not seem likely to destroy them in our bodies.

As *bitters* neutralize acids (see Percival's Essays, Med. and Exp.) their use, when acidities prevail in the stomach, is obvious. In such cases they may be considered as indicated on a double account, viz. to correct the disease when present, and by their bracing and corroborating effects, to remove the cause of it. When given with such intentions, they should be infused in brandy, or in some of the strongest wines.

It is generally said, that *bitters* are administered as a substitute to the bile, but though with this direct view they are improperly employed, as being antiseptic, retarders, and moderators of fermentation, and consequently opposite in their effects to the bile; yet in disorders where the bile is defective, they are administered with considerable advantage, as they check the general tendency to sourness in the first passages, which is so constantly an attendant on a defective bile, and also to allay the troublesome ferment there, which is so injurious by producing flatulencies.

AMARA DULCIS, i. e. Woody night-shade. See Solanum Lignosum.

AMARA, (Tinct.) The bitter tincture.

℞ Rad. gentiana ℥ij. cort. aurant. sic. ℥i. sem. card. min. excor. ℥ ß. sp. vin. ten. ℔ ij. m.

This is the *bitter* tincture of the London college. It is elegant and well calculated for keeping.

AMARACUS, see Majorana.

AMARUM SIMPLEX, (Infus.) The simple bitter infusion.

℞ Rad. gent. incis. cort. flav. limon. rec. āā ℥ ß. cort. flav. aurant. sicc. ℥ ß. aq. font. bullient ℥ xij. m.

Let them stand until the liquor is cold, then pour it off for use.

This is given by the London college. The peels communicate a fine flavour, which is all the addition that can be made to gentian. As this is not designed for keeping, the perishableness of the lemon-peel is no objection to its use, as it is so great an improver of the taste of all *bitters*. The cardamoms, so advantageously used in the tincture, is omitted here, because their mucilage renders watery infusions cloudy.

AMARUM PURGANS, (Infus.)

℞ Fol. sen. cort. flav. limon. rec. ā ʒ iij. rad. gentian. cort. flav. aurant. sicc. & sem. cardam. min. decort. āā ʒ ß. aq. bullient. ℥ v. infund. & cola.

This is also from the Pharmacopeia of the London college, and is for one dose.

AMARANTHUS, also called flos amoris, amaranthus maximus, blitum maxim. flower gentle, and floramour.

It runs up to three or four feet in height, with channelled stalks, which send out several branches, bearing large broad leaves, ending in a long point, of a light green, and often a little reddish. On the tops of the stalks grow long spikes of deep red staminous flowers, hanging downwards, which if gathered in time keep their colour very well. The seeds are small and flattish, of a reddish white colour, and shining. This plant is of very little use in medicine, but in the garden it deserves some notice. It flowers in July and August; in winter the stalks rot away to the ground.

AMARANTHUS LUTÆUS. A name of some species of goldilocks.

AMARANTHUS LUTÆUS LATIFOLIUS. German goldilocks.

AMARANTOIDES, from ἀμαράνθη, *amaranthus*, and εἶδος, *form*. Globe amaranthus, or everlasting flower.

There are four or five different species, but of no use in medicine. Miller's Dict.

AMARELLA, so Gesner names the polygala.

AMATORIA FEBRIS, i. e. Chlorosis. In Vogel's Nosology, *amatoria* is defined to be a fever of a few hours continuance, beginning with a great degree of coldness, and arising from expectation of marriage.

AMATORIA VENIFICIA, i. e. Philtra.

AMATORIUS. Thus the muſculus obliquus ſuperior, or trochlearis, and the obliquus inferior, are named by ſome. From *amo, love:* ogling is performed by this muſcle.

AMATZQUITL, vel unedo papyracea Nieremberg. The wood is of a light texture, the leaves reſemble thoſe of the lemon-tree, but are hairy, and more pointed; the fruit are large as Pontic nuts, divided into white grains of the ſame ſhape and nature with thoſe of a fig. It is met with in warm countries only. A decoction of the bark of its root is commended in fevers.

AMAUORISIS, from ἀμαυρόω, *obſcure.* It is a decay or loſs of ſight, when no fault is obſerved in the eye, except that the pupil is ſomewhat enlarged and motionleſs. The Latins call this diſorder a gutta ſerena.

Mr. de St. Yves diſtinguiſhes this diſeaſe into the perfect and imperfect kinds. The perfect is when there is a total blindneſs; the imperfect is when there is at leaſt a power of diſtinguiſhing light from darkneſs. There is a periodical ſort, which comes on inſtantaneouſly, continues for ſome hours, and ſometimes days, and then diſappears; but it often returns, as in hyſterical and hypochondriacal people, &c. In another ſpecies, the pupil is always contracted, whether the unaffected eye is open or ſhut. In infants attended with this complaint, the pupil is oft of its natural ſize, but no movement is obſerved there, however expoſed to the light. The nyctalops is ſuppoſed by ſome to be a ſpecies of this complaint.

The different cauſes are a palſy in the optic nerve, or the retina, proceeding from a ſlight apoplexy, &c. a tumor, or a plethora in the adjacent parts; a tranſlation of morbid matter from ſome other part of the optic nerve, or to the retina, a venereal, or a rheumatic humour, may, by falling on the eye, be the cauſe. Suppreſſed periodical evacuations, vapours, hyſteric, and other nervous ſymptoms, external injuries, a preternatural contraction, as well as too great a dilatation of the iris, or whatever intercepts the nervous influence in the eye, may produce this diſeaſe. In the middle of the optic nerve runs that branch of the carotid artery which enters into the eye; this artery being diſtended may preſs the nerve, and render it paralytic; this ſeems to be the cauſe of the periodical ſpecies. Depletion enters too into the liſt of cauſes, whether it is natural or artificial; but of all the kinds, that from the genitals knits the eyes the moſt.

Dr. Cullen, in his Syn. Noſol. Method. ranks this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſæſtheſiæ: and enumerates the ſpecies from the following cauſes, viz. compreſſion, debility and its cauſes, ſpaſm, and the application, or the ſwallowing of poiſons.

On diſſection after the death of patients who had been afflicted with this kind of blindneſs, in ſome the optic nerve was found too much extenuated, flaccid, and by far too ſmall; in others it was compreſſed by extravaſated blood, or by a tumor, or by a turgeſcency of the artery which paſſes through it.

The phlegmatic, cachectic, aged, thoſe with weak nerves, or that have been ſubjected to ſeverities or exceſſes, and perſons labouring under irregular or ſuppreſſed periodical diſcharges, are the principal ſubjects of this diſorder.

The ſigns that indicate the preſence of this diſorder are generally the blackneſs of the pupil of the eye, its ſize being larger or leſs than uſual, and its not contracting nor dilating when expoſed to a great degree of light. Its approach is generally attended with pain in the head, and as the pain decreaſes this diſorder increaſes, though ſometimes an abſolute blindneſs comes on without any previous complaint. When it comes on without pain, and one eye only is affected, no defect is perceived until the ſound eye is cloſed, then the pupil of the diſeaſed eye dilates, though expoſed to a ſtrong light; and when the other eye is opened, it contracts to its natural ſize again. In infants, the pupil is ſometimes of a natural ſize, though it hath no movement, and thus they continue during many months, or perhaps a year or more, before they can ſee. When pregnancy, ſuppreſſed periodical diſcharges, nervous diſorders, or vapours are the cauſe, a head-ach, vertigo, drowſineſs, noiſe in the ears, &c. often uſher in this diſorder; but as in theſe caſes it is periodical, ſo it frequently returns, but ſoon ſpontaneouſly paſſes away.

The prognoſtics are generally unfavourable: if this blindneſs ſucceeds a fever, comes on in the aged or very infirm, a cure is not to be expected; if one eye fails, the other uſually ſoon follows; but if the caſe is ſlight, the habit of body robuſt, if it happens after the meaſles or the ſmall-pox, or in pubertine virgins, it is ſometimes cured.

Obſerve to diſtinguiſh this diſorder from the glaucoma or the cataract, and a vertigo.

In order to the cure, an attention to the cauſe will be the firſt ſtep to the direction of proper remedies.

According to the plethora attending, let the evacuations be directed; if it is ſanguine, make a free uſe of the lancet; if ſerous, purges, diuretics, and bliſters will be proper, and an emetic may be adminiſtered, if indicated by any diſorder in the ſtomach.

In phlegmatic habits, and when a rheumatiſm is the cauſe, alſo when a palſy in the retina is ſuſpected, valerian may be mixed with the bark, and taken in as large a doſe as will agree with the ſtomach, every night and morning, waſhing them down with a draught of the infuſion of ſage, roſemary, or other aromatic herbs, and forty drops of the tincture of ſoot mixed in it.

Be particularly careful to keep the bowels lax, and to this end ſmall doſes of calomel, mixed with aloetic purgatives, are to be preferred.

If bliſters are applied to the nape of the neck, place them high thereon; but if a palſy in the retina be the ſuſpected cauſe, the propereſt place for a bliſter will be over the ſupra orbital hole, through which the nerves paſs and ſpread on the forehead.

The forehead may be rubbed twice in the day with the volatile liniment of the London Diſpenſatory, and a flannel rag moiſtened in the ſame may remain there in the interval; but a bliſter is preferable.

Bliſters and iſſues ſhould be kept open as long as poſſible.

If periodical evacuations are ſuppreſſed, endeavour to promote their return; and, in caſe of failure, ſubſtitute ſome proper artificial diſcharge.

In caſe of any acrid humour being tranſlated from the ſurface of the body, endeavour to repel it by gentle aperitives, and proper ſudorifics.

Externally: let the ſteams of hot ſpirit of wine, or of coffee, be paſſed two or three times a day through a funnel to the eye; this, with a cooling light diet, and repeated purging, hath been followed by a complete cure.

Sternutatories are ſometimes of ſingular ſervice; two or three grains of the reſin of guaiacum ſnuffed up the noſe, diſcharges a large quantity of ſerum; and to the ſame purpoſe any of the volatile alcaline ſpirits may be uſed, being firſt diluted properly.

Heiſter aſſerts the ſucceſs of aromatics, carminatives, and attenuants, particularly of mercurials in ſmall doſes. Pitcairn declares the ſame. Coward ſays, that volatiles, chalybeats, mercurials, cephalics, and nervous medicines are the proper ones. Riverius informs us, that cupping, with ſcarification on the back part of the head, hath been ſpeedily followed with ſucceſs.

If all the above fail, a ſalivation has ſucceeded, and ſo may be tried; but ſmall doſes of calomel, or rather the following ſolution, may be given and continued two, three, or more months. It anſwers the ends of a ſalivation, and is both more agreeable and ſafe.

℞ Merc. corroſ. A. gr. viii. Sp. vini Gallic. ℔ i. m. cap. cochl. magn. mane nocteque in decoct. rad. ſarſaparil. ℔ ſ.

See Heiſter's Surgery, Hoffman's Med. Rat. Syſt. St. Yves on the diſeaſes of the eyes. Mead's Cautions and Precepts.

AMAUROSIS a Synchyſi, i. e. Caligo pupillæ.

AMAUROSIS a Myoſi, i. e. Caligo pupillæ.

AMAZONUM PASTILLUS. The Amazons troch. Theſe troches were formerly prepared of the ſeeds of ſmallage and aniſe, the tops of wormwood, of myrrh, pepper, &c.

AMBA, a name of the mango tree.

AMBAIBA. It is a tall tree growing in Braſil, with but few branches at the top, the trunk is hollow its whole length, except that its cavity is divided by a tranſverſe membrane at every two or three inches diſtance, in the

middle of which is a ſmall hole. The root is very hard, even ſo as by a gentle friction to afford fire enough to burn cotton, and ſuch like matter. The buds afford a juice that is cooling, if mixed with gruel. This the Indians call tipioca. See Raii Hiſt. Plant.

AMBAITINGA. It is a tree whoſe leaves are ſo rough, that they may be uſed to poliſhed hard wood. See Raii Hiſt. Plant.

AMBALAM, an Indian tree, alſo called manga. It ſo reſembles the cat-ambolam, that few care to deſcribe their difference. The root uſed as a peſſary promotes the menſes; the bark and the juices are effectual againſt dyſenteries; and a decoction of the wood is commended againſt a gonorrhœa. See Raii Hiſt. Plant.

AMBAPAIA, an Indian tree, which is alſo called mamoera.

AMBARE, the name of a large tree growing in the Indies. See Lemery de Drogues.

AMBARUM Ambergriſe.

AMBARVALIS, from the Latin word *ambire*. A name of the polygala, or milk-wort.

AMBE, ἄμβη, a lip, edge, or border.

An inſtrument uſed in diſlocations of the humerus. Hippocrates has taken notice of it in his treatiſe de Articul. ſect. vi. and it is called Hippocrates's *ambe*. Galen explains the word *ambe*, by ὀρθωδὴς ὑπεξάρσις, *an eminence like a border*; and ſays, that the whole machine takes that name, becauſe its extremity runs out with an edge like the lip or brim of a pot towards the interior cavity, which, as well as the edge or border of any thing on the top or extremity, are ſignified by the word *ambe*.

When the head of the humerus reſts in the axilla, this inſtrument is ſometimes uſeful, but in no other caſe; and even here it is rarely uſed, for when gentle methods fail, violence rarely ſucceeds.

Heiſter gives an account of the *ambe* in his Surgery; and ſo does Petit in his Diſorders of the Bones.

Ambe is alſo a name of the tree called manga.

AMBELA, a Turkiſh, Arabian, and Perſian name of a tree, called charamais; in Engliſh, purging cornered haſel nut. There are two ſpecies. See Parkinſon's Herbal.

AMBERBOI. The Turkiſh name for the cyanus orientalis odoratus, or ſweet ſultan.

Mr. Vaillant, in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences for 1718, enumerates eleven ſpecies. See James's Med. Dict. article AMBERBOI.

AMBI, i. e Ambe.

AMBIA MONARD. A yellow liquid bitumen, ſmelling like tacamahaca. It flows from a fountain near the Indian ſea; its medicinal properties are the ſame as thoſe of tacamahaca, or of caranna.

AMBIDEXTER. A being ready with either hand alike.

AMBLOSIS, from ἀμβλόω, *to cauſe abortion*, a miſcarriage. See ABORTUS.

AMBLOTICA. Medicines which occaſion abortion. Blancard.

AMBLYOGMOS, from ἀμβλὺς, *dull*. Dimneſs of ſight.

Hippocrates often uſes this word. He ſays this dimneſs of ſight, and corruſcations of light ſeeming to dart before the eyes, are among the ſymptoms of an approaching hæmorrhage in continual fevers and genuine tertians. Sometimes he uſes the word amblyoſmos to expreſs the ſame thing. Galen explains this word by abortus, but he miſtakes it.

AMBLYOPIA, from ἀμβλὺς, *dull*, and ὤψ *the eye*. It is an obſcurity of ſight, without apparent defect in the organ. See AMAUROSIS and DYSOPIA.

Hippocrates means by this word, in his Aph. xxxi. ſect. iii. the dimneſs of ſight to which old people are ſubject.

Paulus and Actuarius uſe it to expreſs a gutta ſerena.

Actuarius ſays, that there is a manifeſt, but not a viſible cauſe of this dullneſs of ſight, for neither the coats, nor the humours of the eye, are diſordered; and that a defect of the nervous influence is the probable cauſe. See his De Meth. Med. lib. ii. cap. vii.

The *amblyopia* is ſaid by ſome others to be four fold: ſee, 1ſt, MYOPIA, or *ſhort ſightedneſs*: 2dly, PRESBYTÆ, or *ſeeing only at a great diſtance*: 3dly, NYCTALOPIA, or *ſeeing only in the night*: 4thly, AMAUROSIS, *dulneſs of ſight*. Dr. Cullen places this word in his Noſology as ſynonymous with the word DYSOPIA, which ſee; which is his generic term for thoſe diſorders in and of the eye, called myopia, &c. The *amblyopia* of ſome writers, is the amauroſis of Dr. Cullen.

AMBLYOPIA DISSITORUM, i. e. Dyſopia Diſſitorum.

AMBLYOPIA HYDROPHTHALMICA, i. e. Caligo Humorum.

AMBLYOPIA LUSCORUM, i. e. Dyſopia Lateralis.

AMBLYOPIA CREPUSCULARIS, i. e. Dyſopia Tenebrarum.

AMBLYOPIA MERIDIANA, i. e. Dyſopia Luminis.

AMBLYOPIA PROXIMORUM, i. e. Dyſopia Proximorum.

AMBLYOSMOS, i. e. Amblyogmos

AMBO, i. e. Manga.

AMBON. The edge of the ſockets in which the heads of the large bones are lodged.

AMBRA. Amber. See SUCCINUM. *Amber* is the name which the Italians and French have given to *amber*; what the Arabians call *amber* is quite different from the ſuccinum, for they call *amber*, karabe, *an attracter of ſtraws*. The Greeks call *amber*, harpax, and the Syrians call it harpaga, *ſnatcher*, becauſe it ſnatches ſtraws, &c.

The Arabians ſay that the black poplar affords *amber*: they call the poplar haur, and the tear of the poplar haurus, which was changed to hambrus, to ſignify *amber*, or according to ſome into avrum and abrum, and thence into ambram, to ſignify the tear of the poplar; and probably from the likeneſs of the poplar gum and *amber* the ſame name obtained for both.

Leo Africanus ſays, that the whale is called hambara by the inhabitants of Fez and Morocco, which perhaps gave riſe to the notion that *amber* was the dung or the ſpawn of the whale.

By *ambra* the Arabians mean what we call ambragriſea; and by *amber* they mean what the Greeks call naphtha.

AMBRA CINERACEA, i. e. Ambra griſea.

AMBRA-GRISEA, alſo named ambra-cineracea, ſuccinum griſeum, ſuccinum-cinereum, and in Engliſh *ambergriſe*.

Much of it is met within the Indian ocean; pieces of a conſiderable weight have been found in the northern ſeas. Sometimes it is ſeen floating on the ſurface of the ſeas, at others adhering to rocks, and not unfrequently found in the ſtomachs of fiſhes, and now and then it is thrown on the ſhore; but it is found moſt plentifully about the iſland of Madagaſcar and the Molucca iſlands. According to an account in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, No. 385, and 387. this drug is only the produce of the male ſpermaceti whale; it is there ſaid to conſiſt of balls from three to twelve inches diameter, lying looſe in a large oval bag three or four feet deep or wide, nearly in the form of an ox's bladder, with a pipe running into and through the penis, and another at the other end coming from about the kidnies; this bag lies juſt over the teſticles, which are above one foot long; it is lengthways at the foot of the penis, four or five feet below the navel, and three or four feet above the anus. This bag is almoſt full of a deep orange coloured liquor, not quite ſo thick as oil, of the ſame ſcent as the *ambergriſe* which ſwims in it. Theſe balls of *ambergriſe* ſeem to be in lamina like onions, and in the fluid, pieces of laminæ are found. There are two, three or four balls in a bag. Where one whale hath theſe balls, three or four hath only the liquor in the bag. Some fiſhermen obſerve that theſe balls are only in the old and well-grown whales. The rarity of catching a female whale renders it difficult to ſay that they do not produce any *ambergriſe*. It may be obſerved that, as there is only one bag, it is probably the urinary bladder, and the balls, preternatural concretions formed there, as the bezoars are in their reſpective ſituations. Neumann thinks it is a bitumen, ſee his Chem. Works, and of the ſame opinion are many others; but a paper hath very lately been preſented to the Royal Society, by Dr. Swediar, which aſſerts its animal production, and declares it to be the indurated fæces

of the ſpermacæti whales. It is remarkable that Meſue ſaith, it is the ſpawn of the whale fiſh.

Pure *ambergriſe* is ſo light that it ſwims in rectified ſpirit of wine; it grows ſoft in a very gentle heat; it is opake, rugged, of a greyiſh aſh colour, mingled with yellow and blackiſh veins, and ſpeckled with greeniſh ſpots; it breaks like wax; it hath no particular taſte, though ſoftiſh, oily, and ſomewhat aromatic; it affords but little to the ſmell, except it is heated, and then it is very fragrant; ſet on fire, its odour is like that of burning amber: with a ſmall degree of heat it melts into an oil, and in a great heat it is volatile.

The genuine is ſpeckled with green; the more it is variegated the worſe; the beſt is of an aſh colour, the worſt ſorts approach to a deep black.

It is ſoluble in boiling ſpirit of wine; from which, if the ſaturated ſolution be ſet in a very cold place, a part of the *ambergriſe* concretes into a whitiſh unctuous ſubſtance. Diſtilled it yields an aqueous phlegm, a brown acidulous ſpirit, a deep coloured oil, a thicker balſam, and ſometimes a little concrete ſalt. The ſpirit, oil, balſam and ſalt, are ſimilar to thoſe obtained from amber, except that the oil is more agreeable to ſmell to.

Rectified ſpirit of wine takes up near $\frac{1}{15}$th of its weight of *ambergriſe*. According to Neumann, if the ſpirit is impregnated with a little eſſential oil, the *ambergriſe* will diſſolve more readily in it. A deeper coloured tincture is made with alchol, but not a ſtronger. Dulcified acids and alkaline ſpirits have no effect upon it; water and expreſſed oils have as little.

It is one of the moſt agreeable perfumes, it heightens the natural odour of other bodies; but the great ſecret to this end is, to add it ſo ſparingly, that while it improves the ſmell of that to which it is added, its own may not be diſcovered. From two grains to a ſcruple it is a high cordial and powerful antiſpaſmodic; though the common doſe is from two to four grains, which may be given in an egg lightly poached. Riverius ſays that *ambergriſe* is a ſpecific againſt the fames canina.

A counterfeit as well as adulterated ſort are too often to be met with; the firſt generally conſiſts of muſk, civet, ſtorax, labdanum, aloes wood mixed together; the latter of a large quantity of bullock's blood duly flavoured with muſk and civet.

Eſſent. vel Tinct. Ambragriſ.

℞ *Ambragriſea* opt. ℈ ij. ſpt. vini R. ʒ ij. m.

vel,

℞ *Ambragriſea* opt. ʒ ij. moſch. opt. gr. iij. ſpt. vin. R. ʒ xij. m.

Eſſent. vel Tinct. Ambragriſea *Comp. vel Regia.*

℞ *Ambragriſea* opt. ℈ ij. moſch. ℈ i. zibeth. gr. x. ol. cinnam. gut vi. ol. Rhodii gut. iv. ſpt. vin. R. (cum flor. roſar. & flor. aurant. impregn.) ʒ iv. ſs. m.

A few drops of any of theſe tinctures, ſtrongly flavours a large quantity of inodorous matter.

The beſt way to prepare theſe tinctures is to make the ſpirit ſimmer with the *ambergriſe* until it is duly diſſolved, after which the other ingredients may be added; the vapours exhaled during the ſimmering, poſſeſs hardly any of the flavour of the *ambergriſe*, though water is ſo ſtrongly ſcented with it by diſtillation.

The tincture is beſt for medicinal purpoſes when made with *ambergriſe* alone. Hoffman obſerves, that it then does not affect the patient with that vapouriſhneſs uſually complained of when muſk, &c. are in the compoſition. If the tincture is of a due ſtrength, and is dropped into a little water, a very milky appearance immediately follows. See Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

AMBRETTE. The French name of abelmoſch.

AMBROSIA. The name of a ſweet ſhrub, anciently made uſe of for making of garlands.

It is a name of the Botrys, which ſee; this is the modern *ambroſia*. The ancients ſeem to have given this name to various plants, as the lily, the greater houſe-leek, &c.

AMBROSIA CAMPESTRIS, called alſo coronopus Ruellii, naſturtium verrucoſum. Swine creſſes, and Ruellius's bucks-horn.

It is a trailing plant, with many weak ſtraggling branches ſet with ſmall cut leaves, among which the flowers grow in rough cluſters of a whitiſh colour; they are followed by little flat pouches containing the ſeed; the root is white, thready, and to the taſte is like the garden creſſes. Gerard.

AMBULATIO, walking. Celſus ſays, that *walking*, reading moderately loud, fencing, and playing with the ball, all ſtrengthen a weak ſtomach. *Walking*, he ſays, is beſt if it is up and down hill, except in caſes of great weakneſs: becauſe aſcending and deſcending exerciſes the whole body more than the plain does. If the viſcera are weak, riding is to be preferred to *walking*. *Walking* preſerves and riding recovers health the beſt.

AMBULATIVA. A ſpecies of herpes.

AMBULO. The name of a diſeaſe, called alſo flatulentus, and furioſus, and flatus furioſus. It is a diſtention or inflation attended with pain, and variouſly periodical. It is cauſed by vapours ſhooting through various parts of the body. See D. D. Joh. Michael. Prax. Clin. Special. Caſ. 19.

AMBULON. A tree which grows in the iſland of Aruchit; the bark ſends out a fruit like ſugar, of the bulk of coriander ſeed. Raii Hiſt. Plant.

AMBUSTA. Burns. Dr. Cullen places this caſe as a variety of the phlogoſis erythema.

Burns and ſcalds differ not as to any conſideration reſpecting the cure. A *burn* is from ſolid ſubſtances, but conſidered in the effect on the injured body: a ſcald is a *burn* from any hot fluid, or ſolid when in a fluid ſtate.

Their danger is according to the degree, the part injured, the peculiarity of the conſtitution and conſequent ſymptoms. And wounds from *burns* are more liable to form a cicatrix than when they are produced by other cauſes.

Burns may be ranked into four kinds.

1ſt. When a redneſs in the part is attended with heat and pain.

2dly. When after the *burn* there is an immediate eruption of puſtules or bliſters with pain.

3dly. When the ſkin and ſubjacent fat are *burnt* to a cruſt.

4thly. When the *burning* goes to the bone.

The two firſt reſemble an inflammation, and are to be conſidered as ſuch, from an external cauſe; the third a gangrene, and the fourth a ſphacelus.

In general *burns* and ſcalds require bleeding and repeated gentle purging, to prevent or to reduce inflammation. If lightning was the cauſe, the internal uſe of cordials are required. And, if the pain is great, though a fever attends, anodynes internally will be neceſſary.

In order to the Cure of the Firſt Kind,

Medicines that neither heat nor cool in a great degree are to be preferred. Cold water may be uſed in the ſlighter caſes by means of linen rags dipped into it, and the application repeated as often as they become either dry or warm. In the ſame manner brandy and rectified ſpirit of wine may be applied, repeating the dreſſings until the pain abates, and then, in their ſtead, the camphorated ſpirit of wine is to be preferred.

N. B. Vinous ſpirits, if applied before the bliſters ariſe, generally prevent them, and always moderate the inflammation; but, if the injury is on a membranous or tendenous part, it is beſt to mix oil with the ſpirit, otherwiſe it will too much criſp the part, and may occaſion a contraction there.

To the ſame purpoſe as the above, and in want of them, any of the following may be uſed:—The white of eggs beat thin; vinegar, in a quart of which one handful of common ſalt is diſſolved; the pickle from olives; the brine from cabbage; oil of turpentine; any cooling oil or liniment.

The Second Kind.

Emollients are here required to ſoften the corrugated ſkin and contracted veſſels, by which the circulation will be ſet free: if the *burn* is ſuperficial, only raiſing the cuticle in bliſters, the frequent uſe of olive oil or linſeed oil, applied with a feather twice a day, and then a plaſter of the white cerate, or the white camphorated ointment will ſuffice: if the bliſters are conſiderable, ſnip them immediately, to diſcharge the humour and prevent roſion; but do not ſeparate the cuticle, then dreſs with the cerat. alb. vel ung. alb. camph. the inflamed circumference may be rubbed with any cooling oil.

If an eſchar is threatened, or the ſore requires digeſting, dreſs with either of the following twice a day.

℞ Ung. baſilic. flav. & linim. alb. āā p. æq.

Or,

℞ Ung. baſilic. flav. & cerat. epulot. āā p. æq.

If this kind of *burn* or ſcald is extenſive, bleeding and purging will be required; if infants are the ſubjects, their bowels muſt be kept conſtantly lax; a cooling liquid diet, ſuch as is uſed in inflammations: if there is any tendency to fever, the following is preferred by many good practitioners to all other means.

℞ Spt. ſal. marin. cujus detur gt. x. vel xv. in hauſt. aq. font. 2da vel quarta quaq. hora.

The third Kind.

If a cruſt is formed, the cure is effected by emollients and ſuppurants, as in the caſe of gun-ſhot wounds, which ſee.

If the accident hath happened in the face, avoid whatever can tend to increaſe the cicatrix; emollients ſolded in linen cloths and applied thereon are the beſt applications; an emollient fomentation, in which is about two ounces of the camphorated ſpirit to a pint, may be uſed at the renewal of the other dreſſings, during the firſt three or four days, or until the cruſt is ſeparated; after which the procedure will be as in any common wound.

If the cruſt remains firm above three days, make inciſions through it, to diſcharge the matter underneath. And to prevent a cicatrix, as the ſkin forms, let it be often expoſed to the ſteam of hot water, and apply a cerate of wax and the oil of eggs.

The Fourth Kind.

Where all is deſtroyed, even to the bone, Heiſter ſays, that the only method is amputation; but the attentive ſurgeon will ſometimes conſider this is only a worſe degree of the third kind, and proceeding according thereto, the operation may often be avoided, and the limb reſtored.

A violent head-ach in one perſon, and pain in the limbs of another perſon, were removed by the parts affected being accidentally burnt, and that only in the firſt degree (as above) of *burns*. Homberg thinks that burning with moxa, with cauteries, &c. cure by quickening the motion of the humours and thinning them, and by deſtroying the ends of the veſſels by which the humours flow leſs that way. After all, *burns* can only be judiciouſly treated, by conſidering them as high inflammations, of the phlegmonoid or erythematous kind, (which of the two the general habit will determine), and the treatment muſt accord, by evacuants in the firſt, and by bark in the ſecond; attending in each to the material benefit ariſing from removing pain by proper opiates, without which but little advantage will be gained, whatever other means are uſed.

AMBUSTIO, Ambuſtion, from *amburo*, *burning* or *ſcalding*.

AMBUTUA, i. e. Pareira brava.

AMEDANUS, i. e. Alnus vulg.

AMELANCHIER. A ſort of bilberry, called by Parkinſon vitis idæa 3tia Cluſii. The French honey ſweetworts.

AMELLA, i. e. Acmella.

AMELLUS. An herb in France that takes its name from the river Mella in that country. Different botaniſts deſcribe it differently.

AMELPODI. The name of four different trees in India. The 1ſt. *Amelpodi*, H. M. or Arbor Indica.

2d. Belutta *Amelpodi*.

3d. Siouanna *Amelpodi*.

4th. Karetta *Amelpodi*.

See Raii Hiſt. Plant.

AMENE. Common ſalt.

AMENORRHOEA, from *α*, neg. *μηνιαῖος*, *monthly*, and *ῥέω*, *flux*. A defect or want of the menſes, or monthly flux.

Dr. Cullen ranks this genus of diſeaſes, in the claſs locales, and order epiſcheſes. His ſpecies are, 1. Emanſio menſium, when the menſes do not appear ſo early as is uſually expected. See Chlorosis and Menses Defective. 2. Suppreſſio menſium, when after the menſes appearing and continuing as uſual for ſome time, they ceaſe without pregnancy occurring. See Menses Defective. 3. *Amenorrhoea* difficilis vel menorrhagia difficilis, when this flux is too ſmall in quantity and attended with great pain, &c. See Menses Defective.

AMENENOS, from *α*, negative, and *μένος*, *ſtrength*. Weak, feeble. In this ſenſe Hippocrates often uſes this word.

AMENTACEOUS FLOWERS. In botany; they are ſuch as have an aggregate of ſummits hanging down in form of a rope or of a cat's tail, as the male flowers of the mulberry, &c. Theſe are alſo called iuli, and in Engliſh *katkins*.

AMENTIA. Madneſs, idiotic infanity, Linn. ſtupidity.

AMENTIA, from *a*, *privative*, and *mens*, *the mind*. Without underſtanding, ſtupidity, fooliſhneſs, &c. Dr. Cullen defines it to be the weakneſs of the mind in judging, from either not perceiving or not remembering the relations of things. He ranks this genus of diſeaſes in the claſs neuroſis, and the order veſaniæ. His ſpecies are, 1. *Amentia* congenita, natural ſtupidity, i. e. from the birth. 2. *Amentia* ſenilis, dotage, or childiſhneſs from the infirmities of age. 3. *Amentia* acquiſita, when from accidental injuries a perſon becomes ſtupid or fooliſh. See Cullen's Noſology, edit. iii. See Mania & Morosis.

AMENTUM. Sciſſile alum.

AMERI. A name for Indigo. See Indicum.

AMERICANUM (Bals.) i. e. Balſ. Peruv.

AMERICANUM TUBEROSUM. Potatoes.

AMETHODICA. An irregular proceeding, from *α*, *not*, and *μέθοδος*, *method*.

AMETHYSTA PHARMACA, from *α*, neg. and *μέθυ*, *wine*. Medicines which either prevent or remove inebriating effects of wine.

AMETHYSTUS. The Amethyſt. It was ſo called from a ſuppoſition that it prevented drunkenneſs.

It is tranſparent and bright; ſome are white, but generally they are of a purple hue; in different ſtones are different ſhades, from the paleſt red or blue to the deepeſt violet.

The beſt are met with in the Eaſt Indies, but they are rare. Many are brought from America, but more from Bohemia. They are uſually found in the form of large cryſtals on the inſide of large hollow ſtones.

Spars and cryſtals tinged red, yellow, &c. are ſold for *amethyſts*. The falſe ones come from Germany, and are tinged by vapours in the mines, and contain ſome lead.

AMIA. The name of a fiſh often mentioned by Aetius.

AMIANTHUS. Alſo called amiantus, aſbeſtus, aſbeſtinum, linum foſſile, linum aboſtinum, linum vivum, linum Indicum, linum Creticum, linum carpaſium, linum caryſtum, linum Cypricum, alumen plumoſum, conſoides, ſparta polia, ſalamandria, earth flax, and ſalamander's wool.

It is a mineral ſubſtance, found in lumps of different ſizes, of a greyiſh colour, with a ſilvery gloſs, and compoſed of ſmall filaments. It is met with in many of the iſlands of the Mediterranean ſea; in Italy there is abundance, and it is worked there either into linen or paper, both which reſiſt the moſt violent flame. It is dug up alſo in the iſland of Angleſey, and in Oxfordſhire.

Some, with very great probability, ſuppoſe it to be iron calcined in its ore, by ſubterraneous fire.

It can be ſpun into thread, then wove into cloth, and afterwards made into paper. The cloth thus made is not cleaned by waſhing, but burning, and when the paper that is made of this ſubſtance is writ upon, by burning it becomes clean paper again.

To work it into thread, &c. it is firſt ſteeped in water to diſſolve its earthy parts, and make its threads ſeparate, then the flaxy part is dried in a ſieve, then they card it as wool is carded, after which, with the fingers wetted with oil, it is twiſted as it is drawn round upon a reel, which is firſt wound over with fine thread; but mixing the aſbeſtus with flax, on a diſtaff, and ſpinning them together, works the aſbeſtus into a thread, which is afterwards ſeparated in the fire, and thus the aſbeſtus thread is left in a proper ſtate, and in this way carding is not needful. The cloth, when made, is beſt kept by being moiſt with oil.

AMIANTUS, i. e. Amianthus.

AMICULUM. A covering for the pubes when the boys exerciſed in the gymnaſium. It is alſo uſed in the ſame ſenſe as the word amnios.

AMI-

AMIDUM, i. e. Amylum.

AMINÆA (gum.) i. e. Gum anime.

AMINÆUM VINUM. Wine of Aminiæ, called afterwards Falernum (in Italy). It is a ſtrong kind of wine.

AMINÆUM ACETUM. Vinegar of Aminæan wine, or any very ſtrong wine vinegar.

AMINIA. A ſort of cotton tree. The Braſilians call the hylon Braſil. of J. B. by this name; and the Portugueſe call it algodon.

AMISADU. Prepared ſal ammoniac.

AMMA, i. e. Bracherium.

AMMAN. CHAR. PLANT. The abbreviation for *ammani* character. plantarum.

AMMI, or Ammium Vulgare. Common biſhop's weed.

AMMI VERUM, called alſo *ammi* Creticum, *ammi* parvum foliis fœniculi, *ammi* femine tenuiſſimo & odoratiſſimo, cumminum Æthiopicum, fœniculum annuum origani odore, royal cummin, and true biſhop's weed.

The ſeeds of theſe plants only are uſed in medicine. The common ſort is a native in the ſouthern parts of Europe; it is plentifully propagated by ſeeds, which fall in autumn, and ſpring up in the following ſummer: the ſeeds of this ſpecies are larger, paler, and very different in flavour, as well as in medical power, from the true. The true ſpecies is a native of Egypt, the ſeeds are of a reddiſh brown colour, ſmall, and flat on one ſide, convex and furrowed on the other. We very rarely meet with them in our ſhops, the ſeeds of the amomum, and of parſley, being too often ſold for them.

The ſeeds of the true biſhop weed are an agreeable carminative, of a warm pungent taſte, having a ſemblance of origanum in their ſmell. By diſtillation with water, they yield much oil of a yellowiſh colour, and containing their whole flavour; ſpirit of wine alſo carries off their odour.

AMMION. Cinnabar.

AMMITES, or Ammonites, from ἄμμος, *ſand*. A ſandy ſtone, alſo called cenchrites and meconites; ſome are ſmall as poppy ſeed, others large as a hazle nut. When as large as a pea they are called mineral bezoar. They are found near Berne, in Switzerland.

AMMIUM, i. e. Ammi.

AMMOCHOSIA. A remedy for drying the body, by covering it with hot ſand or ſalt. See INSOLATION, which is of the ſame efficacy. Salt is better than ſand.

AMMOCHRYSOS, from ἄμμος, *ſand*, and χρυσὸς, *gold*. A ſort of gold-coloured mud, in the channel of ſome mineral waters in Friſeland.

AMMOCHRYSUS. A hardiſh yet brittle ſtone, which eaſily crumbles into the likeneſs of ſand; it is of various colours, and intermixed with ſpangles of talc of a gold colour. It is found in Bohemia and many other parts of the world, but is only uſed to put on writings.

AMMODITES. A venemous ſerpent; called alſo cenchria, that is, millety, becauſe its tail is hard like a millet. It hath wider jaws than the viper, and is farther diſtinguiſhed by the viper being yelloviſh. Its bite is ſpeedily deſtructive.

AMMONIACUM (Gum.) called alſo armoniacum, but improperly; hammoniaci lacryma; and in Engliſh *gum ammoniac*.

Ammon took his name from ἄμμος, *the ſands*, but the gum and the *ſal ammoniac*, from the country called *Ammonia*.

It is a concrete gummi-reſinous juice, produced in the Eaſt Indies, whence it is brought in maſſes, conſiſting of little lumps, which inwardly are very white, but outwardly yelloviſh or browniſh; its whiteſt parts become yellow on being expoſed to the air. From what plant it is obtained we know not. It hath a ſtrong ſmell ſomewhat like that of galbanum, but not ſo ungrateful, a naſeous ſweetiſh taſte mixed with a bitterneſs.

Such pieces as are white, clear, free from foreign matter, dry, and large, ſhould be preferred for internal uſe.

Thrown on live coals it burns away in flames: it is ſoluble both in water and in vinegar into a kind of milk, but the reſinous part, which is nearly one half of the whole, ſubſides on ſtanding: ſpirits of wine diſſolve near one half of it, taking up all its active parts.

Dr. Dedier ſays, that ℔ i. of this gum, afforded by diſtillation, of phlegm ʒ vi. volatile ſpirit ℥ ij. a volatile fœtid oil ℥ vi. and the remainder was a caput mortuum. But other ſkilful chemiſts have failed to obtain any oil from it by this proceſs. Water is very ſlightly impregnated with it by diſtillation.

This drug is an excellent deobſtruent in hyſterics, when cauſed by retarded menſes, and in other abdominal obſtructions: diſſolved in the acet. ſcillit. it is a powerful expectorant, for vinegar greatly exalts its virtue in this particular: in old ſtanding colicky ſymptoms, proceeding from viſcid matter in the inteſtines, it produces very happy effects: it is on a par with the aſſa fœtida for virtues of the ſame kind as the aſſa fœtida poſſeſſeth, though it is leſs naſeous; but its principal virtues is in aſthmas and difficult expectoration; it gently moves the belly, and externally applied it diſcuſſes.

The fœtid gums agree in their effects with oily aromatics, but have alſo acrid poignant ſalts conjoined, and ſo more forcibly raiſe, ſtimulate, and promote ſecretions; but the *gum ammoniac* is peculiar, in that its oil, which is but little, is not aromatic but inodorous, and it is not ſo heating and rarefying as the others are, but it hath the ſame acrid ſalts, therefore it may be uſed in fevers with turgid blood, and in robuſt habits, having ſo excellent a ſtimulus, without the power of rarefaction. Of this ſort, among plants, are the viſcus and dracontium, among roots the arum and ſcillæ, and moſt of the vegetable emetics.

The doſe may be from gr. x. to ʒ ß. three times a day.

Given in pills is the moſt agreeable form.

It is adulterated with common roſin.

The method of purifying it, is by ſoftening it in a bladder, which is immerſed in boiling water, and while it is fluid it is ſtrained; but for inward uſe, the beſt is the largeſt and fineſt unpurified pieces.

Diſſolved in water it is called lac ammon, and is thus made:

℞ *Gum ammon.* opt. ʒ ij. aq. puleg. ℔ ß. m. Thus adminiſtered it is more active than in pills; the doſe may be two large ſpoonfuls three or four times in twenty-four hours.

Pil. ammon. *magiſtr.*

℞ *Gum. ammon.* ℥ ij. aloe Suc. ℥ ß. myrrh, maſtic. & Benz. aa. ℥ ß. croc. Anglic. ʒ ij. acet. ſcillit. q. ſ. f. maſs.

AMMONIACUS (Sal.) called alſo ſal cyreniacus, ammoniac ſalt, and armoniac, but improperly.

Many writers ſpeak of the natural and artificial.

The natural ſort, ſpoken of by the ancients, according to Dioſcorides, is only the ſal gem, and is reckoned by them among the alimentary ſalts; but many others ſay that it was made from the urine of camels, and was depoſited in the ſands near the temple of Jupiter Ammon. We have no evidence of native *ſal ammoniac* of this ſort being found. Tournefort obſerves, that out of the ſimple native ſalts other compounded ſalts are naturally produced, viz. the eſſential ſalts, which naturally are concreted from the juices of plants, among which are native ammoniacal ſalts.

The artificial is the only ſort known and uſed in the ſhops. It is a neutral ſort, compoſed of a volatile alkaline ſalt, and the acid of ſea-ſalt: this is the only genuine ſort, though it may be made with the vitriolic or with the nitrous acid. The different ſorts formed of the different mineral acids, are thus diſtinguiſhed; by dropping oil of vitriol on that made with the acid of ſea-ſalt, white fumes immediately ariſe; red fumes from that made of the nitrous acid; and no effect follows from that made with the oil of vitriol.

Sal Ammoniac is brought to us generally in round cakes, convex on one ſide and concave on the other, from the ſhape of the veſſels into which they are ſublimed. When theſe cakes are broken, the ſalt appears of a needled texture, or compoſed of ſtriæ, running tranſverſely and parallel to one another; the internal part is generally pure, and of an almoſt tranſparent whiteneſs; the outſide, for the moſt part, is foul, and of a yelloviſh green or black hue.

In England this ſalt is obtained from burnt cow's dung; urinous ſalt, joined with an acid, produceth ammoniacal ſalt;

ſalt; it is obtainable from every ſpecies of ſoots by ſublimation or ſolution. At Newcaſtle it is made from the bittern, which remains after making common ſalt, and old urine; from one hundred pound weight of the bitter cathartic ſalt, and three hogſheads of urine, fifty-ſix pound weight of *ſal ammoniac* is obtained. In Egypt it is made from the burnt dung of quadrupeds that feed only on vegetables, this dung is collected only in the firſt four months in the year, when the cattle feed on ſpring graſs (which is a ſort of clover), for the dung at other ſeaſons, and when the cattle eat other ſort of food, is unfit for this purpoſe. As to the camel, its excrements are not preferable to thoſe of any other of their cattle, which feed on graſs, nor is their urine ever uſed, though ſo commonly declared by writers on this ſubject. Mr. Haſſelquiſt ſays, that the ſalt-workers in Egypt pretend, that the excrements from men, goats, and ſheep, are preferable to all others; and he farther tells us, that March and April are the only times in which they make this ſalt. See his account of his voyages.

It may alſo be produced from

Sp. ſal marin.	with	Sal. C. C.
		Sal vol. *ſal ammon.*
		Sal fulig.
Tinct. mart. in ſp. ſal marin.		Sp. vol. arom.
		Sp. vol. fœtid.
Cauſt. antim.		Sp. C. C.
		Sp. *ſal ammon.*
Merc. corroſ. alb.		Ammon. vegetable.

The *ammoniac ſalt* hath many and uſeful properties.

It is ſoluble in water, and in ſpirit of wine, and in the air alone.

It renders water extremely cold while continuing to diſſolve in it. The crude ſalt, when diſſolved in water, and mixed with a vitriolic acid, effervesces violently, and produces a ſenſe of cold; the volatile ſalt, treated in the ſame manner, effervesces likewiſe, but produces heat.

After ſolution in water, it ſhoots into cryſtals, which reſemble feathers, or into long ſhining ſpicula.

Mixed with a fixed alkaline ſalt, and then ſublimed, it affords a dry volatile ſalt; but mixed with quick-lime, its volatile parts are only to be obtained in a liquid form.

When unmixed with other matters, it may be ſublimed with a conſiderable degree of heat, without ſuffering the leaſt change in its nature or properties; but if the fire is haſtily raiſed during its ſublimation, it remarkably volatilizes many kinds of bodies if mixed with it.

On account of its ſea-ſalt it turns aqua fortis into aqua regia.

Crude *ammoniac ſalt* does not curdle milk, nor alter the colour of an infuſion of roſes.

Rubbed with quick-lime, or with a fixed alkaline ſalt, it emits an urinous ſmell.

Diſſolved in lime-water, then a little merc. cor. being added, the mixture becomes of a yellow colour.

In ſoldering, tinning, and caſting ſhot, the crude ſalt is much uſed.

It becomes volatile in a heat ſomewhat greater than that of boiling water.

As a medicine, its effects are to be ranked among the moſt valuable of its tribe. Boerhaave ſays, that it preſerves all animal ſubſtances from putrefaction; that its brine penetrates their moſt inward parts; that it is the nobleſt aperient, attenuant, reſolvent, errhine, ſternutatory, diaphoretic, ſudorific, antiſeptic, and diuretic.

When uſed externally as an antiſeptic, diſcutient, or deterſive, it is mixed with ſome proper fomentation in the proportion of ʒ vi. or ℥ i. to ℔ ij. of the liquid.

It is more pungent to the taſte than common ſalt, but is leſs antiſeptic; it paſſes off more freely through the pores than common ſalt, but does not move the belly ſo freely.

It is perfectly neutral; attenuates viſcid juices; promotes a diſcharge through the ſkin, or by urine, according as the patient is kept warmer or cooler, or according to the peculiar circumſtances of the conſtitution; in larger doſes, as ʒ ij. it opens the belly, and in yet larger, it proves emetic; it is an excellent febrifuge, and peculiarly aſſiſtant to the bark; in many inſtances where the bark and emetics failed in agues, the crude ſalt given to ℈ i. every four hours, with an infuſion of camomile flowers, for ſome days; then every ſix, and at leaſt every eight hours hath ſucceeded; it is uſed both as an antiſeptic and a repellent in gargles; when the throat is inflamed, or otherwiſe requires ſuch remedies, it powerfully diſſolves viſcid mucus in the mouth and fauces; in violent hypochondriac caſes, it hath been of ſingular efficacy by a daily uſe of it in doſes, juſt within what are required to render the bowels lax; after taking it ſix, eight, and twelve months, the cold bath hath completed the cure. From ʒ i. to ʒ ij. diſſolved in ℥ viij. of any ſimple water, is a good ſubſtitute for the common ſaline mixture, and may be given, as to quantity and time, in the ſame manner.

Preparations of this drug are, the *ſal ammoniacus* purificatus; purified *ammoniac ſalt*.

It may be purified by ſublimation, or perhaps more perfectly as follows: diſſolved in pure water, then filter and cryſtalize in the ſame manner as is directed for nitre.

The impurities of this ſalt are commonly ſuch as will not diſſolve in common water, and hence the purification is effected by the ſolution and filtration. The very laſt cryſtals ſeldom betray any mixture of other kinds of ſalt.

Flos *ſalis ammoniaci*.

Flowers of the *ſal ammoniac*.

Take dry crude *ſal ammoniac* powdered, put it into an earthen cucurbit, and having fitted on a blind head, ſublime the ſalt with a fire gradually increaſed.

This hath been called aquila alba philoſophorum, and aquila Ganymedem.

Sal vol. *ſalis ammoniaci*.

Spiritus *ſalis ammoniaci*.

Spiritus volatilis cauſticus.

Spiritus *ſalis ammoniaci* dulcis. All which ſee under the article ALCALI.

AMMONIACUS VEGETABILIS (Sal) i. e. Sp. Mindereri.

AMMONIS CORNU. Ammon's Horn.

Rulandus enumerates fifteen ſpecies. It is a foſſil of different colours, but moſt frequently that of an aſh, and in ſhape reſembles the horn of a ram. It receives its name from the cuſtom of conſecrating rams horns in the temple of Jupiter Ammon, in the deſarts of Libya. They are found in moſt countries, and, according to Pliny, they were held in the higheſt eſteem in Ethiopia.

AMMONITES. See AMMITES.

AMMONITRUM, from *αμμος*, *ſand*, and *νίτρον*, *nitre*. In our glaſs houſes this is called frit.

AMMONIUS, a ſurgeon ſurnamed Lithotomus, from his inventing a way to cut for the ſtone, when it could not be extracted at the neck of the bladder.

AMMONII COLLYRIUM, called alſo collyrium hygidium. It is a mere farrago.

AMMA ALCALIZATA. Paracelſus ſays it is water which runs through lime-ſtones, and ſo is impregnated with lime. Rulandus calls it amnis alcalizatus.

AMNESIA, or Amneſtia, *ἀμνησία*, from *α*, priv. and *μνησις*, *memoria*. Forgetfulneſs. Some uſe this word as ſynonymous with AMENTIA, which ſee.

AMNION, or AMNIOS. Martinius thinks its derived from, or hath its name in alluſion to *ἄμνιον*, *a veſſel*, which the ancients uſed for the reception of blood in ſacrifice. The internal membrane which ſurrounds the fœtus. It is a fine thin tranſparent membrane, ſoft but tough, ſmooth on its inſide, but rough on the outer. Dr. Hunter ſays, that it runs over the internal ſurface of the placenta, and that this membrane, which ſeems not vaſcular in the human ſubject, makes the external covering of the navel-ſtring, to which it is moſt firmly united; and that viewed in a microſcope, it appears to have blood veſſels, but they are lymphatics.

However the exiſtence of the allantois may be diſputed in the human ſubject, the *amnion* it found in all animals both viviparous and oviparous.

AMNIS, i. e. Amna alcalizata.

AMOENIT. An abridgment of amoenites.

AMOGABRIEL. Cinnabar.

AMOMI. The Dutch call Jamaica pepper thus.

AMOMIS. A fruit reſembling amomum; it is alſo called pſeudamomum.

AMOMUM. Stone parſley.

Botaniſts enumerate three ſpecies, viz. the true, the baſtard, and as a third ſort, the tree nightſhade is included.

The *amomum* verum is alſo called *amomum* racemoſum, elettari primum, Hort. Malab. True *amomum*, or true ſtone parſley.

The ſeed is the only part that is conſidered as medicinal, but it is not known whether the true *amomum* of the ancients exiſts or not; the moſt probable account is that of P. G. Gamelli, in the Philoſ. Tranſ. which is, that the tugus (called by ſome birao, and by others caropi) is the genuine *amomum* of Dioſcorides. See Dr. James's Dict. article AMOMUM.

Many confound the *amomum* with great cardamom. It is a native of China. In Armenia the amomis is ſubſtituted for the *amomum*. The college of Edinburgh ſupply the place of the *amomum* verum with the caryoph. aromat. the college of London with the *amomum* vulgare.

The *amomum* vulgare are alſo called ſiſon, ſinon, ſinnon, *amomum* Germanicum, ſium aromaticum, petroſelinum Macedon. Fuchſii, and baſtard ſtone parſley. The ſiſon *amomum*, Linn.

It is a perennial plant, grows wild under moiſt hedges and by the ſides of ditches: it flowers in July, and its ſeeds, which are the only part uſed in medicine, are ripe in Auguſt; they have a light agreeable ſmell, and a warm aromatic taſte, are eſteemed as carminative and diuretic; they are not ſo hot and pungent as, by the beſt accounts, the true *amomum* ſeeds are, nor is their flavour of the ſame kind.

They give over all their vitue with water in diſtillation, but by boiling in an open veſſel, their virtue is ſoon loſt in the air, and by way of tincture they give out their virtue to ſpirit of wine.

The virtues of the third ſort are the ſame as thoſe of common nightſhade.

See Dale and Miller.

AMOMUM. A name of the caſſia caryoph.

AMOMUM. A name of the Jamaica pepper.

AMOMUM ODORE CARYOPH. See CASSIA CARYOPH.

AMOMUM PLINII. A ſpecies of ſolanum.

AMONGABRIEL, or Amogabriel. Cinnabar.

AMONGEABA. The name of a ſort of graſs taken notice of by Piſo.

AMOR, Love. Though it is not a diſeaſe it is productive thereof.

The ſymptoms produced by this paſſion are as follow: the eye-lids often twinkle, the eyes are hollow and yet appear as if full with pleaſure; the pulſe is not peculiar to the paſſion, but the ſame with that which attends ſolicitude and care. When the object of this affection is thought of, particularly if the idea is ſudden, the ſpirits are confuſed, the pulſe changes, and its force and time are very variable; in ſome inſtances the perſon is ſad and watchful, in others, the perſon not being conſcious of his ſtate, pines away, is ſlothful, and regardleſs of food; though the wiſer, when they find themſelves in love, ſeek pleaſant company and active entertainments.

As the force of love prevails, ſighs grow deeper, a tremor affects the heart and pulſe, the countenance is alternately pale and red, the voice is ſuppreſſed in the fauces, the eyes grow dim, cold ſweats break out, ſleep abſents itſelf, at leaſt until the morning, the ſecretions become diſturbed, and a loſs of appetite, a hectic fever, melancholy, or perhaps madneſs, if not death, conſtitute the ſad cataſtrophe.

On this ſubject the curious may conſult Æginet. lib. iii. cap. 17. Oribat. Synop. lib. viii. cap. 9. or a treatiſe profeſſedly written on love, as it is a diſtemper, by James Ferrard, Oxford, printed 1640.

AMORIS POMA, alſo called lycoperſicon, ſolanum pomiferum, mala aurea, poma maj. *amoris*, and love apple. Solanum lycoperſicum, Linn.

It is the fruit of a ſpecies of ſolanum, about the ſize of a cherry, green at the firſt, and when full ripe is of a yellowiſh red colour; it contains many flat whitiſh ſeeds in a juicy pulp, which being ſown in gardens, the plant flowers in July, and the fruit ripens in September.

Their quality is cooling. In Italy they are eaten with oil and vinegar.

See Miller Bott. Off.

AMORGE. The fæces of oil. See AMUREA.

AMOSTEUS, i. e. Oſteocolla.

AMOTES. Potatoes.

AMPANA. A name of the palma coccifera folio flabelliformi mas. The Portugueſe call it palmeiro bravo macho.

AMPAR, i. e. Amber.

AMPELION. Vine leaves, or the tendrils of vines. Hippocrates commends them for making into peſſaries, to promote the menſes with.

AMPELITES. Canal coal. Named alſo terra *ampelites*, lapis *ampelites*, pharmacitis, lap. obſidanus, carbos Theoph. ſuccinum nigrum.

Dioſcorides gives us a character of the canal coal, that it will diſſolve if oil is poured on it; but in that it differs from ours.

A ſpecies of it is found in France, with which they blacken the hair of people's heads, and call it Pierre noire.

This ſpecies of coal is a bituminous earth, is black as jet, and ſo hard that it takes a good poliſh, and is made into boxes, baſons, and various other utenſils. It contains much ſulphur and ſalt, is divided into ſcales, and is eaſily powdered; when old, that is when long kept after taking it out of the mines, it falls into powder, and then it gives out a quantity of ſalt petre.

It burns more bright than any other kind of coal; powdered and ſtrewed upon vine trees it deſtroys the worms that injure them; it is rarely uſed in medicine, but is commended as being more drying than terra Samia, or than many of the earths that have obtained in medicine.

AMPELOCARPUS, i. e. Aparinei.

AMPELOPRASON. It is a ſpecies of garlick called French lack. See PORRUM.

AMPELOPRASSUM, i. e. Ampelopraſon.

AMPELOS. Briony.

AMPHARISTEROS. It is the reverſe of ambidexter, that is, a not having a proper uſe of either hand. Figuratively it ſignifies unlucky or unfortunate.

AMPHEMERINOS, from ἀμφὶ, a Greek prepoſition, ſignifying *a revolution*, and ἡμέρα, *a day*; a quotidian fever.

AMPHIARTHROSIS. A mixed ſort of articulation, partaking of the diarthroſis and the ſynarthroſis; it reſembles the firſt in being moveable, and the latter in its connection. The pieces which compoſe it have not a particular cartilage belonging to each of them, as in the diarthroſis, but they are both united to a common cartilage, which being more or leſs pliable, allows them certain degrees of flexibility, though they cannot ſlide upon each other; ſuch is the connection of the firſt rib with the ſternum, and of the bodies of the vertebræ with each other.

AMPHIBIUS, Amphibious, of ἀμφὶ and βίος, *life*. Animals are thus called that live either on the land or in the water. Dr. Hunter obſerves, that properly ſpeaking, there are no *amphibious* animals, for fiſh cannot live long without air, though much longer than men. The *amphibia*, according to Linnæus, is a claſs of animals, viz. thoſe whoſe heart is furniſhed with one ventricle and one auricle, in which, reſpiration is in a conſiderable degree voluntary.

AMPHIBLESTROIDES, from ἀμφίβλητρον, *a net*; the retina or net-like coat of the eye; alſo the ſame as RETIFORMIS, which ſee.

AMPHIBRANCHIA, from ἀμφὶ, *about*, and βράγχια, *the gills of a fiſh*, ſome ſay βράγχια, *the fauces*, and ſome ſay *the jaws*. The fauces or parts about the tonſils.

AMPHICAUSTIS. A ſort of wild barley. Some (but not medical writers) uſe this word to expreſs the pudend. muliebr.

AMPHIDEON, or Amphidæum. The os tincæ, or mouth of the womb.

AMPHIDEXIOS, i. e. Ambidexter.

AMPHIDIARTHROSIS. So Winſlow calls the articulation of the lower jaw, which is partly by a ginglymus, and partly by an athrodia.

AMPHIMERINA. Excepting a very few inſtances, this is an intermiting fever of the quotidian tertian kind. It is the continued quotidian of Linnæus and Vogel: others rank it as a remittent.

AMPHI-

AMPHIMERINA HUNGARICA, i. e. Morbus Hungaricus.

AMPHIMERINA CATARRHALIS, i. e. Catarrh from cold.

AMPHIMERINA TUSSICULOSA, i. e. Catarrh from cold, alſo the hooping cough.

AMPHIMERINA ANGINOSA. A ſymptomatic kind of quinſy, called by Huxham, febris anginoſa, by others the mucous quinſy, and the eryſepalatous quinſy. See SCARLATINA ANGINOSA.

AMPHIMETRION, from ἀμφὶ, *about*, and μήτρα, *the womb*, the parts about the womb.

AMPHIPLEX. According to Ruſus Epheſius it is the part ſituated betwixt the ſcrotum, anus, and internal part of the thighs.

AMPHIPNEUMA, from ἀμφὶ, *about* or *around*, and πνεῦμα, *breath*. A difficulty of breathing.

AMPHISBÆNA, from ἄμφι, *either way*, and βαίνω, *to go*. Galen ſays, it is an animal with two heads. Aetius deſcribes it as a venomous ſerpent, which moves with either end forward, from which circumſtance it hath its name: it is not ſhaped with a thick body tapering into a ſlender tail, but is of an equal thickneſs through its whole length. Lemery ſays, its colour is of a ſhining white, with reddiſh ſpots, and that its cheeks are ſo large that they conceal its eyes, and from this circumſtance it is ſaid to be blind. It is found in ſome of the Grecian iſles, and in different parts of Africa. Another ſpecies was lately met with in North America. Aetius ſays the bite is much like the ſting of a bee, as to its effects, though ſomewhat more violent, but it is cured much in the ſame manner.

AMPHISMILA, from ἀμφὶ, *on each ſide*, and σμίλη, *an inciſion knife*. A diſſecting kniſe with an edge on each ſide.

AMPHITANE, i. e. Chryſocolla.

AMPHODONTA, from ἀμφὶ, *on both ſide*, and ὀδὼς, *a tooth*. By this word Hippocrates expreſſeth animals that have teeth in both jaws.

AMPHORA. A Roman meaſure for liquids, from ἀμφιφορεὺς, by a ſyncope ἀμφορεὺς, it is ſo called from the two handles for carriage. Its contents are ſeven gallons and one pint Engliſh.

AMPOTIS. The receſs or ebb of the tide. Hippocrates uſed this word to expreſs the receſs of the humours from the circumference to the center of the body.

AMPULLA. A veſſel ſhaped with a belly, as a bottle or jug. In chemiſtry all bellied veſſels are called *ampullæ*, as bolt-heads, receivers, cucurbits.

AMPULLASCENS. The alevus *ampullaſcens* is the moſt tumid parts of Pecquet's duct.

AMPUTARE VIRES. To render a perſon weak.

AMPUTARE (Nervos). To take away the ſtrength.

AMPUTATIO, Amputation. It is the cutting off a limb. From *amputo, to cut off*.

Hippocrates ſays, when ſpeaking of a mortification, that what is putrified muſt be cut off, but does not mention the taking off of limbs. Celſus is the firſt who deſcribes this operation. Till the ſixteenth century, we have no account of any method to prevent the hæmorrage, which happens in this ſort of operation, except Celſus's, of making a ligature about the veſſels. Paré tells us, that previous to making the inciſion, a ligature, with a thin fillet, muſt be made above where the *amputation* is to be, which he ſays, firſt keeps up the ſkin and muſcles in a raiſed poſture; ſecondly prevents an hæmorrhage; and, thirdly, leſſens the ſenſe of feeling: he is the firſt who clearly ſpeaks of preventing the hæmorrhage when theſe operations are performed. In 1674, Mr. Morel, a French ſurgeon, introduced the tourniquet, as it is now uſed; but the firſt mention of this inſtrument, is in the Currus Triumphalis è Terebintho, publiſhed in London by an Engliſh ſurgeon in 1679. About the end of the ſixteenth century, Meſſrs. Verduin and Sabourin, one a Dutchman, the other of Geneva, left a label of the fleſh and ſkin to wrap over the ſtump, and called it l'operation de *l'amputation* à lambeau; but they probably learnt it from an Engliſhman, who publiſhed this practice in 1679, ſee Currus Triumphalis è Terebintho. Paulus Ægineta uſed the actual cautery, but Ambroſe Paré ſecured the veſſels by drawing them a little out with the forceps, then making a ligature round them, as is often mentioned by Celſus, though neglected by ſo many of his ſucceſſors. In the preſent eighteenth century, improvements are both many and important, in this branch of ſurgery, the crooked needle, and moſt other parts of the apparatus, &c. either being now introduced or improved.

Caſes requiring the Limb to be taken off.

After all that can be laid down on this particular, in many inſtances the experience and ſagacity of the attending ſurgeon alone, can properly determine for or againſt an operation. Mr. Bilguer, an eminent practitioner in the armies of the king of Pruſſia, during his late wars, reduces them to ſix, as follows:

1. A mortification, which ſpreads until it reaches the bone.

2. A limb ſo hurt, that a mortification is highly probable.

3. A violent contuſion of the fleſh, which at the ſame time hath ſhattered the bones.

4. Wounds of the larger blood veſſels of the limb, when recourſe is had to amputation, as the only method of ſtopping the hæmorrhage; or through an apprehenſion that the limbs ſhould periſh for want of nouriſhment.

5. An incurable caries of the bones.

6. A cancer or humour in danger of becoming ſuch.

Perhaps Mr. Bilguer may have reſtrained this operation rather too much: however, his humanity is manifeſt herein, and his ingenuity is ſuch as renders his inſtructions deſerving of attention.

In caſes from mortification, Mr. Sharp hath well eſtabliſhed the propriety of waiting until it ceaſes, and granulations of new fleſh beſpeak a better ſtate of the blood. He obſerves that gun-ſhot wounds are beſt, if the neceſſary amputation is immediately performed; and that the diſorders of the joints, ulcers of long ſtanding, and all ſcrophulous tumors, generally return on other parts, after amputation.

On this important ſubject, Mr. Pott obſerves, that in the inſtances generally demanding *amputation*, if the rule is adhered to, a limb will now and then be taken off that poſſibly might have been reſtored; but the number of thoſe who would be ſo lucky, is ſo ſmall in proportion to thoſe who under the ſame apparent circumſtances would end fatally, that it can make no difference in the general treatment. Selections of one caſe from another is what conſtitutes judgment in ſurgery; and happy is the man, who amidſt the following demands for *amputation*, ſingles out a caſe in which he will ſucceed, and ſave the threatened part. In general then, *amputation* is neceſſary,

1. In ſome compound fractures. See FRACTURES, when *amputation* is neceſſary in them.

2. A wound in the principal artery of a limb; alſo in ſome aneuriſms; a large wound with loſs of ſubſtance from arteries not contained within the cavity of the body, as thoſe of the thigh, leg, or arm, they are often ſo circumſtanced as to render *amputation* the only poſſible means of ſaving the patient's life. It is true, every inſtance of a wounded humeral or crural artery, does not demand this operation; but if the wound is ſuch, as that the collateral branches in their neighbourhood are prevented from carrying on the circulation, a ſpeedy *amputation* will be neceſſary. See ARTERIA, FEMORALIS ARTERIA, POPLITEA ARTERIA, TIBIALIS ARTERIA, HUMERALIS ARTERIA, &c.

3. When joints are wounded, violently injured, or otherways diſeaſed. When the heads of bones are diſeaſed, their ligaments lacerated, &c. in moſt inſtances *amputation* is neceſſary. See VULNUS, SCLOPETOPLAGA, SPINA VENTOSA, &c.

4. A caries of the whole ſubſtance of a bone, or of the bones which compoſe a limb. See CARIES.

5. Some Mortifications. Se MORTIFICATIO.

6. Many inſtances of gunſhot wounds. See SCLOPETOPLAGA.

7. Cancers. See CANCER.

Large bones ſhould not be amputated in the joint, on account of the extreme thinneſs of the fleſh in thoſe parts, which cannot eaſily be brought to cover the bone, and heal over it, whence a caries may ariſe, and other inconveniences; but if there is a probability of making the ſkin grow over the bone, the operation might be performed here as well as in the fingers and toes.

If

If the ſtrength of the patient is thought ſufficient for him to undergo an *amputation*, and his caſe is ſuch as is thought to require it, the following ſhould be in readineſs.

1. A tourniquet.
2. A ſmooth fillet, an inch broad and half an ell long.
3. The amputating knife.
4. A catlin.
5. A ſaw.
6. A forceps.
7. Crooked needles armed with waxed thread.
8. Lint and tow, made into compreſſes ready for uſe.

N. B. Calomel mixed with ſtarch, and ſtrewed on a pledgit of lint, is perhaps the beſt application to the ſtump of an amputated limb.

9. A retractor.
10. A roller of five ells in length.
11. Pledgits of ſponge.
12. Cordials, as wine, &c. to raiſe the patient's ſpirits.
13. Attendants appointed to their proper offices.

A general idea of the procedure, will be beſt obtained by a peruſal of the directions given below for the *amputation* of the particular parts; to them, therefore, the reader is referred, and to ſuch authors alſo as opportunity may favour his attending to.

Amputation *of the Arm.*

In moſt *amputations*, the operation ſhould be a finger's breadth, or more, above the ſphacelated, or otherwiſe injured part.

Apply the tourniquet ſo, as that it may preſs upon the chief artery of the limb to be taken off. When the arm is the part to be amputated (and not the fore arm), it is adviſed by ſome, for an aſſiſtant to preſs on the artery as it paſſes over the firſt rib.

Then let an aſſiſtant draw the ſkin back, while the operator binds the fillet round where the inciſion is to be made. This fillet both guards the knife, and keeps the fleſh tight, ſo that it more eaſily yields to the knife; or more exactly to make the circular inciſion, a ſlip or two of plaſter may be preferred to the fillet for directing the knife; this ſlip of plaſter may be applied double, that is two thickneſſes may be laid, the one upon the other; and if another ſlip is placed about three-fourths of an inch higher, its effect will greatly aſſiſt thoſe of the lower. On the exact cutting the ſkin, muſcles, &c. the ſpeedy cure of the ſtump very much depends.

Having proceeded thus far, give the patient a cordial, and cheer him.

Two aſſiſtants holding the limb in a ſtrait line, an inciſion muſt be made quite round through the ſkin and fat to the fleſh; this done, firſt take away the fillet or ſlips of plaſter, then the aſſiſtant, who holds the upper part of the limb, muſt draw the ſkin as far back as he can; after which, as near the edge of the retracted ſkin as poſſible, the fleſh muſt be divided, at twice, to the bone: and if there are two bones, divide the fleſh between them with the point of the ſame knife, then, that the bone may be ſawed off as near to the fleſh as poſſible, obſerve as follows: it is neceſſary to cut the ſkin, &c. to the muſcles firſt, that you may draw it back and cut the fleſh as far under the ſkin as poſſible, in order to having the ſkin to reach over the fleſh and the bone of the ſtump as ſoon as it is dreſſed up: if the inciſion was made at firſt to the bone, then the ſkin would not contribute to the covering of the ſtump. Again, to aſſiſt this intention of bringing the ſkin over the end of the ſtump, the retractor is contrived, which muſt be put on after the inciſion is made through the muſcles, to draw them up with, as forcibly as the patient can eaſily bear: thus the bone can be ſawed off more cloſely to the edge of the fleſh, and with leſs danger of tearing it with the teeth of the ſaw. When there are two bones, as in the fore-arm, after having cut through the muſcles, and divided the interoſſeous ligament, ſome recommend inſtead of the retractor, to paſs a compreſs between the bones, and therewith to draw back the divided parts until the bones are ſawed through.

Where there are two bones, apply the ſaw in ſuch a manner that both may drop together, to prevent making ſplinters, and alſo to avoid the painful jar which the patient feels when this is neglected. While the ſaw is working, the aſſiſtant who holds the lower part of the limb ſhould gently depreſs it, that the ſaw may have room to paſs; and the operator ſhould make his ſtrokes with it as long as poſſible.

The limb taken off, if the larger arteries are not eaſily ſeen, the tourniquet may be ſlacked, and by the blood ſpinning out, they will be diſcovered; then with the curved needles ſecure them, as directed in wounds of the arteries: when the tenaculum can be uſed for drawing out the artery, it will always be the beſt method; and having ſo done, tie the end of the artery with a narrow flat tape. If an oſſified artery is cut through, a cautery, either actual or potential, muſt be applied. In the fore-arm compreſſes generally ſuffice for checking the hæmorrhage.

The arteries ſecured, bring the ſkin over the end of the bone as far as poſſible, then apply a pledgit of ſoft lint, and over it another of ſoft tow, or more if required; over theſe lay a pledgit of tow ſpread with the common cerate, and then with two long ſlips of ſticking plaſter placed acroſs each other, confine the whole by fixing the ends of theſe ſlips along the ſides of the ſtump; after this finiſh the dreſſing, by turning a worſted night cap over the whole. It is properly obſerved by ſome ſurgeons, that dry lint, as an extraneous body, in which light it ſhould be conſidered, and as which it always acts, when clotted with blood, occaſions pain, ſwelling and inflammation, therefore ſhould be laid aſide, and in its place a large quantity of flour ſhould be ſtrewed over the whole ſtump; this forms a natural cataplaſm with the blood, ſerum, &c. over this, apply dry lint, or what other dreſſings you like, which may all be removed the next day, if on any account needful, and this without pain to the patient or trouble to his aſſiſtants.

The cuſtom of finiſhing by a roller from below upward, or indeed any way applied, is now omitted by the ableſt ſurgeons, as by its compreſs it cauſes inflammation, pain, and ſanies, inſtead of a well digeſted matter.

In the 2d vol. of the London Med. Obſ. and Inq. Mr. Kirkland propoſes the uſe of ſponge for a part of the dreſſing, as ſoon as digeſtion is begun in the ſtump, after an *amputation*. He obſerves, that the greateſt danger after this operation is from an abſorption of the matter from the wound after the inflammation is gone off, particularly if the digeſtion proceeds not very kindly; and to prevent this inconvenience, as ſoon as the ſtate of digeſtion is well advanced, he directs a thin layer of fine lint to be applied to the ſtump, and, immediately upon that, ſome thin pieces of fine ſponge, which have juſt then been made wet, but are ſqueezed as dry as can be by the graſp of one's hand. The thinner matter of the diſcharge from the wound being abſorbed by the ſponge, the fever, diarrhœa, and other ſymptoms which it occaſions when taken up into the circulation, are prevented; and where from the thinneſs and acrimony of the diſcharge, ſponge pledgits are neceſſary, he orders antiſeptic diuretics to be adminiſtered internally, and if needful the bark.

The dreſſing finiſhed, the beſt poſition for the patient is the bed.

An aſſiſtant ſhould gently and conſtantly hold his hand on the ſtump during ſome hours, not only to guard againſt an hæmorrhage, but alſo by the gentle preſſure to make the dreſſings adhere more firmly.

The tourniquet may be gradually raiſed to admit the circulation of the part more freely, and if no danger ſeems to threaten, it may be removed the next day.

From plethoric habits, as ſoon as the patient is in bed, take away ſome blood, to prevent a fever.

On the third or fourth day, remove the dreſſings, and proceed as in a common wound. If any part of the lint, &c. adheres, leave it to digeſt away with future applications.

The *amputation* of the arm, and of the fore-arm, are the ſame, except that in the fore-arm the brachial artery dividing into branches, ſometimes demands the uſe of the needle, more than when the operation is in the arm. In general, when the arm is amputated above the elbow, the ſame procedure will be neceſſary as is directed for the *amputation* of the thigh juſt above the knee.

The Amputation *of the Arm at its Joint with the Scapula.*

Mr. Morand, the elder, firſt took off the arm at the ſhoulder. Mr. Bromfield performed it with ſucceſs in London. Dr. Home, in his Medical Facts and Experiments, ſays it is a dangerous operation, though attended with

with all poſſible advantages. Here the tourniquet cannot be applied. But Dr. Hunter obſerves that, when we conſider the ſituation of the blood-veſſels as they paſs over the firſt rib to the arm, it evidently appears, that by turning the ſhoulder outwards, and making a proper preſſure with compreſſes and bandage, we might abſolutely make ourſelves maſters of the blood in amputating the humerus, at its articulation with the ſcapula, which is the moſt intimidating circumſtance in the operation.

The patient's arm being held horizontally, make an inciſion through to the fleſh, from the upper part of the ſhoulder, acroſs the pectoral muſcles, down to the armpit; and, to ſave as much ſkin as you can, begin it about two inches below the joint, then turning the knife with its edge upwards, divide that muſcle, and part of the deltoid, and thus the great artery and vein are expoſed, and which ſhould immediately be ſecured by ligatures, at leaſt two fingers breadth below the axilla, in order to which carry the arm a little backward; then divide theſe veſſels at a conſiderable diſtance below the ligatures, and purſue the circular inciſion through the joint, cutting firſt into that part of the burſal ligament which is neareſt to the axilla; for if you attempt to make way into the joint on the upper part of the ſhoulder, the projection of the proceſſus acromion, and proceſſus coracoides, will very much embarraſs the operation: in the next place diſcover the true ſituation of the acromion, which having done, draw back the ſkin, and in dividing the fleſh, introduce the knife two or three fingers breadth under the acrimon, for thus, much of the deltoid muſcle is ſaved, with which to fill up the wound, and expedite its healing. Theſe parts cut through, raiſe the arm, that the head of the biceps muſcle may be more eaſily found and divided; divide the ligament on the upper part, then on the ſides, after which, the head being liſted out of the ſocket, cut away all that detains it, taking care not to divide the artery, &c. above the ligatures. The remaining fleſh at the arm pit ſhould be nearly of a triangular figure, the broad part being next to the axilla. Apply the remaining fleſh immediately to the ſocket of the ſcapula, and lay over them dry lint and pledgits, which may be ſecured by a plaſter of the ſhape of a Malteſe croſs. To prevent the force of the artery, lay a bolſter in the arm-pit to preſs upon it; ſecure the whole with the bandage called the ſpica deſcendens.

To prevent the *amputation* of the arm at its joint with the ſcapula, the following hath been practiſed in ſome inſtances. The head of the humerus, with its adjoining part, to about four inches in length, is to be taken away. In the inſtances of this kind, the patient hath enjoyed all the under hand motions of the arm.

Amputation *of the Breaſt.*

In this caſe women only are the ſubjects.

The patient being placed on a high chair, hold her arm horizontally backward, and a very little downward; thus the pectoral muſcle is more eaſily expanded, and the diſordered part more eaſily ſeparated from it; then make a circular inciſion through the teguments, and diſſect the morbid part out. This done, if ſtrength admit, take away blood. The compreſs and bandage are generally ſufficient to prevent hæmorrhages, the needle being ſeldom required; yet ſometimes the branches of the mammary arteries which come out between the cartilages of the ribs into the breaſts, will create ſome trouble, eſpecially one larger than the reſt from towards the arm-pits, near the edge of the pectoral muſcle, which is commonly more troubleſome to ſtitch than the reſt. Now proceed as in wounds in general.

If in the courſe of the cure a fever comes on, with pains about the precordia, and a difficulty of breathing, death is the conſequence. Be careful by proper and timely bleeding to prevent theſe ſymptoms.

Amputation *of the Fingers and Toes.*

Sometimes a finger or toe that is nearly cut through with a ſharp inſtrument, if clapped too again whilſt it is warm, will unite, at leaſt it is better to give ſuch caſes the trial, than to cut them away at the firſt. When cut obliquely, their reunion may be more certainly expected, than when tranſverſely.

The fingers and toes are beſt amputated in their articulations; a ſtreight knife muſt be uſed, and the inciſion of the ſkin ſhould be made not exactly upon the joint, but a little towards the extremity of the finger or toe, that more of it may be preſerved for the eaſier healing of it afterwards: it will alſo facilitate the ſeparation of the joint, when the finger is cut from the metacarpal bone, to make two ſmall longitudinal inciſions on each ſide of it firſt. When the lower joints are ſeparated, the firſt inciſions ſhould be from a little above to a little below the joint on each ſide, and ſo deep as to divide the ligaments; and after this proceed as above. The ſkin grows over the cartilage very readily. If the cartilage is removed by the knife point, or any accident happening to the part, the ſkin heals better, and unites ſpeedily to the bone, but this is not neceſſary. If the patient is plethoric, let the blood run from the amputated joint, and no hæmorrhage will happen there after. It is never neceſſary to take up an artery here.

In caſe of ſupernumerary fingers or toes, if troubleſome, cut them off: ſometimes there is no bone where they are to be cut off, in this caſe a knife may be uſed; but if there is any bone, a ſtrong pair of ſciſſars may be uſed, for in infants theſe bones are not hard.

Amputation *of the Hand.*

Heiſter thinks it beſt to amputate the hand, with a knife only, at the joint of the wriſt; but the uſual method is to cut through the bones above the wriſt, in which caſe, ſee AMPUTATION OF THE ARM.

Amputation *of the Metacarpal and Metatarſal Bones.*

If any one of theſe bones are carious, it may be adviſable to cut away only ſo much as is diſordered; a ſmall ſpring ſaw is the moſt proper to divide the bones with here. After theſe operations, the parts heal ſoon, and a part of a hand or foot is better than to loſe the whole.

In theſe caſes carry your knife firſt along the ſide of the bone that is to be removed, and as cloſe to it as you can, at the ſame time making the wound as ſmooth as poſſible. If one of the middle bones is to be removed, we muſt of courſe make two inciſions, one on each ſide; having done this, divide the integuments, &c. from the bone above and below tranſverſely, then ſcrape off the periоſteum, and ſaw through the bone with the ſaw called the metacarpal ſaw. Hold the ſaw very ſteady, and make long ſtrokes when uſing it. If two bones are to be removed, we ſhould proceed as above in general, alſo remember to divide the integuments, &c. tranſverſely between the two bones as is done between the tibia and fibula, or between the radius and ulna in *amputations* of thoſe parts. As in *amputations* of the fingers and toes, ſo in this caſe, the tourniquet is not required.

Amputation *of the Leg.*

If the leg is to be amputated, though the injury is ever ſo near the ankle, as a long ſtump is thought more inconvenient than a ſhort one, it is preferred to amputate it at about four or five fingers breadth below the tuberoſity of the tibia; if it is cut higher, the apponeurotic expanſion of the flexor muſcle will be hurt, beſides the ſtump would be too ſhort for an eaſy ſupport on the wooden leg; and an artery which runs into the thickneſs of the tibia to be diſtributed to the marrow, would be unneceſſarily wounded.

As the gaſtrocnemei muſcles draw back the ſkin more ſtrongly than it is drawn elſewhere, it is proper, in order to keep the ſkin equal after the operation, to cut ſo that the wound on the calf of the leg is farther from the middle of the ham, than the wound in the fore part is from the middle of the patella.

In amputating the upper limb and the breaſt, a chair is the propereſt to place the patient on; but for the lower limbs, a table about two feet and a half high is to be preferred.

The tourniquet muſt be placed three or four inches above the patella, and ſo as to preſs more particularly on the artery in the ham. The ſlips of plaſter directed in the *amputation* for guiding the knife, muſt be placed four or five fingers breadth below the patella; and the operator muſt ſtand on the inſide of the leg, becauſe the fibula will then be ſawed at the ſame time with the tibia: but if on the contrary the ſaw is laid on the inſide of the leg, the tibia will be firſt divided, and the fibula, being too weak to bear the force of the ſaw, will be apt to ſplinter, ſo not only render the operation tedious, but alſo the cure more difficult afterwards.

Though the practice of making a ſhort ſtump hath ſo

 generally

generally obtained, Mr. White, the ſurgeon of Manchester infirmary, prefers amputating betwixt the calf of the leg and the ankle, in caſes that will admit of ſaving ſo much of the leg; he gives inſtances of his practice this way, and aſſures us, that the motion of the long ſtump is more eaſy than that of the ſhort one.

After the ſeparation of the limb, the dreſſing, and general treatment, will be the ſame as in *amputation* of the arm.

Amputation *of the Penis.*

If a cancer, or a ſphacelus, in conſequence of a ſcirrhus gland, ſhould appear in the penis, then every part to which the contagion hath reached is ſpeedily to be extirpated, leſt the taint diffuſe itſelf farther.

Some cut off the penis with a knife (ſee Le Dran's Operations); but the following method is to be preferred to the conſequences.

Paſs a ſmall tube of lead, or of ſilver, into the urethra, a little farther than the affected part; then with a ſilken thread make a ligature upon the ſound part, near to that which is diſeaſed; make this ligature tighter every day until that which is faulty falls off.

Amputation *of the Thigh.*

In this operation on the lower part of the thigh, the firſt inciſion is to be made a little more than two inches above the patella.

The tourniquet muſt preſs upon the crural artery, on the upper and inner part of the thigh, where the head of the vaſtus internus muſcle and the triceps meet.

In amputating above the knee, we are adviſed to cut down to the bone at once; but as there is a great thickneſs of the ſkin, &c. it is almoſt impoſſible. However, in cutting, we ſhould remember that the ſtump ſhould be of a conical form. In this caſe it is of no conſequence on which ſide of the bone you ſtand for operating.

When *amputation* is performed on this limb, the muſcles not being attached to the body of the bone, frequently makes them retract, and leave the bone ſticking out, (this never happens in the arm) but it may be remedied, by placing the patient on his ſide, and keeping the muſcles in as relaxed a ſtate as poſſible. The method of amputating with flaps was firſt invented to remedy this inconvenience, which hath occaſioned the contrivance of a new mode of amputating, by Mr. Allanſon, of Liverpoole, which is as follows: he firſt makes an inciſion through the ſkin, then diſſects a ſufficient quantity of it from the muſcles to cover the ſtump; this done he divides the muſcles down to the bone, where he finiſhes the diſſection, and then ſaws through the bone at the ſame place, in the uſual manner. He afterwards takes up the veſſels with the tenaculum, brings the ſkin over the ſtump, leaves the ligature hanging out at the external orifice, and applies no kind of dreſſings except ſomething to cover it ſuperficially.

After the operation, the roller that is to keep down the ſkin, ſhould go down the waiſt, and deſcend down the thigh to the ſtump: thus abſceſſes are prevented, which otherwiſe would form themſelves on the upper part of the thigh. It has been recommended in *amputations* of this limb, to diſſect away the cellular ſubſtance, as this has been thought to produce all the ſuppuration and diſcharge: it hath been tried indeed, and with ſeeming ſucceſs; but others omit this part of the operation, and think the cellular membrane is a convenient cuſhion for the ſtump to reſt on.

Another circumſtance deſerving attention, is after the operation, to preſs the crural artery the whole length of the thigh by a long bolſter.

If the operation is made on the upper part of the thigh the danger is very great; the diſcharge from the wound when it digeſts being ſo great, that the patient's ſtrength is ſoon gone, and death is a ſpeedy conſequent. If a caſe is ſo circumſtanced as to render *amputation* in the upper part of the thigh neceſſary, it would be beſt to be performed in the articulation, for then the crural artery would be better ſecured, and many other inconveniences avoided, which attend in the uſual method; but in the moſt deſperate circumſtances, taking off the thigh at the articulation is not yet encouraged.

See Sharpe's Operations of Surgery, ch. xxxvii. Sharpe's Critical Enquiry, ch. vii. Heiſter's Surgery. Le Dran's Operations. Bilguer's Diſſertation on *Amputations*. A complete Treatiſe on the Gangrene and Sphacelus, with a new method of *Amputation*, by Mr. O'Halloran. Allanſon's Practical Obſervations on *Amputation*. Mynors's Practical Thoughts on *Amputations*, &c.

AMPUTATIO VOCIS, implies a loſs of ſpeech.

AMPUTATURA. A wound from the entire ſeparation of a part from the body.

AMUCTICA, from *ἀμύσσω*, *to vellicate*. Remedies that by vellicating and ſtimulating the bronchia raiſe a cough, and ſo contribute to the diſcharge of what is in the lungs. Theſe medicines are the ſame as thoſe called arteriaca.

AMULATUM. See PERIAPTA.

AMULETA. Amulets.

Amulets and charms are ſo nearly allied, as to be conſidered as being the ſame.

Before the days of Moſes, idolatry had diffuſed its baleful influence over the minds of moſt men, ſo doubtleſs magic, and the ridiculous attempt to cure diſeaſes had a date nearly as ancient. The diſpute lays betwixt kings and prieſts, as to which gave riſe to follies of theſe kinds; it ſeems clearly owing to their deſigns and arts that they had their origin, to them therefore we may leave the deciſion concerning it.

Theſe illicit methods of procuring health were founded on a falſe religion, ſupported by credulity, and incorporated with the practice of phyſic long before the Greek Eſculapius. Men ſeeing the natural means of preſerving and reſtoring health ſometimes fail, they fooliſhly abandoned themſelves to whatever offered itſelf to their wiſhes, if it came with that confidence and impudence which is better adapted to engage wonder than reaſon.

Three things occur to moſt men to favour *amulets*: the 1ſt is, the palate is not offended; the 2d is, the price is ſmall; the 3d is, ſuperſtition is indulged.

The words uſually ſpoken when *amulets* were uſed, are called by the Greeks *ἐπᾳοιδαὶ*; by the Latins *incantamenta*, or *carmina*; by the Engliſh *inchantments* and *charms*, being a ſort of ſong pronounced over any one, for the words were either in verſe, or ſpoken in the manner of a ſong.

Sometimes words were writ, and carried by the patient on ſome part of his body, or in ſome of his garments. Theſe the Latins called *amuleta*, probably from *amovere*, *to remove*, or *take away*. They alſo called them *προβία*, or *προσβρα*, from *prohibere*, *to guard* or *defend*. The Greeks call them *apotropaca*, *phylacteria*, *amyteria*, *alexiteria*, and *alexipharmaca*, becauſe they imagined that theſe remedies could defend them, not only againſt ſuch diſeaſes as proceed from natural cauſes, but alſo againſt the power of other inchantments.

Theſe *amulets* were formed of any materials which fancy ſuggeſted.

Serenus Samonicus invented the *abracadabra* for the cure of the fever called hemitritæa. The Jews attributed the ſame virtue to the word *abracalon*. The Arabians had much ceremony, and alſo care, to ſee if the ſtars favoured them, and call it *taliſman*, i. e *image*.

Amulets were tied about people, ſo called periapta, and periammata, from a Greek word, ſignifying to tie about. The royal touch to cure the king's evil! Whether hath folly in the patient, or villany in the impoſtors, the greateſt ſhare here?

Charms ſeem to have been artfully introduced, to impoſe a belief in thoſe not in the ſecret, that thoſe who were exerciſing them were in particular favour with ſome ſuperior being. This gave the people a venerable idea of the practitioner, and ſo the vulgar were more eaſily prevailed on to ſubmit implicitly to them; and as the mind affects the body, ſo in ſome caſes the perſuaſion of the patient might contribute to a cure.

AMURCA. It is the ſediment from olive oil, found after the new preſſed oil hath depoſited it groſs contents.

AMVETTI, or Vetti Tali. Is the name of an Indian tree to which no medical virtues are attributed.

AMYCHE. A ſuperficial exulceration, laceration, or ſcarification of the ſkin; from *ἀμύσσω*, *to ſcratch*.

AMYCTICA. Stimulating, vellicating.

AMYGDALÆ. Almonds. The fruit ſo called. See AMYGDALUS. Alſo the glands called TONSILLÆ, which ſee.

AMYGDALIA. So Hippocartes, de Morbis, lib. ii. calls the tonſillæ.

AMYGDALATUM. The emulſion of almonds.

AMYGDALOIDES. Thus Oribaſius calls the ſpecies of tithymalus, which is called tithym. maſt.

It is a name for the white ſpecies of the gum benzoin.

AMYGDALOPERSICUM. The almond peach, called alſo perſica amygdaloides.

AMYGDALUS, the almond tree. The fruit only is uſed, of which there are two ſorts.

AMYGDALÆ DULCES. Called alſo *amygdalæ* ſativa. and ſweet almonds.

AMYGDALÆ AMARÆ. Bitter almonds.

The leaves and flowers of the *almond* tree reſemble thoſe of the peach tree. It is a native of Africa, is cultivated in the ſouthern parts of Europe, and even in England it produces fruit very little inferior to that from abroad; it flowers earlier in the ſpring than moſt other trees, though its fruit is not quite ripe until autumn.

Of the fruit we have two ſorts, the ſweet and the *bitter*; the eye diſtinguiſhes no difference betwixt the trees, nor between the kernels themſelves. It is ſaid that by altering the ſoil the *bitter* brings forth ſweet, and the ſweet brings forth *bitter almonds*. The *almonds* from Barbary, where the tree is indigenous, are *bitter*, while thoſe cultivated in Europe are ſweet. Linnæus deſcribes the two trees as only varieties, as follows: *amygdalus* communis; or, *amygdalus* foliis ſerraturis infimis glanduloſis, floribus ſeſſilibus geminis. Var. γ. *Bitter almond. Amygdalus* communis, or *amygdalus* foliis, &c. Var. β. Sweet *almond*.

The *bitter almonds* agree with the ſweet in yielding the ſame quantity of oil, not to be diſtinguiſhed from that of the ſweet ſort, and in all caſes to be uſed for the ſame purpoſes; the matter remaining after the expreſſion of the oil retains all the *bitter*, and taſtes ſtronger than it did at the firſt. Moſt of the *bitter* matter diſſolves with a little heat in water and in ſpirit of wine, and a part ariſes with both in diſtilling; but ſpirit ſeems to extract the moſt, and water to elevate the greateſt quantity. A ſimple water is diſtilled from them after the oil is preſſed out, which is ſubſtituted for and poſſeſſeth the ſame qualities in the ſame degrees as that drawn from cherry-ſtones; it is made as follows:

℞ *Amygd.* amar. poſt expreſſ. olei ℔vi. ſpt. vini ten. cong. ii. elic. cong. ii.

℞ Hujus ſp. ℥ iv. aq. font. ℥ xii. m. et aq. cerafor. nigr. vocatus.

It is more than probable that the noxious matter is that in which the *bitter* reſides, and that the activity of it is increaſed by its ſeparation from the groſs oil and farinaceous ſubſtance. The kernels of other fruits that have any bitterneſs or particular flavour appear to have the poiſonous principle of the *bitter almonds*. See a ſmall publication entitled, Experiments on Almond and Black-Cherry waters.

The diſtilled oil of *almonds* is very poiſonous; *bitter almonds* are commended as being deſtructive of worms, if four or five, or more, according as the ſtomach will bear them, are taking in a morning faſting: they are diuretic, but not ſafe; they occaſion ſickneſs and vomiting; to dogs, foxes, fowls, ſtorks, horſes (eſpecially while very young), pigeons, cats, and ſome other animals, they are poiſonous.

The ſweet kind, of which thoſe called Jordan *almonds* are the beſt, ſhould be choſen free from rancidneſs, and, if in the ſhells, free from all appearance of being penetrated by inſects, a ſpecies of which penetrates them, and eats away the kernel. They difficultly digeſt in our ſtomachs, and afford very little nouriſhment, unleſs extremely well comminuted. As a medicine they obtund acrimony in the primæ viæ, they ſoften and relax. They are a good intermedium for uniting with water ſeveral ſubſtances which of themſelves are not miſcible with it: camphor and many reſinous ſubſtances, triturated with ſix times their quantity of *almond*, eaſily diſſolve into a milky liquor. Six or eight ſweet *almonds* peeled ſometimes cure the heart-burn.

Sweet *almonds* are uſually blanched, i. e. freed from their ſkin, by ſteeping them in hot water until it eaſily ſlips off; then triturated with water their oil unites therewith, by the mutation of their mucilaginous and farinaceous matter, into an emulſion or milky liquor.

Emulſio Communis, the common emulſion.

Ph. Lond.

℞ *Amygd.* dulc. decort. ℥ i. ſacch. alb. ʒ vi. aqua hordeata ℔ ij. gum. arab. (in aq. hord. ſolut.) ℥ ß. f. emulſ.

This is alſo called the *almond* emulſion.

But the pure oil of *almonds* triturated with a thick mucilage of gum arabic, forms a more permanent emulſion; from which the oil does not ſeparate either on ſtanding two or three days, or on the addition of a moderate quantity of acid. One part gum made into mucilage is enough for four parts of oil. The white of egg, or ſyrup with a little ſpirituous water, will form an emulſion, but not near ſo well as the gum.

℞ Gum. arab. opt. pulv. ʒ ß. aq. puriſſim. ʒ ij. f. mucilag. per tritur. & adde ol. *amygd.* ʒ i ß. ſach. alb ℥ ß. poſtea paulatim adde aq. puriſſim. ℔ i. f. emulſ.

If to this emulſion half an ounce of gum arabic be added, it is called the arabic emulſion.

If half an ounce of chalk be added, it is named the abſorbent emulſion.

If half a dram of camphor be added, it is called the camphorated emulſion.

The emulſions partake of the quality of the oil, and are preſcribed in the ſame intentions, particularly heat of urine and the ſtrangury, whether ariſing from ſpontaneous acrimony or from irritating food or medicines.

When theſe emulſions have ſtood a while, they throw up a cream to the ſurface, and the whey beneath turns ſour. Acids joined to them forms curd and whey, juſt as they do in milk.

Theſe milky ſolutions of *almonds* in water, though containing the oil, and owe all the virtue to it, yet have this advantage above it, viz. that they may be given in acute and inflammatory fevers, without danger of the ill effects which the oil may produce, ſince emulſions do not become rancid, or acrid by heat, as all the oils of this kind ſoon do; and in moſt caſes the acid is rather an advantage in the emulſion.

The expreſſed oil of *almonds* is obtained from the ſweet or the bitter ſorts indifferently, no difference can be diſcovered in their oils by any known method of trial; the oil of *bitter almonds* was called metopium, becauſe the Egyptians uſed to make an oil in which *bitter almonds* and galbanum were ingredients; they named their compound oil thus from the plant called metopium, from which the galbanum is produced, and others give the ſame name to the ſimple expreſſed oil of this fruit.

By bruiſing, then preſſing the *almonds*, they afford nearly one half of their weight in oil: by boiling *almonds* in water, part of their oil ſeparates and is collected on the ſurface; but that obtained by preſſure without heat is the moſt agreeable.

As a medicine, this oil is uſeful when a tickling cough, hoarſeneſs, coſtiveneſs, or nephritic pains affect the patient; though in infants, to whom it is given as a laxative, it generally proves binding, by diminiſhing the ſtrength of their bowels. Draughts of manna and oil of *almonds*, at the ſame time uſing the common emulſion as common drink, are of ſingular ſervice in the gravel and in dyſuries. Some women who have hard labours, experience much benefit by taking repeated doſes of this oil for ſeveral days before the time of delivery: the teneſmus to which ſome pregnant women are ſubject, and which endangers abortion, is moſt ſpeedily relieved by clyſters of it, with a few drops of laudanum.

Sapo amygdalinus, the ſoap of almonds.

Ph. Lond.

The fineſt hard ſoap is made of freſh drawn oil of *almonds* by digeſting it with thrice its meaſure of the weaker ſoap ley (i. e. ſuch as will juſt permit an egg to ſink in it) in ſuch a heat as they may ſimmer only, by which, in a few hours, the oil and leys will be united; after which the liquor in boiling will ſoon become ropy, and in a good degree tranſparent, and will cool into the conſiſtence of a jelly; then throw in ſea-ſalt, till the boiling liquor hath loſt its ropineſs; continue the boiling till drops of the liquor being received upon a tile, the water is ſeen to ſeparate freely from the coagulated ſoap: then remove the fire, and the ſoap will gradually riſe to the top of the liquor;

quor; which is to be taken out before it is cold, and put into a wooden frame, which hath a cloth for its bottom: in the laſt place, being taken out, it is to be ſet by till it acquires its juſt conſiſtence.

AMYLA. Any ſort of chemical fæcula.

AMYLEON. Starch. See AMYLUM.

AMYLION. Starch. See AMYLUM.

AMYLUM, from *α*, neg. and *μύλη*, *a mill*, becauſe it is made of corn without a mill, or without grinding. It is the fæcula of wheat, and with us called *ſtarch*.

It is the pureſt farina of the wheat, but deprived of its ſalt and oil. It is made from all kinds of wheat, from potatoes, &c. It was invented in the iſle of Chios, and is valued by its lightneſs, newneſs, and ſmoothneſs.

The Method of making Starch.

Put the beſt wheat into water to ferment in the ſun in ſummer, change the water twice a day, for eight or twelve days, in which time the grain eaſily burſts, and is then alſo ſufficiently fermented; now put it, by little and little, in a canvas bag, to ſeparate the flour from the huſk, by rubbing and beating on a plank, which is laid acroſs the veſſel appointed to receive the flour: as the veſſels are filled with this liquid flour, a reddiſh water is ſeen ſwimming at the top, and is to be ſkimmed off, and clean water muſt be put in its place; after ſtirring the whole, ſtrain through a ſieve, and what ſtays behind muſt be put into freſh water and expoſed to the ſun, and as the ſediment falls, the water muſt be decanted off, what ſettles is the *ſtarch*, and muſt be dried in the ſun.

As a medicine, this article is often very uſeful; mixed with milk it is an excellent kind of aliment in fluxes and catarrhs; ʒ i. of *ſtarch* diſſolved and boiled in ℥ iij. of water, with a little ſugar, forms an elegant jelly, of which a table ſpoonful may be taken every hour or two. If it is diſſolved in thin gruel it is lenient, incraſſating, and of ſervice againſt ſharp defluxions, hoarſeneſs, a dry cough, ſpitting of blood, a diarrhœa, a dyſentery, internal ulcers, heat of urine, a gonorrhœa, &c.

The doſe is from gr. v. to ʒ ß. of the dry powder.

Enema ex amylo. *The* ſtarch *glyſter*.

℞ *Amylum* ʒ iij. aq. font. ℥ viij. m. & coq. parum.

Vel.

℞ Galatin. ex. *amylo*. ℥ vi. ol. lini. ℥ ß. f. enem.

In diarrhœas and dyſenteries, when the ſtools are bloody, and the inteſtines are relaxed, the following far exceeds aſtringents, or any other kind of clyſters in the relief it affords.

℞ Gelatin. ex. *amylo*. ℥ iv. vel. ℥ vi.

Sp. vini. Gallic. opt. ℥ ß. vel. ʒ i. m. enem. pro re nata injiciend.

AMYNTERIA, i. e. Amuleta.

AMYON, from *α*, priv. and *μῦς*, *a muſcle*. A limb ſo emaciated that the muſcles ſcarce appear.

AMYTHAONIS (Empl.) Amythaon's plaſter.

℞ Gum. ammon. cer. flav. gum. bdel. aā. ʒ viij. tereb. rad. irid. illyr. gum. galb. aā. ʒ xx. m.

ANA. This is the Greek prepoſition *ἀνά*; it is not peculiar to medical authors, though it is common among them. It ſignifies *of each*. Thus, ℞ aloes, thuris, & myrrhæ ā, or aā. (for *ana*) ℥ i. take of aloes, frankincenſe, and myrrh of each one ounce.

ANABASIS, from *ἀναβαίνω*, *to aſcend*. It is ſynonymous with epactmaſtica, both being epithets of fevers, which, in their progreſs, continually increaſe. Or, it is the ſecond ſtage of a diſeaſe, of which theacme is the height.

ANABATICA, i. e Synochus.

ANABOLE, from *ἀναβάλλω*, *to caſt up*. The diſcharging any thing as by vomit.

ANABROCHISMOS, or Anabrochiſmus, from *ἀνὰ*, *ſurſum*, and *βρόχος*, *a nooſe*. An operation which was uſed to be performed on the hair of the eye-lids when they are offenſive to the eye.

ANABROSIS, from *ἀναβρώσκω*, *to devour*. A corroſion of the ſolid parts by ſharp humours. The ſame as diabroſis, it occaſions a diſcharge of blood, and often happens in the lungs.

ANABULA. A name of the camelopardalis.

ANACAMPSEROS. A name of the Rhodia; alſo of the herb craſſula.

ANACARDIOS ANTIDOTUS THEODORETUS The antidote of anacardium. A divine gift.

It is a confect made up of many warm ingredients, but without opium.

ANACARDIUM, alſo called *anacardium* orientale, œpata anacardus, and the Malacca bean tree. It is the Avicennia tomentoſa, Linn.

It is externally of a ſhining black colour, of the ſhape of a heart flattened, with a thick pedicle occupying almoſt the whole baſis. The tree is found only in the Eaſt Indies, and is called by Ray arbor Indica fructu conoide cortice pulvinato nucleum unicum nullo officulo tectum claudente.

It is ſaid that the Indians uſe the cauſtic oil of theſe nuts to ſtain their chintz and callicoes, which ſets the colours ſo as not to wath out.

The kernel, like that of the caſhew nut, is mild and agreeable to the taſte, and yields by expreſſion, an oil like that from almonds, and equally good as a medicine.

A confect was formerly made of the kernels, called by Meſue confectio ſapientum, and by others confectio anacard.

ANACARDIUM, See ACAJAIBA.

ANACARDUS, i. e. Anacardium.

ANACATHARSIS. Expectoration, from *ἀνακαθαίρομαι*, *to purge upwards*; ſo may include the effect of emetics, maſticatories, ſternutatories, &c. See ANACATHARTICA. Dr. Cullen reckons expectoration generally a ſymptom of catarrh.

ANACATHARTICA. Medicines which promote expectoration. Dr. Cullen confines the word expectorants to thoſe medicines which increaſe the mucus by the bronchi.

ANACHMUS. An incorporeal ſpirit.

ANACHREMPSIS, from *ἀνὰ* for *ἄνω*, *upwards*, and *χρεπτόμαι*, *to hawk*. The hawking up any thing from the lungs.

ANACHRON, i. e. Anatron.

ANACLISIS, from *ἀνακλίνω*, *to recline*. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs the decubiture of the ſick.

ANACLISMOS. That part of a chair on which the back of a ſick perſon leans.

ANACOCK. The name of an American ſpecies of phaſeolus.

ANACOELIASMUS. A remedy uſed by Diocles, which ſeems to have been gentle purges, with a view to relieve the lungs.

ANACOLLEMA, from *ἀνακολλάω*, *to agglutinate*. It is the ſame as frontale, only that it is always made of glutinants.

ANACOLUPPA. A name of a ſpecies of ranunculus.

ANACOMIDE, from *ἀνακομίζω*, *to repair*, or recover a perſon after ſickneſs.

ANACTORION. A name of the corn-flag.

ANACTORIUM. Mugwort.

ANACYCLEON, from *κυκλέω*, *to wander about*. It anſwers to the word circulator, a mountebank.

ANACYRIOSIS, from *κῦρος*, *authority*. Hippocrates, in his treatiſe of decency, adviſes phyſicians to keep up their authority, and the dignity of their profeſſion, which he expreſſeth by this word.

ANADENDROMALACHE. A name for the marſh-mallow.

ANADENDRON. A name for the marſhmallow.

ANADIPLOSIS. A frequent reduplication of fevers. Blancard.

ANADOSIS, from *ἀναδίδωμι*, *to diſtribute*. The diſtribution of the aliment over all the body.

ANADROME, from *δρόμος*, *to run*. Hippocartes uſes this word to ſignify pains from the lower to the upper parts of the body.

ANAEDROMOS, from *δρόμος*, *to run*. It is uſed as an epithet for thoſe fiſh, which at certain ſeaſons, aſcend from the ſea up rivers.

ANAESTHESIA. Inſenſibility, or loſs of feeling by the touch. A reſolution of the nerves occaſioning loſs of feeling. Dr. Cullen ranks this genus of diſeaſes in the claſs locales and the order dyſeſtheſiæ.

ANAGALLIS, called alſo corchoron and pimpernel. The ſpecies generally noticed are

The male, or red; and

The female, or blue.

Ray adds three more ſpecies.

It ſhould be obſerved, that the *anagallis* of the Greeks is the macia of the Latins.

This plant is low and ſucculent, differing in its appearance from chickweed by the ſpots underneath its leaves, in having no pedicles, in the ſeed-veſſels opening not at the top but horizontally, in the flowers not being white but red or blue; it is annual, grows wild in corn-fields and other cultivated ground, and flowers from May to Auguſt.

The expreſſed juice inſpiſſated to an extract, manifeſts a pungent ſaline auſterity, and any other preparation ſeems uſeleſs; it is reſolvent and detergent. The ſpecies uſed in medicine is the *anagallis* arvenſis, Linn.

Cattle are ſaid to ſhun the female ſpecies, but if by chance they eat it, they ſeek the ſerus oculus as a remedy.

ANAGALLIS AQUATICA. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of veronica, of the ſamolus, and of the becabunga.

ANAGARGALICTA. Gargariſms, from γαργαρεων, *the throat*.

ANAGARGARISTON. A gargariſm to waſh the throat with in a quinſy.

ANAGLYPHE, from ανα and γλυφω, *to engrave*. Herophilus calls a part of the fourth ventricle of the brain thus. Anatomiſts now call it calamus ſcriptorius, from its reſemblance to a pen.

ANAGYRIS, or Anagyros. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of laburnum.

ANAISTHESIA. See ANAESTHESIA.

ANAISTHESIS. Aretæus ſays it is not properly a pareſis; and that is only a defect of ſenſation.

ANALCES, from α, neg. and αλκη, *ſtrength*; weak, effeminate. Hippocrates uſes this word as an epithet for the Aſiatic nations.

ANALDES, from α, neg. and αλδαω, *to increaſe*. Not receiving nouriſhment nor increaſing. Hippocrates applies this word to fruits growing about the river Phaſis.

ANALENTIA. A ſpecies of epilepſy mentioned by Paracelſus.

ANALEPSIA. Johannes Anglicus calls that ſpecies of epilepſy thus, which proceeds from the ſtomach being diſordered.

ANALEPSIS, from αναλαμβανω, *to recover* and *regain vigour after ſickneſs*. Hence analeptica.

ANALEPTICA. Analeptics. Its derivation the ſame with analepſis. They are ſuch things as reſtore, particularly ſuch as exhilerate the ſpirits too; theſe are called cordials: they are alſo ſuch as promote fleſh and ſtrength, and are called reſtoratives.

Beſides the nutritious quality of reſtoratives, they have a ſweet, fragrant, ſubtile, oleous principle, which immediately affects the nerves, and gives a kind of friendly motion to the fluids.

In diſeaſes the ſpeedieſt way to reſtore ſtrength is to remove the cauſe; but this is not to be done merely by the force of medicines, which increaſe the vital heat; for in convulſions and fevers, the motions are very ſtrong, and yet the natural ſtrength is languid: whence it is concluded, that true ſtrength depends upon congruous aliments, turned into laudable blood and juices, yielding plenty of animal heat, the true and only ſource of firmneſs and vigour.

Cordial flowers and herbs, muſk, ambergriſe, oil of cinnamon made into olea ſaccharums, chocolate, ſhell-fiſh, &c. are *analeptic*.

ANALGESIA, from α, neg. and αλγος, *pain* or *grief*. Indolence, or abſence of pain and grief. A ſtate of eaſe.

ANALLIS. A Greek name of an unknown plant.

ANALOGIA, from αναλογιζομαι, *to compare*, or liken one thing with another.

ANALTHES, from α, neg. and αλθω, *to cure*. Incurable.

ANALTOS, from α, neg. and αλς, *ſalt*. Unſalted.

ANALYSIS, from αναλυω, *to reſolve*. It is the reducing by chemiſtry any matter into its primary conſtituent parts, with a view to diſcover its component parts.

To *analyſe* mineral waters, ſee ACIDULÆ.

As to the *analyſation* of vegetables, the uſual methods obtain the ſame things from different plants, e. g. by diſtillation is ſeparated oil, phlegm, ſalt, and earth; put cabbage in one retort, and deadly nightſhade in another, and the different productions will not eaſily be diſcovered; ſo whether theſe productions exiſted in the ſame manner in the plants is not eaſily to aſcertain. However, moderate heat and fermentation are the beſt methods known for *analyſing* vegetables.

In *analyſing* vegetables, many uſeful facts are obſerved, which reward the toil, that is diſappointed as to the object ſought: thus volatile ſalts riſe before water, but if the ſalts are entangled in other matters, the water may riſe firſt.

Again, animal ſubſtances contain much acid, yet the uſual methods of *analyſing* diſcovers none. To diſcover an acid not perceptible by the taſte, turnſole is the beſt means, the ſlighteſt acid turns it red; a ſtronger acid turns it of a deeper red. To diſcover an alcali, acids are uſed, which diſcover it by fermenting therewith; or a ſolution of merc. cor. alb in water, which by mixing with an alcali, becomes of a yellow or orange colour, or it appears milky or obſcure, or curdles, according to the different ſtrength of the alcali. Sal ammoniac diſcovers itſelf by a urinous ſmell, if mixed with lime-water; nitre diſcovers itſelf beſt by detonation; vitriol blackens gall, &c. &c.

See the preface to Martin's Tournefort; the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences, for the years 1719, 1720, and 1721; Dr. James's Med. Dict. article ANALYSIS: Lemery and Homberg too deſerve attention on this ſubject.

ANA-MALLU. The name of a ſhrub in the Braſils, of no great importance in medicine.

ANAMNESTICA. Medicines which reſtore the memory.

ANAMNESTICA SIGNA, from ανα and μιμνησκω, *to remember*. Commemorative ſigns, i. e. ſigns which diſcover the preceding ſtate of the body, as demonſtrative ſigns ſhews the preſent ſtate; and prognoſtics ſhew the future ſtate. Blancard explains this word as expreſſing remedies which reſtore the memory.

ANANAS. The pine apple. The bromelia of Linn.

Monſ. Le Cour, of Leyden, was the firſt who raiſed this fruit in Europe: they were brought from the Eaſt Indies to the Weſt, and from thence into Europe. It reſembles the cone or fruit of a pine-tree, whence it is ſuppoſed to take its name.

Miller enumerates ſix ſpecies, and others add more to his liſt.

The flower is funnel-ſhaped, conſiſting of one leaf; the ſeeds are in the tubercles; they are ſmall, and ſhaped like a kidney-bean; the fruit is fleſhy, and full of a juice, which is eſteemed the richeſt of all others in its flavour; the leaves reſemble thoſe of aloes.

ANANCE, from αναγκη, *neceſſity*. Any deſperate ſurgical operation.

ANANDROI. Hippocrates uſes this word joined with γυναικες, *women*, to expreſs their never having known men.

ANANTHOCYCLUS. A plant, called by Mr. Vaillant, couroune effleuree. Its Greek name is derived from ανευ, *without*, ανθος, *a flower*, and κυκλος, *a circle*. This flower is crowned with one or more circular ranks of ovatic, deſtitute of flowrets.

In the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences, for the year 1710, are two ſpecies.

ANAPALIN. On the contrary or oppoſite ſide.

In inflammations of the liver, a criſis of blood diſcharged from the noſe is by the right noſtril; and in an inflammation of the ſpleen by the left.

It hath been long obſerved, that nature endeavours with more vigour, and better ſucceſs, to free herſelf by the paſſages on the ſame ſide the diſeaſe.

ANAPHALANTIASIS, from αναφαλαντος, *a bald perſon*. Baldneſs of the eye-brows.

ANAPHONESIS. A ſpecies of exerciſe which conſiſted in vociferation.

It exerciſes the breaſt and organs of ſpeech, increaſes the natural heat, improves the complexion, and is uſeful for the phlegmatic. It is commended to thoſe who have the heart-burn, bad digeſtion, and want of appetite, the cachectic, &c. but ſinging is yet a gentler exerciſe. See Hieron Mercurialis de Arte Gymnaſtica.

ANAPHORA, from αναφερω, *to bring up*, or *upwards*. In a medical ſenſe it imports ſpitting of blood if joined

with αἷματος. Hippocrates in his de Arte, uſes it for thanks due to an obligation.

ANAPHORICOI. Thoſe who ſpit blood; or, according to Actuarius, thoſe who ſpit difficultly.

ANAPHRA, from α, neg. and ἀφρὸς, *froth*. Hippocrates uſes it as an epithet for ſtools, to expreſs that they are not frothy.

ANAPHRODISIA, from α, neg. and ἀφροδίσια, *venery*. Impotence with reſpect to venereal commerce. Dr. Cullen makes this a genus of diſeaſe, in the claſs locales, and order dyſorexiæ.

ANAPHROMELI, from α, neg. ἀφρὸς, *froth*, and μέλι, *honey*. It is honey ſo deſpumated that it will not froth.

ANAPLASIS, from ἀναπλάσσω, *to reſtore to the original form*. Hippocrates uſes this word for the replacing a fractured bone, and for a reſtoration of fleſh.

ANAPLEROSIS, from ἀναπληρόω, *to fill up*. The reſtitution of any waſted part. Incarnatives are called anaplerotica.

ANAPLEUSIS, from ἀναπλέω, *to fluctuate* or *float upon*, or *waſh out*. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs when faulty humours rot the bone, ſo that it falls out of its joint, as happens to the jaw ſometimes. Vogel expreſſes by this word, the ſcaling or ſeparation of the carious parts of a bone.

ANAPNEUSIS, from ἀναπνέω, *to reſpire*. Reſpiration, tranſpiration. Aretæus uſes it to expreſs a truce from pain.

ANAPODOPHYLLON, of *anas*, *a duck*, πούς, *a foot*, and φύλλον, *a leaf*. Duck's foot, or pomum maiale, May apple.

The cup of the flower hath but one leaf, the flower is hexapetalous, the foot-ſtalk of the flower comes from the ſtalk of the leaf; the fruit is the ſhape of an urn, in which are round fimbriated ſeeds.

The Americans call it black ſnake root.

It bears the hardeſt winter in open ground, and is increaſed by parting the root in Auguſt.

ANAPSYXIS. Refrigeration.

ANARISITESIS, from α, neg. and ἄριστον, *a dinner*. Hippocartes uſes this word for the ſubtraction of a dinner from a patient.

ANARRHINUM, i. e. Antirrhinum.

ANARRHŒA, from ἀνὰ, *upward*, and ῥέω, *to flow*. A flux of humours from below upwards.

ANARTHROI, from α, neg. and ἄρθρον, *a joint*. Fat, even to be bloated, ſo that the joints are obliterated.

ANAS. The duck.

The tame *duck* is not ſo proper for weak ſtomachs that are cold and abound with acids, as the wild ſort. Theſe latter ſort, in common with all wild fowl, are more alkaleſcent.

ANASARCA, from ἀνὰ, *through*, and σαρξ, *fleſh*, or in the fleſh. A ſpecies of dropſy from a ſerous humour, ſpread between the ſkin and fleſh, or rather a general accumulation of lymph in the cellular ſyſtem.

Dr. Cullen ranks this genus of diſeaſes in the claſs cachexia, and order intumeſcentiæ: he enumerates the following ſpecies, viz. 1. *Anaſarca* ſeroſa, as when the due diſcharge of ſerum is ſuppreſſed, &c. 2. *Anaſarca* oppilata, as when the blood veſſels are conſiderably preſſed, which happens to many pregnant women, &c. 3. *Anaſarca* exanthematica; this happens after ulcers, various eruptive diſorders, and particularly after the eryſipelas. 4. *Anaſarca* anæmia, when the blood is rendered extremely poor from conſiderable loſſes of it. 5. *Anaſarca* debilium, as when feebleneſs is induced by long illneſs, &c.

An œdema in any part hath the ſame appearances as the *anaſarca*, but it is partial; a leucophlegmatia is general; and an *anaſarca* is the worſt ſtate of the leucophlegmatia.

Its ſeat is the cellular membrane; if only one limb, or a particular part, hath its cellular membrane filled, it is called an œdematous ſwelling.

It is known by the ſight and the touch; the ſkin of the part is bloated, and conſiderably larger than in a natural ſtate; its colour is paler, and upon preſſing it with a finger, the impreſſion remains ſome time: if the belly is affected, the navel appears to be ſunk in, and in a morning the eye-lids, or the whole face, appears fuller than is uſually obſerved in the latter part of the day.

The occaſional cauſes are ſcirrhous glands, a bad habit, voracious eating when recovering from a diſeaſe, ſuppreſſion of periodical evacuations, &c. The more immediate cauſes are a defect of red globules in the blood, and want of power in the abſorbent veſſels to carry off the portion of fluid conveyed into the cellular membrane.

Perſons recovering from lingering diſeaſes are very ſubject to this kind of dropſy, particularly if they keep late hours, or repleniſh their weak veſſels too faſt by full diet. Expoſure to cold and damp air, particularly in the night, may be the check it gives to the natural diſcharge by the ſkin, diſpoſe to and produce this complaint.

The ſpeedieſt cure when the caſe is recent, is calomel, given to gr. x. with proper intervals to prevent a ſalivation, eſpecially if aſſiſted with ℥ vi. or viii. of a ſtrong decoction of garlic, two or three times a day.

Muſtard and horſe-radiſh may be freely eaten, or infuſions of them in white wine, ale, or water, may be drank three or four times a day. Infuſions of garlic, or of juniper berries may be taken night and morning, with from ʒ i. to ʒ iij of any fixed alkaline ſalt in each draught. Bitters, mild aromatics, and chalybeate tinctures, greatly aſſiſt in the cure: the ſquil pills and Dover's ſudorific powder, given from ℈ i. to ℈ ij. at bed-time, two, three, or four nights ſucceſſively do the ſame. Dr. Leake obſerves, that as this diſeaſe generally ariſes from a ſtoppage of the pores, ſweating in flannels will be a rational attempt to relieve; to this end the pulv. ſudorif. Doveri in a ſufficient quantity, may be repeated every other night. A moderate ſweating ſhould be kept up, and the patient ſupported with occaſional doſes of the julep. e camph. The ſweating abated, let the patient gradually cool, then his ſkin may be rubbed with hot flannel, after which dry linen may be put on.

During the intervals of ſweating, endeavour to ſtrengthen by the uſe of the bark, chalybeates, elixir of vitriol, exerciſes, &c. To prevent a relapſe, if the viſcera will admit, the cold-bath will be the moſt adviſeable.

Scarfications with a knife are much commended when the legs and thighs are turgid with extravaſated ſerum, and indeed the water is ſpeedily diſcharged this way; but ſome inconveniencies attend this practice; firſt, the lips of the wound will cloſe in two days, ſo as to admit of no diſcharge; from a defect of heat in the conſtitution, the part is apt to mortify. To obviate theſe difficulties, Dr. Fothergill adviſes this operation to be performed with the "common ſcarificator uſed in cupping, and the inſtrument to be placed ſo as to make the wounds tranſverſely; if the ſkin is thick the lancet may be ſo ſet as to make deeper and conſequently wider inciſions: thus a large quantity of water will often drain from the legs or thighs, without riſk of inflammation, or deterring the patient from a repetition, if it is neceſſary. To proceed with the greateſt utility, let the punctures be made with a lancet, in the moſt depending part, viz. the foot; their number and repetition muſt depend on the circumſtances of each individual caſe. The application of glaſſes, either before or after ſcarifying, is unneceſſary, but the inſtrument muſt be gently preſſed upon the ſkins until a ſurface is formed ſufficiently flat to admit the lancets, in the ſcarificator, to take effect equally. By making theſe openings tranſverſely, the fluid is more freely diſcharged, and they are longer before they unite. In all caſes where the ſkin is ſo ſtretched as to threaten inflammation, a rupture or a gangrene, theſe openings ſhould be made without delay; alſo when the breath is much affected." See Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 120, 122. Dr. Leake's Medical Inſtructions, edit. v.

See Le Dran's Operations, edit. ii. p. 113—116. The London Practice of Phyſic, edit. ii.

ANASPASIS, from ἀνὰ and σπάω, *to draw*. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs a contraction of the ſtomach.

ANASSUTOS, from ἀνὰ for ἄνω, *upwards*, and σεύω, *to move*. Hippocrates uſes this word as an epithet to air, when ſpeaking of the ſuffocation obſerved in hyſteric fits, and the air ruſhing out with violence upwards, as alſo in ſighting.

ANASTALTICA, from ἀναστέλλω, *to contract*.

Styptic

Styptic or reſtringent medicines.

ANASTASIS, from ἀνάστημι, *to cauſe to riſe*. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs a riſing up to go to ſtool; alſo a migration of humours, and a riſing up or recovery from ſickneſs.

ANASTOICHEIOSIS, from στοιχεῖον, *a principle* or *element*, of which bodies are compoſed.

A waſting of the ſolids or fluids of the body.

ANASTOMOSIS, from ἀναστομόω or ἀνὰ *per*, and στόμα, *a mouth*. To relax or open the mouths of the veſſels. The opening of the mouths of the veſſels to diſcharge their contained fluids. Anatomiſts uſe the word to expreſs the inoſculation of the arteries and veins, or their running into one another.

The menſes, &c. diſcharged, are ſaid to be diſcharged per anaſtomoſin, i. e. by the opening the mouths of the veſſels.

The blood tranſuding through the ſides of the veſſels, the diſcharge is ſaid to be per diapedeſin.

If the veſſels are corroded by acrid humours the diſcharge is by diabroſin.

ANASTOMOTICA. Medicines are thus called that open the mouths of the veſſels.

ANAT. The abbreviation of anatomica.

ANATES. A diſeaſe of the anus.

ANATHRON. A ſort of ſalt which vegetates on rocks in the form of white ſtoney moſs. It is a ſort of nitre.

ANATHYMIASIS, from θυμιάω, *to fumigate*. It ſignifies evaporation.

ANATICA PROPORTIO, from *ana anatic*, or equal parts.

ANATOMIA, ἀνατομή, from ἀνὰ, *through*, and τέμνω, *to cut*, or from ἀνατίθημι, *to diſſect*.

Celſus obſerves, that "though many things do not belong to the arts themſelves, yet thoſe very things prove uſeful to them." So though *anatomy* does not form the phyſician, it renders him better qualified for the practice of his profeſſion. *Anatomy* is the art of diſſecting an animal (eſpecially the human body) in order to demonſtrate the matter, ſhape, ſtructure, connection, and ſituation of the parts; this, though it does not cure, it hath a tendency to make the cure proceed both more ſafely and agreeably. In ſhort, whatever perfection the art of healing might have riſen to by the aid of practical experiments and obſervation, it cannot be denied that its greateſt lights were received from *anatomy* and phyſiology. To know the peculiar ſtructure of each part, its uſe, what functions it performs, what connection it hath with other parts, and influence on them, whether near or remote, are advantages too obvious to be denied.

In applying topical remedies, *anatomy* bids us expect leſs effect from them on the hip than on other parts of the body, becauſe of the quantity of fat there and the thickneſs of the muſcles. The fat about the region of the ſtomach, forbids external medicines for the relief of that viſcus from being applied there, but directs them on the ſpine of the back, or rather on the left ſide of the ſpine, about and under the falſe ribs, not but medicines do ſervice on all theſe parts. The linea alba, being the tendons of almoſt all the abominal muſcles, applications on it are peculiarly uſeful, hence fat rubbed on the navel procures ſtools; gall rubbed there, expels worms; civet rubbed on this part relieves in the convulſive colic; and a ſuppreſſion of urine is removed by applying the oil of turpentine to the ſame place.

The ſympathy of the nerves leads us to diſtinguiſh many diſeaſes, the ſeat of which is in one part of the body, whilſt a very diſtant one is the part complained of. The intercoſtal branch, and the eighth pair of nerves, run almoſt all over the body.

The greateſt geniuſes find that their enquiry cannot be too minute in this branch of phyſic, and the moſt eminent profeſſors and practitioners have, at all times, endeavoured to increaſe their acquaintance therewith.

Hippocrates, though he only once had the opportunity of viewing a human ſkeleton, yet uſed every method in his power to inform himſelf in this branch of his art, and hath left behind a tolerably good deſcription of the human bones.

After Hippocrates, Alcmæon of Crotona, Ariſtotle, Herophilus, Eraſiſtratus, Aretæus, Praxagoras, Galen, Oribaſius, Nemeſius, Mundinus, Alexander Achilinus, Guido de Cauliaco, Jacobus Berengarius Carpenſis, Nicolaus Maſſa, Andreas Veſalius, Jacobus Sylvius, Michaelus Servetus, Realdus Columbus, Ambroſius Paræus, Bartholomæus Euſtachianus, Volcherus Coiter, Andreas Cæſalpinus, Hieronymus Fabricius ab Aquapendente, William Harvey, Theophilus Bonetus, William Cooper, James Douglas, Clopton Havers, Marcellus Malpighius, Nathaniel Highmore, Anthony Nuck, Pecquet, Monro, ſen. Morgagni, Needham, Nicholls, Ruyſch, Steno, Winſlow, Cheſelden, and many others, who, as phyſicians, ſurgeons, or both, did honour to their profeſſion.

The firſt anatomical publication in the Engliſh language was, the Engliſhman's Treaſure, or the true *Anatomy* of Man's Body, by Thomas Vicary, Surgeon, in London. It was printed and reprinted three or four times between the years 1548, and 1633.

It is the advice of the greateſt anatomiſts, that authors on this ſubject ſhould not be read before an acquaintance with the parts is in ſome degree obtained, by ſeeing bodies diſſected; until then, books rather tend to retard than to facilitate the progreſs. When by ſeeing all the parts demonſtrated, and their uſes explained, the ſtudent hath a clear idea of them, then reading will be neceſſary, both to fix the impreſſion on the mind, and to inform him of different opinions and diſputed points: for now there is not ſo much danger of being prejudiced in favour of this or that doctrine, as he is in ſome degree qualified for ſettling what is juſt and good, and of rejecting the erroneous.

Thoſe whoſe ſituation, &c. does not favour their attendance on diſſection, may acquire a good general knowledge of the *anatomy* of a human body, from the peruſal of Keil's Abridgment of *Anatomy*, Cheſelden's, and Northcote's *Anatomy*. Winſlow's *Anatomy* ſeems beſt calculated for the attention of thoſe who have already been familiar with diſſections, and the demonſtrations given by able anatomiſts.

The Anatomical Tables of Albinus, and of Euſtachius, ſhould be attended to. N. B. Albinus's edition of Euſtachius is the beſt. Cooper's Tables are the moſt elegant: Jenty's tables are alſo truly valuable.

ANALON, i. e. Anatron.

ANATRESIS, from ἀνὰ, and τράω, *to perforate*. Galen uſes this word to expreſs trepanning.

ANATRIS. Mercury.

ANATRON, alſo called natron, ſoude blanche, nitrum antiquorum, litron, aphronitrum, baurach, ſal alkalinus ſalis marini, barilla, ſoda, ſalitron, and bariglia.

The *anatron* of the ancients, called natron by the Egyptians, is the mineral fixed alcaline ſalt. From ſea ſalt, and from the waters of many ſprings, a pure alcaline ſalt is obtained by boiling the latter to dryneſs, and diſtilling the acid ſpirit from the former; which proves the aſſertion to be falſe, that declares the burning of vegetables to be the *only* way of procuring fixed alcaline ſalt.

On the Peak of Teneriffe, the inhabitants call it ſalitron, which is their name for ſalt-petre alſo.

This mineral alcaline ſalt differs from the vegetable fixed alcali in its being milder and leſs acrid to the taſte, melting more eaſily in the fire, requiring more water to diſſolve it, in its concreting into cryſtalline maſſes on evaporation after ſolution in water, not running into a liquid by expoſure to the air, and in being a leſs powerful ſolvent of the ſtone in the bladder.

With this mineral alcali, the Spaniſh ſoap is made. This ſalt, joined with the oil of vitriol, forms the ſal. Glaub. ver. with the nitrous acid, the nitrum cubicum; and with the marine acid, pure ſea-ſalt; and with vegetable acid, the ſal Rupellenſe.

Anatron is a name of the ſpume or gall of glaſs, which bubbles on the ſurface while in the furnace; it is alſo the name of the terra Saracenica, of which are three kinds, the red, black, and azure; and laſtly, of a white ſtoney excreſcence which is found on rocks, growing there ſomewhat in the form of moſs.

ANATROPE, from ἀναστρέφω, *to ſubvert*. A ſubverſion or relaxation of the ſtomach, with loſs of appetite and nauſea. Vogel ſays it is a want of appetite with nauſea.

ANATRUM, i. e. Anatron.

ANATUM. Egg-ſhells.

ANAUDIA. A name of the catalepſis.

ANAUDOS, from *α*, neg. and *αὐδὴ*, *ſpeech*. Galen ſays it means one who hath loſt the uſe of ſpeech, but retains his voice; whereas aphonia ſignifies the loſs of voice.

ANAVINGA. The name of a tree growing in Malabar. It is an ever-green, and its fruit ripens in Auguſt. Raii Hiſt. Plant.

ANAXYRIS. A name of the lapathum agreſte.

ANBLATUM. The greateſt toothwort.

ANCHA, i. e. Coxa.

ANCHÆ (os.) The thigh bone.

ANCHILOPS, or Anchylops. See ÆGYLOPS.

ANCHOAS. The Mexican name for the male ginger.

ANCHORALIS (PROCESSUS.) i. e. Proceſſus coracoides.

ANCHUSA, called alſo alcibiadion, bugloſſum radice rubra, onoclea, alcanna, and alkanet root. It is the *anchuſa* tinctoria, or *anchuſa* tomentoſa, foliis lanceolatis obtuſis, ſtaminibus corolla brevioribus. Lin.

The alkanet plant is rough, hairy, and perennial, with unbranched procumbent ſtalks. It is of the bugloſs kind, and differs from the common bugloſs chiefly in the red colour of the roots. It grows wild about Montpelier, and in the eaſtern countries; it is cultivated in ſome of our gardens, but the roots produced in this clime are paler coloured than thoſe from abroad.

The roots are of a deep purpliſh colour outwardly, they give out a deep red colour to oil, wax, all unctuous ſubſtances, to ſpirit of wine, and ſpirit of turpentine. $\frac{1}{10}$th part of the bark of this root colours $\frac{1}{100}$th of any of the above matters; by a gentle heat they moſt perfectly extract its colour.

There is another ſpecies called alcibiadium, onochiles, onochelis, and rexis anebion. Its principal difference is, that its leaves are ſmaller.

A third ſort, with ſmaller ſeeds, is ſaid to deſtroy the broad worm, if taken in doſes of half an ounce.

ANCHUSA LUTEA. Yellow alkanet. Of this there are ſeveral ſpecies, but they have no medical properties attributed to them.

ANCHUSA LUTEA MINOR. A ſpecies of comfrey.

ANCHYLE, i. e. Anchyloſis. A contraction of a joint, or the back part of the knee.

ANCHYLOMERISMA. In Sagar's Noſology, it ſignifies a concretion, or growing together of the ſoft parts.

ANCHYLOPS, from *ἀγκύλη*, *a ſtricture*. See ÆGILOPS. It is the fiſtula lachrymalis in its beginning inflamed ſtate.

ANCHYLOSIS, from *ἀγκύλος*, *crooked*; it is alſo called ancyle, ancyloſis, anchyle, and a ſtiff joint. It is a ſpecies of contracture, in Cullen's Noſology. Some diſtinguiſh this diſorder thus: ancyle, is when the bones are immoveable, and the joint in a bent poſition; but if the limb is ſtraight, it is named orthocolon. Petit divides this caſe into the true and falſe; the true are ſuch wherein the bones are united ſo as to become as it were one; the falſe is when from the tendons being contracted, or other parts about the joint are diſeaſed, the limb is rendered immoveable.

The bones are covered at their ends where they form joints, with cartilages, to facilitate their motion, and to prevent any farther production of bone; and if theſe cartilages ſhould be eroded, there will be an excreſcence conſequently thereon, which will produce this diſorder: however, it is ſometimes a cure of ſome other worſe misfortune.

The general cauſes are a caries, abſceſſes in the joints producing caries, oſſification of the ligaments, ſtrumous and ricketty diſorders, contraction of the tendons.

When the bones are united, the cure is impoſſible; and whatever elſe is the cauſe, the cure is very uncertain, on account of the difficulty of coming at the ſeat of the diſeaſe; and, indeed, often from the difficulty of knowing what part about the joint is the part primarily and principally affected, or even in any degree the cauſe.

The moſt ſimple caſe of this kind is that from a long confinement of the limb to one poſition; an inflammatory affection of the ligaments, from external injuries, is generally very difficult to remove; rheumatic and arthritic matter falling on the joint is hardly to be removed; but the worſt is what is commonly called a white ſwelling, which is moſt probably owing to a ſcrophulous virus.

On diſſection, after the appearance called a white ſwelling, there is always found a great thickening of the ligaments, which ſo confounds the ſeveral parts, that they can ſcarce be diſtinguiſhed, together with crude matter forming ſinuſes through this undiſtinguiſhed maſs; and generally an eroſion of the cartilages at the end of the bones.

If the cauſe is a rigidity of the tendons, emollient topics are the proper means of relief. Dr. Lobb, from obſerving the glovers ſoften hard leather, with a mixture of the yolk of egg and water, propoſed it in ſome inſtances of this kind with the beſt ſucceſs: his preſcription is as follows:

Egg Liquor.

Take the yolk of a new-laid egg, beat it with a ſpoon to a water, then, by a ſpoonful at a time, add ſix table ſpoonfuls of pure water, ſhaking the mixture well, that the water and egg may be well mixed; this done, apply it by gently rubbing it on the contracted part three or four times a day; rub it for a few minutes each time, and let a freſh mixture be made every day.

Others commend mucilaginous oils, of which the ol. e pedib. bovon. is the beſt.

If an inflammatory ſtate of the ligaments is the cauſe, remedies that are known to reſolve inflammation in deep ſeated parts are the moſt proper; theſe are medicaments of the aſtringent and ſtimulant kind, and not emollients. Bliſters, the moſt powerful remedies of this ſort, have in many inſtances ſucceeded in this caſe, whilſt it was in a recent ſtate.

In more inveterate caſes a few cures have been effected by the pump. Warm water pumped upon the diſeaſed part, and falling from a conſiderable height upon it, hath by repetition been ſucceſsful. The warm bath hath had the like happy effects by continuing an hour or more at a time in it, and repeating the ſame for ſeveral days ſucceſſively. After the bath or the pumping, emollients muſt be applied.

In ſcrophulous caſes, all means hitherto uſed fail; however, as palliatives, when the tumor burſts into ulcers, the ſaturnine water of Goulard, and ſuch like preparations, are conſiderably beneficial.

See Petit on the Diſeaſes of the Bones. Heiſter's Surgery. Mem. de l'Acad. Royale des Sciences, an. 1721, and 1728. Aikins's Obſ. on the Preparations of Lead.

ANCHYNOPES, a name of ray graſs.

ANCHYROIDES, i. e. Coracoides.

ANCI, weaſel elbowed, from *γαλὴ*, *a weaſel*, and *ἀγκων*, *an elbow*. As when the head of the humerus is in the arm-pit. Theſe patients are alſo called muſtelanei. The diſorder which this name expreſſes, is, when the humerus is luxated in the uterus, or in infancy when an abſceſs thruſts out of the head of the bone.

ANCINAR. Borax.

ANCON, i. e. Olecranon.

ANCONÆUS, from *ἀγκων*, *the elbow*, (MUSCULUS). It riſes by a round ſhort tendon from the outer condyle of the os humeri backwards; it ſoon grows fleſhy, and is inſerted into the ulna about three inches below its head, ſerving to extend the arm. This muſcle is reckoned by ſome as a part of the brachiæus externus; from which in diſſection it cannot be ſeparated without violence.

ANCORA. Lime.

ANCORALIS, i. e. Anchoralis.

ANCOSA, i. e. Lacca.

ANCTER. The Greek term for the fibula, or button, by which the lips of wounds are held together, which operation Galen calls *ἀγκτηριασμος*, (ancteriaſmus).

ANCTERIASMOS, i. e. Ancter.

ANCUBITUS. That affection of the eyes in which they ſeem to contain ſand. It is alſo called petrification.

ANCUNULENTÆ. Women are ſo called during the time of menſtruation. *Ancunulenta* is compoſed of *an*, for *ἀνα*, and *cunio*, *quaſi*, *κονιαω*, *to pollute*. From the Greek *κονις*, comes the Latin *cœnum*, whence are derived *cunire* and *inquinare*.

ANCUS, a name for ſuch as have an arm bent, ſo that that they cannot extend it, from *αγκων*, *an elbow*. See ANCI.

ANCYLE.

ANCYLE. & Anchyloſis. See ANCHYLOSIS.

ANCYLOBLEPHARON, from ἀγκύλη, *bent*, and βλεφαρον, *an eye-lid*. A diſeaſe of the eye which cloſes the eye-lids. Vogel defines it to be the gluing together of the upper and under eye-lid.

Sometimes the eye lids grow together, and alſo to the tunica albuginea of the eye, from careleſſneſs when there is an ulcer in theſe parts. Both theſe caſes are called *ancyloblepharon* by the Greeks.

This diſorder muſt be diſtinguiſhed from that coalition of the eye-lids, which happens from viſcid matter gluing them together.

If the coheſion is on the cornea, the ſight is inevitably loſt. This ſometimes hath happened in the ſmall pox.

If there is only a growing together of the eye-lids, ſeparate them with the ſpecillum, or keep pledgits between them to prevent the re-union.

If the eye-lids adhere to the eye, after ſeparating them they are apt to re-unite, but may be prevented by a proper uſe of injections, and lint placed between them, after dipping it in ſome proper liniment.

When an operation is required, place the patient in a proper poſture, then ſee if any aperture is betwixt the eye-lids; when there is, it is uſually in the great canthus: if there is none, make a perforation in either angle of the eye, then introduce a probe with a groove, and with a fine edged knife ſeparate the parts. This done, ſee if the eye-lids adhere to the eye. If they adhere to the cornea, carefully ſeparate them with a knife; if the adheſion is only to the conjunctiva, blindneſs is not a conſequence.

ANCYLOGLOSSUM, from ἀγκύλος, *crooked*, and γλωσσα, *the tongue*. A contraction of the ligaments of the tongue: tongue-tied. Vogel defines it to be an adheſion of the tongue to the adjacent parts, ſo as to hinder ſucking, ſwallowing, and ſpeaking.

Some have this imperfection from their birth, others from ſome diſeaſe. In the firſt caſe, the membrane which ſupports the tongue is too ſhort or too hard; in the latter, an ulcer under the tongue, healing and forming a cicatrix, is ſometimes the cauſe; theſe ſpeak with ſome difficulty, and are called by the Greeks μογιλάλοι.

The ancyloglooſſi by nature are late before they ſpeak, but when they begin they ſoon ſpeak properly: theſe we call tongue-tied. Mauriceau ſays, that in this caſe it is a ſmall membranous production, which extends from the frænulum to the tip of the tongue, that hinders the child from ſucking, &c. He forbids the cruel practice among nurſes, of tearing this membrane with their nails, for thus ulcers are ſometimes formed, which are of difficult cure; and he adviſes to ſnip it with ſciſſars in two or three places, being careful not to extend the points of the ſciſſars ſo far as the frænulum. When the child's tongue is tied, it is obſerved not to ſuck very freely, he loſes his hold of the nipple very frequently, and whilſt ſucking he makes a chucking kind of a noiſe. The inſtances rarely occur which require any kind of aſſiſtance, for if the child can thruſt the tip of its tongue to the outer edge of its lip, this diſeaſe does not exiſt; and if the tongue is not greatly reſtrained, the frænulum will ſtretch by the child's ſucking and crying. Beſides, without an abſolute neceſſity for it, an operation ſhould not be admitted of; for without great circumſpection, by cutting the frænulum, the nerves paſſing there may be alſo cut, and then a loſs of ſpeech is the conſequence.

Sometimes the tongue is bound down with a fleſhy ſubſtance; when that is the caſe, it ſhould never be cut through, becauſe a dangerous hæmorrhage would follow, without any attending advantage; all that is adviſable in this circumſtance, is to adviſe the nurſe, now and then, to ſtretch it gently by a light preſſure on it with her finger end. When in conſequence of delivering a child by the feet, a ſwelling is obſerved under the tongue, the nurſe ſhould be forbid to uſe any means, for the complaint will be increaſed thereby: this tumor will ſoon ſubſide.

See Hildanus in cent. iii. Obſ. 28. where he gives an accurate account of the nature, cure, and bad effects that may follow on improper methods being uſed for the cure of this diſorder. He never cuts more of the frænum than appears ligamentous, and then orders it to be gently rubbed two or three times a day with honey of roſes.

ANCHYLOMELE, from ἀγκύλος, *crooked*, and μέλη, *a probe*. A crooked probe, or a probe with a hook.

ANCYLOSIS, i. e. Anchyloſis.

ANCYLOTOMUS, from ἀγκύλος, *crooked*, and τέμνω, *to cut*. Any crooked knife uſed in ſurgery.

ANCYRA, a hook or anchor.

ANCYROIDES, a proceſs of the ſcapula, ſo called from ἄγκυρα, *anchor*, ῥύγχος, *a beak* or *ſtake*, and εἶδος, *form*. See CORACOIDES PROCESSUS.

ANCYROMELE, i. e. Ancylomele.

ANDA. A tree growing in Braſil, with fruit which taſtes like the cheſnut, and is purgative: two or three kernels are ſufficient for a doſe. The rind of theſe kernels is aſtringent.

ANDARAC. Red orpiment.

ANDENA. Steel which melts in the fire, and may be caſt into any form.

ANDHURA. The bat or flitter-mouſe.

ANDIRA, called alſo angelyn & arbor nucifera.

It is a tree which grows in Braſil, whoſe wood is proper for building. The fruit is a yellow kernel; it is bitter, aſtringent, and, if taken inwardly, it deſtroys worms; ℈ i. of it in powder is a doſe.

There is another ſpecies, which only differs in no part of it being bitter.

ANDIRA, Andira Acu, or Andira Guacu. A large kind of bat, nearly as large as a pigeon. They are met with in Braſil, and are called by ſome horned bats, becauſe of a pliant excreſcence above the beak. They perſecute all ſorts of animals, and ſuck their blood; they get to the beds of men, and ſuck their blood.

ANDRACHNE. A name of a tree like the ſtrawberry tree, ſee ARBUTUS ANDRACHNE; alſo of the herb portulaca.

ANDRANATOME, or Androtome, from ἀνὴρ, *a man*, and τέμνω, *to cut*. The diſſection of a human body, eſpecially of a male.

ANDRAPHAX, or Andraphaxis, i. e. Atriplex olida.

ANDREAS. A phyſician who wrote much on purging medicines.

ANDRIA, from ἀνὴρ, *a man*. An hermaphrodite.

ANDRIUS, manly. It is metaphorically applied to ſtrong wine, or wine from the iſland of Andros.

ANDROGENIA, from ἀνὴρ, *a man*, and γεννάω, *to generate*. A ſucceſſion of males.

ANDROGYNE, & Androgyni, from ἀνὴρ, *a man*, and γυνὴ, *a woman*. Effeminate men, and hermaphrodites.

ANDROMACHUS. *Andromachus* the Elder was a native of Crete, in the reign of Nero. We know but little of his practice, though we have ſome compound medicines of his inventing. The moſt famous of them he calls γαλήνη, *calm* or *calm-procuring*, afterwards called theriaca. Before this, the antidote of Mithridates was in common uſe; but though this was only an imitation of Mithridates's antidote, it totally ſet Mithridates's aſide; their chief difference conſiſted in the addition of vipers to the theriaca.

This medicine of *Andromachus* hath above ſixty ingredients in it, but the vipers are what gives it its name of theriaca; for the word θηρίον, imports all fierce animals in general, but more particularly the poiſonous ſort. It is needleſs to repeat the univerſal good aſcribed to this compoſition by its author; it was his catholicon.

We will juſt obſerve how ſuch compoſitions came into practice, and what was meant by an antidote. Hippocrates, and the ancient phyſicians, founded their principal maxims in practice on their obſervation of certain motions of nature in particular diſtempers, and diet was their chief adminiſtration. Herophilus began to uſe medicines more freely, for Hippocrates uſed very few.

As to crowding ſo many drugs into one medicine, ſome ſay it was, that a concurrence of ſimilar ingredients might be more effectual; but Pliny ſays, it was only to make the people imagine ſomething more in their favour.

The word *antidote* is from two Greek words, one of which ſignifies *againſt*, the other ſignifies *given*, becauſe antidotes were given againſt poiſon, contagion, corrupted humours, &c. This word ſeems to be in the Greek both maſculine and feminine, and ſometimes neuter; the Latins ſay hæc antidotus, and hoc antidotum: but the Greeks moſt probably uſed the word at firſt as an adjective,

as in saying ἀντίδοτος, they understood or said δύναμις, *a compound* or *medicament*, i. e. an antidote of so many ingredients, an antidote for the liver, &c.

The treacle of *Andromachus* is called Venice treacle, because great quantities of it was made there, and thence transported to other countries.

The Dispensatory of the London college, which see, retains this medicine under the name theriaca *Andromachi*.

The Mithridate and the theriaca *Andromachi* may be used for each other in any case where the opium in each can make no difference in the intention of the prescriber; as these are prepared by the Dispensatory of the London college, half an ounce of the Mithridate contains one grain of opium, but there is a grain of opium in seventy-five grains of the theriaca.

ANDRONION, i. e. Andronis pastilli, or the troches of Andron. They are made with alum, balaustines, &c.

ANDROSACE, also called umbilic. marin. cochlea ecclata, acetabulum marinum minus, fungus petræus marinus, cotyledon marina, and sea navel wort. It is a submarine production, found on the rocks and shells of fishes about the coast of Montpellier, and elsewhere. It consists of numerous, slender, short filaments, more or less bent or arched, of a whitish or grey colour, hard and brittle, bearing each upon the top a striated concave body, nearly of the figure of an inverted cone.

In powder it is given as a vermifuge. It does not differ very materially from coralline. If the dried *androsace* is held in the flame of a candle, it yields a dazzling brightness, and this repeatedly for several times, and the coralline does the same.

ANDROSACES, summer navel-wort.

This is a plant which is found growing on the sea-coasts of Syria. It is called *androsaces* from its bringing relief to men. It is slender, hath thin stalks which are bitter; it is without leaves, but hath small pods on the top of these stalks, in which are the seeds. The flowers are white.

Two drams of this herb, or of its seed taken in wine, powerfully promotes urine.

ANDROSÆMUM, or Androsæmon. Also called Siciliana, clymenum Italorum, aseyroides, hypericum maximum bacciferum, ciciliana, dionysias, and some erroneously call it aseyrus. In English it is named tutsan, or all-heal, park-leaves, and St. Peter's wort. It grows in hedges and thickets, the leaves resemble those of laurel, the stalks are red, and the flowers, which blow in July and August, are yellow. Two drams of this are moderately purgative, but it is rarely used.

The name *androsæmum*, is from ἀνὴρ, *a man*, and αἷμα, *blood*, for it makes the fingers red if they rub it. Tutsan is a corruption of the French words tout-sain, which signifies all-heal.

ANDROSÆMUM. A name of St. John's wort.

ANDROTOME. See Andranatome.

ANDSJUDÆN. So Avicenna calls the assafœtida.

ANEBION. Alkanet root.

ANECPYETUS, from α, neg. and ἐκπύησις, *suppurated*. See Ecpyema.

ANEILEMA, or Aneilesis, from ἀνειλέω, *to roll up*, or *involve*. An involution, such as is caused by flatulence and gripes.

ANEMIA. The name of a disorder which Hippocrates mentions, but does not describe. It is unknown what it is.

ANEMONE. Wind-flower. Called also phenion.

There are the garden and the wild sorts, each of which are divided into many species. They are much admired in gardens, but rarely used in medicine. The root of the scarlet *anemonies* are detersive if bruised while fresh, and applied to ulcers, and on the skin it raises blisters. The herb hath been used in collyriums and errhines.

ANEMONOIDES, also called nemorosa, ranunculus phragmites albus vernus. The wood anemone.

Miller enumerates six species of it.

Its virtues as a medicine are similar to those of the garden anemone.

ANEMONOSPERMOS, from ἄνεμος, *wind*, and σπέρμα, *seed*; because the wind easily bears away the seed.

This flower was originally brought from the Cape of Good Hope, is an ornament in gardens, but of no note in medicine.

Miller reckons up four species, and Boerhaave enumerates six.

ANENCEPHALOS, from α, neg. and ἐγκέφαλος, *the brain*. Brainless, or those who are born without brains; also those who are foolish or mad.

ANEOS. Struck with the loss of voice and reason.

ANEPITHYMIÆ. Error of appetite by deficiency, as in instances of anorexia.

ANERIC, i. e. Sulphur vivum.

ANERIT, i. e. Sulphur vivum.

ANESIS. Remission.

ANESUM, i. e. Anisum.

ANET, i. e. Anethum.

ANETHOXYLA. The woody root of dill.

ANETHUM. Dill or anet. It is the *anethum* graveolens; or, *anethum* fructibus compressis, Linn.

It is an annual umbelliferous plant, with finely-divided leaves, and yellow flowers. The seeds are brown, and of an oval shape, flatted on one side, convex, and marked with three longitudinal ridges on the other; about their edges they are surrounded with a yellow leafy margin. It is a native of Spain and Portugal. By cultivation it thrives in our gardens. It flowers in July, and in September sheds its seeds, by which it is propagated.

The herb, flower, and seeds are medicinal, but the seeds only are used in the shops. They are warm, aromatic, and useful as a carminative; ʒ i. to a dose is reckoned specific in hiccoughs. They give over all their virtue by distillation to water, but not by digestion or infusion. With the distilled water there arises a considerable portion of oil, which, as a carminative against hiccoughing, from two to four drops are given for a dose. Rectified spirit of wine obtains all the virtue by digestion, but takes very little over with it by distillation. The London college orders a simple water from these seeds, as follow:

Aqua Seminum Anethi. *Water of* Dill *Seed.*

Take of *dill* seed one pound, of water enough to draw off one gallon.

ANETICUS, from ἀνίημι, *to remit*. An epithet for paregorics, or pain-easing medicines.

ANEURISMA, from ἀνευρύνω, *to dilate much*; and that from ἀνὰ, *asunder*, and εὐρὺς, *broad*.

The *aneurism* is a tumor, arising from the dilatation or rupture of the coats of an artery. Arteries only are the seat of this disorder, and any artery, in any part of the body, may be thus affected, as any vein may be the seat of a varix.

Dr. Cullen ranks this genus of diseases in the class locales, and order tumores.

Dr. Hunter divides *aneurisms* into four kinds, viz. the true, the false, the mixed, and the varicose.

First, of the true Aneurism.

The true *aneurism* is formed by a dilatation of the artery. It may happen in any part of the body, but most frequently is found in the curvature of the aorta, which is subject to this disorder from the extraordinary impulse of the blood there; from the curvature it runs upwards along the carotids, or the subclavians, generally increasing, till by its great distention it is ruptured, and the patient dies.

The degrees of the dilation of the aorta in cases of this kind are various; in some the curvature of this artery hath been so enlarged as nearly to fill the upper part of the breast. And what is peculiar, and deserving our attention, is, that the spot of the vessel, which is the weakest, and where the disease begins, is apt to be stretched more in proportion than other arteries, and to form particular cells, where they meet with firm resistance, more than where their support is soft and yielding.

The sac formed by the distension of the artery is not a distension of a particular coat, but of the whole substance of the vessel; but the thickness of the coats of these sacs will last only to a certain period, for when the vessels of the coats can no longer conform to the extension, the circulation grows languid, the sac becomes thinner at its apex, and soon after bursts: farther, as the *aneurismal* tumor increases in size, it meets with resistance from the neighbouring

bouring parts, and as the coats will be more or leſs affected, according to the degree of the reſiſtance, in ſome places they will be ſimply diſtended, in others abſolutely deſtroyed, e. g. where the *aneuriſm* preſſes againſt the diaphragm, it will be thinner than where it ſuffers no preſſure; it is ſtill thinner where it preſſes againſt the tendinous part of the diaphragm, and where it preſſeth the ſpine, it is the ſooneſt eroded through. A proof that all preſſure muſt be avoided in all inſtances of this ſort.

The blood that fills theſe humours is always fluid, by being conſtantly renewed; that is, as faſt as one drop enters another paſſes out, and continues its courſe in the circulation; but, notwithſtanding this blood is fluid, its paſſage in the tumor is retarded, and this remiſſneſs in its motion, which is more or leſs conſiderable, according to the ſize of the *aneuriſm*, occaſions ſome of the fibrous parts of the blood to ſeparate from the red part, and adhering to the internal coat of the *aneuriſm*, it there forms fibrous ſtrata, which may eaſily be taken for real membranes by thoſe not accuſtomed to obſerve them. This fibrous ſtrata cannot be diſperſed by any means, either external or internal, and preſſure cannot be uſed, becauſe thereby the coats of the artery are ſoon deſtroyed.

Secondly, of the Falſe Aneuriſm.

It is formed by a rupture or wound in the coats of the artery, and is of two kinds, viz. the diffuſed and the circumſcribed.

The diffuſed is that in which the extravaſated blood runs through the cellular membrane, in the interſtices of firmer parts; this generally makes a rapid progreſs, may extend itſelf to a great diſtance, and hath little or no pulſation, except very near the aperture of the artery; but theſe circumſtances will ſomewhat vary, according to the ſize of the opened artery and the ſtrength of the circulation. With regard to the lodgment of the fluid, this ſpecies of falſe *aneuriſm* is analogous to the emphyſema, and is the higheſt ſpecies of ecchymoſis.

The circumſcribed beats and ſinks under preſſure, like the true *aneuriſm*, and indeed cannot be diſtinguiſhed from that, except by the knowledge of its cauſe, or by a careful diſſection of the part: it appears ſoon after the accident which gave riſe to it, and is commonly ſlow and gradual in its progreſs. It happens when the orifice in the artery is very ſmall, ſo that the blood flows but leiſurely, and finds the adjacent membranes ſo firmly united as to keep it within a certain channel. It conſiſts of one bag with a ſmooth inſide, and communicates by an aperture with the cavity of the artery. This ſpecies of *aneuriſm* is, perhaps, the moſt common among thoſe that happen in the arm after bleeding, eſpecially when a conſiderable preſſure hath been made uſe of immediately after the accident.

Thirdly, of the Mixed Aneuriſm.

This is formed partly by a wound or rupture in the artery, and partly by a dilatation of the reſt. It cannot eaſily be diſtinguiſhed from the circumſcribed ſpecies of the falſe *aneuriſm*, and will often ſo emulate the true one, as not to be diſtinguiſhed from it but by a careful diſſection.

Fourthly, of the Varicoſe Aneuriſm, *or the Aneuriſmal Varix.*

This is when there is an anaſtomoſis, or an immediate communication between the artery and the vein of the part where the patient hath been let blood, in conſequence of the artery being wounded through the vein, ſo that blood paſſes immediately from the trunk of the artery into the trunk of the vein, and ſo back to the heart.

This ſpecies differs from the common ſpurious *aneuriſm* in one circumſtance only, viz. the wound remaining open in the ſide of the vein as well as in the ſide of the artery. But this one circumſtance will occaſion a great difference in the ſymptoms, the tendency of the complaint, and in the proper method of treating it.

Dr. Hunter firſt deſcribed this ſpecies of *aneuriſm*, and to him the world is indebted for many improvements reſpecting the other kinds.

Mr. Bell, in his Syſtem of Surgery, divides the *aneuriſm* into two ſpecies, viz. the encyſted, and the diffuſed. The encyſted includes all thoſe inſtances in which the coats of the artery, being only dilated, the blood is confined in its proper coat: of this kind he reckons the varicoſe *aneuriſm*. The diffuſed includes all thoſe in which from an aperture in the artery, the blood is ſpread about in the cellular membrane, out of its proper courſe.

The cauſes of *aneuriſms* are various. In the true *aneuriſm*, a particular natural weakneſs in a part of an artery is the immediate cauſe; and in general the cauſes of all the ſpecies may be one or other of the following: internally, a fulneſs of the arteries concurring with ſome violent motion, or other particular cauſe; an internal tumor preſſing on ſome part of an artery; or where there is no particular turgidneſs of the veſſels, violent action, ſudden anger, vomiting, &c. by propelling the blood too forcibly to ſome particular part; thus, by ſtretching the artery a true, or by burſting it, a falſe *aneuriſm*, or the mixed one, will be formed: convulſions, and other violent ſpaſmodic ſymptoms, and perhaps an acrimony in the blood, by favour of ſome other concurring cauſe, may itſelf be ranked in the number of internal cauſes: externally, ſtrains, blows, and punctures are the moſt frequent; preſſure uſed on a true *aneuriſm*, by burſting the coats of the artery, produces a falſe one; ſuſpending the breath, as in lifting great burthens, wreſtling, &c.

It hath been ſaid that a polypus exiſting internally, ſometimes occaſions an *aneuriſm*; but Dr. Hunter obſerves, that it rarely or never happens that a polypus is formed till the laſt moments of life, when the heart's power having nearly ceaſed, the whole blood cannot be propelled from the heart, but ſtagnates, forming polypuſes; which being found after death, have been ſuppoſed to have pre-exiſted, and to have been the cauſe of what they were only the effect.

As to internal *aneuriſms*, there is no certain criterion by which to aſcertain their exiſtence before they approach to the ſurface of the body; whatever ſymptoms they produce before they form a tumor externally, as they may be produced by other cauſes, they are but equivocal ſigns. The pathognomonic ſign of all the ſpecies of *aneuriſms* is, a perceptible pulſation in ſome part of the tumor, more or leſs manifeſt, as the artery is ſeated ſuperficially or deep. The true *aneuriſm* is generally of an oblong figure, and hath a ſtrong pulſation in it; it ſubſides on depreſſion; if it is an *aneuriſm* of the aorta, a ſtrong pulſation is perceived againſt the ſternum and ribs on every ſyſtole of the heart, and when it extends above the ſternum, there is a tumor with pulſation. Theſe tumors are without diſcolouration in the ſkin, except on the point of burſting; there is no pain in them; they ſubſide by preſſure while the blood is fluid, but when it is coagulated, they diſappear but very little thereby; if there is a ſac with a narrow baſis, the blood re-enters the artery with a hiſſing noiſe when the tumor is preſſed. Sometimes there is a redneſs from the expanſion of the parts beyond their capacity, or from the putrefaction of the blood, in which caſe there are generally a fever and fainting alſo. The common appearances of an *aneuriſm* from the wound of a lancet, are a diſcharge of blood through the orifice of the ſkin, by jerks, inſtead of an uniform ſtream; and upon being ſtopped from bleeding outwardly, an inſinuation of it among all the muſcles, as far it can ſpread, in the ſhoulder and arm, conſtituting the diffuſed *aneuriſm*: in this caſe the arm becomes livid from the ecchymoſis, and the blood coagulating prevents any ſenſible pulſation.

In the falſe kinds of *aneuriſms* the cyſt is probably formed of a portion of the aponeuroſis that runs over the veſſel, which admiting of ſome extravaſated blood underneath, it becomes exceſſively thickened and expanded; that this membrane is the cyſt, ſeems to be confirmed by our ſo readily diſcovering the puncture in the artery upon opening the tumor: or it may be formed of the cellular membrane, which admits both of thickening and expanſion.

The appearances of the varicoſe *aneuriſm* will differ from the common falſe one as follows: the vein that was punctured will become varicous, and will have a pulſatile jarring motion, on account of the ſtream from the artery; there will be a hiſſing noiſe, which will be found to correſpond with the pulſe for the ſame reaſon; the blood in the tumor will be almoſt entirely fluid, becauſe it is kept in conſtant motion: it is ſoon formed to its largeſt ſize, and

there

there remains, if it is not diſturbed by imprudent management; there are no conſiderable inconveniences conſequent. That this ſort of *aneuriſm* is preſent, may be further known by placing a finger over the orifice in the artery: thus the ſtream of blood propelled into the vein, at every pulſation, is felt; by applying the ear to the tumified vein, a tremulous motion and noiſe are perceived; by preſſing the correſponding artery, this motion, noiſe, &c. ceaſe, and on the removal of this preſſure the motions, &c. return; the artery becomes larger in the arm and ſmaller in the wriſt; the vein being emptied by preſſure, inſtantly fills again on taking the preſſure off; the pulſe at the wriſt grows weaker as the artery above enlarges.

The beginning *aneuriſm* in the aorta ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from a palpitation of the heart; from hyſterics, in which ſymptoms of ſuffocation ſometimes attend; from fever with fainting, both which are ſometimes the conſequence of a falſe *aneuriſm*; from varices of the veins and their effects; from an emphyſema; from an ecchymoſis; from encyſted ſwellings in the neck, in which are often perceived a ſtrong pulſation from the ſtroke of the adjacent artery; and from tumors formed from ruptured veins.

The *aneuriſm* of the aorta may prove fatal many ways: it more and more injures the general health, as it continues to increaſe in its ſize; it may be ſupported during many years, but there can be no cure attempted, nor other palliatives uſed than what conſiſts in compoſure of mind and quietude of the body. All *aneuriſms* are incurable that lay too low for the operation; and, if unadviſedly opened, the patient's life is in immediate danger, for bandages, which are the only palliatives in ſuch caſes, are but uncertain dependents. The diffuſed *aneuriſm* is not only ſubject to hæmorrhages, but alſo to a mortification.

The method of cure is the ſame in the true, the falſe, and the mixed *aneuriſms*; the varicous needs but little, if any aſſiſtance; if it is enlarged by exerciſe and becomes painful, indulge a little reſt, and moderate the future labour; perhaps bathing the part with a little ſpirit may afford ſome ſmall relief, but bandages and all other means muſt be avoided.

To palliate, when the operation is impracticable, bleed as often as is required to keep the force of the circulation moderate; let the diet be temperate, and the exerciſe very gentle; keep the bowels conſtantly ſoluble; where preſſure is uſed, it muſt be ſuch as only checks the force of the blood, not reſiſt it; flannel bandages, or knit ſtockings, &c. are the moſt proper for this purpoſe. But all preſſure is beſt avoided when the aorta is the ſeat of the *aneuriſm*, however the tumor may appear externally: it is true that, if the integuments give way, and the coagulum formed on the inſide of the tumor thereby hath loſt its ſupport, the aſſiſtance of a bandage is immediately neceſſary, as it is the only means to prevent a fatal hæmorrhage; in this dilemma, if the ſubſtitutes to the integuments are judiciouſly applied and accompanied with ſuch topical medicines as reſiſt both ſuppuration and putrefaction, the life of the patient may be preſerved for ſome time.

When the operation can be admitted, it is adviſeable firſt to attempt the cure by compreſſion; becauſe it ſometimes proves effectual, is always a good preparatory ſtep to the operation, by its enlarging the collateral anaſtomoſing branches, and thereby diſpoſes the part to have a more free circulation after the diviſion of the artery; but when the tumor is large, the palliative method ſhould not be long continued, becauſe it injures the neighbouring parts, and will occaſion more inflammations, ſloughings, &c. when the operation is performed.

The preſſure, whether before or after the operation, ſhould be confined as much as poſſible to the affected part, that the paſſage of the blood through the anaſtomoſing veſſels may be free, by which we may prevent the mortification which ſome times enſues, for a want of a free circulation.

Some few inſtances of ſmall *aneuriſms* and punctures of the artery from bleeding, have ſucceeded by the uſe of bandage, but they almoſt all require the operation at laſt, which is performed nearly in the ſame manner in every part; but larger *aneuriſms* cannot receive any advantage from the preſſure, therefore where it hath been uſed long enough as a preparative to the operation, the ſooner it is performed the better.

Mr. Bell obſerves, in his Syſtem of Surgery, that in diffuſed or falſe *aneuriſms*, preſſure cannot be applied to the artery alone, without at the ſame time affecting the refluent veins; and as this circumſtance, by producing an increaſed reſiſtance to the arterial pulſations, muſt undoubtedly force an additional quantity of blood to the orifice in the artery, that therefore no advantage is to be expected from it; but, on the contrary, that on many occaſions there is reaſon to ſuppoſe it hath been productive of miſchief. But though preſſure ought never to be attempted in any period of the diffuſed *aneuriſm*, yet in ſome ſtages of the other ſpecies of this diſeaſe, it may be often had recourſe to with advantage. In their early ſtages, while the blood can be yet preſſed entirely out of the ſac into the artery, it often happens, by the uſe of a bandage of ſoft and ſomewhat elaſtic materials, properly fitted to the part, that much may be done in preventing the ſwelling from receiving any degree of increaſe; and on ſome occaſions, by the continued ſupport thus given to the weakened artery, complete cures have been at laſt obtained. Yet, though preſſure to a certain degree hath ſometimes proved uſeful, it ought never to be carried to a great length; tight bandages in theſe caſes always counteract the intention. Indeed, the greateſt length to which preſſure ought to go, ſhould be, to ſerve as an eaſy ſupport to the parts affected, and no farther. With compreſſion, other means ſhould at the ſame time be uſed, ſuch as low diet, occaſional bleeding, a lax ſtate of the bowels, freedom from ſtrong exerciſe, &c.

The Operation for the Aneuriſm.

Having taken away ſome blood, and promoted ſuch other diſcharges as ſeemed needful, apply the tourniquet near the ſhoulder (ſuppoſing the humeral artery to be the ſeat), tighten it ſo that the pulſe cannot eaſily be perceived; lay the arm in a convenient ſituation, then make an inciſion on the inſide of the biceps muſcle, above and below the elbow, a conſiderable length, which being in the courſe of the artery, will diſcover it as ſoon as the coagulated blood is removed, which muſt all be cleared away, the wound being dilated for that end. Be careful not to cut the larger veins, nor the bag; the ſame attention is neceſſary in cutting the aponeuroſis of the biceps; for this aponeuroſis, the capſula, the bag, and the ſkin ſeem all united.

If the orifice does not readily appear, let the tourniquet be looſened, and the effuſion of blood will direct you to it; then carry a crooked needle armed under it, tie the veſſel juſt above the orifice, and when you have ſecured the upper part, ſlacken the tourniquet a little; for if on ſlackening it, there is any hæmorrhage from the inferior parts of the artery, it plainly appears that the collateral branches are open, and that there is a free circulation. The firſt ligature ſecured, make a ſecond a little below the orifice, and leave the intermediate ſpace of the artery to ſlough away without dividing it.

Avoid taking up the nerve with the ligature, if you conveniently can; the readieſt method to do which is, as it lays on the inſide, at a little diſtance from the artery, to relax that veſſel by bending the arm moderately, and to raiſe the artery from its bed by a probe introduced into its orifice, or by pinching it up with the finger and the thumb: the nerve is eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the artery by feeling, ſo the artery may be drawn from the nerve. If the nerve ſhould be taken up, a portion of the adjacent fleſh being taken up with it, no inconvenience need be feared.

After the operation, the limb is generally ſome little time without pulſation, which, if it does not recover in twenty-four hours, amputation is not to be deferred.

In the Lond. Med. Obſ. & Inq. vol. ii. page 360, is an inſtance of an *aneuriſm* in the arm being cured, by proceeding in general as above, but inſtead of the ligatures a ſteel pin was paſſed through the lips of the orifice in the artery, and ſecured by twiſting thread about it, as is done on the hare lip; after a few days the pin came away with the dreſſings.

See inſtances of *aneuriſms* in the thigh, being cured, in the

the Lond. Med. Obſ. & Inq. vol. iii. p. 106. And in the Edinb. Medical Commentaries, vol. ii. p. 176. Alſo in Warner's Caſes of Surgery.

See Aetius Tetrabib. 7 ſerm. iii. cap. 10. P. Ægineta, lib. vi. cap. 37. Marc. Aur. Severinus de Efficaci Medicinæ. Morgagni de Sedibus & Cauſis Morborum. Mem. de l'Acad. Roy. an. 1712, 1733. Philoſ. Tranſ. Abr. vol. iii. viii. De Haen de Aneuriſmatib. Rat. Med. Mem. de l'Acad. Roy. de Chirurgie. Prof. Monro's Remarks on the Formation of *Aneuriſms* in the Edinb. Med. Eſſ. vol. ii. and iv. Le Dran's Operations in Surgery. Sharpe's Operations of Surgery. Dr. Hunter's, and others, Obſervations on *Aneuriſms*, in the Lond. Med. Obſ. & Inq. vol. i. ii. iii. and iv. Bell's Surgery, vol. i.

ANEURISMA PRÆCORDIORUM. *Aneuriſm* in the heart, or in the aorta near the heart.

ANFAKA. A coagulum.

ANFIAN, i. e. Opium.

AN-FIR-FILIUS. Mercury.

ANFRACTUOSUS. Anfractuous. Full of windings.

ANG. ET. ANGUIL. The abbreviation of Simplici dell. excellente m. luigi Anguillara. Venet. 1561, 8vo.

ANGEIOLOGIA. See ANGIOLOGIA.

ANGEIOTOMIA, from ἀγγεῖον, *a veſſel*, and τέμνω, *to cut*. An opening of the veſſels as in arteriotomy and phlebotomy. It alſo ſignifies a particular diſſection of the veſſels for anatomical purpoſes. See ANGIOLOGIA.

ANGEIOTOMISTA. An angeiotomiſt. A perſon ſkilled in the courſe of the blood-veſſels, or who can diſſect them readily.

ANGELICA SATIVA, called alſo imperatoria ſativa, herba pectoraria, and *garden angelica*. It is the *angelica* (archangelica) foliorum impari lobato. Lin.

ANGELICA SYLVESTRIS MINOR, called alſo ægopodium herba Gerardi, podagraria, gout-weed or wort, *wild angelica*, and aſh-weed.

ANGELICA SYLVESTRIS MAJOR. Water angelica.

The garden *angelica* hath the odd leaf at the end of each rib, and generally ſome of the others cut into two or three lobes. It is found by the ſides of rivulets, on the mountains of Lapland, and is cultivated in gardens all over Europe; the beſt is ſaid to be produced in Bohemia and Spain; but Linnæus ſays that the beſt is that which grows on the mountains in northern countries. It is a biennial plant, but if the ſtalks are cut down before it flowers, the roots ſend forth new heads, and may thus be continued for many years. The roots are in the greateſt perfection in the ſecond ſpring; they ſhould be well dried and kept in a dry place, and frequently aired, or they grow mouldy, and are the prey of worms. The whole plant is uſed, and by ſome hath been ſo eſteemed as an alexipharmac, as to have obtained the name of princeps alexipharmacorum. Many hold the Engliſh *angelica* in as much eſteem as the Spaniſh, and ſay that the latter differs from the former only in having been long kept, by which the diſagreeable flavour of the freſh roots is loſt. Though all the parts of this plant poſſeſs the ſame virtues in a great degree, yet the root is the ſtrongeſt. It reſembles zedoary as a medicine, but is milder, and it is a good carminative. Externally applied, it diſcuſſes inflammatory tumors in cold habits.

The ſeeds come neareſt to the roots in point of medical virtue, but ſcarcely retain either their vegetative or medicinal power until the following ſpring. The leaves loſe nearly all their virtue in drying. A ſtrong water is obtained from either the leaves or ſeeds by diſtillation, but ſpirit of wine beſt extracts the reſin, in which the virtues reſide in the dried roots.

The ſtalks and the roots are candied in the ſame manner as the ERYNGO, which ſee.

Dale reckons up four ſpecies of *angelica*, they have all ſimilar virtues, chiefly differing in the degree, but the above is the beſt. The wild ſort in uſe, is the *angelica* (ſylveſtris,) foliis æqualibus ovato-lanceolatis ſerratis. Linnæus.

ANGELICA ARBOR. A ſpecies of the herb Chriſtopher.

ANGELICA ARBORESCENS SPINOSA. A ſpecies of the herb Chriſtopher. Alſo a ſpecies of aralia.

ANGELICA CANADENSIS TRIFOLIUM. A ſpecies of myrrhis.

ANGELICA MONTANA PERENNIS PALUDAPII FOLIO. Common lovage.

ANGELICA PRATENSIS APII FOLIO. A ſpecies of the oreoſelinum. Alſo a name of the Engliſh ſaxifrage.

ANGELICUS (PULVIS.) i. e. Merc. vitæ.

ANGELINA ZANONI ACOSTÆ. Caſtanea Malabarica angelina dicta ansjeli.

It is a large tree, growing to the thickneſs of ſixteen feet in diameter; it is met with in Malabar and the Eaſt Indies, on ſandy and rocky grounds. Its fruit is ripe in December, and continues bearing one hundred years. It is not remarkable for any medical properties. See Raii Hiſt. Plant.

ANGELOCALOS. The true name of the twenty-fourth name of Myrepſus, and not as is commonly writ alcancali.

ANGELYN, i. e. Andira.

ANGI. Buboes in the groin.

ANGIGLOSSI. Stammerers.

ANGINA, from ἄγχω, *to ſtrangle*. A quinſy.

It is an inflammation in the parts of the throat that are ſubſervient to reſpiration, ſpeech, and deglutition; by ſome it is called a ſtrangulation of the fauces, by others (and moſt properly) an inflammation of the internal fauces.

When the diſorder is epidemic, it is ſo uſually between the ſpring and ſummer, and after a long run of cold and rainy weather.

The true *quinſy*, the cynanche tonſillaris of Cullen, is an acute inflammatory diſorder.

The baſtard *quinſy* is a lymphatic and catarrhal one, and its fever is not acute but rather chronical, being of the catarrhal kind.

The Greeks give different names to the true *quinſy*, according to the reſpective parts on which this diſorder falls; but various authors among them alſo differ in naming them; ſo the Latins, conſidering the diſorder as one, wherever its violence might have more peculiarly been manifeſted, included them all under the name *angina*; and we, after their example, under that of *quinſy*. The curious may ſee the various appellations given to the different circumſtances of this diſorder, in the writings of Aretæus, Cœlius Aurelianus, Hildanus, and Alexander Trallian.

Dr. Cullen's generic name for *quinſy* is cynanche, which he places in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order phlegmaſiæ; and diſtinguiſhes five ſpecies. 1. Cynanche tonſillaris, when the inflammation begins in the tonſils and affects only the mucous membrane of the fauces. 2. Cynanche maligna, when the fever is of the low kind and ulcers, are formed in the fauces. 3. Cynanche trachealis, when the trachea is ſo affected as to conſtitute the diſeaſe called the croup. 4. Cynanche pharyngæa, when the pharynx is principally affected. 5. Cynanche parotidæa, when the external parotid and maxillary glands, are ſo affected as to form the diſeaſe called the mumps.

The ſeat of this diſeaſe, i. e. the cynanche tonſillaris, is properly in the upper part of the throat, particularly thoſe parts of it that form the pharynx and the larynx, as the root of the tongue, the os hyoides, the paſſages of the noſtrils which open into the mouth, the pharynx, the internal and external muſcles of the larynx and pharynx, which are thirteen in number, the muſcles which move the jaws, the fine ramifications of the blood and the lymphatic veſſels, and the adjacent nerves; alſo the tonſils, the epiglottis, uvula, tongue, and cheeks.

Mr. Pott ſays, that the inflammation of the tonſils conſtitutes this diſorder; that, if they partially cover the pharynx, it is a ſpurious; and if they ſhut it entirely up, it is a complete or true *quinſy*. Dr. Cullen defines it to be an inflammation of the mucous membrane all over the internal fauces.

The young, the ſanguine, and on thoſe whoſe blood the inflammatory diatheſis is attendant, are moſt diſpoſed to the true *quinſy*. A diſpoſition to it is often acquired by habits, that is, by a few repetitions of its returns.

The cachectic, and thoſe who are ſubject to catarrhal fevers, are much inclined to the baſtard *quinſy*.

The cauſes are the ſame as are productive of inflammation in general; particular conſtitutions, &c. determine the inflammation to particular parts. The true ſpecies is excited in ſanguine habits; the ſpurious in phlegmatic ones.

Cœlius Aurelianus gives the following accurate deſcription of the true *quinſy*: the ſymptoms are, firſt, pains without any evident cauſe, a difficulty of moving the neck and throat, a conſiderable diſcharge of ſaliva without any viſible tumor, with a dull pain and ſenſible aſperity of the fauces, a difficulty of ſwallowing the uſual fluid which gathers in the mouth like ſpittle; after theſe, an impediment of reſpiration, as if clogged with ſome groſs humour. As the diſeaſe increaſes, the part grows red, with a manifeſt tumor, at length the fauces, uvula, parts about the tongue, and upper part of the throat, are elevated by the humour to a remarkable degree, which is attended with a difficulty of ſwallowing, beſides a ſtrangulation in proportion to the tumor, a difficulty of breathing, and a nauſea: if the mouth be opened, a dry tenſion of the tongue is perceived when it is preſſed with the finger. When this diſorder is increaſed to a great degree, the tumor ſpreads over the neck and face, the mouth flows with ſaliva, and a viſcid humour, the eyes are prominent and blood-ſhot, and the veins are diſtended. As the diſeaſe increaſes, the tongue ſwells, and is forced over the teeth; there is a dryneſs of the fauces, a cold numbneſs of the joints, a frequent pulſe, a difficulty of lying on the back or the ſide, with a deſire to ſit up, and an inarticulate confuſed ſpeech, not without pain. As this complaint tends to deſtroy the patient, he grows worſe, becomes livid in the face, and ſpeechleſs, there is a ſtertor in the throat and breaſt, and all he ſtrives to drink regurgitates at the noſe, the pulſe fails; ſome utter a voice like a dog, others only froth at the mouth; upon theſe ſymptoms death neceſſarily enſues.

If the diſorder is without a manifeſt tumor, there is a ſlenderneſs of the neck, with an inflexible erection or extenſion of the ſame; the face and eyes are hollow, the forehead is diſtended, the colour livid, reſpiration extremely difficult, but with no manifeſt tumor either inwardly or outwardly, the patient is extremely feeble and dull, and dies under a very quick and acute ſuffocation. See Acut. Morb. lib. iii. cap. 1, 2.

Boerhaave obſerves, that if the internal muſcular membrane of the aſpera arteria is the ſeat of the diſeaſe, a tumor, heat, burning pain, and acute fever are excited, without any external ſigns of the diſtemper; in this caſe the voice is ſmall, ſhrill, and uttered with a hiſſing noiſe, inſpiration is very painful, reſpiration is ſmall and frequent, and ſcarcely performed but in an erect poſture; hence the circulation through the lungs is impeded, and the pulſe ſoon ſinks, great anxiety comes on, and the patient ſoon dies. The nearer the ſeat is to the glottis and epiglottis, the more fatal it is.

If the inflammation is ſeated in the muſculus albus of the glottis, together with the fleſhy muſcles which cloſe it, the paſſage of the air to the lungs is ſoon cloſed up. The ſigns of this ſpecies are the ſame as the preceding, only that the pain is exquiſite during the elevation of the larynx in order to ſwallow, and is remarkably increaſed by ſpeaking, the voice is ſhrill and acute, exceſſive anxiety comes on, and death approaches ſooner than in any other ſort of the true *quinſy*.

If only the muſcles which elevate the os hyoides and larynx are inflamed, it is thus known, reſpiration is tolerably free and eaſy, but the firſt part of the action of ſwallowing is very painful.

When the pharynx alone is affected, the ſpecific ſigns are ſeen by examining the fauces; breathing is tolerably eaſy, ſwallowing very painful, or ſometimes impoſſible; and then that which is attempted to be ſwallowed, returns by the noſe, no aliment can be taken; and in this caſe, the fluids of the body are apt to become the more acrid; however, the fever, in this caſe, is not ſo acute as in ſome others, nor is death ſo ſpeedy.

If the tonſils, uvula, and velum pendulum palati, with the muſcles called pterygoſtaphlini, are much inflamed, nearly the ſame ſymptoms will ariſe as in the preceding caſe, reſpiration is rather more laborious, and is little or not at all performed through the noſe, and by the fauces not without ſome difficulty. What is attempted to be ſwallowed, is forced through the mouth again by reaſon of the great pain which it excites, there is a perpetual diſcharge of ſaliva by hawking, and a continual copious diſtillation of phlegm into the cavities of the tonſils, an acute pain is left in the internal ear and in the Euſtachian tube, a crackling noiſe is perceived in the ear during the action of ſwallowing, and ſometimes a deafneſs comes on. The venereal diſeaſe often cauſes this ſpecies, which then is dangerous.

If all or moſt of theſe parts, are inflamed, the caſe is indeed deſperate, for the return of the blood through the compreſſed jugulars being intercepted, the fauces, lips, tongue, and face ſwell, the tongue hangs out of the mouth, and is greatly inflamed, the eyes are red, prominent, and ghaſtly, the brain is glutted with blood; hence the ſight, hearing, and feeling, are all dull; hence alſo a delirium, yawning, ſtertor, impoſſibility of lying down, becauſe of the ſtrangulation attending that poſture, and a manifeſt redneſs, tumor, pain, and pulſation in the breaſt and neck; whence the jugular and frontal veins, and the venæ raninæ, become varicoſe.

To theſe obſervations of Boerhaave may be added, that the proper ſymptom of a *quinſy* is, the difficulty of ſwallowing as well with reſpect to ſolids as fluids; for if a large tumor affects the top of the œſophagus, and contracts it, the liquids, but not ſolids, may paſs through it; but if the tumor be ſeated in the top of the larynx, where it is covered with the epiglottis, ſolid ſubſtances, by preſſing the tumid epiglottis, find a way to the œſophagus, while liquids, not preſſing with that force which the ſolids do, ſlide through the gaping ſpace by the tumor, into the aſpera arteria, and there cauſe great uneaſineſs.

The true *quinſy* muſt be diſtinguiſhed from the baſtard ſpecies, particularly that called the dry; from the prunella alba; from ſwellings that ariſe from a ſcirrhous, ſcrofula, or a dropſy; from that difficulty of ſwallowing and breathing which ariſes from a catarrh, exulceration, a ſpaſmodic contraction of the muſcles, and paralyſis; from the gangrenous *quinſy*; from a tumor of the tonſils and of the uvula; from that pain in the glands in and about the fauces, and tumor obſerved in ſome ſcorbutic and venereal patients, when their diſorders are obſtinate and accompanied with eroſion; and from aphthæ. It ſhould be remembered that every inflammation in the throat is not a *quinſy*, that only being one which is attended with fever, difficult reſpiration, and difficult ſwallowing.

The moſt violent, and alſo moſt dangerous kind, is that which is ſeated in the internal muſcles of the larynx; but the danger is generally eſtimated by the degree of the fever, and the difficulty of breathing, which laſt is the worſt when the thyroarytænoid muſcles are affected, as their office is to cloſe the larynx. A ſudden tranſlation of the inflammation from the external parts is dangerous; for ſometimes a delirium and convulſions follow, or perhaps a mortal peripneumony; if the troubleſome ſuffocation abates, and the pain, with the inflammation, appear more outwardly, the diſeaſe may end well; if otherwiſe, an abſceſs will be formed in the throat, and danger will attend its diſcharge: a ſymptomatic *quinſy* is dangerous, on account of the weakneſs from the original diſeaſe; a frothing at the mouth, a conſiderable ſwelling in the neck, a duſky redneſs of the tongue, coldneſs of the extremities, a great contraction of the præcordia, anxiety, and a hard convulſive intermitting pulſe, are dangerous prognoſtics; a gangrene in moſt parts of the throat are fatal. If an eryſipelas appears on the neck and breaſt, and continues, it is a good prognoſtic, but ſuddenly diſappearing it is fatal: much viſcid ſaliva is a bad ſign in the height of the diſeaſe, becauſe it indicates a great degree of ſtrangulation; but in the decline it is a favourable ſymptom, ariſing then from relaxation: great pain in the head, or elſewhere, is very unfavourable.

The diet ſhould chiefly conſiſt of thin cooling liquids, as thin water-gruel, barley-water, very weak whey, chicken-broth, &c. all which ſhould be drank at leaſt as warm as new milk.

The patient ſhould ſit up in the day for ſome hours at leaſt; he ſhould avoid ſpeaking as much as is convenient; his feet and legs ſhould be put into warm water for ſome minutes twice a day; and his neck ſhould be kept warm with flannel.

In general, the treatment ſhould be the ſame as in the inflammatory fever; for in this diſeaſe, the fever, and particular inflammation, being reduced, the cure is effected.

Begin the cure with a free bleeding from a large orifice in the arm, and repeat the operation according to the violence of the fever; if the heat and ſtrength of the pulſe require it, the bleeding may be ad deliquium, in order to which the patient may ſtand up during the diſcharge of the blood, aſſiſtants being ready to ſupport him when the fainting comes on: though ſuch free bleeding will not often be required. Bleeding under the tongue hardly ever ſeems neceſſary; a few leeches ſet on the external fauces, would be far more uſeful; the ligature uſed about the neck, by retarding the circulation above it, may be as prejudicial as the ſmall diſcharge of blood therefrom is uſeful.

According to the ſeverity of the ſymptoms, let bliſters be applied to the back and behind the ears: theſe latter may be larger or leſs, that they may extend down the ſide of the neck, and in ſome degree round it. For the encouragement of the humours outwardly, ſir John Pringle, beſides the application of a bliſter on the back, commends another to be laid acroſs the throat. The application of bliſters need not take place until after a free bleeding, and the operation of at leaſt one briſk purge; after which, or during its operation, apply a bliſter to the back, and the next day apply another on the throat: thus a more uſeful effect is obſerved to follow than if both had been applied together. Keep them running until the diſorder is overcome, elſe as the parts heal, the inflammation will be apt to return.

As ſoon as the patient is bled, let a briſk but cooling purge be given, ſuch as the following:

℞ Infuſ. ſenæ ℥ iij. ſal. Glaub. ver. ℥ ß. ad ℥ i. m.

The paſſage of this purging draught may be haſtened down by a clyſter, in which ʒ i. of nitre may be diſſolved, if the fever runs high. If poſſible this draught ſhould be daily repeated during the firſt three or four days; if they cannot be ſwallowed, purging clyſters, with nitre in them, muſt be daily adminiſtered until medicines can be taken by the mouth. Gentle purging ſhould be continued through the whole courſe of the diſeaſe.

Gargariſms are immediately to be uſed, but acid ones are to be avoided until the decline of the diſeaſe, for they are hurtful by contracting the emunctories of the ſaliva and the mucus, and by thickening thoſe diſcharges: the following ſhould be uſed at this time, for it thins the ſaliva, and cauſes the glands to ſecrete and excrete their contents more freely.

℞ Decoct. pectoral. ℔ i. ſal. ammon. crud. ʒ ij. m.

As inflammations about the fauces are differently circumſtanced, the following obſervations, with reſpect to gargles, ſhould not be unnoticed.

1. In caſe of great pain and heat avoid the uſe of a ſyringe, and encourage the patient to frequently waſhing his mouth and throat, with whatever is appointed for that end; hartſhorn jelly, or the julep of roſes, with a little nitre and camphor, would be adviſeable here.

2. If the throat is dry, the tongue burns and ſwells, and the breathing and ſwallowing is difficult,

℞ Alb. ovi (bene conquaſat. ad liquor aquoſa) ℥ ij. aq. roſar. & ſyr. moror. ää. ℥ i. ſal. prunel. gr. xv. m.

3. If the *quinſy* is of the latent internal kind, waſh the mouth and throat frequently with milk and ſal prunel.

4. The inflammatory pain, from the ſtagnation of a ſharp ſaline ſerum in the glandulous part of the throat, near the ſeat of the pharynx and larynx, attended with a redneſs, and a copious diſcharge of ſaliva, but not a fever, is beſt diſcuſſed in the beginning by a gargariſm of brandy alone, that is ſomewhat below proof.

5. When a copious foul ſerous humour falls upon the glands of the palate and throat, detergent gargariſms, ſuch as the following, are to be freely uſed.

℞ Vitriol. alb. ʒ i. aq. puriſſim. ℔ i. m.

6. If the mouth only is dry and parched, an emollient gargle, ſuch as that with the pectoral decoction and ſal ammon. ſuffices.

7. In inflammatory *quinſies*, acid gargles may be uſed after the inflammation is ſomewhat abated, and not before; at which time,

℞ Tinct. roſar. rub. ℥ iij. ſp. vitr. ten. gr. xv. m.

In the intervals, when purging medicines are not operating, give cool nitrous and ſaline medicines, with ſmall doſes of the tart. emet. in them, as is uſual in the ardent and inflammatory fevers.

The promoting of external inflammation about the throat leſſens that which is internal; hence ſtimulants, ſuch as the linim. volat. have been applied to the neck and throat, by means of flannel dipped therein, or the following may be uſed:

℞ Ol. olivar. ℥ i. ſp. vol. ſal. ammon. ʒ ij. ad ℥ ß. camphor. ʒ ß. m. f. linim. cum qua inung. fauces externe ſæpius. But if a bliſter acroſs the throat can be complied with, its effects, though ſlower, will be more advantageous.

If the external inflammation is conſiderable, a diſcutient fomentation and cataplaſm may be applied, or in their ſtead, the following liniment may be rubbed on the neck and throat three or four times a day, and flannel rags may be conſtantly kept on, being moiſtened with the ſame.

℞ Camph. q. v. ol. oliv. q. ſ. fiat linim. mol.

If a ſpeedy ſuffocation is threatened, proceed to bronchotomy, while the ſtrength of the patient gives ſome good hope that he may recover.

If ſuppuration cannot be prevented, forbear evacuation and all repellents. When the ſuppuration takes place the ſwelling abates, and the ſymptoms are leſs violent, the pus opens itſelf a way either externally or internally; if externally, the ulcer is eaſily cured, if it does not form ſinuſes; if internally, the matter falls into the lungs and produces ulcers there. That the abſceſs is formed, may be known by a general uneaſineſs, a pain in the mouth, ſhivering and tranſient heats, a ſenſation of thickneſs and heavineſs in the tongue, ſmall white eruptions on the gums, and inſide of the cheeks and lips, with a diſagreeable taſte and odour. In this caſe cataplaſms ſhould be applied warm on the throat, and the ſteam of warm vinegar, mixed with water, ſhould be received with the breath; and as ſoon as a fluctuation of matter can be perceived, puncture the abſceſs, that the matter may, if poſſible, be diſcharged at the mouth, after which gargle with the following:

℞ Tinct. roſar. rub. ℥ vi. tinct. myrrh. ℥ ß. ſp. vitr. ten. gt. xx. m.

If the patient is not deſtroyed by the reſpiration, deglutition, or the brain being affected, this diſorder terminates as other inflammations, by reſolution, ſuppuration, or a mortification.

N. B. When a difficulty of ſwallowing is not attended with acute pain, or inflammation, it is generally owing to an obſtruction of the glands about the throat; it only requires that the patient be kept warm, and the throat gargled with ſome gentle ſtimulant, as a decoction of figs with a little vinegar or honey, or the flour of muſtard: this ſort of *quinſy* is called the pap of the throat, the falling down of the almonds of the ears, &c.

See Aretæus, Cœlius Aurelianus, Hildanus, Trallianus, Hoffman, Boerhaave, Le Dran's Operations, Sydenham, and Fordyce's Elements, part ii.

ANGINA AQUOSA, i. e. *Angina* gangrena; alſo a kind of anaſarca.

ANGINA GANGRENA, called alſo gangrena aquoſa, *angina* maligna, *angina* ſuffocativa, and the eryſipelatous, ulcerated, malignant, or putrid ſore throat.

It is a putrid remittent fever, accompanied with an ulcerated ſore throat, or with an inflammation of the mucous membrane. Though many lay the chief ſtreſs in the cure on gargles, this diſorder is one of the whole habit, and not local; for all the different ſymptoms accompanying this ſort of *quinſy*, have attended at once in the ſame patient, but without the ulcers in the throat.

This malady is moſt frequent in autumn, generally attacking children and weakly relaxed adults.

It is often produced by expoſure to infectious vapours; when it is not, cold is the moſt probable cauſe, in habits already hereto pre-diſpoſed. The breath of theſe patients is infectious.

It ſometimes begins with rigor, horror, and coldneſs, which are followed by a great heat; when an inflammation affects the throat, there is firſt a fiery redneſs there, ſometimes without any ſwelling, at others there is a conſiderable but puffy one, which does not prevent the ſwallowing

ing nor the breathing in any conſiderable degree, a ſoreneſs rather than pain is felt in the throat; the parotid glands often ſwell and are painful; whitiſh ſloughs appear in the fauces, not riſing above the ſurface of the membrane, which are often ſurrounded by a redneſs, and, according to the degree of the diſeaſe, are from a very florid colour to almoſt black; theſe ſloughs generally change to an aſh colour, and ſometimes to a black one; they give an offenſive ſmell to the breath, ſpread wider, and run deeper, until the patient is cut off, or the ſloughs fall off, leaving ulcers; but ſometimes the patient recovers without any ſenſible ſeparation. If the diſeaſe is violent, the mucous membrane in other parts of the body are affected; head-ach, faintneſs, and anxiety, with ſickneſs, vomiting, or purging, attend at the beginning. Thoſe uſually go off in about twenty-four hours, but if they continue, the danger is much increaſed thereby; the eyes appear red and watery, the noſtrils are inflamed, and they diſcharge a thin acrid fetid matter, which excoriates the noſtrils and lips; and ſometimes an hæmorrhage comes on by the third or fourth day, or perhaps later. After two or three days from the beginning, an eryſipelatous inflammation appears externally on the throat, and alſo on the extremities; this eruption relieves the ſickneſs, purging, and other diſagreeable ſymptoms. The pulſe is ſeldom hard or full, but is often frequent and ſmall; the fever in the evening is inconſiderable, being often attended with a delirium; but in the morning a moderate ſweat comes on, which for the preſent relieves the patient: though the ſymptoms regaining their ſtrength, the patient ſometimes falls a victim to their force in three, four, or ſix days.

Care ſhould be had to diſtinguiſh this ſort of complaint from the catarrh, the ſpurious quinſy, an apthæ, and other exulcerations in the mouth.

A fetid ichorous diſcharge from the ears often attends the worſt and fatal caſes; but when the parient recovers, indurated parotids and deafneſs enſue.

The indications of cure are,

1. To ſupport the vis vitæ.

2. To promote perſpiration, or evacuate the accumulated ſerum.

3. To reſiſt the putrefaction.

The whole danger depends on the ſtate of the blood, which is a putrid one, accompanied with that which is attendant on low nervous fevers: though the pulſe, and other ſymptoms, may ſeem to indicate evacuations in the beginning, they are cautiouſly to be admitted, for the nature of this kind of *quinſy* is ſuch, as ſoon to produce the ſame effects in the conſtitution, as are brought about by bleeding, purging, &c.

The patient ſhould be kept in bed, but not much warmer by the uſe of cloaths than when in health; the air may be refreſhed and purified not only by opening the windows now and then, but alſo by the vapours from boiling water, in which is myrrh, roſemary, flowers, or vinegar; ſtrong whey, made with good Mountain or other wine, may be the common drink; and if there is much ſickneſs, give mint tea, or red wine and water acidulated with the elix. vitriol.

Begin the cure with an emetic, which ſhould be given as ſpeedily after the attack as poſſible, thus the ſymptoms are rendered much more mild.

℞ Tart. emet. gr. ß. ad gr. i. ſs. aq. font. ℥ iv. m. bibat calidam ſuperbibendo infuſ. flor. cham. & poſt operat.

℞ Conf. cardiaca ʒ ß. p. rad. contray. gr. x. aq. alex. ſp. cum aceto ʒ ij. aq. pur. ℥ i. ſs. m. f. hauſt. & 4ta. quaq. hora repetend.

This kind of emetic tends to more advantages than any other in this diſorder; and if there is either a vomiting, or purging, or both attendant, they are much alleviated by it.

If the purging continues, check it with either ſtimulants or opiates.

℞ Spec. e ſcord. ʒ iij. aq. cinnam. ſim. ℥ vi. ſp. ſumat. cochl. i. ſs. poſt ſingulas ſedes liquidas.

Though in other fevers bliſtering is not adviſable in the beginning, in this the earlieſt uſe of them is to be encouraged, and the following method of preparing them is recommended by Dr. Percival of Mancheſter.

℞ Empl. ſtomach. vel. e cymina p. ii. veſſicator p. i. Camphor. pulv. ʒ i. ſs. m. f. empl. inter ſcapul. applic.

He farther obſerves, that in this caſe the ſkin is eaſily inflamed, ſo that this mild plaſter ſufficiently diſcharges the ſerum, and at the ſame time is antiſeptic. In the firſt ſtage of this diſeaſe, a bliſter to the back, or to each ſide of the throat, produces very ſalutary effects; but as the ſkin is particularly diſpoſed to inflammation, inconveniences ſometimes ariſe from the too powerful ſtimuli of the common bliſter plaſters, whence the above preſcribed one is preferred. When the plaſter is ſpread, warm it gently, and lay on its ſurface a thin piece of muſlin; thus it irritates leſs, produces leſs ſtrangury, and thus it may ſafely be applied even where the ſkin is eryſipelatous.

Gargles made of acids and aſtringent ingredients, may be thrown into the fauces by means of a ſyringe, if the patient cannot uſe them without.

℞ F. roſar. ℥ viij. ſp. vit. ten. gt. xii. alum. rup. ʒ ß. tinct. myrrh. ℥ i. m. f. garg.

vel

℞ Decoct. pectoral ℔ i.

Rad. ſerpentar. virg. ʒ ij. coque per ſemi horam, colatur, & adde acetum acerim. & tinct. myrrh. ää ℥ i. mel. opt. ℥ ij. m.

One of theſe gargles ſhould be frequently uſed, the mouth and throat ſhould be conſtantly kept clean therewith; and always before the patient ſwallows any thing, let him waſh his mouth and throat well with it.

The contrayerva is alſo uſed in gargles for this kind of ſore throat; but as an antiſeptic it is better to uſe myrrh diſſolved inſtead of it.

The bark is the principal medicine, and the moſt to be relied on. It ſhould be given with red wine, if the pulſe does not forbid, which it rarely does; but if it increaſes the anxiety, it muſt be omitted.

If the ſloughs do not ſeparate, touch them with an armed probe dipped in the following:

℞ Tinct. roſar. rub. ℥ ij. mel. Ægypt. ʒ ij. m.

vel

℞ Aq. puræ ℥ ij. ſp. ſal. corroſ. q. ſ. ad. grat. acid.

If the ulcers ſpread faſt, the bark muſt be given, or a cold infuſion of it, as freely as the ſtomach will admit.

If the tonſils are much ſwelled, bliſter the back, and behind the ears, and uſe one or other of the above gargles freely.

If the heat is exceſſive, add to the bark the ſp. nitre, D. or the ſp. febrif. Di. Clutton. It ſhould be obſerved that the vegetable acids are apt to produce a diarrhœa, and nitre does more harm by leſſening the vis vitæ, than it does good by its antiſeptic property, ſo neither of them are to be admitted in theſe caſes; but the mineral acids are free from thoſe ill effects, and are both good antiſeptics and diaphoretics, and the above named ones may be freely given in all that the patient drinks.

If any eryſipelatous appearance is obſerved about the fauces, &c. or if they are tumid and ulcerated, immediately uſe the ſteam from vinegar, myrrh, and honey, as hot as can be borne, and uſe it often. It is detergent and antiſeptic, and preferable to any of the gargles.

A cataplaſm of the bark and camomile flowers, boiled in vinegar, with the addition of camphor ʒ i. ſs. or ʒ ij. laid acroſs the throat, and renewed every four hours, greatly ſoftens and relaxes the glands of the neck, it exhales an antiſeptic vapour, which is drawn in by the mouth at every inſpiration, and much is alſo abſorbed from it. In caſes leſs important, inſtead of this cataplaſm, flannels may be applied to the neck, after being dipped in ſpirit of wine camphorated, and ſharp vinegar, mixed in equal parts.

A pedilave made with the bark and camomile flowers boiled in vinegar and water, may be uſed three or four times a day; if the patient is too feeble to ſit up, let flannels be wrung out of this decoction, and applied to his limbs. Beſides the relaxing and antiſpaſmodic effects of this remedy, it tends to produce a ſwelling in the feet, which relieves very much.

Fixed air, ſeparated during the fermentation of an alcaline ſalt with the vitriolic acid, is advantageouſly adminiſtered by way of clyſter, or mixed with ſome proper one.

See Aretæus de Cauſis & Signis Morborum, lib. i. cap. 9. Dr. Fothergill's Treatiſe on the Putrid Sore Throat. Dr. Huxham. Le Cat. Johnſon and Chomel, on this diſeaſe. Northcote's Treatiſe on the Ulcerated Sore Throat. Dr. Percival's Eſſays. Dr. Fordyce's Elements, part ii.

ANGINA AQUOSA, of Boerhaave. See his Aph. 791. It is an inſtance of the anaſarca.

ANGINA ERYSIPELATOSA, i. e. Scarlatina anginoſa.

ANGINA EXTERNA, i. e. Mumps.

ANGINA INFLAMMATORIA INFANTUM, i. e. Suffocatio ſtridula.

ANGINA INTERNA, i. e. Suffocatio ſtridula.

ANGINA LATENS & DIFFICILIS, i. e. Suffocatio ſtridula.

ANGINA MEMBRANACEA, i. e. Suffocatio ſtridula.

ANGINA MUCOSA, i. e. Scarlatina anginoſa.

ANGINA ŒDOMATOSA, i. e. Angina aquoſa.

ANGINA MALIGNA, i. e. Angina gangrena.

ANGINA PECTORIS. For the firſt account of this diſeaſe the world is indebted to Dr. Wm. Heberden of London.

The patient is ſeized whilſt walking; and more particularly if he walks ſoon after eating, with a painful ſenſation in his breaſt; the moment he ſtands ſtill this uneaſineſs vaniſhes: but after this complaint hath continued ſome months, it does not ceaſe ſo ſuddenly after reſting; it will now come on even while the perſon is in bed, obliging him to riſe every night for ſeveral months together. In ſome inveterate caſes it hath been brought on by very trivial accidents, ſuch as coughing, going to ſtool, by ſwallowing, or by ſpeaking, or any ſlight diſturbance of mind. Sometimes, though rarely, it attacks while the patient ſtands or ſits ſtill. In ſome perſons it is the worſt in winter, in others during the ſummer ſeaſon. When a fit approaches whilſt the patient is walking, its duration is ſhort; but if it comes on in the night, it will continue an hour or more. Now and then (though rarely) there are ſeveral days before any remiſſion is manifeſt; and, during this time, the greateſt danger ſeems to be attendant. The pulſe is, at leaſt, ſometimes not diſturbed with the pain, conſequently the heart is not affected by it.

Perſons of fifty years of age and upwards, with ſhort necks, and who are inclined to be corpulent, are the moſt ſubject to this diſeaſe; it is, though rarely met with, in thoſe who are far younger.

The natural tendency of this complaint is, to kill ſuddenly, yet ſome continue affected with it for twenty years.

The ſeat ſeems to be in or about the os ſternum, but always more to its left ſide, than to any other part of it; and a pain in the middle of the left arm is ſometimes attendant.

The cauſe is moſt probably a ſpaſm or cramp, or an ulcer, or both. A ſpaſm, or convulſion, appears moſt likely, from the ſuddenneſs of the attack, and as ſpeedy departure, the long intervals of eaſe, the relief afforded by wine and ſpirituous cordials, its generally bearing the motion of a horſe or carriage ſo well, which circumſtance often diſtinguiſhes ſpaſmodic pains from thoſe which ariſe from ulcers, and its coming on in the night after the firſt ſleep, at which time aſthmas, the night-mare, convulſions, and other diſorders attributed to the diſturbed functions of the nerves, are peculiarly apt to return, or to be aggravated. That an ulcer may alſo contribute to this diſorder, ſeems to be ſuggeſted from that the patient ſometimes ſpits blood mixed with a purulent matter, which ſeems too to come from the ſeat of the diſorder.

In order to the cure evacuations have been tried, but to no purpoſe; but wine, and other cordials, taken at bed-time, will prevent or weaken the night fits: but nothing does this ſo effectually as opium; ten, fifteen, or twenty drops of the thebaic tincture taken at bed-time, will enable thoſe patients to keep their bed until the morning who had been forced to riſe, and ſit up two or three hours every night for many months. This quantity, or more, may ſafely be continued as long as it is required. Dr. Bergius (a Swediſh phyſician) ſays, that this diſorder is a kind of ſpaſmodic aſthma, and that it is relieved by a ſtrong ſolution of the gum ammon. e. g. gummi ʒ ß. in aq. puleg. vel hyſſop. ℔ ß. cap. cochl. ij. bis terve in die. See the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 59, &c.

ANGINA PERNICIOSA, i. e. Suffocatio ſtridula.

ANGINA POLYPOSA, i. e. Suffocatio ſtridula.

ANGINO DEI. The name of a diſeaſe.

ANGIOLOGIA. Angiology. It treats of the glands, lacteals, lymphæducts, nerves, arteries, veins, and other veſſels.

ANGIOSPERMOS, from *ἀγγεῖον, a veſſel*, and *σπερμα, a ſeed*. An epithet for ſuch plants as have their ſeed or fruit incloſed in two membranes, not eaſily ſeparable from the nucleus, by way of diſtinction from the gymnoſpermoi, (derived from *γυμνος, naked*), and which have their ſeed for the moſt part ſurrounded with three integuments.

ANGLICA, a name of the chamæmorus.

ANGLICUS SUDOR. See SUDOR ANGLICUS.

ANGOLAM. A large tree growing in Malabar. It runs up to the height of one hundred feet, and is twelve feet thick. It is an ever-green, its fruit reſembles a cherry.

The expreſſed juice of the root purges and kills worms. Raii Hiſt. Plant.

ANGONE. A nervous ſort of quinſy. Vogel defines it to be an acute ſtopping up of the fauces, without inflammation. He ſays that the convulſive quinſy, and hyſteric ſuffocation, are its ſpecies.

ANGOR. A concentration of the natural heat of the body, cauſing a palpitation of the heart, and anxiety. In the beginning of a fever it is a bad prognoſtic.

ANGOS, a veſſel; a receptacle of humours.

ANGSANA, called alſo angſava, and draco arbor.

It grows in the Eaſt Indies; the liquor which diſtills from a wound made in this tree is uſed as a medicine, when it is condenſed into a gummy conſiſtence. It is of a red colour, aſtringent, and is ſold for dragon's blood. Raii Hiſt. Plant. Dale.

ANGSANA. The dragon's blood tree.

ANGU. A ſort of bread made of caſſada.

ANGUILLA. The eel.

Eels are nouriſhing. Thoſe that are met with in rivers, or other clear running waters, are the beſt; as to their ſize it is immaterial: the liver and the gall are extremely acrid. Boerhaave ſays, that no fiſhes have a more acrid gall; and that with a mixture of the galls of the *eel* and the pike, made into pills, he hath cured many rickety children with hard and ſwelled bellies.

The torporific *eel*, found in Guiana, in South America, if caught by a hook, violently ſhocks the perſon who holds the line: the ſame *eel* touched with an iron rod, held in the hand of a perſon whoſe other hand is joined to another, &c. communicates a violent ſhock to ten or twelve perſons thus joining hands, in a manner exactly ſimilar to that of the electric machine. No ſhock is perceived by the holding the hand in the water near the fiſh when it is neither diſpleaſed nor touched; but if it is angry, it can give a ſhock to a perſon at five or ſix inches diſtance. This ſhock is produced by an emiſſion of electric particles, which the fiſh diſcharges at pleaſure. On the death of the animal no ſuch electric property remains and then the Indians eat it.

ANGUILLARE, a ſpecies of pimpinella.

ANGUIS, alſo called ſerpens *anguis*, *anguis* coluber, natrix torquata, and the ſnake.

Our *ſnakes* in England, and thoſe in other cold countries, do not injure us with their bite. Their fat is as good as that of the viper.

ANGUIS ÆSCULAPII. It is the only ſpecies of ſerpents that can be made ſo tame as to be innocent. It is found in Italy, Poland, Germany, and in all the quarters of the world.

ANGUIUM SENECTA. The caſt ſkin of a ſerpent: the ſlough, or caſt ſkin of a ſnake is as good. A decoction of it boiled in wine is ſaid to cure deafneſs, pain in the ears, &c.

ANGULARIS ARTERIA, i. e. Arteria maxillaria externa.

ANGULARIS MUSCULUS, i. e. Levator ſcapulæ.

ANGULI OCULI. The corners of the eyes. See CANTHUS.

ANGULUS ACUTUS TIBIÆ. The ſpine of the tibia, or the ſkin.

ANGURIA. The citrul.

ANGUSTATIO, i. e. Anguſtia.

ANGUSTIA. Anxiety, reſtleſſneſs in diſtempers. It alſo ſignifies a narrowneſs of the veſſels. Anguſtatio hath the ſame meaning.

ANHALDINUM. An epithet of a corroſive, deſcribed by Hartman.

ANHALTINA REMEDIA. Medicines which facilitate reſpiration.

ANHALTINA AQUA. Anhalt water. It is in the Brandenburg Diſpenſatory, and is the ſp. vini rect. diſtilled from turpentine, and twelve or thirteen other ingredients of the aromatic kind; but a more elegant ſpirit of this kind may be obtained by mixing a proper quantity of the eſſential oils of roſemary, lavender, ſage, or other ſuch like, with the common oil of turpentine, and then diſtilling them. This water is an excellent cordial.

ANHALTINUS, an epithet of the Anhalt water.

ANHELATIO, Anhelitus or panting. A ſhortneſs of breath, or a difficult and ſmall, but quick reſpiration, which happens to ſound perſons, eſpecially fat people, and valetudinarians, after ſtrong exerciſe. In fevers, dropſies, aſthmas, pleuriſies, &c. there is always an anhelitus.

ANHELITUS, i. e. Anhelatio. Amongſt the chemiſts it ſignifies ſmoak, and alſo horſe dung.

ANHELO, i. e. Anhelatio.

ANHIMA. An aquatic bird of prey in Braſil, larger than a ſwan. Its horn is eſteemed an antidote againſt poiſon.

ANHUIBA, i. e. Saſſafras.

ANIADA. The aſtral and celeſtial powers which promote in us long life.

ANIADAY. According to the ſpeech of the alchemiſts, it is the eternal ſpring, and the new world to come.

ANIADON, Aniadum, Aniadus, words uſed by Paracelſus, and mean the ſame with aniada.

ANICETON, Invincible. An epithet for a plaſter aſcribed to Crito, and ſo called becauſe it was an infallible remedy for the acores.

ANICETUM, Inſuperable, a name of the aniſe.

ANIDROS, from *α*, neg. and *ἱδρὼς*, *to ſweat*. Sweatleſs.

ANIDROSIS, a privation of ſweat.

ANIDROTI. Galen expounds this to ſignify without ſweat.

ANIIMUM, i. e. Anime.

ANIL, i. e. Indicum.

ANIMA MUNDI. The ſoul of the world. An ubiquitarian principle, ſuppoſed by Plato to do the ſame feats as Des Cartes's æther, pervading and influencing all parts and places.

ANIMA PULMONUM. A name given to ſaffron on account of its uſe in aſthmas.

ANIMÆ. The veſicles of herrings. They are diuretic.

ANIMAL. Every body endowed with life and with ſpontaneous motion, is called an *animal*.

All ſubſtances proceeding from *animals* are ſaid to belong to the *animal* kingdom, to diſtinguiſh them from the vegetable and the mineral claſſes.

The earth of *animals* differ not from that of vegetables in any reſpect yet diſcovered. Yet there are certain differences betwixt one *animal* earth and another, ſome being calcareous, others not, &c. See EARTHS *(animal)* and VEGETABLE.

The oils and fats of *animals*, like the groſs oil of vegetables, are not of themſelves ſoluble, either in water or in ſpirit of wine; but by the intervention of a third body (as of mucilage gum, &c. may be rendered miſſible therewith again. The oils of *animals* differ from thoſe of vegetables, as follows: 1ſt. The finer *animal* oils are not like the vegetable, procured by a moiſt, but by a dry diſtillation, that is by combuſtion, and hence all *animal* oils have an empyreumatic ſmell. 2dly. Though an acid is found in the fat of *animals*, yet in the diſtilled oils of *animal* matter, a volatile alcaline property is found in them; whereas in the diſtilled oils of vegetables there is always an acid. The volatile alcaline ſalts, therefore, contained in the oils of *animals*, is the reaſon why they are more penetrating than the diſtilled oils of vegetables, and have a more immediate tendency to put the blood into a commotion. Two drops of the ol. C. C. intimately mixed with the ſp. vini R. ℥ ß. are ſufficient to produce a copious ſweat for four men, if divided into four doſes; hence *animal* oils ſhould be cautiouſly given to the young and ſanguine.

The odorous matter of ſome *animal* ſubſtances, as muſk, caſtor, &c. is, like the eſſential oils of vegetables, ſoluble in ſp. vini R. and volatile in the heat of boiling water.

The gelatinous principle of *animals*, like the gum of vegetables, diſſolves in water, but not in ſpirit or in oil. Like the gums alſo it renders oils and fats miſſible with water.

However, many *animal* juices differ greatly even in theſe general kinds of properties, from the correſponding ones of vegetables. Thus *animal* ſerum, which appears ſimilar to vegetable gummy juices, hath this remarkable difference, that, though it mingles with cold or warm water, yet, on conſiderably heating the mixtures, the *animal* matter ſeparates from the watery fluid, and concretes into a ſolid maſs, if the heat is about one hundred and fifty by Farenheit's thermometer.

Animal ſubſtances become putrid much ſooner than vegetable ones, and when corrupted are much more offenſive. See PUTREFACTIO.

Animal matter, burnt in the open air, is reſolved, like vegetables, into ſoot and aſhes, but with this difference, that no fixed alcaline ſalt can be obtained from the aſhes, and that no acid vapour accompanies the ſmoak. Expoſed to the fire in cloſe veſſels, after the watery moiſture, a volatile alcaline ſalt is obtained, together with an empyreumatic oil that is more fetid than that from vegetables.

ANIMAL BEZOARTICUM OCCIDENTALE. The leſſer American deer.

ANIMAL BOZORADICUM ORIENTAL. The bezoar goat.

ANIMAL MOSCHIFERUM. The muſk animal.

ANIMAL ZIBETHICUM. The civet cat.

ANIMALCULA. A diminutive of the word *animal*; that is, they are ſuch little creatures as require to be viewed through glaſſes, to diſcern them diſtinctly. Rain, as ſoon as it falls, contains many *animalculæ*, but ſnow ſtill more; the dew on glaſs windows is full of them. In boiled water they retain their ſhape, and ſometimes revive.

The *animalculæ* get in ſhoals in the fluids they ſwim in, and if diſturbed, they ſeparate as fiſh in a pond, and will be many hours before they are collected together. They follow their liquor, in which they ſwim to the laſt drop, and then for want of it, they ſeem to ſtruggle and die; after their ſeeming death, put water to them, and they revive. When ſeemingly dead they are very flat, but if not paſt regain, they ſoon recover their plumpneſs.

Animalculæ chuſe the ſurface of liquors, probably for the want of air.

Dip a needle point into the oil of vitriol, then into a drop of liquor in which theſe *animalculæ* are, and they inſtantly ſpread about to evade the acid, and ſoon drop down dead. If the needle is dipped in a ſolution of common ſalt, or in the tincture of ſalt of tartar, the ſame is obſerved to follow. Sugar, urine, and blood, ſpeedily deſtroy them.

Vinegar contains *animalculæ* like eels.

Default, and ſome others, endeavour to prove that all diſeaſes are owing to *animalculæ*; but it does not appear, that any animal ſubſtance contains *animalculæ* until it becomes putrid, and then theſe are the effect rather than the cauſe of diſeaſes.

The white matter which ſticks to the teeth, abounds with *animalculæ*, and vinegar deſtroys them.

See Philoſ. Tranſ. abr. vol. iii. Dr. Hook's Micographia.

ANIMALE DIPPELLI (OLEUM). Dippel's animal oil.

Take any quantity of the empyreumatic oil diſtilled from animal ſubſtances, as that of hartſhorn, put it into a glaſs retort, fit on a receiver, and diſtill in a ſand heat, the oil will ariſe pale coloured, and leſs fetid, and a black coaly matter will remain behind. Repeat the diſtillation in freſh retorts till the oil ceaſes to leave any fæces, and till it loſes its ſmell, and acquires an agreeable one.

The quantity of oil taken for preparing this oil ſhould be large, becauſe that the repeated diſtillations reduce it at laſt to a very ſmall quantity; the diſtillation requires repeating twelve or twenty times, but the proceſs may be haſtened by mixing the oil with quicklime into a ſoft paſte, then put it into the retort, the lime keeps down more of the black matter than would ſtay without it.

Animal oils thus rectified are thin, limpid, and of a ſubtil, penetrating, not diſagreeable ſmell and taſte. They

are

are anodyne and antiſpaſmodic in doſes from fifteen to thirty drops. Hoffman highly extols them; he ſays that a doſe excites ſweat, and ſupports it for twenty-four hours, without cauſing any languor or debility. He farther obſerves, that if twenty or more drops are given on an empty ſtomach, ſix hours before the acceſſion of an intermittent fever, they frequently remove the diſorder; and that they are effectual againſt chronical epilepſies and other convulſive ſymptoms, eſpecially if given before the uſual time of the attack, and preceded by proper evacuations.

They loſe much of their quality by keeping.

The empyreumatic oils of vegetables, rectified in the ſame manner, become poſſeſſed of the ſame effects as thoſe of the animal kind.

All empyreumatic oils diſſolve in ſp. vini, R. and the more they are rectified, their ſolution therein is the eaſier, a circumſtance in which they differ from eſſential oils, which by repeated diſtillations become more difficult to diſſolve.

ANIMALIS FACULTAS. See FACULTAS & ACTIO.

ANIMALIS MOTUS. Animal motion.

From the elaſticity of the fibres, and the diſtenſion of the cells in the cellular membrane, by the rarefaction of their contained fluid, from the effect of the fire converged from the earth to the blood, and thence carried to the cells of the cellular membrane, an action and reaction is begun and continued betwixt the vital heat and the fibres; and thus motion, particularly the involuntary, or that on which life depends, is begun and ſupported.

Bellini, in his de Motu Cordis, when ſpeaking of the egg, and the firſt appearances which follow the application of heat, ſays, that the nervous ſyſtem is the firſt which is expanded by the heat of incubation.

As to the motion of the heart, let the power lodged in fire of repelling the particles of fluids, which are non-electrics, and of acting by pulſation, be conſidered; alſo the formation of the heart; that a fluid is lodged in the cells of the cellular tunic; that the cellular membrane ſurrounds every fibre in the heart; and that each of theſe fibres is elaſtic: thus then, the firſt communication of heat from without, whether by incubation from the hen, or other external fire communicated to the fœtus, will be carried to the nerves, and dilate the fluid in the veſicles of the tunica cellularis; and thus dilating every veſicle, muſt diſtend every muſcular fibre, and increaſe the volume of the heart; but as it is the nature of fire to act by pulſations, and of elaſticity to react, after being acted upon, the fire having finiſhed its operation of diſtending the veſicles of the tunica cellularis, and of lengthening the muſcular fibres, paſſes off through the body, and at that inſtant the elaſtic power takes place in its turn, and contracts every individual fibre of the heart in its length, and conſequently the diameters of the ventricles, which muſt have been diſtended by the influence of the fire, together with the diſtenſion of the whole heart, are contracted by this elaſticity in the fibres, and thus the blood which it had received, is propelled from thence into the arteries.

The *motion* of the arteries depends on the ſame principles as that of the heart. The arteries being dilated by the ſame influence as the heart is, and contracted by the elaſtic power of their fibres, the blood is driven forward through the whole courſe of its circulation.

Thus the circulation of the blood is ſupported and continued through the animal, and the involuntary motion of the heart, auricles, and arteries, are accounted for by thoſe alternate powers of dilatation and contraction.

And hence it appears, that the whole propulſive power lies not in the heart alone, for every poſſible part of the arterial tube hath the ſource of dilatation and contraction in itſelf, that is in its cellular membrane and fibres, conſequently of continuing the motion which was imparted to the blood by the action of the heart.

The voluntary motions too depend on the powers and influence of the *animal* heat or vital fire, under the dominion of the will. The vital fire is contained in the brain, medulla ſpinalis, ganglions, and nerves, in a quantity ſomewhat exceeding the requirements of the involuntary *motions*; and the voluntary exerciſe of any muſcle depends entirely on the greater quantity of this fire, determined thither by the act of volition.

In the involuntary motion of the heart, quite different effects are produced by the ſame principles of action, from what follows their effect in the muſcles ſubſervient to the will; that is, the heart is dilated in all its parts by the vital fire, but the muſcles of voluntary motion are contracted: this follows from the ſingle circumſtance of thoſe laſt muſcles being faſtened at each end.

See the Theory and Practice of Phyſic by J. Shebbeare, M. D. Maganiſe's Doctrine of Inflammation, p. 31—52. Haller's Phyſiology, the Lecture on Muſcular Motion. Kirkland's Diſſertations on the Brain, Nerves, &c.

ANIMA MUNDI. The ſoul of the world. Plato ſuppoſed this principle to pervade and influence all things in this world.

ANIMALIS SPIRITUS. Animal ſpirits. See CALIDUM INNATUM.

ANIMATIO. Animation. An ænigmatical word uſed by alchemiſts in their employ of tranſmuting metals. Mercury is ſaid to be animated, when by conjunction with a perfect metal, it is reduced to a certain ſpecies.

ANIME. The Portugueſe corrupted the word *animæ* into *anime*.

The gum *anime* is alſo called reſina *anime* & reſina courbaril. Piſo calls the tree from whence it is obtained, jetaiba, and the Indians call it courbaril. Its the hymenæa courbaril of Linnæus.

J. Bauhine reckons up five ſpecies, but the whiteſt is the beſt.

The gum *anime* is a tranſparent, yellowiſh, white, reſinous gum, obtained from a large tree in Braſil and New Spain, and alſo in the eaſtern parts of the world. That from the Eaſt Dioſcorides calls by the names myrrha and minæa; but in our ſhops we have no other than the American ſorts. The ſmall tears are the pureſt. It hath but little taſte, though to the ſmell it is very agreeable. It eaſily breaks between the teeth, but if chewed for ſome time it ſoftens and becomes adheſive. If it is laid on a red hot iron, it immediately melts, catches flame, and burns quickly away, leaving only very little white aſhes.

It diſſolves in ſp. vini R. but is very little affected by water, except in diſtillation, by which it gives a part of its flavour, and a ſmall quantity of oil.

It is diuretic, the doſe is ℈ i.

The gum copal is often ſold for it.

ANIMELLÆ. The glandules under the ears, and all along under the lower jaw, alſo called lacticinia.

ANIMI, & Animæ Deliquium. See DELIQUIUM, LIPOTHYMIA, & SYNCOPE.

ANIMIFERA ARBOR BRANSILIANA, i. e. Courbaril.

ANIMI PATHEMATA. Affections of the mind.

ANIMOMETER. An inſtrument that meaſures the ſtrength of the wind.

ANIMUS. The mind. The body and the *mind* reciprocally affect each other with reſpect to health and diſeaſe; whatever invigorates the body, renders the faculties of the ſoul proportionably active and ſtrong.

Ariſtotle hath long ſince obſerved that thoſe animals whoſe blood abounds with thick fibres are bold and furious, and that a thick hot blood contributes to ſtrength, but not to underſtanding. He alſo obſerves that a thin blood is better calculated for the different purpoſes of ſenſation and underſtanding.

The circulation of the blood not only unites the ſoul with the body, but alſo governs and directs its operations: with the circulation of the blood, the animal and vital functions continue, and they vary, and ceaſe to be, according as the circulation varies or ceaſes.

Would then any one preſerve the faculties of the *mind*, and a due order of the paſſions, let his care be to continue the blood in its due healthy ſtate. Examples daily occur, in which it is ſeen that the chearful glaſs raiſes the man as it were above himſelf; alſo, that its undue uſe enervates and deſtroys him.

On the other hand, a diſordered *mind* injures the body; violent paſſions make great ravage in its conſtitution, and leſs violent ones, if continued ſomewhat longer, have as dreadful an effect. Fear and terror contract the veſſels in the exterior parts of the body, and force the blood into the larger ones about the heart and lungs; which again produce coldneſs in the extremities, a palpitation of the

heart, uneaſineſs in the bowels, &c. Sadneſs greatly leſſens the vis vitæ, whence a diſpoſition to chronical diſorders. Anger increaſes the ſtrength, quickens the pulſe and breathing, but throws the whole frame into a tumult, and its conſequences are ſometimes fatal.

ANINGA, alſo called iba, arbor aquatica Braſil.

Ray takes notice of three ſpecies, two of which grow in water, the third in moiſt and ſhady woods; the roots of the firſt two ſorts are bulbous, and poſſeſs medical virtues; they are uſed for formentations againſt inflations of the hypochondres. Of that ſpecies which is found in the woods, the leaves are the medicinal part; they are bruiſed and applied as a general remedy for healing ulcers. Raii Hiſt. Pl.

ANI PROCEDENTIA. See PROCEDENTIA ANI.

ANISATUM. A wine in which aniſeeds are infuſed thus; take of Aſcalon wine (this was a ſtrong wine) ℔ xxx. honey ℔ x. aniſeeds ℥ v. mix them and let them ſtand together a few days, then ſtrain off the clear liquor.

ANISCALPTOR, from *anus*, *the breech*, and *ſcalpo*, *to ſcratch*; ſo called becauſe it is in uſe when this office is performed. See LATISSIMUS DORSI.

ANISO MARATHRUM. A ſpecies of ſcandix.

ANISUM. Aniſe. It is the pimpinella aniſum of Lin.

ANISUM HERBARIIS. Aneſum. Common aniſe. Hoffman calls the ſeeds ſolamen inteſtinorum, by way of eminence, for their ſervice in complaints of the bowels.

ANISUM INDICUM, Aniſum Chinæ, aniſum ſtellatum, zingi, aniſum peregrinum, ſemen Badian. fœniculum Sinenſe, cardomomum, Siberienſe, aniſum Sinenſe, and Philippineſe and Indian or ſtellated aniſe.

The common *aniſe*, i. e. the pimpinella *aniſum*, is a ſmall, annual, umbelliferous herb; its ſeeds are roundiſh, ſtriated, flatted on one ſide, pointed at one end, and of a pale colour inclined to green; the upper leaves are divided into fine ſegments, the lower are entire and roundiſh, and ſerrated about the edges. It is a native of Egypt, Crete, and Syria; is cultivated in the ſouthern parts of Europe, and grows in our gardens in England; but it does not arrive at any great degree of perfection with us. The ſeeds only are uſed in medicine; and thoſe which are produced in Spain are ſmaller than thoſe obtained in other countries, and are generally the moſt eſteemed.

Aniſeeds have an agreeable aromatic odour, and to the taſte they are gratefully warm, with a degree of ſweetneſs; they are carminative, much uſed in flatulent complaints, griping of the bowels; they are alſo moderately anodyne, diaphoretic, diuretic, and diſcutient; an infuſion of them in water moderates the thirſt in a dropſy and abates the diarrhœa; the ſume received up the noſtrils abates the head-ach in ſome inſtances; they promote an appetite, and check hiccoughing, when a flatus and coldneſs in the ſtomach are the cauſes.

Thoſe who are offended with the ſeeds, may take the ſpiritous preparation of them, for the ſpirit in ſome meaſure covers their flavour.

Water and ſpirit of wine both completely extract the virtues of aniſeeds; but in diſtillation very little of the ſeeds are carried over with the ſpirit; however, after its evaporation, a powerful and agreeable extract remains.

The London college gives a compound aniſeed water, which is as follows:

Aq. Sem. Aniſi. *comp.*

℞ Sem. *aniſi.* & angelic. āā ℔ ſs ſpt. vini ten. cong. i. elic. cong. i.

The angelica ſeeds are added to improve the flavour of thoſe of the *aniſe*. This water is apt to be milky if drawn ſo low as directed above: a glaſs of it aſſiſts digeſtion after full meals, and when vegetables have been too freely eaten.

Along with the water in diſtillation, their eſſential oil ariſes to the quantity of ℥ i. from ℔ iii. it poſſeſſes the taſte, ſmell, and all the virtues of the ſeeds in the higheſt perfection; it congeals when the air is not ſenſibly cold into a butyraceous conſiſtence, hence in diſtilling, the water in the refrigeraory ſhould not be kept too cool, it ſhould rather be warm, particularly towards the end of the proceſs, or the oil will congeal in the worm of the ſtill.

The doſe is from two to twenty drops, which may be made into an elegant draught thus,

℞ Ol *aniſi.* gut. ii. vel. q. v. mucilag. e gum. arab. ℈ i. ſp. vin. ten. ʒ ii. aq. puræ ℥ i. ſs. m. f. hauſt.

This oil is uſually adulterated with olive oil.

An oil is alſo obtained from *aniſeeds* by expreſſion; it is of a greeniſh colour, grateful to the taſte, and ſtrong of the ſeeds, of which, if ſixteen ounces are lightly moiſtened by expoſure to the ſteam of boiling water, about an ounce of oil may be obtained from them. This oil conſiſts of a groſs inſipid inodorous one, ſimilar to the common expreſſed ones, and of a part of the eſſential oil of the ſeed, on which laſt its flavour wholly depends. If this expreſſed oil is digeſted in rectified ſpirit of wine, the eſſential oil is extracted from it; or if it is diſtilled in water, the eſſential oil ariſes and leaves the inodorous one behind. The groſs oil ſeems to reſide in the kernel of the ſeed, the eſſential in the cortical part.

The Indian or ſtellated *aniſe*. The ſeed veſſel of this ſpecies conſiſts of ruſty, brown-coloured, hard, wrinkled capſules, half an inch or more long, joined by their baſes to the number of ſix or more in the form of a ſtar, each of which includes one ſeed, externally gloſſy, and of the colour of linſeed, internally white. It is the produce of a ſmall tree which grows in Tartary, China, and the Philippine iſlands.

The huſks contain the chief of the flavour, which is the ſame as that of the common *aniſeed*, but not ſo fiery; if they are digeſted in ſpirit of wine, they yield a moſt acrid reſinous extract. The ſeeds afford much eſſential oil by diſtillation in water, which is thinner, more limpid, and more fragrant than that from the common ſort.

This ſpecies of *aniſeed* is not yet common in the ſhops, though they are deſerving of a preference to thoſe in uſe.

ANISUM AFRICANUM FRUTICESCENS FOLIO ET CAULE VERE CŒRULEO TINCTIS The galbanum plant.

ANISUM FRUTICOSUM AFFRICANUM GALBANIFERUM. The galbanum plant.

ANNETESTES. So Paracelſus calls the Galeniſts, by way of deriſion, becauſe he thought them ignorant of the cauſes and principles of things.

ANNORA. Calcined egg-ſhells or quick-lime.

ANNOTATIO. The very beginning of a febrile paroxyſm, called alſo the attack of the paroxyſm. There is another *annotatio* or epiſemaſia, which is proper to hectic fevers, happening an hour or two after eating: in this there is no ſhivering with cold, as in the other ſort.

ANNUENTES MUSCULI, i. e. Muſc. Recti Interni Minores.

ANNULARIS CARTILAGO. The cricoides (which ſee) is thus named from its ſhape. From *annulus*, *a ring*.

ANNULARIS DIGITUS. The ring-finger, or that next to the little one.

ANNULARIS VENA. The vein betwixt the ring and little finger.

ANNUS. The year. The antients divided the *year* into winter and ſummer; their ſucceſſors divided it into ſpring, ſummer, autumn and winter.

A philoſophical *year* is a common month.

ANNUS AMADIN. Long life.

ANNI TEMPORA CONSTANTIA, vel INCONSTANTIA. Conſiſtent ſeaſons, i. e. ſuch as keep their uſual temperature. Or inconſiſtent ſeaſons, i. e. when the weather is unſettled.

ANO, ἄνω. Upwards. The ſuperior parts. Emetics are thus called, as purging medicines are called κάτω, *downwards*.

ANOCATHARTICA. Medicines which purge upwards, as emetics.

ANOCHEILON, from ἄνω and χεῖλος, *a lip*. The upper lip.

ANODINA. Narcotic medicines.

ANODMON, from α neg. and ὀδμὴ, *a ſmell*. Without ſmell. It ſtands oppoſed to fetid.

ANODUS. A word uſed by the chemiſts for what is ſeparated from the nouriſhment by the kidneys. The Greek word ἀνώδυς, *anodus*; from α neg. and ὀδὼς, *a tooth*, ſignifies *toothleſs*.

ANODYNA, from α privative, and ὀδύνω, *dolco*; or α neg. and ὀδυνη, *pain*.

Anodynes are medicines which eaſe pain, and procure ſleep. They are divided into three ſorts, viz.

1. Paregorics, or ſuch as aſſwage pain.
2. Hypnotics, or ſuch as relieve by procuring ſleep.
3. Narcotics,

3. Narcotics, or ſuch as eaſe the patient by ſtupifying him.

Opiates and narcotics deſtroy ſenſation. Some hypnotics and paregorics, procure eaſe and ſleep by removing the offending cauſe, as nitre, camphor, &c.

The doſes of theſe medicines are generally regulated by the pulſe; yet this rule is not without exceptions. If the pulſe is ſtrong, a larger doſe is ſafe; if weak, a leſs doſe muſt be given.

Camphor is the beſt anodyne in nervous caſes, and at the decline of fevers.

Hemlock procures eaſe and ſleep without cauſing that head-ach, next morning, uſually complained of after taking opium.

Anodynes ſhould not be given without great caution, on a full ſtomach, nor in dropſies.

ANODYNIA. Indolence, or abſence from pain. Synonymous with anæſtheſia.

ANODYNUM (Bals.) The anodyne balſam.

Bates's anodyne balſam is uſually made thus:

℞ linim. ſaponac. ℔ i. tinct. theb. ʒ iv. m.

Balſ. Anodyn. *Guidonis*, *Guido's* Anodyne Balſam.

℞ tacamahaca pulv. tereb. Venet. ää p. æq.

Fill a retort nearly to two thirds of its capacity, and diſtill with a fire gradually increaſed; then ſeparate the red oil or *balſam* from the liquor which ſwims above it. Its virtues are much the ſame as thoſe of all other empyreumatic oils.

ANODYNUM MINERALE, i. e. Sal Prunellæ, alſo the nitrum ſtibiatum.

Anodynus *Fotus*.

℞ capit. papav. contuſ. ʒ ij. Flor. ſambuc. & flor. chamem. ää ʒ i. coq. in aq. font. ad ℔ ij. & colatur, adde acet. acerim. ʒ vi. ſpt. ſal. ammon. ʒ i m.

ANODYNUM MARTIALE, i. e. Mars Diaphoreticus.

ANŒA, from ἀ, neg. and νους, *the mind*. Madneſs.

ANOIA. Stupidity.

ANOMALIA, Anomalous. From ἀ, neg. and ὁμαλὸς, *equal* or *ſmooth*. Unequal, irregular.

ANOMŒOMERES, from ἀ, neg. and ὁμοιος, *like*, and μερος, *a part*. Conſiſting of parts of different kinds. The ſame as heterogeneous.

ANOMŒOS. Diſſimilar or heterogene. Hippocrates uſes this word for viſcous or unnatural humours.

ANOMPHALOS, from ἀ, neg. and ὀμφαλὸς, a navel. Without a navel.

ANONA. A tree which is met with in the warmer parts of the Eaſt-Indies; the fruit is conical and ſquamous, with a pulpy ſubſtance ſurrounding the cells, in which are oblong hard ſeeds.

Miller enumerates ſeven ſpecies, of which that called ſappadilla or naſeberry tree, bears the moſt agreeable fruit.

ANONAS, or Bahama Papaw.

ANONIS, called alſo ononidis, reſta bovis, areſta bovis, remora aratri, petty-whin, cammock, and reſtharrow. Miller reckons up twenty-ſix ſpecies.

It is a ſmall flexible plant, growing in waſte grounds; its roots are long and tough, have a faint ſmell and a ſweetiſh bitter taſte: their medicinal virtue reſides chiefly in the cortical parts. The doſe is ʒ i. It is diuretic and apperient.

ANONYMOS, from ἀ, neg. and ὀνομα, *a name*. Nameleſs.

It was formerly a name of the cricoid cartilage; and many exotic trees and ſhrubs are ranked now under this name.

ANONYMOS AMERICANA. A ſort of wild madder. See Rubia.

ANONYMOS FLORE COLUTEÆ. A ſpecies of polygala.

ANONYMOS RIBESII FOLIIS. A ſpecies of ſpiræa.

ANORA, ſee Annora.

ANORCHIDES, from ἀ, neg. and ὀρχις, *a teſticle*. Such as are born without teſticles.

ANORECTI. Thoſe who have no appetite.

ANOREXIA, Anorexy. From ἀ, neg. and ὀρεξις, *appetite*. A want of appetite, without loathing of food. The Greeks call ſuch as take no food anorecti and aſiti; but thoſe who have an averſion to food they call apoſitoi.

This diſorder is either original or ſymptomatic; when it is original, its cauſes are, bad diet, too free drinking, voracioufneſs, &c. in old age it may proceed from feeblenefs. But it is more frequently a ſymptom of ſome other diſorder, and the cure depends on the removal of the original one. Dr Cullen ranks this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales and order dyſorexiæ. He ſeems to think it always ſymptomatic. Yet points out two ſpecies, viz. 1. Anorexia humoralis, as when the ſtomach is offended with mucous, bilious, or other humours. 2 Anorexia atonica, when the fibres of the ſtomach leſe their tone. He uſes this word anorexia as ſynonymous with dyſpepſia.

If the ſtomach is oppreſſed with a ſenſe of weight, begin the cure with a vomit of ipecac. or if the patient is hyſterical, a doſe or two of the tinct. ſacra. vel pil. Ruſi may be directed in its ſtead, and afterwards,

℞ Tinct. ſerp. v tinct aromat. ää ʒ i. elix. vitriol. acid. ʒ ij. m. cap. cochl. parv. ii. duabus horis ante prand. exhauſt. infuſ. flor. chamæmil

If the offending humours in the ſtomach are alcalious or bilious, give the elixir vitriol. acid. bis terve in die in aq. font.

If drinking ſtrong liquors is the cauſe, beſides temperance and a light but cordial nouriſhing diet, with daily exerciſe, give the elixir of vitriol with the bark, and when circumſtances admit, the ſulphureous water ſhould be drank at the ſprings, ſuch as thoſe at Bath, Harrowgate, Llandrindod, &c.

If acids prevail in the primæ viæ, avoid vegetables, and let the diet be chiefly of the animal kind. The drink may be Seltzer water, or any of the chalybeate kind, beſides which,

℞ Infuſ. amara ſi ℔ i. tinct. aromat. ʒ i. ſs. m. cap. cochl. iii. magn. ter die, & horis intermediis cap. pulv. & julep. ſeq.

℞ Magneſ. alb. ϑ i. ſulph. precip. ϑ ſs. ol. carui gt. i. m.

℞ Tinct. ſtypt. ph. Lond. ʒ ij. aq. font. ʒ vi. m. cap. cochl. ii. magn. cum ſing pulv. ut ſupra.

When the appetite is deſtroyed by the uſe of narcotics, ſharp vinegar is commended, in ſmall doſes.

If there is a great defect of the bile, the extract fellis bovonis is preferable to the vegetable bitters.

And if there is a naufea and averſion to food, the ſame remedies in general ſucceed as in a ſimple loſs of appetite, the difference of the caſes conſiſting only in the degree. Hoffman particularly commends mint and its preparations. Emetics are not to be omitted. See Apepsia.

ANOSIA, from ἀ, neg. and νοσος, *a diſeaſe*. The abſence of a diſeaſe.

ANOSMIA. A diminution or loſs of ſmelling. Dr. Cullen arranges this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales and order dyſæſtheſiæ. And mentions two ſpecies, viz. 1. *Anoſmia* Organica, when there is ſome evident fault in the membrane thar lines the noſtrils as a catarrh, a polypus, a venereal infection, &c. 2. *Anoſmia* Atonica, when the membrane of the noſtrils is paralytic. In theſe different inſtances, an attention to the cauſe will lead to the means for relief.

ANOTASIER. Sal ammoniac.

ANOTHEN. The ſame as ano.

ANPATER. Sulphur.

AMSAVA. The dragon's blood tree.

ANSER. The gooſe.

There are many ſpecies of *geeſe*; but the *anſer* domeſticus, or tame *gooſe*, and the *anſer* ferus, or wild *gooſe*, are the chief of thoſe that are in uſe with us. Their fleſh is hard, but agreeable food, though not very proper for the ſedentary: the tame *gooſe* is the beſt for food in autumn.

The fat of *geeſe* is penetrating and diſcutient beyond that of any other animal.

ANSERINA, i. e. Potentilla. It is alſo a name of the argentina.

ANSJELI, i. e. Angelina.

ANTACHATES. It is a bituminous ſtone, which, in burning, ſmells like myrrh.

ANTACIDA. Antiacids. Such remedies as reſiſt or deſtroy acids.

There was a time when it was ſuppoſed that moſt diſeaſes depended on a quantity of acid and alkali contained in the fluids. It is true, they both exiſt in the blood, but altered by chemical combination; ſo that it is very ſeldom, if ever, that we find any mark of acidity there; none that can be rendered ſenſible to any chemical experiment. But when a quantity of acid is thrown in, it paſſes to the kidnies, and proving diuretic it paſſes off with urine: indeed it cannot exiſt long in any quantity in the veſſels without being neutralized by decompounding the ammoniacal ſalts of the blood, and uniting with the volatile alkali which is detached.

We have no occaſion to employ any remedies to deſtroy either acidity or alkaleſcency in the veſſels, for it does not appear to be contained in them; though acids may be in the firſt courſe of the circulation, being ſenſibly perceived in the kidnies, and increaſing the ſecretion of the glands of the breaſt. And if vegetable food be not thoroughly digeſted, a ſickneſs, vomiting, heart-burn, (and in infants, frequency of the pulſe to a fatal degree) may be produced, and this from the acid produced from the food in the ſtomach going into its own aceſcent fermentation.

Though the fundamental cure of ſuch acidity of the ſtomach be ſtrengthening it, yet if the quantity of acid in the primæ viæ be very conſiderable, it is better to evacuate it by an emetic: if it is not ſo very conſiderable in its quantity, yet, as it will act as a ferment, it will accumulate again; we muſt therefore employ ſome ſubſtances which will combine with it, ſuch as alkali, calcareous earth, magneſia, &c. Mild alkali is thought to hurt if given freely, but this is imaginary; it is preferable to abſorbent earth. The magneſia becomes laxative when it meets with an acid, the calcareous earths are rather aſtringent, ſo if neither of theſe effects are required, they they may be mixed in ſuch proportions as are required. The foſſile alkaline ſalt hath its advantages in ſome inſtances. The mild alkali are always to be preferred, for they do not diſſolve the mucus in the firſt paſſages ſo freely as the volatile does. For children the doſe of fix alkali may be from gr. iij. to v. for adults from gr. x. to ℈ i. if the foſſile alkali in cryſtals is uſed, allow for its water, which is at leaſt one half of the whole. As diet, ſhell fiſhes are peculiarly agreeable.

It is not ſufficient that we deſtroy the preſent acidity in the ſtomach; it is alſo neceſſary that the ſtomach ſhould act powerfully on the food, to prevent future diſturbance from this cauſe.

ANTAGONISTA, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and ἀγωνίζω, *to ſtrive*. One acting in oppoſition to another.

This word is applied to muſcles which counteract each other.

ANTALE, i. e. Antalium.

ANTALGICUS, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and ἄλγος, *pain*. Such remedies as eaſe pain.

ANTALIUM, alſo called antale and tubulus marinus. It is a ſhell like a pipe, of the thickneſs of a ſmall quill, and about an inch and a half in length; it is hollow, and hath hollow lines running from one end to the other: its colour is white, or a greeniſh white. A kind of worm is the natural inhabitant of this ſhell, and its medical uſes are the ſame with the ſhells of oyſters, &c.

ANTAPHRODISIACOS, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and ἀφροδίτη, *Venus*. Antivenereal, or ſuch medicines as extinguiſh amorous deſires.

ANTAPHRODITICA, i. e. Antaphrodiſiacos.

ANTAPODOSIES, from ἀνταποδίδωμι, *to reciprocate*. Returns of the paroxyſms of fevers.

ANTARTHRITICUM. Anti-arthritic. From ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and ἀρθρῖτις, *the gout*. Medicines againſt the gout.

ANTASTHMATICA. Anti-aſthmatic. From ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and ἄσθμα, *an aſthma*. Remedies againſt an aſthma.

ANTATROPHON, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and ἀτροφία, *a conſumption*. Medicines againſt conſumptions.

ANTECEDENS CAUSA. See Proegomena.

ANTECEDENTIA SIGNA. Antecedent ſigns, ſuch ſigns as precede the diſeaſe.

ANTELABIA, πρόχειλα, from πρὸ and χεῖλος, *a lip*. The extremeties of the lips.

ANTELIX, or Antihelix. It is that part of the ear which is oppoſite to the helix.

ANTEMBALLOMENOS, from ἀντὶ, *inſtead of*, and ἐμβάλλω, *to contribute*. Subſtituted. Called alſo ſuccedanea, ſuccedaneous.

ANTEMBASIS, from ἀντὶ *mutually*, and ἐμβαίνω, *to enter*. A mutual inſertion or ingreſs, applied by Galen to the bones.

ANTEMETICA, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and ἐμετικος, *vomitous*. Remedies againſt vomiting.

ANTENDEIXIS, from ἀντὶ *againſt*, and ἐνδείκνυμι, *to indicate*. A contra-indication. As when one ſymptom requires a remedy which another ſymptom forbids the uſe of.

ANTANEASMUS, or Anteneaſinum. A particular kind of madneſs; in it the patient is furiouſly irritated, and endeavours to lay violent hands on himſelf.

ATEPHIALTICUS, from ἀντὶ and ἐφιάλτης, *the night-mare*. A name for the remedies adapted to the cure of the ſaid diſorder.

ANTIEPILEPTICA, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and ἐπιλῆψις, *the epilepſy*. Remedies againſt an epilepſy and other convulſive diſorders.

ANTERA, i. e. Anthera.

ANTERIOR MALLEOLUS (Muſc.) i. e. Muſc. extern. auris.

ANTERIORES NASI (Muſc.) i. e. Muſc. pyramid. naſi.

ANTERIT. Mercury.

ANTEROS, i. e. Amethyſtus.

ANTHEDON. A tree which Ray takes to be the meſpilus aronia.

ANTHELIX, i. e. Antihelix.

ANTHELMIA, alſo called ſpigelia, herba caryophylli Indici, Indian pink, and worm-graſs of Jamaica. It is the ſpigelia Marilandica, vel ſpigelia caule tetragono, foliis omnibus oppoſitis. Linn. S. N. 166. vel ſpigelia *anthelmia*. Linn.

It is found in different parts of the iſland of Jamaica, and other of the windward iſlands. It riſes from a ſmall tapering root, well charged with fibres on all ſides, by a ſtraight, ſmooth, roundiſh, and hollow ſtalk, which ſeems to grow thicker as it riſes to the height of five, ſeven, or nine inches; at the top are generally four leaves, oblong, ſharp-pointed, and almoſt equal, with veins, which running obliquely towards the ſides or edges of the leaf, turn off and terminate towards the point; out of the center of the croſs, formed by theſe four leaves, riſe one, two, or more ſpikes, bearing flowers, which ſpikes are from half an inch to two or three inches long, and range the flowers and ſeeds on one ſide of them pretty thick; the mother-ſtalk hath generally one, two, or three joints, out of which ſpring twice as many leaves oppoſite, and like thoſe at the top, add as many branches in an alternate order, which terminates like the mother-ſtalk.

The uſual method of adminiſtering this medicine is as follows:

℞ Herb. *anthelm.* ℥ ſs. coque in aq. font. ℔ xii. ad. ℔ viii. colaturæ adde ſacchar. alb. & ſuc. limon. q. ſ. ad gratam acid. dulcedinemque. detur cochl. ii. magn. h. ſ. & i. mane proxim.

Half a dram of this herb may be infuſed five or ſix hours in a quarter of a pint of boiling water; one half of the ſtrained liquor may be given to a child of twelve years old, and the other half the next morning: if no inconvenience is manifeſt from this doſe, the infuſion may be made ſtill ſtronger.

For adults who are not remarkably feeble, ℥ iii. of this herb may be boiled down to ℔i. and the doſes may be from two to ſix common ſpoonfuls, according to its effects on the patient.

In moſt perſons it procures ſleep; in many, after taking a full doſe, their eyes are obſerved to ſparkle, and alſo to be diſtended after the ſleep is over; and if there was a fever from worms, the pulſe becomes more regular, and the heat moderate, and by the uſe of a purge or two afterwards, worms are diſcharged; this medicine muſt be continued as long as the worms are obſerved to paſs away with the ſtools. If its effect on the eyes of children is ſuch as to produce a painful diſtention in them, it is better omitted.

ANTHELMINTICA, from ἀντὶ, *againſt* and ἕλμινς, *a worm*. Remedies againſt worms.

Many

Many are the diſorders ſaid to be brought on the nervous ſyſtem by worms, the cauſe of which, according to ſome, is their corroſion of their nervous coat of the inteſtines; according to others, it is the acrid exhaltations ariſing from the bodies and excrements of the worms. As to the removal of them, the gums, aſſa fœtida, and ſagapenum are preferred, for they drive away the worms by their offenſive vapour; tanſey, garlic, and camphor, have a ſimilar effect: tanſey and worm ſeed are uſeful by ſtrengthening the ſtomach and inteſtines, and by reſiſting the putrid colluvies; but purgatives, by diſcharging the redundant mucus lodged in the bowels, ſeem to be the only proper worm deſtroyers. See VERMES.

ANTHEMIS. The wild chamomile.

ANTHERA, from ἄνθος, a flower. A compound medicine uſed by the ancients, ſo called from its florid red colour. There are various compoſitions which had this name. *Anthera*, indeed, were prepared for any particular part of the body, in the form of powders, electaries, &c. and were uſed as collyriums, dentrifices, &c.

Antheræ, in botany, are the little heads in the middle of the *flowers*, ſupported by the ſtaminæ. See APICES.

ANTHEREA, i. e. Anthora.

ANTHEREON. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs the chin, and all that part of the face where the beard grows.

ANTHERICOS. Dioſcorides ſays it is the flower of the aſphodel; others ſay it is the ſtalk only.

ANTHEROPHYLLUS. See CARYOPHYLLUS.

ANTHIA. The name of a fiſh.

ANTHINES, from ἄνθος, a flower. A name of ſome medicated oils and wines.

ANTHONOR, i. e. Athanor.

ANTHOPHYLLUS. The aromatic clove, when ripe, is thus named.

ANTHORA, called alſo antithora, anthera, acconitum ſalutiferum, wholeſome helmet flower, wholeſome wolf's bane, counter poiſon monkſhood, and yellow helmet flower: it is the aconitum anthora of Lin.

This plant is diſtinguiſhed from the poiſonous aconites, by the leaves not being gloſſy, by their being cut entirely down to the pedicle, and by the ſegments being very narrow, and of nearly the ſame width the from end to end. It is a native of the Alps and Pyrennes, from whence we have the dried roots, which are of an irregular roundiſh ſhape, a little oblong, brown on the outſide, white within, hard to break, but not tough; to the taſte it is acrid and bitter, to the ſmell it is faint; if chewed a little it conſtringes the fauces, and a nauſeous ſweetneſs is perceived. It is ſuppoſed to be an antidote to the poiſonous aconites, particularly to that ſpecies called thora, whence its name *antithora*.

ANTHOS, ἄνθος, a *flower*. Hippocrates means by this word, *flowers* in general; and if Galen is right in his comment, Hippocrates includes the ſeeds with the *flowers*.

ANTHEA, in the plural ſignifies redneſs.

ANTHOS, is alſo uſed for flos æris.

ANTHOS, when uſed alone ſignifies the flowers of roſemary, and is ſometimes taken for the plant, but improperly.

ANTHOS (CONSERVA.) See RORISMARINA.

ANTHOSMIAS, from ἄνθος, a *flower*, and ὀσμη, *ſmell*. A name applied to ſweet-ſcented wine.

ANTHOUS. Properly roſemary, but transferred to metals; it ſignifies the fifth eſſence, or elixir of gold.

ANTHRACIA, anthracoſia, or anthrax. A burning coal. A ſore kind of ſwelling, which is often a ſymptom in the plague, ſo called from its burning nature. See CARBUNCULUS.

ANTHRACITES. See SCHISTUS.

ANTHRACOSIS OCULI. A ſcaly corroſive ulcer of the eye, attended with a defluxion.

ANTHRAX. So Vitruvius calls the native cinnabar. See alſo CARBUNCULUS.

ANTHRISCUS. See SCANDIX and CAUCALIS.

ANTHROPE, from ἄνθρωπος, *a man*. Thus Herodotus calls the human ſkin.

ANTHROPOLOGIA, from ἄνθρωπος, a *man*, and λόγος, *a diſcourſe*. A deſcription of man.

ANTHROPOMORPHOS, from ἄνθρωπος, *a man*, and μορφη, *ſhape*. A name for the mandrakes.

ANTHROPOSOPHIA, from ἄνθρωπος, *a man*, and σοφία, *wiſdom* or *knowledge*. The knowledge of the nature of man.

ANTHYLLIS, called alſo auricula muris, trifolium falcatum, medicago Cretica, and ſea-kidney vetch. It grows on the ſea-coaſts of Candy and Sicily, but is not noted as a medicine.

ANTHYLLIS LEGUMINOSA, called alſo vulneraria ruſtica, kidney vetch, and lady's finger.

It grows in paſtures, flowers in June, but is not remarkable for its medicinal virtues.

ANTHYLLIS LEGUMINOSA HIRSUTA, &c. A ſpecies of vulneraria.

ANTHYLLIS MARITIMA ALSINES FOLIO. Sea chickweed. See HERNIARIA.

ANTHYPNOTICA, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and ὕπνος, *ſleep*. Medicines againſt ſleepineſs.

ANTHYPOCHONDRIACA, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and ὑποχόνδρια, *the hypochondria*. Medicines againſt the diſorders of the hypochondria.

ANTHYPOCHONDRIACUM (SAL.) It is the reſiduum remaining after the diſtillation of the ſpirit, and ſublimation of the ſal ammon. which conſiſts of the marine acid and the fixt alcaline ſalt, or the alcaline earth, according as one or the other was uſed in the proceſs; or rather, the ſalt obtained by ſolution and cryſtallization from this juſt named reſiduum.

ANTHYSTERICA, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and ὑςέρα, *the uterus*. Medicines againſt the hyſteric paſſion. Theſe medicines might as well be called uterines, for many of them remove the diſorders of the uterus, that produce hyſteric fits.

ANTHYSTERICUM (SAL.) i. e. Anthypoch. ſal.

ANTIADES. The tonſils. It ſometimes ſignifies the *tonſils* when inflamed. From ἀντιαω, *to occur*, becauſe they anſwer one another.

ANTIAGRI, from ἀντιάδες, *the tonſils*, and ἄγρα, *a prey*. Tumours of the tonſils.

ANTIARTHRITICA, i. e. Antarthriticum.

ANTIAS. The tonſils.

ANTIBALLOMENA, i. e. Antemballomenos.

ANTICACHECTICA, from ἀντὶ *againſt*, and καχεξία, *a cachexy*. Medicines againſt a cachexy.

ANTICADMIA. A ſpecies of cadmia, alſo called pſeudocadmia. Anti is here joined to expreſs its being ſubſtituted for the true cadmia.

ANTICAR. Borax.

ANTICARDIUM. The hollow at the bottom of the breaſt, uſually called the pit of the ſtomach. See SCROBICULUM CORDIS. From ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and καρδία, *the heart*.

ANTICATARRHALIS. A remedy againſt a catarrh.

ANTICAUSOTICUS, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and καῦσος, *a burning fever*. Remedies againſt burning fevers.

ANTICHEIR, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and χεὶρ, *the hand*. The thumb of a perſon's hand.

ANTICIPANS. The Greeks expreſs this by προληπτικὸς; it is applied to diſeaſes whoſe paroxyſms anticipate the time of the paroxyſm, that is, each of whoſe fits begin ſomewhat ſooner than the preceding. If the catamenia arrive before their ordinary period, they are ſaid to anticipate.

ANTICNEMION, from ἀντὶ, *overagainſt*, and κνήμη, *the calf of the leg*. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs that part of the tibia which is bare of fleſh.

ANTICOLICA. Remedies againſt the colic.

ANTICONTOSIS, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and κόντος, *a ſtaff* or *pole*. In Hippocrates it ſignifies the ſupporting a perſon with a ſtaff or crutch.

ANTIDINICA, from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and δῖνος, *circumgyration*. Medicines againſt a vertigo.

ANTIDOTARIUM. A book in which antidotes are preſcribed, or a place where they are prepared, i. e. a diſpenſatory.

ANTIDOTOS EX DUOBUS CENTAURÆ GENERIBUS. So Aetius calls a powder that is ſimilar to the duke of Portland's powder. See CHAMÆDRYS.

ANTIDOTUS, or Antidotum. An antidote from ἀντὶ, *againſt*, and δίδωμι, *to give*. This is explained under the word ANDROMACHUS. The philoſopher's ſtone is thus called by way of eminence.

ANTIDYSSENTERICA. Medicines againſt a dyſentery.

ANTIFEBRILE. Remedies againſt a fever.

ANTIFIDES. The calx of metals.

ANTIGONI COLLYRIUM NIGRUM. The black collyrium of Antigonus. It is made of cadmia, antimony, pepper, verdigriſe, gum arabic, and rain-water.

ANTIHECTICA. Remedies againſt a hectic fever.

ANTIHECTICUM POTERII. A medicine invented by Poterius, alſo named antimonium diaphoreticum joviale: it is thus prepared:

Take the martial regulus of antimony ſix ounces, and of pure tin three ounces; melt the regulus firſt in a crucible (or the tin will partly evaporate), then throw into it the tin; when the whole is melted, pour it out into a warm greaſed mortar, and when the maſs is cold, powder it, then add to it thrice its weight of nitre, and deflagrate the mixture in a crucible, throwing in only a ſpoonful at a time; after which calcine it, that is, keep it in fuſion for an hour, then grind it to an impalpable powder, pour thereon a ſufficient quantity of warm water, ſtir them well until the water becomes milky, which thus loaded with the finer parts of the powder, is to be poured off, and freſh water put to the remainder; repeat this until nothing but indiſſoluble fæces remain, ſuffer all the milky liquors to reſt after mixing them together, and a powder will fall to the bottom, which muſt be well waſhed with warm water and dried for uſe.

This medicine hath been extolled in the diſpenſatories, as effectual againſt hectic fevers, but it is now diſregarded.

ANTIHELIX, i. e. Anthelix. See AURICULA.

ANTILEPSIS, from *ἀντιλαμβάνω, to lay hold of.* Hippocrates ſpeaking of ſecuring bandages from ſlipping, uſes this word.

ANTILES, Antilis, or Antillus. The name of an eminent ancient ſurgeon.

ANTILOBIUM. That part of the ear which is oppoſite the lobe, i. e. the tragus, from *ἀντὶ, againſt,* and *λοβὸς, the bottom of the ear.*

ANTILOMICA, from *ἀντὶ, againſt,* and *λοιμὸς, the plague.* Remedies againſt the plague.

ANTILOPUS, called alſo gazella Africana, capra ſtrepſiceros, ſtrepſiciceros, and the antelope.

It is an African beaſt which reſembles a deer. The hoofs and horns have been uſed in medicine againſt hyſterics and epilepſy.

ANTILYSSUS, from *ἀντὶ, againſt,* and *λύσσα, the madneſs cauſed by the bite of a mad dog.*

It is the name of any medicine for the cure of this ſort of madneſs.

ANTILYSSUS (PULV.) Pharm. Lond.

Powder againſt the bite of a mad dog, from the London Diſpenſatory.

℞ Lichen. cinner. terreſt. pulv. ℥ ij. Piper. nig. pulv. ℥ i. m.

This powder was at firſt made with equal parts of the two ingredients, but being thought too warm, the proportions were reduced as here preſcribed.

Mr. Dampier communicated this medicine to the Royal Society, as a cure for the bite of a mad dog; it was publiſhed in the Philoſ. Tranſ. in N. 237. In the year 1721, Dr. Mead inſerted it in the London Diſpenſatory.

The method of uſing it is, after taking away ſome blood, let ℥ i ſs. be given in ℔ ſs. of milk, in the morning faſting, for four mornings ſucceſſively; after having taken the four doſes, the patient muſt be dipped every morning faſting for a month, then dipped three times a week for two weeks longer.

ANTIMONIUM, called alſo ſtibium, ſtimmi, platyophthalmon, larbaſon, ſatanus devorans, lupus philoſophorum, alamad, ailmad, the red lion, and antimony.

Antimony is ſometimes found in a particular ore, but moſt frequently mixed with other metals; and hence its name may have been derived, *antimony* being the ſame with *ἀντίμοιρον, an enemy to ſolitude.* It is called ſatanus devorans, and lupus philoſophorum, from its power of devouring or deſtroying as it were all metals when in fuſion with it. It is a ſemi-metal, of a whitiſh or a ſilver colour.

Its chemical character is a circle, denoting the body of gold, and a croſs to ſhew it is corroſive, which as it prevails it is placed at the top thus ♁.

There are mines of *antimony* in Hungary, Tranſylvania, Germany, France, and in England, ſome are met with. The French *antimony* is about equal parts regulus and ſulphur; but the beſt is from Hungary. The Engliſh is, of all the ſorts, the leaſt fit for medical uſe, for it is often mixed with lead or tin, from which, however, if ſeparated, it as as good any other: that which is ſpotted with red, Dr. Alſton, of Edinburgh, thinks it poſſeſſed of ſome arſenic, ſo ſhould be rejected.

The *antimony* is generally found mixed with hard ſtones or ſpar, from which it is ſeparated by eliquation; ſome ores are mixed with arſenic or with cobalt; ſome is dug up which is compoſed of fine ſhining lines like needles, ſometimes diſpoſed in regular ranks, at others without any obſervable order, this is termed male *antimony*; ſome is diſpoſed in thin broad plates or laminæ, and is called female *antimony* by Pliny: and from its different mixtures and appearances other names are given to it.

The mineral being broken into pieces, it is put into earthen pots whoſe bottoms are perforated with ſmall holes, and a moderate fire is applied round them; as the *antimony* melts, it runs through the holes in the bottoms of the pots, and is received into conical moulds that are placed underneath; in theſe moulds the lighter and more droſſy part riſes to the ſurface, while the purer and more ponderous falls to the bottom; whence it is that the broad part of the loaves are leſs pure than the apex or ſmaller end. The *antimony* thus ſeparated from its ore, is called crude, which yet is but an ore, or a combination of a particular metal with common ſulphur.

The goodneſs of crude *antimony* is diſcovered by its weight, from the loaves not being ſpongey, from the largeneſs of the ſtriæ, and from its totally evaporating on a ſtrong fire.

Its general appearance is a ponderous brittle mineral, or ſemi-metal, compoſed of long ſhining ſtreaks like needles, mixed with a dark leaden-coloured ſubſtance, and hath no particular taſte nor ſmell, and is brought to the ſhops in the form of conical loaves.

Antimony, like moſt of the beſt medicines, found its way as an internal in the medical practice with great difficulty; the ancients conſidered it as a poiſon, and only fit for external uſes. Baſil Valentine, in the fifteenth century, firſt brought it into vogue as an internal medicine; but it ſoon loſt its repute, until Paracelſus raiſed its credit again, after which it was received and rejected ſeveral times, until, by the ſucceſs of empyrics, it received an eſtabliſhed place in regular practice; and is now juſtly ranked with the moſt valuable part of the materia medica.

The crude *antimony*, if made into an exquiſitely fine powder, is, in many diſorders, as efficacious as any of its preparations; in numbneſs and pains of the limbs, which follow a ſalivation and other cauſes, three grains may be given three times a day, gradually increaſing the doſe by one grain at a time, until it amounts to half a dram, then gradually leſſen it by the ſame proportion as it was increaſed: in the pareſis and palſy the ſame method is alſo effectual.

The preparations of *antimony* are, in general, uſed both as alteratives and evacuants, and hardly any article in the materia medica will admit of ſo extenſive a uſe as this: in acute diſeaſes, as well as chronical, it is equally a principal in the cure, the varieties of theſe complaints only requiring ſome difference in its adjuncts. In fevers of the inflammatory and putrid kinds, it is alike the proper remedy; and in chronical diſeaſes, whether from the rigid or lax habit, it is alſo to be depended on.

It promotes all the ſecretions and excretions, particularly thoſe of the ſkin, inteſtines, urinary paſſages, and ſalival ducts, by gently irritating the whole nervous and vaſcular compages. If given in ſmall doſes, gradually increaſing them, yet keeping to that proportion which excites no ſenſible diſcharge, it is a moſt effectual remedy for regenerating a healthy ſtate of the blood, ſuch a one as will maintain the vital heat in a natural way; for this purpoſe its effects are not ſo ſpeedy as thoſe of iron, but they are more laſting.

Thus it is eaſy to perceive how juſtly it is aſſerted to be curative in ſo many diſorders, and thoſe too of oppoſite natures. As an auxiliary to other medicines, on which the cure more directly depends, its efficacy is no

leſs

leſs to be admired; it quickens their action and increaſes their powers, particularly thoſe by which any evacuation is to be promoted, mixed in under doſes with ſuch medicines, their operation is generally more eaſy too; of itſelf it excels as an expectorant, and ſome of its preparations provoke the ſalivary glands, as when mercury hath been freely taken; but the diſcharge made by *antimony* is ropy, whereas that with mercury is very thin.

If any preparation of *antimony* is too free in its operation upwards, it may be carried through the inteſtines by taking a little common ſalt in any ſmall drink made warm, or it is reſtrained by a draught of water acidulated with the elix. vitrioli acidum.

The preparations of this drug are numerous, but except that which is called the antimonial cauſtic, they only differ from each other in their degrees of activity: the juſt named cauſtic, the antimonial wine, and emetic tartar, are the only ones that deſerve our notice, out of the great variety which ſwell the diſpenſatories. Beſides theſe, we may indeed add two private preſcriptions, which are deſervedly celebrated, viz. the febrifuge powder of Dr. James, and that of Edinburgh, the latter of which is recommended to us on the beſt authority, as poſſeſſed of thoſe very deſiderata, the want of which was the cauſe of other preparations being complained of. See Edinburgh. (Pulv. Feb.)

After naming ſome of the pharmaceutic properties of crude *antimony*, the chief of its preparations follow.

It conſiſts of a metallic part, called its regulus, and of common ſulphur. Newmann, and ſome others, aſſert that its emetic and cathartic qualities are owing to a ſmall portion of arſenic contained in it; but this is objected to, from obſerving that the ill effects of arſenic are very different from thoſe of *antimony*; and again, that the activity of *antimony* is deſtroyed by means that have no ſuch effect on arſenic.

It is eaſier of fuſion than its pure metal.

It melts before it is red hot, but not before its containing veſſel is ſo.

All its medicinal virtue is in its metallic part.

Water neither diſſolves the ſulphur nor the metal.

Rectified ſpirit of wine affects not the metal, but takes up a ſmall portion of the ſulphur.

Wine, or any vegetable ſaponaceous acid, acts on both the ſulphur and the metal.

Oil of vitriol takes up the inflammable part of this ſemimetal and unites with it into an actual mineral ſulphur.

The muriatic acid, and the aqua regia, are its proper ſolvents; the other diſſolvers of metals convert it into a calx.

Crude *antimony* is volatile in the fire, and volatilizes all metals except gold, ſo as to make them fly away with it in the form of a vapour; hence its uſe in refining gold.

The ſolution of it in aq. regia, or in ſpirit of ſalt, is precipitated by the addition of water.

United with ſulphur, or partly calcined with nitre, its virulent activity in the primæ viæ is much abated.

When entirely deprived of its phlogiſton by calcination, it becomes quite inert, acquiring additional weight.

It is ſoluble in hepar ſulphuris.

Butyrum Antimonii, *i. e. Cauſticum* Antimoniale *Calx* Antimonii.

The London College directs to take of powdered *antimony*, and mix it well with thrice its weight of nitre, then to throw it by degrees into a crucible moderately heated; then being removed from the fire, let it be waſhed in water, both from the adhering ſalts and from what coarſer parts may have been leſs calcined than the reſt.

When the detonation of the above mixture is over, let it continue about half an hour longer over the fire, that it may be more perfectly calcined. The firſt waſhing is performed by putting the calx from the crucible into water, that the ſalt remaining with it may be diſſolved: when the undiſſolved part is ſettled, this water is to be poured off, and freſh water put on; and when the waſhing hath been repeated till the water comes away taſteleſs, then to ſeparate the groſſer parts from the reſt, water is to be poured on, and decanted again, while turbid, that it may carry along with it the more ſubtile parts, while the groſſer are left behind.

This was formerly called *antim.* diaphoreticum; it is a perfect inert metallic earth, and hath been taken to the quantity of half an ounce, without producing any ſenſible effect; but if the nitre is not perfectly free from ſea ſalt, this calx will be emetic, becauſe, in this caſe, there is not the due quantity of nitre for the proportion of the ſea ſalt. Huxham ſays, that one eighth of nitre makes as inert a calx as any larger quantity doth.

Crude *antimony* deflagrated with different proportions of nitre, is more or leſs active, and is the different preparations called crocus and hepar.

The unwaſhed calx is called *antim.* diaph. nitratum. when waſhed it is called calx. *antim.* lotus. vel. dulce.

Cheap as this calx is, it is ſometimes adulterated with whiting.

Antimonium *Cathartícum, Di. Wilſon. Mr. Wilſon's purging* Antimony.

Take four ounces of the glaſs of *antimony* finely powdered, gradually pour thereon twelve ounces of the oil of vitriol; digeſt them forty-eight hours, then diſtill them in a ſand heat; when the whole is cold, waſh the powder which remains at the bottom of the retort, until all its acrimony is loſt; then dry and grind it with an equal weight of Glauber's ſalt, and a double quantity of the vitriolated tartar; keep this mixture a quarter of an hour in gentle fuſion, in a crucible placed in a wind furnace, then taking it away from the fire, when it is cold, powder it, then waſh and dry it again for uſe.

Its inventor ſays that it is the moſt certain *antimonial* purge; that it operates without nauſeating the ſtomach; and that it may be given from three grains to ten for a doſe.

Cauſticum Antimoniale. The Antimonial Cauſtic.

According to the London College it is thus made: take of *antimony* one pound, of corroſive ſublimate two pounds; being reduced ſeparately into powder, mix them well, and diſtill them in a retort with a wide neck, in a gentle heat of ſand; let what aſcends into the neck of the retort be expoſed to the air, that it may run into a liquor.

The congealed ſubſtance in the neck of the retort was formerly called butter, and when liquified, oil of *antimony*.

Carefully avoid the fumes that ariſe from the *antimony* and the ſublimate, and cautiouſly increaſe the fire under the ſand bath. The thick matter in the neck of the retort may be melted down by carefully applying a live coal very near to it, and afterwards rendered permanently fluid, by diſtilling it three times in another retort; it is thus rendered ſomewhat more corroſive too.

This preparation is the ſpeedieſt eſcharotic that is in uſe, and it gives leſs pain than any of the other kinds. Inwardly it may be taken from one to two drops, in broth.

Ceruſſa Antimonii. *The Ceruſs of* Antimony.

This preparation differs not from the calx. *antim.* above, though the regulus of *antimony* is ordered in it, inſtead of the crude mineral, as in making the calx.

Cinnabaris Antimonii. *Cinnabar* of Antimony.

After the diſtillation of the cauſticum antimoniale, there remains, in the retort, a black powder compoſed of the mercury of the ſublimate, and the ſulphur of the *antimony*; this being urged with a red heat, ſublimes into a cinnabarine maſs.

It does not, as is ſuppoſed, partake of the metallic part of the *antimony*, nor does it differ from the common cinnabar, except in its poſſeſſing more ſulphur. It is probably inert, as it is abſolutely inſoluble. If it is uſeful as a medicine, ſuch efficacy muſt be owing to its decompoſition taking place in the body.

Crocus Antimonii. *Crocus of* Antimony.

The London College directs to take of pure crude *antimony* and nitre, of each equal parts, to powder them ſeparately, then mix, and gradually to throw it into a hot crucible to melt, after which, the matter being poured out, it is to be ſeparated from its ſcoriæ.

It is alſo called crocus metallorum, and hepar *antimonii*, but improperly.

The crucible ſhould be heated to a white heat, or the mixture will not be duly melted; and the longer it is kept in fuſion, the deeper its colour will be. But as commonly made there is leſs nitre uſed, and a ſmall quantity of common ſalt thrown into it, to promote the fluxion.

This preparation is violently emetic, much of the ſulphur of *antimony* is conſumed; but the variety found in the ſtrength of different parcels, and the rugged effects of it in general, renders it almoſt unfit for any uſe, except amongſt horſes.

Crocus Antimonii *Lotus*. *Waſhed Crocus of* Antimony.

Reduce the crocus to a fine powder, and boil it in water, then throw this water away, and waſh the powder in freſh parcels of warm water until it is perfectly inſipid.

The waſhing frees it only from adventitious ſalts, and is intended to render it more fit for the preparation of tart. emet. and the vin. *antim.* but in both theſe the glaſs of *antimony* is greatly to be preferred.

Crocus Antimonii *Medicinalis*. *Medicinal Crocus of* Antimony.

Take eight ounces of *antimony* and one ounce of nitre; powder, mix, and deflagrate them, then the matter being immediately taken from the fire and cooled, powder it for uſe.

This is ſomewhat more active than the crude *antimony*; from gr. eight to twenty operates gently, both upward and downward.

Crocus Antimonii *Mitior*. *The milder Crocus of* Antimony.

Take of crude *antimony* two pounds, and of nitre one pound, powder and deflagrate them.

Be careful to remove theſe two laſt from the fire, as ſoon as the deflagration ceaſes, and before the metal melts.

In all theſe proceſſes only a little of the compoſition muſt be thrown in at a time, and no more muſt be added until the deflagration ceaſes, leſt the violence of the deflagration would throw out much of the matter into the fire.

This laſt preparation is called mitior, with reſpect to the crocus *antimonii*, commonly called crocus metallorum, but it is ſtronger than the crocus *antimonii* medicinalis.

Antim. *Crud. ppt.* *Crude* Antimony *prepared*.

As fine powder diſcovers but little medical effects, it ſhould be levigated to a great degree of ſubtilty, and then it becomes a powerful alterative. If it is not duly comminuted, it ſtimulates the ſtomach and bowels to an ejection of their contents, without any valuable ends being anſwered. The levigation ſhould be continued until the whole is fine enough to be ſuſpended in water for ſome time; then the levigated matter muſt be put into a large quantity of water in a large veſſel, which muſt be repeatedly ſhaken, that the finer parts of the powder may be diffuſed through the water; then the liquor muſt be poured off and ſet by until the powder ſettles; and the groſſer part, which the water would not take up, is to be farther levigated and treated in the ſame manner.

ANTIMONIUM DIAPHORETICUM, i. e. Calx antimonii.

ANTIMONIUM DIAPHORETICUM JOVIALE, i. e. Antihecticum Poterii.

ANTIMONIUM DIAPHORETICUM NITRÂTUM. See Calx Antimonii.

ANTIMONII ESSENTIA. The eſſence of antimony, i. e. Vinum antimonii.

ATIMONII FLORES. The flowers of antimony.

If the pure regulus of *antimony* is continued in fuſion in an open veſſel, being volatile, it gradually exhales in thick white fumes, which condenſe on the adjacent bodies into white flowers, which are violently emetic.

In hypochondriac complaints, their efficacy is ſaid to be as great as that of the bark in intermittents; and they are ſaid to be a ſpecific in manias, if a ſpecific in any diſeaſe really exiſts.

ANTIMONIAL. GUT. Dr. WARD. Dr. Ward's antimonial drops, i. e. Vinum antimoniale.

ANTIMONII, (Lac Sulphuris.) i. e. Sulph. ant. precipitat.

ANTIMONII OLEUM. See Caust. Antim.

ANTIMONII PANACEA. The panacea of antimony.

Take of crude *antimony* ſix ounces, of nitre two ounces, common ſalt an ounce and a half, charcoal an ounce. Mix, powder, and deflagrate them in a red hot crucible, and after the injection of the laſt portion, continue the fire a quarter of an hour longer, then removing it from the fire, let the matter be cold.

The addition of the common ſalt is unneceſſary, and the charcoal only haſtens the alkalization of the nitre.

At the bottom of the crucible is the regulus, in the middle is a compact liver-coloured ſubſtance, and at the top a more ſpongy maſs; this laſt, when powdered and edulcorated by various waſhings in water, is called the *panacea*. The liver-coloured part is a churliſh kind of croc. *antimonii*.

This *panacea* is no other than a ſulph. *antimonii* precipitat. it is ſaid to be the baſis of Lockyer's pills.

ANTIMONII PANACEA DI. WILSON, i. e. Sulph. antim. precipitat.

ANTIMONIAL. PILUL. Dr. WARD. Dr. Ward's antimonial pill.

Take well levigated glaſs of antimony four ounces, mix it well with one ounce of dragon's blood, then beat them into a maſs with a little mountain wine, after which divide it into pills of about one grain and a half each.

Mr. Clutton, the chemiſt, ſays that they contain a portion of arſenic.

One of theſe pills is a full doſe for a full grown perſon.

ANTIMONIALIS (Pulvis.) The antimonial powder.

Take of emetic tartar two grains, after reducing it to a fine powder, mix it well with half a dram of the compound powder of crabs claw, or with the ſame quantity of any other of the teſtacea.

This is a ſubſtitute for Dr. James's febrifuge powder, and ſixteen grains of it is equal to a doſe of the doctor's. The virtues of this powder are the ſame with thoſe of the tart. emet. or the vin. antim. The doſe may be from two to four grains, when it is not deſigned as an emetic, and may be repeated every two or more hours, as required.

It ſhould be made only in ſmall quanties, for the teſtacea attracts the acid from the metal, and decompoſes it; but this inconvenience is beſt obviated by mixing the emetic tartar with ſugar.

ANTIMONII (Regulus.) The regulus of antimony.

The metallic part of *antimony* is what is called its regulus. It is a metal of a particular ſpecies, of a bright white colour, a leafy texture, very brittle, near ſeven times ſpecifically heavier than water, and melts in a low white heat; if continued in fuſion, in an open veſſel, it gradually exhales in thick white fumes; melted with common ſulphur it becomes ſimilar in appearance and qualities to the crude *antimony*; no known art can render it malleable; in it is contained all the medicinal qualities of *antimony*; it is corroded by the vitriolic and nitrous acids into a white powder, but the marine acid perfectly and properly diſſolves it; it will not diſſolve in aqua-fortis, nor is it ſo readily ſoluble as the glaſs of *antimony*.

The largeſt quantity of regulus hitherto obtained from *antimony*, is by calcining it without addition, as in making the glaſs of *antimony*, and then reviving the calx by fuſion, with an equal weight of the black flux. As ſoon as it is fluid, pour it into a cone, and the pure regulus will fall to the bottom.

The regulus of *antimony* hath been caſt into pills, in which form it hath acted as a cathartic. Theſe pills being ſeparated from the ſtools after their diſcharge, they have been taken again and again with the ſame effect, but without any ſenſible loſs of their weight or quality. Theſe pills are called perpetual pills. A cup made with this regulus was called the antimonial cup; wine poured into it preſently became emetic, and no loſs of the cup was obſerved thereby.

ANTIMONII, (Regulus Martialis.)

Take horſe-ſhoe nails (for they are the ſofteſt iron, and fuſe moſt ſpeedily) one part, and of crude *antimony* in powder two parts. Throw the nails into a crucible, and make them white hot; then throw in the *antimony*, and increaſe the heat until the whole is in perfect fuſion. As this proceſs requires great heat, the fuſion may be accelerated by adding two parts of nitre, which being thus alcalized, forms a hepar ſulphuris, which diſſolves a part of the regulus, and renders the ſcoria more fluid.

Sulphur hath a ſtronger attraction to iron than to *antimony*, whence the uſe of nails in this proceſs; but this regulus does not materially differ from that preſcribed above.

If this regulus diſcovers by its dull, grey colour, ſponginеſs, hardneſs, and difficulty of fuſion, that it retains much of the iron, a little freſh *antimony* muſt be added. When the regulus is ſeparated from the ſcoria, it may be purified farther, by fuſing with one-ſixth or one-eighth of its weight of nitre, until the nitre receives from it no more yellow colour.

When

When a ſtarry appearance is formed on the top of this regulus, it is called regulus *antimonii* ſtellatus. This appearance chiefly depends, after perfect fuſion, on its cooling ſlowly, and without being moved. The ſimple regulus is more readily made to exhibit a ſtarry appearance on its ſurface, than the martial, which it will do by a ſingle fuſion.

The ſcoria remaining after the firſt fuſion for making this martial regulus, is little other than a ſulphurated iron, ſcarcely retaining any of the metal of the *antimony*; but, expoſed to the air in a ſhady place, it falls into a black powder, whoſe finer parts waſhed off with water and deflagrated with thrice their weight of nitre, are the croc. martis aperitivus Stahlii. The groſſer part treated in the ſame manner is his croc. mart. aſtringens.

The amber-coloured ſcoriæ ariſing in the purification with nitre, are a ſtrong cauſtic alcali, called nitrum cauſticum, vel ſcoria reguli *antimonii* ſuccinæ, which is powdered, and thrown whilſt hot, into rectified ſpirit of wine, then well agitated and digeſted, you have the tinct. *antimonii* acris ph. brand. which is of a paler, or deeper red colour, as the ſpirit is leſs or more oily.

ANTIMONII, (Regulus Medicinalis).

Take of crude *antimony* eight parts, of nitre one part; powder, deflagrate, and fuſe the whole together; then pouring the fluid into a cone, ſeparate the regulus from the ſcoria when cold.

It is milder than the croc. *antimonii* mitior, but equally uncertain. It is, when powdered, the genuine pulv. febrifug. Crænii.

ANTIMONII, (Sal). i. e. Edinburg. pulv.

ANTIMONII, (Scoria). The droſs of antimony.

The whole of the *antimony* may be reduced to a *droſs* by fuſion, with a mixture of ſulphur and alcaline ſalt. This ſcoria conſiſts of an alcaline ſalt; a liver of ſulphur; a part of the regulus diſſolved by the hepar ſulphuris, and ſome vitriolated tartar.

ANTIMONII SPIRITUS. See Clyssus Antimonii.

ANTIMONII, (Sulphur Præcipitatum). Precipitated ſulphur of antimony.

Diſſolve the powdered ſcoriæ of *antimony* in three times their quantity of water, filter the ſolution through paper, then precipitate the *ſulphur* by dropping in the weak ſpirit of vitriol, then waſh the precipitated *ſulphur* from the ſalts, until it is perfectly edulcorated, and free from all ſmell.

The *ſulphurs of antimony*, as commonly prepared, are not ſimply *ſulphurs*, but contain ſome part of the metal of the *antimony*. They are very uncertain in point of ſtrength; and as the ſimple *ſulphur* differs not from the common ſort, it is not worth preparing. As the effects produced by it are owning to the metallic part, we have that in the antimonial wine in the neareſt certainty that art hath been able to manage it, and with all the advantages of every other form.

It was formerly called *ſulphur* auratum *antimonii*, the golden *ſulphur of antimony*; becauſe it was rubbed on ſilver, it gave it the colour of gold. It hath been called embryonatum, panacea, kermes mineral, pulvis Carthuſianus, Ruſſel's powder, univerſally purging *ſulphur*, leſſer centaury, &c.

Lemery firſt publiſhed an account of it.

ANTIMONII, (Sulphur reguli succinea). See Antim. reguli. mart.

ANTIMONII, (Tinctura). Tincture of antimony.

Take of the ſalt of tartar one pound, of crude antimony half a pound, and rectified ſpirit of wine two pounds: powder the antimony, mix it with the ſalt, and melt them together with a ſtrong fire for an hour; then pour out the matter, pulverize it, and add the ſpirit, and digeſt them for three or four days.

If any of the antimony is taken up, it is in too ſmall a quantity to deſerve notice. This preparation is alſo called tinct. ſalis tartari, which appellation ſeems to be the moſt proper.

ANTIMONII, (Tinct. acris). See Antim. regul. martialis.

ANTIMONIALE, (Vinum). Antimonial wine. Alſo called vinum emeticum, vinum benedictum, & eſſentia *antimoniale*.

Take of the beſt glaſs of antimony ſubtilly levigated, and mix it with a pint of Madeira wine. Let them ſtand without heat during twelve days, now and then ſhaking up the powder; then filter through paper for uſe.

Haller calls this eſſentia ſtibii, and adds an ounce of the yellow part of lemon peel to the above.

The Madeira wine is the leaſt apt to become ſour in hot weather, and ſo is preferred. In want of it, take a good, ſtrong, Spaniſh wine, or the beſt Mountain wine. As to the glaſs of antimony, it is preferable to any of the calces, or even to the regulus itſelf; becauſe the firſt containing more or leſs of the ſulphur of the antimony, the wine ſaturates itſelf therewith, to the excluſion of the ſame proportion of the metallic part; and the latter does not yield its virtue ſo readily and copiouſly to this ſolvent.

The metal requires not to be added afreſh to each portion of this wine that is made, its medical power not being ſpeedily exhauſtible; but this is not the caſe with the calces, nor with glaſs, for they muſt be added a-new to each portion of wine.

The pure metallic part of antimony diſſolved in mild vegetable acids, are the moſt ſafe and certain of all the antimonial preparations, and capable of being ſo managed as to anſwer all the ſalutary purpoſes that can be rationally expected from them.

It is good in all caſes in which antimony is found uſeful, either in its crude ſtate, or otherwiſe managed.

It may be taken in tea, or other ſmall liquors, from ten to one hundred drops for a doſe.

Dr. Huxham juſtly aſſerts this to be the beſt of all the antimonial preparations. He obſerves, that it quickly acts on the human conſtitution, and as quickly paſſes through the body; that it is an admirable attenuant and deobſtruent, without heating one-tenth part ſo much as the volatile alcaline ſalts; and that in moſt caſes it is more ſafe and efficacious, particularly in the peripneumonia notha.

The ſtrength of this wine depends on the acidity of that with which it is made; the more acid it is, the more ſtrongly it will be impregnated, and vice verſa: and as the weaker the impregnation is, the ſafer it will be as a medicine, ſo the ſoft ſweet wines are preferred to the ſourer.

This wine admirably aſſiſts other medicines, where it alone could not be depended on: thus, in the gout, it may be uſed as an alterative, if joined with perſpiratives; in nervous diſeaſes with nervines; in leprous caſes with nitre and the wood; as a diuretic, mixed with opiates and terebinthinates; as a diaphoretic, with camphor; as an expectorant, with camphor, or with the fetid gums, particularly the gum ammoniacum; as an alterant and deobſtruent, with the extract of hellebore, with the bark, with myrrh, &c.

When mixed with camphor, larger doſes may be taken without offending the ſtomach; and when perſpiration is to be promoted, or putreſcence to be reſiſted, it is a proper addition.

Huxham aſſerts it to be as ſafe an emetic as any, in doſes of an ounce or more.

As a purging medicine to be taken in the ſtomach, from one to two drams generally ſuffices; but clyſterwiſe an ounce and half, or two ounces are required.

One dram or leſs is a proper doſe for a perſpirative, or diuretic, according as the patient is managed for thoſe ends; or this doſe may be adminiſtered as an alterative or deobſtruent.

It acts more powerfully than the quantity of metal contained in it would do by itſelf, though it does not ſo much diſturb the conſtitution; nor is aceſcent, nor even acid food ſo neceſſary to be ſhunned when this preparation is uſed, as when the crude *antimony*, or any other of its preparations are.

As to the certainty of its ſtrength and conſtancy to the ſame degree, a very ſmall care will aſcertain them, an advantage which gives it the preference to the tart. emet. the different parcels of which are extremely different in their metallic contents.

It may be proper to caution againſt mixing alcaline ſalts, either fixt or volatile, with any other doſes that are to accompany this medicine, leſt they decompoſe it.

ANTIMONII, (Vitrum.) Glaſs of antimony.

Calcine

Calcine pure crude *antimony* over a gentle fire to a grey calx, which melt in a crucible in a ſtronger heat.

If the heat is intenſe, it will ſucceed in about an hour; but it muſt be continued, until by dipping an iron rod into it, the matter will draw like glaſs, and is become tranſparent.

Calcine the *antimony* in a ſhallow diſh, or on a ſmooth flat tile placed under a chimney; the *antimony* muſt be pure, and groſsly powdered, then ſpread evenly, at about the thickneſs of a quarter of an inch, not more. At the firſt, the fire ſhould be no greater than to raiſe a fume from the *antimony*, which is now and then to be ſtired; when the fumes begin to decay, increaſe the heat, taking care not to raiſe it to high as to melt the *antimony*, or to run the powder into lumps, in which caſe powder it again; after ſome time, make the veſſel red hot, and keep it in this ſtate until the matter will not, upon being ſtirred, fume any more: thus the *antimony* is reduced to a grey coloured calx, and is ſtill in an uniform powder. With this powder fill two thirds of a crucible, which cover with a tile, and place in a wind furnace; gradually increaſe the fire, till the calx is in perfect fuſion, and continue it ſo until a good glaſs is formed. See TARTARUM EMETICUM.

This glaſs is chiefly prepared for making the *antimonial* wine, and the emetic tartar, with.

ATIMONII (VITRUM CERATUM). The cerated glaſs of antimony

Take of the glaſs of *antimony* in fine powder one ounce, and of bees wax one dram. Melt the wax in an iron ladle, then add the powder, ſet them on a ſlow fire, without flame, for the ſpace of half an hour, continually ſtirring them with a ſpatula; then take it from the fire, pour it upon a piece of clean white paper, powder it, and keep it for uſe.

The glaſs melts in the wax with a ſlow fire; when the whole is become nearly of the colour of Scotch ſnuff, it may be removed therefrom.

The ſtrength of this medicine is uncertain. It is milder than the glaſs, becauſe the wax hath reſtored ſome phlogiſton to it.

The ordinary doſe to a ſtrong man is ten grains, but ſome give twenty; but they begin with three or four, and gradually increaſe the quantity, as the ſtomach will admit. To a boy of ten years old three or four grains may be given. Sickly children may begin with one grain, and more may be added as it is obſerved to affect them.

Dr. Young of Edinburgh firſt publiſhed this in the Edinburgh Med. Eſſays. It is commended as a ſpecific in dyſenteries, either with or without a fever. The firſt doſe ſometimes cauſes vomiting, and almoſt always purges; though inſtances do occur, in which a cure is effected without any ſickneſs or evacuation following upon the taking of it. If the firſt, or any other doſe, purge the patient ſo as to fatigue him, wait until the next day before another is given. Cures often follow upon taking one doſe; and it very rarely happens that five or ſix are required.

Pregnant women may take it; and infants at the breaſt may have half a grain given to them.

Let nothing be drank during three hours after taking it, except a diſpoſition to vomit requires it, and then give water-gruel.

In diarrhœas alſo, and in colic pains from vicidities in the inteſtines, it is a ſafer and better method of cure than the uſual ones. In uterine hæmorrhages it hath been given and followed with the happieſt effects.

Dr. Alſton of Edinburgh ſays, that if this medicine is made with crude *antimony*, it is more ſafe and equally effectual. If it is long kept, the wax ſeparates from the metallic part, and it then is too active.

See Huxham on Antimony: alſo the Dict. of Chem. and Neumann's Chem. Works, in the article ANTIMONY. De *antimonio* per W. Saunders, M. D.

ANTIMONIUS LAPIS. Some reckon the antimonial ore amongſt ſtones.

ANTIMOROS, from ανθι, *againſt*, and μορος, *death* or *diſeaſe*. The name of an antidote, which Myrepſus calls diatamaron, but improperly.

ANTINEPHRITICA, from ανθι, and νεφριτις, *a pain in the kidnies*. Remedies againſt diſorders of the kidnies.

ANTIPARALYTICA, from ανθι, *againſt*, and παραλυσις, *the palſy*. Medicines againſt a palſy.

ANTIPATHES. A black ſort of coral.

ANTIPATHIA, from ανθι, *againſt*, and παθος, *an affection*. Antipathy. It is oppoſite to ſympathy; an averſion to particular objects.

ANTIPATRI THERIACA. Antipater's treacle. A compound ſomewhat like the theriac. Androm.

ANTIPERISTASIS, from ανθι and περιιστημι, *to ſurround*. A compreſſing on all ſides, as the air preſſes.

ANTIPHARMACUM, from ανθι, *againſt*, and φαρμακον, *poiſon*. An antidote, or preſervative. The ſame as alexipharmacum.

ANTIPHATES. Black coral.

ANTIPHLOGISTICA. Antiphlogiſtics. Theſe are thoſe remedies which tend to weaken the ſyſtem. The only means we have of weakening the ſyſtem is by exhauſting the living power; and this is moſt readily and certainly done by evacuation. There are various modes by which the body may be weakened, but many of them are productive alſo of other effects; e. g. Mercury excites a ſalivation by which a conſiderable evacuation is produced, with weakneſs; but the mercury alſo ſtimulates. Stimulants are weakeners when uſed to certain degrees, but they are rarely uſed to this end, becauſe by the time that they would weaken conſiderably, they would kill the patient, &c. reſpecting other means. The only way by which the ſyſtem is ſimply evacuated, is by bleeding. In general, a vein may be opened in the arm. See PHLEBOTOMIA. In ſome inſtances of local inflammation, relief is more ſpeedily and effectually ſecured, by the topical evacuation of a ſmall quantity of blood, from or near the part affected, than by a more liberal evacuation from the general ſyſtem. For topical bleeding, leeches are moſt frequently uſed. See HIRUDO. Sometimes ſcarification is preferable to leeches, though uſed on the ſame principle. See CUCURBITULA.

ANTIPHTHISICA, from ανθι *againſt*, and φθισις, *a conſumption*. Remedies againſt a conſumption.

ANTIPHTHISICA TINCTURA, i. e. Tinct. Saturnina.

ANTIPHTHORA, from ανθι, *againſt*, and φθορα, *corruption*. A ſpecies of wolf's-bane, which reſiſts corruption.

ANTIPHYSICA, from ανθι, *againſt*, and φυσαω, *to blow*. Remedies againſt wind; alſo called carminatives.

ANTIPHYSON. Loadſtone.

ANTIPLEURITICUM, from ανθι, *againſt*, and πλευρισις, *a pleuriſy*. A remedy againſt a pleuriſy.

ANTIPODAGRICA, i. e. Antiarthritica.

ANTIPODAGRICUM, (BALSAMUM), i. e. Balſ. anodynum.

ANTIPRAXIA, from ανθι, *againſt*, and πρασσω, *to work*. A contrariety of functions and temperaments in different parts, and was uſed by the ancients to expreſs the variety of concurring, and often contrary ſymptoms.

ANTIPYRETICON, i. e. Antipyreton.

ANTIPYRETON, from ανθι, *againſt*, and πυρετος, *a fever*. A remedy againſt a fever, called alſo antipyreuticon and antipyreticon.

ANTIQUARTANARIUM, or Antiquartium. A medicine againſt a quartan.

ANTIQUI MORBI. Old or inveterate diſeaſes, or chronical diſeaſes.

ANTIQUARTIUM. A remedy againſt an ague.

ANTIRRHINUM, alſo called caput vituli, os leonis, anarrhinum, lychnis ſylveſtris, ſnap-dragon, and calf's ſnout.

The ſtalk and the leaves reſemble thoſe of pimpernel, the flowers are purple, and like thoſe of the ſtockgilly-flower, but ſmaller, whence it is called lychnis ſylveſtris. Its fruit reſembles a calf's ſnout, and is of a carnation colour. It grows in fields and ſandy places.

There are many ſpecies, but all have prickly mouths, whence Columella calls it fæva leonis ora.

A decoction is ſaid to be uſeful in the jaundice, but it chiefly uſed as a charm.

ANTISCOLICA, from ανθι, *againſt*, and σκωληξ, *a worm*. The ſame as anthelmintica.

ANISCORBUTICA. Medicines againſt the ſcurvy.

ANTISCORBUTICUS, (CORTEX.) i. e. Cortex Winteranus.

ANTISCORODON, from ανθι, *againſt*, and σκορδον, *garlic*.

garlic. A large ſpecies of garlic, called alſo allium ulpicum.

ANTISEPTICA, Antiſeptics, from ἀντι, *againſt*, and σηπτικα. *ſeptics* or *putrifiers*. Such things as reſiſt putrefaction.

A due vigour in the circulation of the blood, is the great natural *antiſeptic* in all living animals; and whenever a putrid tendency is manifeſt in the conſtitution, a proportionable degree of languor and dejectedneſs alſo is ſeen in the affected perſon; and though the pulſe may be quick, it is weaker and weaker in proportion as the degree of putreſcency advances in the habit. Hence nitre, and whatever elſe that is *antiſeptic*, when applied to inanimate matter, if it leſſens the vis vitæ, is not *antiſeptic* in the living ſubject. But cordials, and whatever invigorates the ſolids, by increaſing the vital heat, are properly antiputreſcent, and what alone relief can be obtained by, in putrid diſeaſes.

Alcaline ſalts and acids, when alone, reſiſt putrefaction more than when by mixture they are formed into neutral ſalts; hence the ſpirit. Minderer is not half ſo *antiſeptic* as the ſal vol. c. c.

The mixture of acid with bitter, or aſtringent, increaſes their reſpective *antiſeptic* property; yea they are doubly *antiſeptic* to what they are when ſeparately employed.

The mineral acids, though they reſiſt putrefaction, yet are not to be adminiſtered before being dulcified by diſtillation with ſpirit of wine, for otherwiſe they coagulate; therefore the vegetable acids, or the dulcified mineral ones, ſuch as the ſp. nitri D. ſp. vitrioli dulc. or ſp. febrif. Di. Clutton ſhould be preferred.

Wine, camphor, flowers of chamomile, the bark, and antimonial wine, are among the firſt of the *antiſeptic* tribe of medicines; to theſe add the warm perſpiratives and fixed air.

See Dr. Macbride's Eſſay on the reſpective Powers, &c. of Antiſeptics; and ſee Remarks on Mr. Alexander's Eſſays on the Treatment of putrid Diſeaſes.

ANTISPASIS, from ἀντι, *againſt*, and σπαω, *to draw*. A revulſion. The turning the courſe of the humours whilſt they are actually in motion. The doctrine of revulſion is the invention of Hippocrates.

ANTISPASMODICUM, from ἀντι, *againſt*, and σπασμος, *a convulſion*. A remedy againſt convulſions. Some medicines remove ſpaſms by immediate contact, as aſſes milk, cream, oil of almonds, &c. others by repelling animal heat, as the gas ſulphuris, nitre, ſal ammoniac, &c. and where the ſtrictures are produced by inanition, or defective vital heat, ſpaſms are removed by thoſe means that reſtore the vis vitæ, ſuch as valerian, caſtor, muſk, &c.

Opium, balſam. Peruv. and the eſſential oils of many vegetables, are the moſt powerful of this kind of medicines. Opium, for its immediate effects, excels; balſ. of Peru, in many inſtances, produces more laſting benefit than opium, and indeed it ſometimes ſucceeds where opium hath failed; the eſſential oils differ as *antiſpaſmodics* from opium, in this, they act more upon a particular part than upon the ſyſtem in general, and have no ſoporific effect.

Dr. Home, in his Chemical Experiments, hath attended to the comparative ſtrength of this kind of medicines; he does not pretend to poſitiveneſs in his concluſions, but from what aroſe to his obſervation, is led to arrange them as follows.

Amongſt the firſt or weaker claſs, are the fol. aurant. flor. cardamine, artemiſia, pæonia, viſcus quercinus, extr. hyoſciami, caſtor, moſch. cuprum ammoniacum, and electricity.—Amongſt the ſecond claſs, are ſear, camphor. flor. zinci. and bliſters.—The third are aſſa fœtida, æther, and argent. viv.—The fourth and ſtrongeſt are, cort. Peruv. opium, and bleeding.

He farther obſerves, that moſt of the *antiſpaſmodics* have, beſides their *antiſpaſmodic* quality, other ſecondary ones, which have as much influence in their effects: beſides, ſome of them poſſeſs many laxative and ſudorific powers, which others do not: they may be diſtinguiſhed into the ſtimulant or inflammatory, and ſedative or anti-inflammatory. Of the ſtimulant, or inflammatory, are electricity, valerian, the bark, mercury, aſſa fœtida, opium, &c. Of the ſedative, or anti-inflammatory, are bleeding, muſk, caſtor, flor. cardamin. cupr. ammon. bliſters, camphor, æther, flor. zinc. &c.

Antiſpaſmodics are a very uncertain ſpecies of medicines in their effect on the diſorders for which they are generally eſteemed uſeful. They are beſt adapted for thoſe ſpaſmodic affections which are attended with great mobility, and which are uſually known by the name of ſpaſmodic diſeaſes. They are more uſeful in preventing the approach, and in removing ſpaſms which are more immediately preſent in weaker habits; and in preventing the returns of ſpaſms, when given in the remiſſion of the ſpaſm in ſtrong habits: on the contrary, they are leſs uſeful in preventing the return of ſpaſms in weak habits than in ſtronger ones; nay, they rather increaſe the tendency to ſpaſmodic complaints in weakly people, if given in the interval of thoſe diſorders; and are leſs uſeful in removing the preſent fit in ſtrong habits than they are in weak ones. Sometimes, indeed, in ſtrong habits, they both remove the preſent fit, and prevent returns.

ANTISPASTICON. A general epithet for any medicine that works by way of revulſion.

ANTISPODA, from ἀντι, *inſtead of*, and σποδιον, *putty*. Subſtitutes for putty.

ANTISTERNON, from ἀντι, *againſt*, or *oppoſite to*, and στερνον, *the ſternum, or breaſt*. The back is ſo called, becauſe it is oppoſite to the breaſt bone.

ANTITASIS, from ἀντι, *againſt*, and τεινω, *to extend*. A contra-extenſion.

ANTITHENAR, from ἀντι, *againſt*, and θεναρ, *the palm of the hand*. See ADUCTOR AD INDICEM.

Dr. Hunter applies this name to a muſcle of the foot, and ſays it ariſes from the os cuneiforme, and is inſerted in the external ſeſamoid bone.

ANTITHORA, i. e. Anthora.

ANTITRAGUS, from ἀντι, *againſt*, and τραγος, *the thick part of the anthelix*. See ANTHELIX, and TRAGUS.

ANTITRAGUS. The name of a muſcle which acts only on the cartilage of the ear. See AURICULA.

ANTITYPUS. See RENISUS.

ANTIVENEREA. Medicines againſt the lues venerea.

ANTIVENEREALIS, (AQUA PRESERVATIVA.) It is a ſolution of cauſtic alcali in water, to be injected up the urethra in men, and the vagina in women, and with which to waſh the parts after coition.

ANTIZEUMIC, i. e. Preventers of fermentation in general.

ANTONII SANCTI IGNIS. St. Anthony's fire. See ERYSIPELAS.

ANTONIUS MUSA. See MUSA.

ANTOPHYLLON, or Antophyllus. The male caryophyllus, or the large full grown ones.

ANTRAX, i. e. Anthrax.

ANTRISCUS, called alſo chærophyllum ſylv. cerefolium ſylv. apium ſylv. and daucus ſepianius.

It is a plant which reſembles hemlock or chervil; but it is of little uſe in medicine.

ANTRUM BUCCINOSUM. The cochlea or labyrinth of the ear.

ANTRUM GENÆ, i. e. Antrum Highmorianum. Highmore boaſts of the diſcovery of this part, but Caſſerius takes notice of it before him, under the firſt name.

ANTRUM HIGHMORIANUM MAGNUM, called alſo antrum genæ, and ſinus maxillaris, and antrum maxillæ ſuperioris.

All the body of the upper jaw-bone is hollow, and its cavity forms this antrum; each hath a winding paſſage into the noſtril, on the ſide on which it lies; this cavity and the ſockets of the teeth are often divided by interpoſition of only a very thin bony plate. The membrane which lines this cavity is ſometimes inflamed, and matter forming there is diſcharged by drawing one of the dentes molares. See ABSCESS in the antrum Highmorianum.

ANTYLION. The name of an aſtringent uſed by P. Ægineta.

ANTYLLUS, or Antillus. The name of an ancient but famous ſurgeon; he is probably the ſame as Antillis, or Antiles.

ANUCAR. Borax.

ANUS. In botany, ſignifies the poſterior opening of a monopetalous flower.

ANUS, a contraction of the word *anulus*, *a ring*; in anatomy, is the loweſt part of the inteſtinum rectum, commonly called the fundament. The extremity of the

rectum contracts into a narrow orifice, the ſides of which are diſpoſed in cloſe folds: it hath ſeveral muſcles belonging to it, ſome of which ſurround it as ſphincters; the reſt are broad and fleſhy planes inſerted in it, and which being inſerted likewiſe into other other parts, ſuſtain it in its natural ſituation, and reſtore thereto, when it is diſturbed by the force neceſſary for excluding the fæces; the latter muſcles are termed levatores *ani*. Two ligaments belong to the *anus*, viz. the ligamentum cutaneum oſſis coccygis, and the ligamentum pubis interoſſeum. The nerves of the *anus* and its muſcles are from the ganglions of the plexus hypogaſtricus, the inferior rope of both the ſympathetici maximi, and the common arch of the extremities of both ropes. The margin or edge of the *anus* is formed by the union of the ſkin and epidermis, with the internal coat of the inteſtinum rectum. This part is extremely vaſcular, hence the troubleſome hæmorrhage when the operation is performed for the fiſtula in this part.

The *anus* is ſubject to many diſorders, and they are generally ſomewhat difficult of cure, becauſe of the irritability of the part, which ſubjects it to receive freſh injury from many accidents; Actius obſerves that aſtringents are acrid, and the ſenſibility of the *anus* cannot bear them; alſo that aſtringents that are not acrid, ſuch as metals, ſhould be applied here. On the diſeaſes of this part, ſee Actius, Celſus, P. Ægineta, Turner, Heiſter, and Wiſeman. See alſo the article RECTUM below.

Exceſcences about the Anus.

Various exceſcences are found about the verge of the *anus*; many of theſe are produced merely by relaxation, which are ſafely removeable: theſe are unattended with pain, any diſagreeable diſcharge, and are ſingle or diſtinct, let their number be what they may. In removing them prefer the ligature, for the ſake of avoiding a troubleſome hæmorrhage.

When they diſcharge a bloody fluid matter, and are painful, they are alſo generally in cluſters, or not diſtinct, and for the moſt part diſpoſed to, if not already become cancerous. Mr. Pott obſerves, that in cancerous caſes of this kind, there is rarely a ſingle excreſcence, but the gut is for the moſt part ſurrounded with them; and if a finger is paſſed into the inteſtine, thoſe tumors produce the idea of puſhing the finger into a rotten pomegranate. Beyond palliation, no relief can be afforded.

The Anus *imperforated.*

Sometimes children are born with a membranee acroſs the *anus*, which obſtructs the ejection of the excrements. If the ſituation of the *anus* cannot be diſcovered, by reaſon of the thickneſs of the ſuperfluous ſubſtance which cloſes it up, a cure cannot be expected; for much, if not the whole rectum is cloſed up or wanting. If the caſe admits of a cure, the ſituation of the *anus* will be ſeen by a prominence, or by a little hollow.

This accident is generally ſpoken of as if always circumſtanced alike. Mr. Pott very judiciouſly divides it into four claſſes. 1ſt. Where there is no mark or veſtige of an *anus* perceptible; in this caſe the rectum is as it ought to be until it arrives at the bulb of the urethra; from this there is no inteſtine, ſo no *anus* externally. If the rectum reaches too near the part where the *anus* ſhould be, the impulſe of the fæces againſt the ſkin will diſcover where a perforation may be made; but if no ſuch impulſe is to be felt when the child coughs or cries, relief cannot be afforded. 2d. Where there is a circle or mark in the ſkin which points out where the *anus* ſhould be: in this inſtance the difficulty is not conſiderable. However, it may be proper to obſerve here, that the perforating inſtrument ſhould be introduced in the direction of the os ſacrum; if it paſſes forward, the bladder, or the uterus, or both, may be injured; if it is to be introduced far up, to divide a membranous obſtruction in the rectum, in cutting it ſhould be moved not upward, but from ſide to ſide; thus you avoid cutting the proſtate gland, or the veſiculæ ſeminales, and perhaps the neck of the bladder. 3d. Where there is a well formed *anus*, and perforated, but it hath no communication with the inteſtinal tube, ſtom the rectum being imperforated. In this inſtance if the child is not duly attended to, it dies in great agonies. If an infant hath had no ſtools during the firſt or ſecond day after its birth, a finger ſhould be dipped in oil, and thruſt up the rectum, to diſcover whether or no the obſtruction is there. 4th. Where there is neither *anus* nor rectum, but the inteſtinal canal terminates in the colon; in this caſe there is no relief to be expected. Another equally unfortunate kind, is that in which there is a ſort of rectum, but it is rolled up like a bit of catgut. Here all attempts to aſſiſt are vain, for though for the preſent a diſcharge was obtained, as the inteſtine is deficient, evacuations could not be continued.

The means, &c. of relief, in the firſt three of the above claſſes, are the ſame. In either of them the operation ſhould be performed without delay or regard to any objections; for if it is not conformed to, death will inevitably follow. The beſt inſtrument is a large trocar, ſuch as is uſed for tapping the aſcites, and to be uſed as follows: keep the point of the trocar within the canula until it is fixed againſt the obſtructing part; then puſh the trocar forward, and if you ſucceed the meconium will inſtantly be diſcharged; this diſcharge may be left to itſelf for three or four hours, or until the belly is well emptied. After a due diſcharge, paſs a finger up the rectum to diſcover whether or no there is any ſtricture. If a ſtricture is met with, introduce a probe pointed knife on the back of your finger, and divide it on each ſide. To finiſh the cure, let a ſmall candle be introduced up the gut every two or three hours, until the *anus*, &c. is quite pervious, and no more aid appears to be required. In two or three weeks the ſtools will paſs properly, and all inconvenience will generally be ended.

Saviard, in his Obſ. 3. gives an inſtance of a child that was ſaved by a puncture through an imperforation of the thickneſs of three fingers breadth. See Heiſter's Surgery.

ANXIETAS. Anxiety. Reſtleſſneſs. See ALYSMOS.

ANYDRION. A ſpecies of ſolanum.

ANYPEUTHYNA. In medicine this ſignifies events that cannot be charged on the phyſician, nor render him accountable for them.

AORTA. According to Fœſius, but without a ſolid reaſon, this word is applied to the lobes of the lungs.

AORTA, ἀορτη, *a veſſel.* The name of the great artery proceeding from the left ventricle of the heart, of which all other arteries, except the pulmonary, are but the branches. From the heart it extends itſelf, by its various branches, to the moſt diſtant parts of the body. Each of the diviſions and ſubdiviſions of the *aorta* receive different names, e. g. the *aorta* gives riſe to the carotid and the ſubclavian arteries, the branches of theſe again receive other names, &c. Theſe branches are in pairs, except the cœliaca, the two meſentericæ, ſome of the œſophageæ, the bronchialis, and ſometimes the ſacræ.

The beginning of the *aorta* is furniſhed with ſemi-lunar valves, as the pulmonary artery is, and the ſame triangular bodies to cloſe up the little ſpace left by the valves. It is larger in women than in men. It is called the aſcending *aorta*, from the heart ſo far as it goes upwards; and deſcending, from the curvature to the os ſacrum, where it terminates in the iliacs. The deſcending *aorta* is divided into the ſuperior, which reaches from the curvature to the diaphragm, and the inferior, which extends thence to the bifurcation, where the iliacs begin.

The *aorta* goes from the baſis of the heart, nearly oppoſite to the fourth vertebra of the back, and aſcends obliquely (with reſpect to the body) from the left to the right ſide, and from before backwards; then bends obliquely from the right to the left ſide, and from before backwards, reaching as high as the ſecond vertebra of the back, from whence it runs down again in the ſame direction, forming an oblique arch; from thence it deſcends in a direct courſe along the anterior part of the vertebræ, all the way to the os ſacrum, lying a little towards the left hand, and there terminates in its two ſubordinate branches in the iliacæ.

The *aorta* aſcendens is principally diſtributed to the thorax, head, and upper extremities: the ſuperior portion of the *aorta* deſcendens furniſhes the reſt of the thorax: the inferior portion furniſhes the abdomen and the lower extremities.

To conceive more diſtinctly of the general courſe of the arteries, or of the particular courſe of any individual alone, a view of the figure of the arteries will greatly aſſiſt.

The

The *aorta* is ſubject to many diſorders, as inflammation, ulcers, polypuſes, aneuriſms, oſſification, &c.

AOVARA. A fruit about the ſize of a hen's egg, many of them are included in one pod: it is the produce of a kind of palm-tree which grows in Africa and the Eaſt Indies. The kernel of this fruit is white; to the taſte it reſembles cheeſe: it is of an aſtringent quality, and when preſſed, an oil is forced out which is very much like palm-oil.

APAGMA. The thruſting of a bone or other part out of its place.

APALACHINE GALLIS, i. e. Caſſine.

APALLAGE, from ἀπαλλάσσω, *to change*. Hippocrates means by it ſuch a change as implies deliverance from a diſeaſe.

APANCHOMENOI, from ἄγχω, *to ſtrangle*. Strangled.

APANTHISMUS. A ſcarcely perceptible line, properly in painting, to which Galen reſembles the ſmall capillary veins.

APANTHROPIAI, from ἀπὸ, *from*, and ἄνθρωπος, *a man*. An averſion to company, or love of ſolitude.

APARACHYTUM VINUM. Wine not mixed with ſea-water.

APARAQUA, A ſpecies of briony growing in Braſil.

APAREGORETOS, from α, *neg.* and παρηγορέω, *to comfort, mitigate*; what affords comfort, or relief.

APARINE, called alſo philanthropus, ampelocarpus, omphalocarpus, ixus, aſparine, gratterona, gooſe-graſs, clivers, and cleaver's bees. Cleavers, gooſe-ſhare. Hayriff. It is the Galium *Aparine* of Linn.

It is a ſlender rough annual plant; its ſpreads upon buſhes, and ſticks to whatever it touches. The ſtalks are ſquare, brittle, and jointed; the leaves are oblong and narrow; the flowers are white and followed by little round burs.

An extract made of its juice is poſſeſſed of a pungent ſaline bitterneſs. The freſh juice in doſes of two or three ounces is diuretic. It is beſt if gathered when half grown.

APARINE. A name of the lentibularia minor.

APARINE LATIFOLIA, i. e. Aſperula.

APARTHROSIS, i. e. Abarticulatio, from ἀπὸ, *ab*, and ἄρθρον, *a joint*.

APATHES, from α, neg. and πάθος, *an affection* or *paſſion*. Such as ſeem to be void of human paſſions. This temper is alſo carried to that inflexible ſternneſs which extinguiſhes the affections of humanity, as was inſtanced in Diogenes the Cynic, and Timon.

APATHIA. Apathy. Such an inſenſible temper as is deſcribed in the word apathes.

APECHEMA, from ἀπὸ and ἦχος, *a ſound*. Properly a reſounding, or the repercuſſion of the ſound, i. e. an echo; but in a medical ſenſe it ſignifies a contra-fiſſure.

APEIBA BRASILIENSIBUS. A tree growing in Braſil, whoſe wood ſerves for making boats, &c. but in medicine no part of it is uſed. Raii Hiſt. Plant.

APEIROI, from α, neg. and πεῖρα, an *experiment*. Unexperienced, unaccuſtomed.

APELLA. Abbreviation of the prepuce. Galen gives this name to all whoſe prepuce, either through diſeaſe, ſection, or otherwiſe, will not cover the glans.

APELLIDES. A famous engineer, who with Archimedes lays claim to the invention of a machine for launching of ſhips; the model of which the ancient ſurgeons imitated in contriving a machine for reſtoring fractures and luxations, which, becauſe it was worked by three cords, they called it triſpaſtrum Apellidis, ſeu Archimedis.

APEN. A ſort of bread made with the juice of the ambalam-tree and rice, in India.

APENSALUS. A veſſel with a narrow neck to hold oil.

APEPSIA. Indigeſtion. From α, *neg.* and πέσσω, *to digeſt*. That genus of diſeaſe which Dr. Cullen names dyſpepſia, or *indigeſtion*, he arranges in the claſs neuroſes and order adynamiæ. The ſymptoms are, a want of appetite, a ſqueamiſhneſs, ſometimes vomiting, ſudden and tranſient diſtenſions of the ſtomach, eructations, heart-burn, pain in the region of the ſtomach, and generally coſtiveneſs; and theſe without any other diſorder either in the ſtomach itſelf, or any other part of the body.

Indigeſtion is very frequently a ſecondary and ſympathic affection, but the above ſymptoms are eſſential to this diſeaſe, as idiopathic. All theſe ſymptoms may ariſe from one cauſe, viz. weakneſs, loſs of tone, and weaker action in the muſcular fibres of the ſtomach: and this weakneſs is the proximate cauſe of this diſorder when an original one. The remote cauſes are various, as tumor, &c. in the ſtomach itſelf; or ſome diſorder of other parts communicated to the ſtomach, as in the gout, &c. in both which caſes the indigeſtion is ſymptomatic.

In moſt caſes of *indigeſtion*, as an original diſeaſe, the weaker action of the muſcular fibres of the ſtomach, is the chief cauſe, and alſo the moſt frequent: perhaps a depravity or defect of the gaſtric juice may ſometimes be the cauſe; but even here, perhaps the weakneſs juſt mentioned, and which in all caſes is attendant, is that to which we can attend uſefully in practice. To ſucceed in the cure, avoid the occaſional cauſes, remove ſuch ſymptoms as tend to aggravate the diſeaſe or to continue it, and invigorate the tone of the ſtomach. In order to which the patient muſt be informed of the neceſſary changes in his conduct; for though he often purſued ſuch a practice without ſenſibly ſuffering, except he conforms to a contrary one the preſent complaints will not be overcome. Crudities, acidity, and coſtiveneſs muſt be removed at leaſt in their exceſs, as they tend both to aggravate and continue *indigeſtion*. The ends accompliſhed, the reſtoration of the tone of the ſtomach alone remains for perfecting relief; to this end ſee ANOREXIA.

Abſtemiouſneſs and exceſs are alike cauſes of *indigeſtion*. An over diſtenſion of the ſtomach may in ſome meaſure injure its proper tone; and long faſting, by inducing a bad quality in the juices ſecerned into the ſtomach, renders it feeble, and generates wind. Hard drinking, and any of the cauſes of an anorexy alſo injure digeſtion.

Little need be added in order to the cure, for the treatment of the anorexy is the ſame as is required in this caſe, to which therefore the reader is referred.

The columbo root, not mentioned in the article ANOREXIA, is particularly uſeful when the ſtomach is languid, the appetite defective, digeſtion with difficulty carried on, or when a nauſea with flatulence attends. It may be given in ſubſtance with any grateful aromatic, or infuſed in Madeira wine, now and then interpoſing gentle doſes of the tincture of rhubarb. In caſe of a defective bile, make pills of this root with a ſoft extract of ox's gall.

A mixture of muſtard ſeed with the columbo root is of admirable utility in complaints of this kind; particularly where acidity and flatulence prevail much in the primæ viæ.

The Bath waters, aſſiſted with warm nervines and corroborants, are not to be omitted, when circumſtances admit of their uſe.

See Percival's Eſſays in the Reflections on Exper. 4, 5, and 6.

APEPTON. Crude or indigeſted.

APER. The boar. See PORCUS. Alſo the boar's tooth. See DENS APRI.

APERIENS. Aperient. The ſame as deobſtruens.

APERIENS PALPERBRAM RECTUS. A muſcle of the eye-lid, thus named from its ſtreight progreſs and uſe. It is the ſame with the levator palpebræ ſuperioris.

APERISTATON, from α, neg. and περισταστς, *affliction* and *danger*. An epithet in Galen for an ulcer that is neither troubleſome nor dangerous.

APERITTOS, from α, neg and περιττὸς, *redundant*. Such aliment as generate but little excrement. The oppoſite quality is called perittomaticos.

APERTUS. It is uſed for exulceratus, as in ſaying an open cancer, &c. in which caſes the tumor is become ulcerated.

APES. Bees.

If they are dried and powdered they are ſomewhat diuretic; but their chief uſe is for the preparing of honey and wax.

Bees collect the farina fœcundans from the apices of the flowers, and eat it; they receive nouriſhment from it, then caſt it up and mould it into wax: art hath been exerciſed to make wax of this powder, but in vain; it is only the ſtomach of the bee that can effect it.

The belly of the bee is inwardly divided into four parts, containing the inteſtines, the bag of honey, the bag of poiſon, and the ſting. The bag of honey is tranſparent

as cryſtal, and is emptied at proper times into the cells of the comb, for the maintenance of the community during the winter.

APETALI. So Tournefort names the fifteenth claſs of vegetables. See apetalous flowers under the article FLOS.

APEUTHYSMENOS, from ευθυς, *ſtrait*. A name of the inteſtinum rectum.

APHACA. Yellow vetchling.

APHACA ANGUSTIORIS FOLII. A ſpecies of dandelion.

APHÆREMA. See ALICA.

APHÆRESIS, from αφαιρεω, *to take away*. To take away any ſuperfluous thing in a medical way.

APHASSIOMENOS, from αφασσω, *to handle*. Hippocrates often applies this word to the touch of the pudenda, in order to diſcover diſorders of theſe parts. It is the ſame as tactus.

APHEBRIOC. Sulphur.

APHELICESTEROS, of απο, *from*, and ηλικια, *youth*. One paſt the flower of age.

APHEPSEMA, from εφω, *to boil*. A decoction.

APHESIS, from αφιημι, *to remit*. Hippocrates generally ſignifies the remiſſion or ſolution of a diſeaſe by this word.

APHILANTHROPIA, from α, neg. and φιλανθρωπια, *the love of mankind*. The firſt degree of melancholy, when a perſon hates ſociety, and delights in ſolitude.

APHLEGMANTON, from α, neg. and φλεγμα, *phlegm*. Void of phlegm.

APHONI. So Hippocrates calls thoſe who labour under a caros.

APHONIA. A name of the catalepſis; and for the palſy in the tongue.

APHONIA, from α, the part. priv. and φωνη, *a voice*. One who hath loſt his voice. See ANAUDOS.

Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs thoſe who with the loſs of voice loſe all voluntary motion; as in epilepſies, apoplexies, a ſyncope, &c.

Dr. Cullen ſpeaks of this loſs of voice as a ſuppreſſion of the full ſound, as happens juſt before ſwooning, &c. He ranks this genus of diſeaſes in the claſs locales, and order dyſcineſiæ. Beſides the inſtances of its being ſymptomatic, he obſerves three ſpecies, viz. *Aphonia* gutturalis; when the gullet is affected by a tumor in the fauces, or the glottis. 2. *Aphonia* trachealis, when the trachea is compreſſed, or morbidly contracted. 3. *Aphonia* atonica, when the nerves of the larynx are wounded or paralytic.

If one of the recurrent nerves, which are formed by the par vagum and the nervus acceſſorius, and reach the larynx, is cut, the perſon is capable of only as it were a half pronunciation; but if both are cut, the ſpeech and voice are both loſt. The loſs of ſpeech happening in hyſteric patients is alſo called *aphonia*; but more properly that loſs of ſpeech is thus named which depends on ſome fault of the tongue.

Seeing that the motion of any part is deſtroyed or leſſened at leaſt by the interception of the nervous fluid in its paſſage there, and that the nerves deſtined for the motion of the tongue, ariſe principally from the fifth pair, it appears that the ſeat of this diſorder is in the ſaid fifth pair of nerves, and that the immediate cauſe, is a diminution or total obſtruction of the nervous fluid through them. Hence, a palſy of the tongue, which is either antecedent or ſubſequent to hemipleƈtic or apopleƈtic diſorders, demand our utmoſt attention.

If an *aphonia* appears alone, it generally beſpeaks an approaching hemiplexy or apoplexy; but if it ſucceed theſe diſorders, and is complicated with a weak memory, and a ſluggiſhneſs of the mental powers, it threatens their return. That *aphony* uſually terminates the beſt, which proceeds from a ſtagnation of ſerous humours compreſſing the branches of the fifth pair of nerves, which run to the tongue; but it is no leſs afflicƈtive to the patient, and is very obſtinate of cure.

Other cauſes of this diſorder are, the ſtriking in of eruptions on the ſkin, a congeſtion of blood in the fauces and tongue, obſtruƈted periodical evacuations in plethoric habits, ſpaſmodic affeƈtions, worms, a crumb of bread falling into the larynx, fear, too free a uſe of ſpirituous liquors; alſo whatever deſtroys the ligaments which go from the arytænoid to the thyroid cartilages, will deſtroy the voice.

The prognoſtics vary according to the cauſe or cauſes. That ſpecies which is owing immediately to ſpaſms, ſoon gives way in the removal of them. If a palſy of the tongue is the cauſe, it is very apt to return, if relieved, but often continues incurable.

In order to the cure, endeavour firſt to remove whatever obſtruƈts the influx of the nervous fluid into the tongue; and ſecondly to ſtrengthen the weak parts. Theſe general intentions, in all caſes, being regarded, the particular cauſes muſt be removed as follows:

If worms are the cauſe, antiſpaſmodics give preſent relief, but the cure depends on the deſtruƈtion of theſe vermin.

In caſe of a congeſtion of blood about the head, bleeding and nitrous antiſpaſmodics are to be uſed.

That ſpecies of *aphony* which remains after the ſhock of an hemiplexy or apoplexy, requires bliſters to be applied to the nape of the neck; other means are rarely effeƈtual.

If ſpaſmodic conſtriƈtions about the fauces and tongue are the cauſe, external paregorics are of the greateſt ſervice: anodyne antiſpaſmodics may be laid under the tongue, and the feet bathed in warm water; carminative clyſters alſo are uſeful.

When a palſy of the tongue produces this complaint, evacuations, according to the patient's habit, muſt be made, and warm nervous medicines muſt be externally applied, and internally adminiſtered; bliſters alſo ſhould be placed between the ſhoulders.

In caſe of repelled cuticular eruptions, ſudorifics ſhould be given, and the patient's drink ſhould be warm. The ſp. C. C. ſuccin. or the vin. antim. may be mixed with balſ. traumat. or with the balſ. Peruv. and given, at proper diſtances of time, in the patient's drink, or on a lump of ſugar.

Sometimes the ſerum flows ſo rapidly to the fauces and adjacent parts, in a ſalivation, as to deprive the patient of all power to ſpeak; in this caſe diaphoretics and laxatives, with a forbearance of all mercurials, are the ſpeedieſt remedies.

APHORISMUS, from αφοριζω, *to ſeparate* or *diſtinguiſh*. A ſhort ſentence, briefly expreſſing the properties of a thing; or which ſerveth as a maxim, or principle, to guide a man to any knowlege, eſpecially in philoſophy and phyſic.

APHORME, of απο, from ὁρμη, *a motive*. Hippocrates expreſſes, by this word, whatever gave riſe to a diſeaſe, by a ſort of metaphor; for this word hath relation to human actions, and their motives.

APHRAINON, from α, neg. ane φρονεω, *to be wiſe*. One who hath loſt the uſe of his reaſon.

APHRODES, from αφρος, *froth*. Spumous or frothy. Hippocrates applies this word to the blood and excrements.

APHRODISIA, from Αφροδιτη, *Venus*. Venereal commerce. Some expreſs by this word the age of puberty, or the venereal age.

APHRODISIASMUS, i. e. Aphrodiſia.

APHRODISIASTICON CLIDION. A troch, ſo called by Galen; it was uſed againſt ſpitting of blood and dyſentries: P. Ægineta ſpeaks of its being made of balauſtines, rhubarb, opium, and other aſtringents.

APHRODISIUS MORBUS, i. e. Lues venerea.

APHRODITARIUM. A powder recommended by P. Ægineta for hollow ulcers.

APHROGALA, from αφρος, *froth*, and γαλα, *milk*. No writer hath deſcribed this, but what the Romans uſed under this name, ſeems to be ſomething like what we call ſyllabub.

APHROLITRUM, i. e. Aphronitrum.

APHRON. A wild kind of poppy. Alſo the name of a cephalic plaſter deſcribed by Actius in his Tetrabib. 4. ſerm. iii. cap. 13.

APHRONITRUM, from αφρος, *ſpume*, and νιτρον, *nitre*. Spume of nitre. Salts formed of the vitriolic acid and a terrene or gypſeo calcareous element are thus called. It is a name alſo of the natron.

APHROS-

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Apium Pyreniacum thapſiæ, called alſo ſeſeli Pyren. thapſ. ſelinum Pyren. mountain parſley, or the ſecond baſtard turbith. It grows on the Pyrenean, but is of no note in medicine.

Bunium, alſo called daucus petroſelini vel coriandri folio, ſaxifraga montana minor, wild parſley. It grows in ſtoney places, and is ſomewhat warming and diuretic.

Selinum montanum, called alſo *apium* peregrinum, viſnaga minor, ſelinum peregrinum, daucus peregrinus, ſtone parſley. It hath nothing remarkably different in its medicinal powers from the common parſley.

Apium hortenſe, called alſo petroſelinum vulg. *apium*, ſelinum, garden parſley. *Apium* petroſelinum, or *apium* hortenſe, foliolis caulinis linearibus, involucris minutis. Linn. It is too well known to need deſcription The roots are diuretic, and are beſt in a decoction, which ſhould be drank plentifully. Diſtilled with water a ſmall portion of eſſential oil is obtained; ſp. vini R. extracts the whole of their virtues, and after evaporation, leaves a good extract. The leaves are warmer than the roots, and afford more eſſential oil; but the ſeeds are the beſt part of the plant: they are warming, carminative, bitter, and diuretic; ℔ iij. of the ſeeds yield about ʒ i. of eſſential oil, the moſt of which ſinks in water. Sp. vini R. beſt takes up their virtues, and an extract made therefrom loſes nothing.

APIUM MACEDONICUM. Petroſel. Macedon, daucus Macedon, *apium* petræum, patrapium. Macedonian parſley. Bubon Macedonicum. Linn. We have only the ſeeds in the ſhops, which differ from the common ſort in being dark-coloured, and covered with a rough hoarineſs: their virtues are ſimilar to, but weaker than the common ſort.

APIUM MARITIMUM DULCE SCOTIUM. A ſpecies of lovage.

APIUM MONTANUM. Mountain parſley. See above.

APIUM PALUSTRE. A ſpecies of ſium.

APIUM RISUS. A ſpecies of ranunculus.

APIUM SATIVUM. Celery. See above.

APIUM SYLVESTRE. A ſpecies of myrrhus. Alſo a name of the antriſcus.

APIUM SYLVESTRE LACTEO SUCCO TURGENS. Milky parſley. See Oelsnitium.

APIUM SYRIACUM, i. e. Tordilium orientale.

APLYTOS, from α neg. and πλυνω, *to waſh*. Unwaſhed. An epithet of wool, which is called by the Latins lana ſuccida.

APNŒA. A defect of reſpiration, ſuch as happens in a cold, an apoplexy, &c.

APOBAMMA. The ſame as embamma, as light tincture, and applied to water in which hot iron hath been quenched.

APOBRASMA. The bran of wheat, or the froth of the ſea.

APOCAPNISMUS. To fumigate. From καπνος, *ſmoak*.

APOCATASTASIS. To reſtore, an amendment, a ceſſation, or ſubſiding.

APOCATHARSIS. An expurgation.

APOCENOS, i. e. Abevacuatio. Alſo partial fluxes; as watery eye, gonorrhœa, &c.

APOCERUGMA. A declaration, that is, ſuch declarations as are thought proper to be made to the patient reſpecting his danger.

APOCEACULISMENON. It is when a bone is broken after the manner of a ſtalk, near the joint.

APOCHOPEMA, i. e. Apechema.

APOCHREMMA. The matter of ſpit hawked up.

APOCHREMPSIS. A hawking up of ſpit.

APOCHYLISMA. The ſame as the rob of any fruit.

APOCHYMA. The pitch which is ſcraped from ſhips, formerly eſteemed in medicine.

APOCLASMA. The ſame as abductio, or rather apagma.

APOCLEISIS. An excluſion. But Hippocrates uſes the word from whence it is derived to expreſs a loathing of food.

APOCOPE, i. e. Abſciſſio. From απο, *from*, and κοπτω, *to cut*.

APOCRISIS. In Hippocrates it is the ſame as ecchyſis.

APOCRUSTICON, from αποκρυω, *to repell*. An epithet for a remedy of a repelling and aſtringent quality.

APOCYESIS. A birth, or bringing forth of a child.

APOCYNON. A little bone in the left ſide of a frog, formerly held in great eſteem.

Alſo the name of a plant called cynanchon, pardialanches, cynomeron, cynocrambe, and dog's bane.

The leaves, mixed with meal, kills dogs, wolves, foxes, and panthers, and immediately affects their hips with a palſy. A ſpecies of this is called pſeudo ipecacuhana. Boerhaave enumerates twenty-two ſpecies. It is a ſhrub with leaves like ivy, but ſofter, ſharper pointed, ſtrong ſcented, viſcous, and full of honey-like juice; the fruit conſiſts of ſeeds contained in pods like thoſe of beans. This plant is not in medical uſe.

APOCYNUM. A name of ſwallow-wort; and of ſome ſpecies of periploca.

APOCYNUM TRIFOLIUM INDICUM. A ſpecies of toxicodendron.

APOCYRTUMENA. It is ſpoken of humours forming into a kind of cone, when ſuppurated and ready to be diſcharged.

APODACRYTICA, from απο, ſignifying *negatively*, and δακρυ, *a tear*. They are medicines which firſt excite, and then evacuate, the ſuperfluous moiſture of the eyes, and thus preventing preternatural moiſture there. Such are onions, celandine, hellebore, &c.

APODES, from α neg. and πους, *a foot*. A kind of birds with ſhort feet, alſo called cypſelli by Ariſtotle. They fly a long way over the ſeas, but never reſt except on their neſts.

APODYRTERIUM, from αποδυομαι, *to unclothe*. A private room before the entrance into the baths, where the bathers undreſſed themſelves. It is alſo called coniſterium and ſpoliarium.

APŒUM, from α neg. and ποιον, *of ſome quality*. Void of all ſenſible qualities, as water is. Galen thinks that inſipid aliments are more nouriſhing than the acrimonious and bitter are.

APOGALACTISMUS, i. e. Ablactatio.

APOGEUSIA. Depraved taſte.

APOGEUSIS. Loſs of taſte. See Apheustia.

APOLEPSIS, from απολαμβανομαι, *to be ſuppreſſed, retained*, &c. An interception, ſuppreſſion, or retention, which may be of urine or any other natural evacuation.

APOLEXIS, from αποληγω, *to ceaſe* or *end*. A decaying time of age, and oppoſed to the flower of age.

APOLINOSIS, from λινον, *flax*. So P. Ægineta calls the method of curing a fiſtula by raw flax. See Omolinon.

APOLLINARIS. True nightſhade, alſo black henbane.

APOLYSIS, from απολυω, *to releaſe*. A ſolution or releaſe. Such as the excluſion of a child, the ſolution of a diſeaſe, or untying of a bandage.

APOMAGNA, from αποματτω, *to abſterge*. Any thing uſed to wipe away ſordes, as a handkerchief, or a ſponge, &c.

APOMATHEMA, from απο, neg. and μανθανω, *to learn*. Hippocrates expreſſes by it, a forgetfulneſs of all that hath been learnt.

APOMELI. A ſweet liquor made with honey-combs, diluted and boiled with water. Galen ſays, that Hippocrates, and others, called apomeli by the names of oxyglici, and oxyglycea, and that ſome were made with, and others without vinegar, ſome being ſweet, and others ſour and ſweet. It is ſimple oxymel.

APONENCŒMENOS, from απονεω, *to be negligent, or averſe*. An adverb importing an utter averſion to any thing.

APONEUROSIS, of απο, *from*, and νευρον, *a nerve*. Any nervous (or as now called, tendinous) expanſion. The tendon or tail of a muſcle, called by Hippocrates, τενων, *a tendon* or *cord*.

Theſe expanſions of tendons, called *aponeuroſis*, or faſcial, grow thinner and thinner, till they are loſt in the cellular membrane. Inſtances of theſe are frequently met with, e. g. The outward muſcles of the thigh are bound down by one of theſe expanſions, viz. The Fascia Lata, which ſee. Dr. Hunter deſcribes this *aponeuroſis* as proceeding from the muſculus faſcia lata, on the external

ternal part of the thigh, and from the gluteus maximus on the poſterior part.

There other faſciæ, as thoſe of the legs, which, like thoſe of the thighs, cover the muſcles. The ſoles of the feet are ſtrong faſciæ, which prevent the flexor muſcles of the toes being hurt, when we tread. The faſciæ on the thighs and legs, bind down the muſcles while in action, and alſo increaſe their ſtrength by compreſſing them.

When matter is formed immediately under any of the faſciæ, it cannot point where it is firſt formed, but runs under them to ſome diſtance, to gain an exit: to prevent inconveniencies from this cauſe, as ſoon as matter can be felt under a faſcia, it is right to give it vent immediately, and not to wait for its pointing, as in other ſituations; when this happens under the temporal muſcle, great difficulties attend. See TEMPORALIS MUSCULUS.

APOPALLESIS, or Apopalſis, from *αποπαλλω, to throw off in a haſty manner*. An expulſion of the fœtus, as in abortions.

APOPHLEGMATISMUS, of *απο, from*, and *φλεγμα, phlegm*. A medicine, which by holding it in the mouth, promotes a diſcharge of phlegm, ſuch are pellitory root, horſe-radiſh, &c. In this tribe may be ranked ſnuff, or whatever diſcharges a load of ſerum from the head, the parts about the throat, &c. when ſolid it is called maſticatorium.

APOPHRADES, from the ſingular *αποφρας, unfortunate*. Thoſe days in which an acute diſtemper comes to a fatal criſis, or no criſis at all.

APOPHTHARMA. A medicine to procure abortion.

APOPHTHORA. An abortion. From *αποφθειρω, to corrupt*.

APOPHYADES. The ramification of the veins.

APOPHYAS, of *απο, from*, and *φυω, to grow*. An appendix. Any thing that grows to, or proceeds from another.

APOPHYSIS, from *αποφυω, to produce*; or from *απο*, and *φυω, to grow*. An appendix. Any thing that grows to, or proceeds from another, as boughs and branches; in anatomy it moſtly ſignifies the projection of a bone. It is alſo called probole, echphyſis, proceſſus, productio, projectura, and protuberantia.

APOPHYSIS GRACILIS. The apophyſis of the neck of the malleus in the ear.

APOPLECTA. A name for the internal jugular vein which aſcends by the ſide of the aſpera arteria.

APOPLECTICA. Medicines againſt the apoplexy, ſo called inſtead of antipoplectica. Vogel ſays it is a continued fever coming on upon an apoplexy.

APOPLECTICA VENA, i. e. Vena jugularis.

APOPLEXIA, from *αποπλησσω, to ſtrike or knock down*; or *ſmite ſuddenly*; the Latins call it attonitus morbus. The *apoplexy*. It is alſo called ſideratio, attonitus ſtupor.

Dr. Cullen ranks this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes, and the order comata. He alſo takes notice of nine ſpecies, beſides thoſe inſtances in which it is ſymptomatic, viz. 1ſt. *Apoplexia* ſanguinea, with ſigns of an univerſal plethora, and chiefly of fullneſs in the head. 2d. *Apoplexia* ſeroſa, which is generally in aged and leucophlegmatic people. 3d. *Apoplexia* hydrocephalica; ſee HYDROCEPHALUS INTERNUS. 4th. *Apoplexia* atrabilaria, obſerved in perſons diſpoſed to melancholy. 5th. *Apoplexia* traumatica; when the head is hurt by violent external force. 6th. *Apoplexia* venenata, from poiſonous matters, whether externally applied, or internally taken. 7th. *Apoplexia* mentalis; from paſſions of the mind. 8th. *Apoplexia* cataleptica, in which the reſpiration is not ſtertorous, and though the limbs maintain any accidental poſition, yet they give way to external force applied to them. 9th. *Apoplexia* ſuffocata, which happens in caſes of hanging and drowning. See CAROS.

An *apoplexy* is a ſudden privation of all ſenſe and voluntary motion; the pulſe, at the ſame time, being kept up, but reſpiration is oppreſſed. A deep ſleep, with inſenſibility, and ſnorting, ſeem to be conſtant attendants. Dr. Cullen ſays, "The *apoplexy* is that diſeaſe in which the whole of the external and internal ſenſes, and the whole of the voluntary motions, are in ſome degree aboliſhed; while reſpiration and the action of the heart continue to be performed. To the definition of *apoplexy*, he adds, that the abolition of the powers of ſenſe and motion, is in ſome degree only; meaning by this, to imply, that under the title of *apoplexy*, are comprehended thoſe diſeaſes, which, as differing from it in degree only, cannot, with a view either to pathology or practice, be properly diſtinguiſhed from it. Such are the diſeaſes named carus, cataphora, coma, and lethargus. Lommius obſerves, that this diſorder is generally uſhered in by ſudden and acute pains in the head, vertigo, dimneſs of ſight, grinding the teeth during ſleep, a coldneſs of the whole body, eſpecially the extremities; then, as though thunder-ſtruck, the patient falls down ſometimes with ſhrieks; immediately after the eyes are ſhut, a ſnorting comes on, the difficulty of breathing is great, endangering ſuffocation, the breaſt ceaſes to heave juſt as if it was bound with cords; ſenſe and voluntary motion are entirely loſt.

There are different ſpecies of *apoplexies*, which demand our utmoſt attention, as the cure is very different in each, particularly the two firſt, the others agreeing more with the ſecond. The firſt is the ſanguineous *apoplexy*, in which we find a ſtrong full pulſe, a red and bloated viſage, the patient's neck ſwelled, an oppreſſed loud reſpiration, with a little hoarſeneſs. This ſpecies prevails amongſt the robuſt who have much blood, loaded with craſſamentum. The ſecond is the ſerous *apoplexy*, in which the ſymptoms are, in general, like thoſe in the former ſpecies, except that the pulſe is weaker, the countenance pale, or at leaſt far leſs ruddy, and the breathing leſs oppreſſed. The third is the ſpaſmodic *apoplexy*; the ſame ſigns attend this as are uſual in the ſecond ſpecies, only it is ſooner removed, and rarely degenerates into a palſy. The fourth is the ſymptomatic, ſuch as from flatus in the ſtomach, the gout, &c.

The remote cauſe is a plethora, the antecedent cauſe is ſome great commotion of body or of mind, as from violent exerciſe, hard drinking, paſſions of the mind, &c. the immediate cauſe is a compreſſion of the brain. The ſanguineous hath, for a general and principal cauſe, an increaſed vital heat, the ſerous a defective heat, and the other ſpecies have ſome cauſe which renders the diffuſion of the vital heat irregular, whence ſpaſms, which are a mediate cauſe of this diſorder. It ſhould be remembered here, that the craſſamentum of the blood is the attractor of the vital fire, the nerves conduct it, and the brain is its principal reſervoir: various cauſes may determine this fire in greater quantities to a particular part, than what is neceſſary for the due diſcharge of its functions, or it may be directed with a more than ordinary ſpeed and force there; and in proportion to the quantity, or the velocity of it, in the apoplectic ſtroke, the part to which it is directed will ſuffer, both as to ſuddenneſs and danger: ſhould it be determined thus to the heart and arteries, circulation would be ſtopped, and death the immediate conſequence; but directed to the ſeat of ſenſation, and the origin of all voluntary motion, an *apoplexy* is produced. The ſerous *apoplexy* hath for its general and its principal cauſe too, a defect of vital heat, whence the redundancy of ſerum, to which this ſpecies is uſually attributed: farther, the craſſamentum not being able to attract the degree of heat requiſite for the due diſtenſion of the cells of the cellular membrane, and the contraction of the fibres, occurring circumſtances eaſily deprive particular parts of their heat, and cauſe it to ruſh with violence on ſome other; and a ſuddenly deficient diſtribution of the vital fluid produces ſimilar effects, in ſome inſtances, to an exceſſive one. And, as to all other ſpecies, which indeed are but ſymptomatic, it is as the morbid cauſe, hath an influence on the heat with reſpect to its diſtribution, that it is productive of this diſeaſe.

Dr. Cullen thinks that the proximate cauſe is, in general, whatever interrupts the motion of the nervous power, whether from the brain or to it. Of *apoplexies* from internal cauſes, he thinks the motion of the nervous power is interrupted by ſome compreſſion on the origin of the nerves; and this compreſſion is occaſioned by an accumulation of blood in the veins of the head. In *apoplexies* from external cauſes, the motion of the nervous power is interrupted by directly deſtroying its mobility; as when mephitic air, fumes from charcoal, &c. are admitted to the nerves.

From an attention to the ſymptoms of an *apoplexy*, and the

the appearances obſerved on diſſecting thoſe to whom it had proved fatal, the brain is moſt probably its ſeat. Wepfer, in his hiſtories of thoſe ſubjects, obſerves, that the veſſels in their brains were often ruptured, or very turgid; at other times the ventricles of the brain were filled with a watery humour; or a portion of ſerum, &c. was found betwixt the brain and its membranes.

Old men, the indolent, thoſe who indulge in gluttony or drunkenneſs, and ſhort-necked people, are the moſt ſubject to *apoplexy*.

This diſorder ſhould be diſtinguiſhed in its ſpecies, and alſo from thoſe other maladies to which it bears a reſemblance. The ſanguine *apoplexy* muſt be diſtinguiſhed from the ſerous and the ſymptomatic, and each from one another; and *apoplexies* muſt be diſtinguiſhed from a lethargy, an epilepſy, hyſteric ſuffocations, a palſy, a carus, a catalepſis, and ſyncope.

The danger ſeems to be chiefly proportioned to the difficulty of reſpiration; if it is tolerably eaſy, and the patient can ſwallow, there is good hope; but if reſpiration is very difficult, or intermittent, and what is given the patient to drink, returns immediately by the noſe, a recovery is hardly to be effected.

Thoſe who have been attacked with any kind of *apoplexy*, are ſubject to relapſes, each of which are more dangerous than the preceding; to prevent which, due regard ſhould be had to all that can conduce thereto, that it may be avoided: ſuppers, hot rooms, violent exerciſe, particularly in the ſun, going to bed late, long ſleeps, continuing in the cold, eſpecially if the feet are ſubject to be ſo, and whatever is ſuſpected to diſpoſe to this diſorder muſt be watched againſt.

In order to the cure, in caſe of the ſanguine ſpecies, immediately uncover the patient's head, raiſe it up as high as poſſible, and give him the advantage of freſh air.

If it can conveniently be done, bleed, ad deliquium, to reduce the vital heat; ten or ſixteen ounces may be taken away immediately, and the ſame quantity may repeated in an hour or more, according as the pulſe will admit. Some aſſert an extraordinary efficacy from opening the temporal artery during the fit. Dr. Cullen obſerves, that, when an attack of *apoplexy* is immediately threatened, blood-letting is certainly the remedy to be depended on, and blood ſhould be taken largely, if it can be done from the jugular vein, or the temporal artery. But, when no threatening turgeſcence appears, the obviating plethora is beſt effected by leeches applied to the temples, or ſcarifications of the hind head: and theſe are more ſafe than general bleedings. When there are manifeſt ſymptoms of a plethoric ſtate in the veſſels of the head, a ſeton, or pea iſſue, near the head, may be very uſeful in obviating the turgeſcence of the blood.

Lenient clyſters, with a table ſpoonful of common ſalt in each, ſhould be given as ſpeedily as poſſible, and repeated every three or four hours until proper means can be adminiſtered by the mouth.

Cooling medicines ſhould be given as ſoon as they can be ſwallowed, let the firſt be a briſk but cooling purge with nitre.

In the fit, ſome aſſert that a handful of common ſalt, diſſolved in a pint of water, if poured down the patient's throat, will ſpeedily recover him: the trial is eaſy, and nothing to be feared in caſe of failure.

Bliſters may be applied all over the feet. Dr. Cullen prefers the application of them to the head.

Keep the patient ſtill and calm, and let his diet be aqueous, and ſuch as affords the leaſt nouriſhment.

In the ſerous kind, bleeding is rarely to be admitted, but purging with the tinct. ſacr. (or ſuch like) will be abſolutely neceſſary, as ſoon as the patient can be made to ſwallow, and repeat the doſe every third day.

Raiſe his head high, as already adviſed, and try to pour down the ſolution of common ſalt, above hinted at.

Wrap the feet warm in hot flannels.

Clyſters may be repeated twice a day, and made as directed in the ſanguine *apoplexy*.

Dr. George Fordyce thinks that the compreſſion producing *apoplexy*, ſeldom or never ariſes from the ſerous part of the blood being extravaſated, or, &c. but adds, whether blood or ſerum be the cauſe, the ſame methods muſt be purſued for relief; and beſides bleeding, to relieve the brain, he urges the advantage of purging, which he ſays diminiſhes the circulation from the brain as well as from the inteſtines. The more active purgatives he recommends, and to repeat them ſo as to keep up the ſecretion that way.

Apply bliſters to the ſhoulders, and on the fleſhy parts of the legs.

Volatile ſpirits, with valerian, aromatics, and ferrugineous medicines, are to be directed. Theſe, as indeed all ſtimulants, are leaſt hazardous and moſt uſeful, when the fit is not preſent.

The diet muſt be light, but cordial and nouriſhing.

In groſs habits muſtard-ſeed may be ſwallowed whole two or three times a day, to the quantity of a table ſpoonful each doſe. Horſe-radiſh may be eaten freely.

In the ſpaſmodic, or other ſymptomatic kinds of *apoplexies*, an attention to the general habit of body, and the nature of the diſeaſe attending, will lead moſt directly to the cure.

Dr. Flemmyng recommends trepanning as a powerful aſſiſtant in the cure of *apoplexies*, by taking off a degree of preſſure from the brain. See his obſervations on this ſubject, in the Med. Muſ. vol. ii. page. 300, &c.

Cœlius Aurelianus. Lommii Opuſc. Aureum, Aretæus, Philumenus, Galen, Paulus Ægineta, Baglivi, Boerhaave, Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic. Tiſſot's Practical Obſ. on the *Apoplexy*. Brookes's and the London Practice of Phyſic. Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. iii.

APOPSYCHIA. The greateſt degree of a lipothymy.

APOREXIS. A play with balls in the gymnaſtic exerciſes.

APORIA, i. e. Alyſmus.

APORRHAIDES. A ſort of ſhell-fiſh. Purple fiſhes with prickles.

APORRHŒA. Contagion, effluvium.

APOS, called alſo apus hirundo; the martin or ſwift. This bird is a ſpecies of ſwallow, it ſtays with us in England only in the ſummer.

APOSCEPARNISMUS, from ἀπο, *from*, and σκεπαρνιζω, *to ſtrike with a hatchet*. A ſpecies of fracture, and is when part of a bone is chipped off.

APOSCHASIS. A ſcarification, a ſlight ſuperficial inciſion on the ſkin, from ἀπο, and χαζω, *to ſcarify*.

APOSCHASMUS, i. e. Apoſchaſis.

APOSITIA, i. e. Anorexia. A loathing of food.

APOSITOI. Thoſe who are averſe to food.

APOSPHACELISIS, from ἀπο, *from*, σφακελος, *a ſphacelus*. A mortification of the fleſh in wounds or fractures, cauſed by too tight bandage.

APOSPONGISMUS. It is the uſing of a ſponge either dry or moiſt, for the deterging of filth from the ſkin, or for other ends.

APOSTAGMA. The ſweet liquor that diſtils from grapes before they are preſſed.

APOSTALAGMA, i. e. Apoſtagma.

APOSTASIS, from ἀφιστημι, *to abſcede*. It is when a fragment of bone comes away by a fracture. Hippocrates uſes the word alſo, firſt, when a diſtemper paſſes off by ſome outlet, and this is on *apoſtaſis* by excretion: ſecondly, when the morbific matter, by its own weight, falls and ſettles on every part, this is an *apoſtaſis* by ſettlement: thirdly, when one diſeaſe turns to another, this is an *apoſtaſis* metaſtaſis. So Pliny calls the apoſterna.

APOSTAXIS. Hippocrates uſes the word to expreſs a diſtillation of blood from the noſe. It means any diſtillation or defluxion of humours.

APOSTEMA, from ἀφιστημι, *to diſjoin*. The ſame as ABSCESSUS, which ſee; or from ἀπο, *ab*, and ιστημι, *ſto, to ſtand*.

APOSTEMATIAI. So Aretæus calls thoſe who, from an inward abſceſs, void pus downwards.

APOSTOLORUM (UNGT.) The apoſtles ointment, ſo called becauſe it is made with twelve ingredients.

℞ Tereb. Venet. rezin. flav. cera. flav. gum ammon. āā. ʒ xiv. rad ariſtol. L. gum. oliban. & bdel. āā. ʒ vi. gum. myrrh. & galban. aā. ℥ ſs. gum. opoponax. ʒ iii. ærugo æris. ʒ ii. litharg. ʒ ix. ol. olivar. ℔ ii. acet. q. ſ. gummi. ſolv. N. B. It is the dry ingredients that are twelve in number.

APOSTROPHE, from ἀποστρεφω, *to turn away*. Thus P. Ægineta expreſſes an averſion to food.

APOSYRMA, i. e. Abraſum, from ἀποσυρω, *to rub off*.

APOTHECA, from αποτιθημι, *to lay aſide* or *repoſit*. A ſhop where medicines are ſold; alſo a gallypot, whence

APOTHECARIUS. A preparer of medicines, or an apothecary.

APOTHEGM. A maxim, axiom, or ſtanding rule.

APOTHERAPIA. A perfect cure, alſo a particular ſort of exerciſe uſed for health.

APOTHERAPEUTICA. That part of medicine which teaches concerning the apotherapia.

APOTHERMUM. An acrimonious kind of pickle, as with muſtard, vinegar, &c.

APOTHESIS, from αποτιθημι, *to repoſit*, or from απο and τιθημι, *to place*. The reduction of a diſlocated bone.

APOTHLIMMA. The dregs, or the expreſſed juice of a plant.

APOTOCOS. Abortive.

APOTROPŒA, or Apotropaia. A kind of amulets.

APOZEMA, from αποζεω, *to boil*. A decoction.

APOZYMOS, from ζυμη, *to ferment*. Fermented.

APPARATUS, from *apparco*, *to appear*, or *be ready at hand*. In ſurgery, it is the collection and regular diſpoſition of all the inſtruments neceſſary for the exerciſe of the art, or of any particular operation. The word is applied alſo to chemiſtry.

The high and low *apparatus*. See LITHOTOMIA.

APPENDICULA VERMIFORMIS. On one ſide of the bottom of the cœcum, lies an appendix reſembling a ſmall inteſtine, nearly of the ſame length with the cœcum, but more ſlender. It is thus called from its reſemblance to an earth-worm; ſome call it *appendicula* cœci. Its common diameter is about a quarter of an inch. By one extremity it opens into the bottom of the cœcum, the other extremity is cloſed. Its ſtructure is like that of the inteſtines in general; its internal coat is folliculous, like that of the duodenum, and is reticular too. Its uſe is not known.

APPENDIX, from επιξυω, *to grow to* or *upon*, or from *appendo*, *to hang by* or *to any thing*. See EPIPHYSIS and APOPHYSIS.

APPENSIO. The ſuſpenſion of a broken arm in a ſcarf.

APPETENTIA, i. e. Appetitus.

APPETITUS. Appetite. In a general ſenſe it is the inclination of any being towards any particular thing: but in the common acceptation it is a deſire of food, and of this *appetite* there are two kinds, viz. hunger and thirſt.

APPETITUS CANINUS, i. e. Bulimia.

APPLUDA. The chaff of millet, panici, and ſeſamum.

APPREHENSIO. A name of the catalepſis, and of the antilepſis.

APPREHENSORIUM, i. e. Antilepſis.

APPROPRIATIO. That action of the natural heat or vital flame, by which the fluids are ſo united with the ſolids of our bodies, as to enable them to perform their functions. Medicines are appropriated when calculated for a particular part of the body.

APRONIA. Black briony.

APROXIMATIO. A method of cure by tranſplanting a diſeaſe into an animal or vegetable, by way of immediate contact.

APROXIS. An herb, ſo called by Pythagoras, which is ſaid to take fire at a diſtance, like the naphtha.

APSINTHATUM, from αψινθιον, *wormwood*. A ſort of drink accommodated to the ſtomach.

APSYCHIA, i. e. Lipothymia. Deliquium animi.

APTYSTOS, from α, neg. and πτυω, *to ſpit*. An epithet for diſorders in which ſpitting, though an uſual ſymptom is yet wanting, as in what is called a dry aſthma, a dry pleuriſy, &c.

APUA. The fiſh called anchovy. They are taken near Genoa and Provence, and are pickled in ſalt. When pickled they are ſaid to warm the ſtomach, and to promote an appetite.

APULOTICUS. See EPULOTICUS.

APYETOS, from α neg. and πυον, *pus*. An epithet for a tumor that will not ſuppurate.

APYRENOMELE. See APYROMELE.

APYREXIA. The abſence of a fever.

APYRINA. The currant vine.

APYROMELE. A probe without a button: a melotris.

APYRON, from α neg. and πυρ, *fire*. A name of ſulphur vivum; alſo of the Æthiopis mineralis, when prepared without fire.

APYROTHIUM. A name of ſulphur vivum.

APYROTI. A name of the ſtone called a carbuncle, from its being without heat, although it appears very fiery.

AQUA. Water. A body, with other conſtituents, hath, in all its parts, an attractive and cohefive force; if this cohefion is ſo weak that the gravitation of parts brings them to a level when left by themſelves, it is called a fluid; and the fluid we call water, is a colourleſs, inſipid, inodorous, uninflammable one, ſtrongly related to both air and earth, but more ſo to the laſt, for it readily abſorbs them, as they abſorb it. It owes its fluidity to a certain degree of heat, ſince with a heat, two-thirds leſs than that of our blood, it congeals; and with about twice the heat of our blood, it boils, beyond which it cannot be made hotter.

Water is more compreſſible in winter than in ſummer, contrary to moſt, if not all other fluids; it is alſo elaſtic. See Philoſ. Tranſ. vol. lii. p. 640. Its fluidity Boerhaave attributes to the fire which it contains.

It is a circumſtance of importance towards ſucceſs in the cure of many diſorders, to be acquainted with the qualities of the *water*, which is generally uſed by the patients. The change of air hath often received the credit of a cure, which was the ſole effect of a change of *water*.

Whatever are the qualities of *water*, it retains them, though it hath been boiled, or even undergone, with other materials, the action of fermentation, as in brewing. Many chronical diſeaſes owe their riſe to this fluid, though it is rarely ſuſpected to be the cauſe of ill health.

The urine of the moſt healthy is loaded with earthy matter, and as *water* is the only diluter of what we receive into our ſtomachs, if it is not pure, but already ſurcharged with mineral contents, it cannot diſſolve and carry off the recrementitious parts of our fluids; and thus *water* is a negative cauſe at leaſt of diſeaſes.

On the ſoftneſs and the purity of *water* its ſalutary effects depend.

Good *water* is known by readily mixing with ſoap and not curdling therewith; and by quickly boiling peaſe, pulſe, &c. ſoft and tender; and it keeps beſt in large veſſels in cold places, and in earthen or glaſs veſſels.

Though ill effects are produced by an exceſs in the uſe of it, yet if moderately drank, it aſſiſts digeſtion, quenches thirſt, is an univerſal vehicle for ſolid food, it dilutes the fluids, corrects acrimony, promotes fluid ſecretions, and if any medicine can challenge the name of catholicon, it is *water*.

Muddy *water* may be cleared by adding two or three grains of alum to each pint, and thus the *water* is not injured. If hard, it may be rendered ſoft by adding ten grains of the ſalt of tartar to each pint, after which it will be both agreeable and free from all inconveniences. In want of the ſalt of tartar, chalk may be added.

River *water* is the beſt for ſhort voyages; but the ſpring *water*, being longer before it putrifies, anſwers better for long ones.

Stagnant *waters*, *water* in which is much melted ſnow or ice, dew, *water* from mines and high rocks, ſuch as riſes in low flat lands, and particularly from ſprings, in which are an unctuous, earthy, bituminous matter at the bottom, are bad: but good *waters* are obtained from ſprings which are on high lands, that conſiſt much of a clean earth and gravel; from the clouds, by rain falling at a diſtance from great towns; rivers and rivulets; but the diſtilled is the moſt pure, and a regular drinking of is would doubtleſs be as beneficial as any of the moſt celebrated mineral *waters*. See Dr. Fr. Cliſton's tranſlation of Hippocrates on Air, *Water*, and Situation.

AQUÆ MEDICINALES. Medicinal waters.

The medicinal or mineral *waters* participate more or leſs of the earthy, ſaline, &c. matters over which they run in their ſubterraneous paſſages, and with ſome prevailing ingredient from which they receive their names.

Mineral waters contain,

1. Acids.

1. Acids. Of theſe none are pure except fixed air; and all *mineral waters* that are acid, are ſo from this air. The muriatic acid is the moſt frequently met with in *waters*, but it is always combined with the mineral fixed alkaline ſalt. The nitrous acid is rarely met with in *waters*; occaſionly it is found on the ſurface of the earth, produced from the ſullage of towns. The vitriolic acid; it is always combined with phlogiſton, earth, alkaline ſalt, or metal.

2. Alkalies. The foſſil alkaline ſalt, is the only alkaline matter found in *waters*, in a ſeparate ſtate: it is alſo found in combination. The vegetable fixed alkali is rarely found, and then only in a very ſmall quantity, produced by accident from putrefaction.

3. Earths. Calcareous earth, the earth of alum, and magneſia alba. The calcareous is in union with the vitriolic acid, and is the gypſum. The aluminous earth is in *waters* called aluminous, but in union with the vitriolic acid. The magneſia alba, is in the ſea-*water*, Epſom *water*, and all the *waters* that contain the ſal cathart. amara. Sometimes the acid in union with an earth is the fixed air.

4. Foſſil oil. The inflammable foſſil oils, are naphtha, petroleum, Barbadoes tar, Britiſh oil, &c. all which are met with on the ſurface of different *waters*, as well as in rocks, &c.

5. Metals. Of theſe, copper is found in ſome, iron in others. The reports of arſenic and other metallic bodies being the contents of natural ſprings, are without evidence. Both copper and iron are in a ſtate of union with either fixed air, or the vitriolic acid.

6. Neutral ſalts. None are found in mineral *waters* except the common ſalt, and Glauber's ſalt.

7. Sulphur. This is never in water, otherwiſe than in a ſtate of hæpar. Calcereous earths, and alkaline ſalts, are the mediums to render it miſcible with *water*. See Dr. Prieſtley's Experiments for impregnating mineral *waters* with fixed air; and Dr. Brockleſby's Experiments on Seltzer *water*, inſerted in the London Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. Dr. Walker's Theſis de *aqua* ſurphurea Harrowgatenſi, 1770.

AQUÆ ALKALINÆ. Alkaline waters.

The *waters* of thoſe ſprings which afford alkaline contents, are more or leſs charged with the mineral alkaline ſalt, or with a calcereous earth, which they diſcover in the reſiduum left after evaporation. Of this kind are the *waters* of Upminſter, Brentwood, Weal, Seltzer, and Tilbury, which laſt is the ſtrongeſt of the kind in England; a quart of it may be taken in a day againſt crudities and acidities in the primæ viæ, alvine fluxes, and other diſorders from debility of the fibres.

AQUÆ CATHARTICÆ AMARÆ. Bitter purging waters.

The dry matter left on evaporating theſe *waters* conſiſts of the ſal catharticus amarus, intermixed with different earths, of which the magneſia alba is the principal, and in ſome inſtances a ſmall portion of other ſaline matters. The quantity of ſalt in different waters is from ʒ iii. to i. ſs of ſalt in a gallon. Of this kind are the *waters* at Northaw, Stretham, Barnet, Alford, Colcheſter, Lambeth, and Dulwich: but more remarkable for their ſtrength are the following, from a pint of which the following proportions of their medicinal contents were left on evaporating them.

From ℔ i. of Epſom *water* there remained forty grains; of Acton fifty grains; of Cheltenham ſixty-four grains; of Kilburn ſixty-four grains; of Jeſſop's well near Kingſton ſeventy-two grains.

The doſes of theſe *waters* are from ℔ i. to ℔ iii. to be drank a little at a time until the whole is conſumed. If taken as alteratives, they may be mixed with milk, whey, wine, &c, and drank as common drink, not exceeding ſuch a quantity as juſt keeps the bowels lax.

The active parts of theſe purging *waters* being ſeparated at great diſtances by the *water* in which they float, prevents their coming into contact with the ſtomach in great numbers at once, by which the nauſea, griping, ſickneſs, &c. is prevented, which happens when the active parts of a medicine is comprized in a narrow compaſs, as in ſmall draughts made in the ſhops; ſo they purge without waſting the ſpirits, or hurting the appetite. If they create flatulence, griping, or other uneaſineſs in the bowels, a little brandy, or any aromatic tincture taken with them, prevents ſuch effects.

AQUA MARINA. Sea Water.

It contains, beſides the common alimentary ſalt, a portion of the bitter purging ſalt, which remains diſſolved after the common ſalt hath cryſtallized; and after the bitter purging ſalt hath been ſeparated, there remains a ſmall portion of a pungent ſaline liquor which refuſes to cryſtallize, and which appears to be a ſolution of the earth called magneſia alba in the marine acid.

The quantity of ſalt in different ſeas, is from about one-fiftieth to near one-twentieth of the weight of the *water*. In the colder ſeas there is leſs ſalt; the greateſt quantity is in the ſeas under the line.

In the Engliſh Channel a pint of *water* yields about an ounce of ſalt.

Sea *water* hath been uſed with good ſucceſs in many caſes of grandular ſwellings. Dr. Ruſſel in his Treatiſe on Sea *Water* obſerves, that in the inflammatory ſtate of theſe ſwellings, when they tend to ſuppurate, it is better omitted, until the inflammation abates, or the pus is diſcharged.

The doſe is from ℔ i. ſs. to ℔ ſs. to be drank every morning for ſome months. It gently purges, promotes the ſecretion in general, warms and ſtrengthens. In many caſes, bathing in ſalt *water* aſſiſts the internal uſe of it as a general corroborant, and as a topical diſcutient and antiſeptic.

On the firſt uſe of this *water* it creates thirſt, but this effect ſoon wears off; but ſleeping ſoon after taking the intended doſe, ſpeedily palliates this complaint.

In inflammatory caſes it ſhould be refrained from, becauſe it excites heat.

Though the efficacy of this *water* hath been extolled againſt glandular ſwellings, its advantages have been as peculiarly manifeſted where the bones have been carious, and in the deſtruction of worms.

AQUÆ CHALYBEATE. Chalybeate or ſteel *waters*.

They diſcover their irony contents by ſtriking a purpliſh or bluiſh black colour on the addition of powdered galls; though if the quantity of acid in the *water* is conſiderable, then aſtringents give no notice of the iron: but a tincture made with Pruſſian blue by digeſting it in volatile alkaline ſpirits, ſucceeds univerſally, and a blue colour is produced on mixing it with any *water* in which iron is a part, or the whole of its mineral contents.

Theſe *waters* differ extremely in their contents; in ſome they reſemble the vitriol of iron, as in the Hartfell *waters*; in others they are a mixture of the mineral fixt alkaline ſalt with the vitriol of iron; ſome again contain much oker, &c.

The ſpontaneous ſeparation of the iron, which happens in many of theſe *waters*, is owing to the loſs of their fixed air. It is this air that is the ſolvent of the iron in them, and alſo that cauſes the ſparkling and ſprightly taſte obſerved in them whilſt freſh. See Acidulæ.

Their uſe is the ſame with that of iron itſelf; in all caſes where the one is adviſeable, the other may be adminiſtered. See Ferrum.

From one to three pints may be drank in a day, the ſame precautions being obſerved as when the artificial preparations of iron are taken.

The moſt proper ſeaſons for drinking them are the warmer months, and when the weather is clear and dry. During their uſe, the patient ſhould ſup early, uſe moderate exerciſe, and riſe betimes in the morning.

Of this ſort of *waters* are thoſe of Pyrmont, Spa, Tunbridge, Hampſtead, Iſlington, Hartfell, &c. The Pyrmont and Tunbridge are the beſt.

For making an artificial chalybeate *water*, ſee Buxton Water.

AQUÆ SULPHUREÆ, vel Thermæ. Sulphureous waters or hot-baths.

Theſe receive their name from their ſulphureous impregnation, and their heat. Their heat is from the mixture of ſulphur and iron in the beds through which they flow. See Dr. Cheyne's Treatiſe on the Bath *Water*.

Sulphur in its whole ſubſtance is contained in ſome *wa-*

ters, in others, as in the hot ſprings of Toeplitz, there is none; and ſeveral that have the fetid ſmell of ſulphur, poſſeſs no more of it than is in the vapour which ariſes from the ſolutions of ſulphur during its precipitation with acids. However, as above obſerved, moſt hot *waters* ſeem to differ chiefly only as the iron or the ſulphur predominates in them; where the ſulphur predominates, they are hotter, more naufeous, and purgative.

The three principal European hot *waters*, are thoſe of Aix-la-Chapelle, Bourbon, and Bath. The firſt abounds more eminently with ſulphur, which makes its heat naufeouſneſs, and purgative quality ſo great, that but few people can bear it. The ſecond is of a middle nature. And the laſt, by not partaking ſo much of the ſulphur, and more of the iron, is leſs offenſive, and more agreeable in its operations.

In England, the beſt *waters* of this kind are thoſe at Bath and Buxton. There are ſeveral others beſide, whoſe efficacy are far from being uſeleſs, though ſomewhat ſhort of the qualities found in thoſe juſt named. The Harrowgate and Llandrindod *ſulphur-waters* ſtand high in the liſt of merit.

Their excellency is in their uſefulneſs to weak ſtomachs, that are injured by ſevere attacks from the gout, hard drinking, &c. to conſtitutions enfeebled by tedious illneſſes: in relieving pains in the limbs; in reſtoring the paralytic, and thoſe who labour under nervous diſorders. They are alſo uſed to bathe in; and where a total immerſion either cannot be complied with, or is not thought neceſſary, they are uſed in the manner of the ſtillicidium. In general, wherever the vital heat is defective, they are calculated for uſefulneſs; but, where it abounds, they ſhould be fore-born; they ſhould not be admitted of in any caſes attended with hæmorrhages, though in other reſpects they may be required.

Dr. James Keil obſerves, that the beſt way of uſing mineral waters as alteratives, is to take frequent ſmall draughts. And to this it may be added, that they ſhould be continued a month or two to reap any conſiderable advantage.

If they render the ſtomach uneaſy, omit them, until by other means this viſcus is repaired, and the appetite ſomewhat reſtored. If they cauſe a drowſineſs, put it off by exerciſe, and not an indulgence of ſleep. See BATHONICA AQUA.

AQ. CRETAC. vel Calc. Chalk, or Lime Waters.

Theſe are either natural or artificial. The beſt natural ſpring of this kind in England is that at Briſtol; and the propereſt ſeaſon for drinking it, is from April to September.

They are of uſe to cleanſe the urinary paſſages when ulcerated, for which purpoſe they ſhould be drank freely and conſtantly; indeed, in moſt internal ulcerations, they are of conſiderable ſervice; the Briſtol *water* is found peculiarly efficacious in ſpaſmodic complaints, and in ſuch as take their riſe from the acrimony of the humours; and, in the diabetes, it is eſteemed a ſpecific, if applied to in its early ſtages.

Whatever advantages theſe *waters* poſſeſs, perhaps they may not exceed a proper uſe of *lime water*, if it is made freſh each time it is to be drank, and is ſwallowed whilſt the heat remains which aroſe from the ebullition of the lime.

AQUÆ CUPRÆ. Cupreous waters.

Theſe are not uſed in medicine. See Æs.

See Hippocrates de Ære, Aquis, & Locis. Percival's Eſſay's Med. & Exp. 2d edit. Dr. William Heberden's Obſervations on the Waters in and about London, inſerted in the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol i. For the analyſis and uſes of particular waters, ſee Dr. Rutty's Synopſis.

AQUÆ PAVOR. The ſame as hydrophobia.

AQUÆ STILLATITIÆ SIMPLICES. The ſimple diſtilled waters.

Diſtilled *waters* are only *water* impregnated with the eſſential oil of the ſubjects diſtilled with them. When more oil is brought over than the *water* can take up, it ſwims at the top, or ſinks to the bottom, and is to be ſeparated by a funnel. Cohobating may anſwer for obtaining more eſſential oil, but it does not increaſe the ſtrength of the *water* firſt diſtilled. And ſuch plants as do not ſufficiently impregnate the *water* at the firſt diſtilling are improper ſubjects for this operation; other methods are to be uſed to obtain their virtues. See DISTILLING.

Diſtilled *waters* are extemporaneouſly made with the olea ſaccharums, or with the eſſential ſalts. See OLEA SACCHARUM, CARMES (EAU DE), and ACETOSA.

When ſimple *waters* are uſed alone, or as the principal medicine, they are agreeable enough; but when uſed only as vehicles for other more powerful remedies, ſpring *water* is by far more elegant; and as but few of the ſimple *waters* are of ſufficient efficacy to be uſed alone, they are hardly worth the trouble of making.

AQUÆ STILLATITIÆ SPIRITUOSÆ. Spirituous diſtilled waters.

All the virtues of diſtilled *waters* are owing to the eſſential oil they take up. Spirit of wine differs from water in this, it keeps all the oil that riſes with it perfectly diſſolved in a limpid ſtate: but yet as ſpirit of wine boils in about one-fifth leſs of heat than water does, it is an improper vehicle for ſubſtances that require the heat of boiling water. Thus in diſtilling cinnamon with a proof ſpirit, the ſpirit riſes with very little flavour of the cinnamon, but when the water follows it brings with it the oil of this ſpice.

Diſtilled ſpirituous *waters* are of the proof ſpirit ſtrength, and formerly were called compound waters, in contradiſtinction to thoſe that conſiſt only of ſimple or common water. The moſt agreeable ſpirituous *waters* are made by uſing a pure rectified ſpirit of wine, covered with a proper quantity of pure water.

When the diſtilled liquor is as ſtrong as rectified ſpirit of wine, it is called diſtilled *ſpirit*. See CARMES (EAU DE).

AQUÆDUCTUS. A name of the tuba Euſtachiana.

AQUÆDUCTUS FALLOPII, i. e. Tuba Euſtachiana.

AQUALA, arſenic, or ſulphur.

AQUALICULUS. That part of the belly from the navel to the pubes. Sometimes it is uſed to expreſs the ſtomach, or the inteſtines. It is the ſame with hypogaſtrium.

AQUAPENDENTE, (HIERONYMUS FABRICIUS AB). He was ſo ſurnamed from *Aquapendente*, a town in Tuſcany, where he was born. He was profeſſor of anatomy at Padua, from 1565 to 1619, when he died.

In 1574, he obſerved the valves of the veins. Father Paul informed him of them, but knew not either their ſtructure or uſe.

He was the firſt who conſidered the carnous coat of the bladder as a muſcle concerned in the expulſion of the urine.

AQUAT. The abbreviation of aquatilibus.

AQUATICUM LENTICULATUM, i. e. Lentibularia.

AQUARIUS. Iron.

AQUASTER. In Paracelſus it is a ſort of viſion, which repreſents ſomething to our ſight which has no real exiſtence but in appearance.

AQUATUM, watery, diluted. Alſo the chalaza of an egg.

AQUE, a ſpecies of palm tree.

AQUEUM, i. e. Aquatum.

AQUIDUCUS, i. e. Hydragogos.

AQUIFOLIUM, of *axiç a prickle*, and *folium, a leaf*. It is alſo called agrifolium, ilex aculeata baccifera, hulver-tree, holm, or common holly.

Miller enumerates thirty-three ſpecies.

It is a prickly buſh ſo commonly known, that a deſcription is unneceſſary. Its bark is uſed for making birdlime of. It is peeled in June or July, then boiled in water until it is tender, then the water is all drained until it is dry, after which it is piled up with fern, in layers; thus it rots two or three weeks, or until it becomes a mucilage, then it is beat in a mortar until it is like a dough, after this it is worked with the hands in a running water, which ſoon leaves nothing but the pure birdlime. It is then put into a pot to deſpumate, and, at laſt, taken from thence, and put into another for uſe. Birdlime is alſo made of miſleto, and ſeveral other vegetable matters.

The berries of the *holly* are warming, ten or twelve of them diſcharge wind and ſlime by ſtool.

AQUILA. The eagle.

Of this kind of bird there are many ſpecies, but they are of no note in medicine.

Aquila is a chemical name for the ſpirit of Mercury, alſo for ſal ammoniac. Paracelſus uſes this word for mercurius præcipitatus; and it is a name for arſenic, for ſulphur, and for the philoſopher's ſtone.

AQUILA ALBA, a name of merc. dulc. of a preparation of ſal ammoniac, and ſublimate, &c.

AQUILA ALBA PHILOSOPHORUM, i. e. Flor. ſal ammon.

AQUILA CŒLESTIS. It is the panacea, or cure for all diſeaſes. It is prepared of mercury eſſentificated.

AQUILA NIGRA. It is the ſpirit of cobalt.

AQUILA VENERIS. A preparation made with verdegriſe and ſublimed ſal ammoniac.

Aquila hath many other epithets joined with it, as rubra, ſalutifera, volens, &c.

AQUILÆ. The veins were ſo called which paſs through the temples into the head.

AQUILÆ, (LAPIS). See ÆTITES.

AQUILÆ, (LIGNUM). Eagle wood. It is generally ſold for the Agallochum. It is that part which is next to the bark.

AQUILEGIA, called alſo aquilina, columbina, aquileia, leonis officulum, chelidonia ſylveſtris, & columbines. It is the *aquilegia* vulgaris. Lin.

It is a plant with ſlender reddiſh ſtalks, and bluiſh green leaves, in ſhape ſomewhat roundiſh, with many ſmall indentations, and one or two deep ones; the flower is blue, red, or white, conſiſting of five or ſix petala, each of which is ſuppoſed to reſemble a flying eagle or pigeon, whence its names. It flowers in June.

The ſeeds are ſomewhat mucilaginous.

AQUILEIA, i. e. Aquilegia.

AQUILENA. Lark ſpur.

AQUILINA, i. e. Aquilegia.

AQUILINUS, (LAPIS). See ÆTITES.

AQUILONES. North-eaſt winds.

AQUO, i. e. Aco.

AQUOSA HUMOR OCULI. The watery humour of the eye. It is a limpid water that fills all the ſpace between the cornea of the *eye*, and the anterior part of the cryſtalline *humour*. The ſpace in which this *humour* is confined, is called the anterior and poſterior chambers: the firſt is betwixt the cornea and the iris, this is the larger of them. The ſecond is betwixt the iris and the cryſtalline *humour*. The veſſels which furniſh this *humour* are too ſmall to be deſcribed. If a wound diſcharges this fluid, it is reſtored in two or three days again. In old age it is not ſo limpid, whence probably one cauſe of obſcure ſight at that time. The chief uſe of it ſeems to be to keep the cornea diſtended, ſo that the rays of light may be duly refracted in paſſing to the retina for the iris to float looſely in, whereby its actions may be eaſily performed.

AQUULA. A diſorder of the eye-lids is thus called. P. Ægineta, in lib. vi. cap. xiv. ſays, that it is a pinguious ſubſtance under the ſkin of the eye-lid, and is alſo called hydatis. In children it is ſometimes ſo troubleſome as to produce much uneaſineſs. The upper eye-lid appears watery, and cannot be elevated; the eyes are very tender, diſtilling a rheum, eſpecially in a morning, and if expoſed to the light. In order to the cure, an inciſion is made through the ſkin of the eye-lid, and the cyſt is to be diſſected out, if it will not come by gently pulling and moving it about.

Mr. St. Yves takes notice of a complaint on the edge of the eye-lids, or on the tunica conjunctiva, which reſembles the bladders that appear on the ſkin after a burn; he calls theſe alſo hydatis. The method of cure which he propoſes, is to open the tumor with the point of a lancet, which when done, nothing farther is wanted. But if all the circumference of the globe is covered with water, the conjunctiva will be inflamed, and in this caſe bleeding, purging, and a collyrium of aq. calcis ſi. will be neceſſary.

ARA PARVA, a little altar. A neat way of applying a bandage, ſo as to reſemble the corner of an *altar*.

ARABICUS LAPIS. The Arabian ſtone. It is like ivory blemiſhed with ſpots. Alſo the unicorn ſtone.

ARABICUM, (GUMMI). See GUMMI ARABICUM.

When the ancients uſe the word gummi, without another word to reſtrain its ſignification, they mean this gum.

ARABIS, i. e Draba.

ARABIS CANDIDÆ. A ſpecies of thlaſpi.

ARABIS MALAGMA. A malagma made by the Arabians againſt ſtrumous ſwellings and tubercles.

ARAC. See ORYSA.

ARACA-GUAM. A ſpecies of the guava-tree.

ARACA-MIRI. A ſhrub growing in Braſil. It bears fruit in March and September, which taſtes like a mixture of muſk and ſtraw-berries, and when candied or made into a marmalade, is cooling and moderately aſtringent. The leaves and buds have the ſame qualities, and the root is diuretic and antidyſenteric. Raii Hiſt.

ARACHYDNA, or Arachidna Cretica. It is one of the four leguminous plants which Ray ſays bears fruit both below and above ground.

ARACHIDNA QUADRIFOLIA VILLOSA. See ARACHNOIDES AMERICANA.

ARACHNE. The ſpider.

ARACHNOIDES, ἀράχνη, *a ſpider*, and εἶδος, *a form*. One of the coats of the eye which reſembles a ſpider's web. It is alſo called ARANEA, which ſee. The external lamina of the pia mater is alſo thus named.

According to Celſus, this coat in the eye immediately covers the vitreous humours. He ſays too, that Herophilus gave it this name. Dr. Nicholls and Albinus injected it, and ſay, that the veſſels run upon it like rays from a centre. It is now called tunica vitrea.

ARACUS INDICUS, vel Africanus, i. e. Abrus.

ARACOIBES, i. e. Arachydna.

ARACON. Braſs.

ARACUS. The wild veteh.

ARACUS AMERICANUS. A ſpecies of Indian vetch.

ARACUS AROMATICUS, i. e. Vanilla.

ARACYNAPPIL. Called alſo malo aurantio. This plant is only juſt mentioned by Ray.

ARADOS. Hippocrates means by it, the perturbation excited in the ſtomach by digeſting the aliment there. It alſo ſignifies any peturbation in the body.

ARÆON. Thin, rare, ſlow. It is applied to breathing, as when we ſay the breathing is not frequent, nor thick. The air is alſo ſaid to be rare, when not too much condenſed.

ARÆOTICA. Things or medicines which rarefy.

ARALDA. A name of the herb called fox-glove.

ARALIA. Berry-bearing angelica, or angelica tree. The flower conſiſts of many leaves, which expand like a roſe, and are naked, growing on the top of an ovary. Theſe flowers are ſucceeded by a globular fruit, which is ſucculent, and full of oblong ſeeds. There are four or five ſpecies, one of which grows in Canada, and is there called ſarſaparilla, becauſe its roots and virtues are like it. See Miller's Dict. and Philoſ. Tranſ. Ab. vol. v.

ARALIA HUMILIS. A name of the genſing.

ARALIASTRUM. It is a plant whoſe flowers are complete, regular, polypetalous, and hermaphrodite, ſtanding on an ovary. It is followed by a berry, in which are two flat ſeeds like a ſemicircle, which both together repreſent a heart. The ſtalk is ſingle, ends in an umbel, of which each ray bears but one flower. Above the middle of the ſtalk came out ſeveral pedicles, as in that of the anemone, on the extremity of which grows ſeveral leaves like rays.

There are three ſpecies, viz. the ninzin, plantula, marilandica, and the naſturtium marianum.

ARANEA, called alſo arachne, araneus, the catcher, the wolf, and ſpider.

As is common to moſt inſects, *ſpiders* abound with volatile ſalt, in conſequence of which they are ſometimes uſeful in agues, if taken inwardly. A ſcruple of the *ſpider's* web hath, in many inſtances, been given with ſucceſs, an hour before the fit of an ague, and an hour after it. This produces no ſenſible effect, and may be given when the bark is not ſafe.

ARANEA. Thus the coat which includes the cryſtalline humour of the eye is called. It is a continuation of the coat which covers the vitreous humour. The *aranea* is alſo called the capſula of the cryſtaline humour. It is furniſhed with veſſels from the ciliary proceſſes, and

from

from an artery which enters the bottom of the retina, and runs through the vitreous humour.

Aranea is alſo a name of the coat of the vitreous humour of the eye. See ARACHNOIDES.

ARANEOSA URINA. Urine, in which is ſomething like ſpider webs, with a fatneſs at the top. It indicates a colliquation.

ARANEOSUS PULSUS. A ſpider-like pulſe. This is, according to Galen, a ſmall *pulſe* that moves as if ſhaken by ſhort puffs of air.

ARANEUS. The ſpider.

ARANGIA. An orange.

ARANTIA. An orange.

ARANTIUS, (JULIUS CÆSAR). He was born at Bologna. He publiſhed his De Humano Fœtu Opuſculum in 1571. In another work he deſcribes the true ſubſtance of the uterus. He accurately deſcribes its veſſels, aſſerts that its arteries are continued to the veins, and ſuppoſes this to be the caſe with all the arteries in the body. He mentions the coalition of the veſſels in the heart of a fœtus, and in its liver. He ſays that the muſcles of the eye ariſe from the os ſphenoides, except the muſculus brevis. He ſays that he knew of the muſ. palpebræ ſuper. in 1548. He firſt obſerved the interior chink of the larynx, and accurately deſcribed it. He defends the ſuppoſition of the blood's circulation. He firſt obſerved that the duct of the artery of the ſpleen was oblique, and twiſted in the form of a ſnake. He firſt aſſerted, that the middle ſubſtance of the urethra was of the ſame ſtructure with the penis itſelf, and capable of being diſtended, and becoming flaccid again. He diſcovered the portion of the muſculus biceps, which Veſalius ſays ariſes from the proceſs of the acromion, and is inſerted into the humerus. He firſt diſcovered the muſculus indicis extenſor proprius. He obſerves, that a portion of the glutæus maximus becomes a membranous tendon, which joining with another tendon ariſing from the muſculus faſcialis tibiæ, is laterally inſerted into the appendix tibiæ; and, by means of this conjunction, he accounts for the pains of the hips reaching the very knees.

ARARA FRUCTUS SECUNDUS, or Arara Fructus Americanus. It grows in Cayanca, and, when bruiſed, it is applied to ulcers. Raii Hiſt.

ARATICU APE. The cuſtard apple.

ARAXOS. Soot.

ARBOR. A tree. It is defined to be a plant of the largeſt growth, whoſe trunk is perennial and ſingle, and divided into many large branches, which are again ſubdivided into ſmall twigs, called ſprigs, on which the leaves, flowers, and fruit are produced.

ARBOR IN AQUA NASSENS. The tupelo tree. It grows in Virginia, Maryland, and Carolina.

ARBUSCULA AFRICANA REPENS. A trailing ſhrub, which grows in Africa. See Miller's Addenda.

ARBUSCULA CORALLII, or Coralloides, i. e. Corallodendron.

ARBUSCULA GUMMIFERA BRASILIENSIS. See CAAIOPIA.

ARBUTUS, called alſo unedo, comarus, fragarie, ferentis, and rubra. The ſtrawberry tree.

In common with the ſummer fruits in general, the fruit of this tree is cooling and relaxing. It is antiſeptic, aperient, and a promoter of the urinary and alvine ſecretions: mixed with watery liquors, they are thereby rendered more miſcible with the blood, and ſo are of uſe in fevers. The jellies, and inſpiſſated juices, are leſs flatulent than the raw fruit.

This *tree ſtrawberry* is like a quince tree, and is common in the ſouth of Europe. It is the fruit which properly is called unedo and comarus.

ARBUTUS ANDRACHNE. Andrachne, or eaſtern ſtrawberry tree. This is not noted that I know of in medicine, but greatly admired as a beautiful ornament in the garden. In Dr. Lettſom's edition of Dr. Fothergill's Works is given a figure from a branch in flower, alſo an accurate botanic deſcription of it. He tells us that Dr. Alexander Ruſſel firſt introduced it here from Aleppo, in 1754. It thrives in the open ground with us, and a ſpecimen is now in the garden of Upton (the property of the late Dr. Fothergill), about twelve feet high.

ARBUTUS FOLIO NON SERRATO, i. e. Adrachne.

ARCA ARCANORUM. The Mercurius Philoſophorum.

ARCÆI, (BALS. vel Linim. vel Ung.) See ELEMI.

ARCÆUS. The author of the Ung. e Gummi Elemi. He alſo wrote a treatiſe on wounds.

ARCANNE. Red chalk, or ruddle.

ARCANUM. A ſecret, or a medicine, whoſe preparation, or efficacy, is kept from the world to enhance its value. With the chemiſts it is a thing ſecret, incorporeal, and immortal, and which can only be known by experience, for it is the virtue of every thing which operates a thouſand times more than the thing itſelf.

ARCANUM CORALLINUM, i. e. Mercurius Corallinus.

ARCANUM DUPLEX, or Duplicatum, the double ſecret, i. e. Nitrum vitriolatum, vel tartar vitriolatum.

ARCANUM JOVIALE. It is a preparation of tin and quickſilver, amalgamated and digeſted in ſpirit of nitre, &c. but now not in uſe.

ARCANUM MATERIALE. Among the chemiſts it is a ſpecific extract, nearly allied to the matter of our bodies.

ARCANUM SPECIFICUM. It is an extract of the interior nature of things, and is of two ſorts, aſtral and material.

Many medicines have the name of the *arcanum*.

ARCANUM TARTARI, i. e. Sal Diureticus.

ARCANUM TERRÆ FOLIATÆ TARTARI, i. e. Sal Diureticus.

ARCANUM THEOPHRASTO. It is the quinteſcence of any thing moſt high, exalted, or, as he ſays, it is the virtue of a thing refined by a thouſand exaltations. He boaſts of four *arcana* eſpecially. 1. The *arcanum* of the firſt matter. 2. Of the philoſopher's ſtone. 3. Of the mercury of life. 4. Of tincture. Blancard.

ARCEUTHOS, i. e. Juniperus.

ARCHÆUS, from ἀρχη, *the principal, chief*, or *firſt mover*. A ſort of primum mobile ſet up by Helmont, to ſuperintend the animal œconomy, and preſerve it. It is akin to Plato's anima mundi. Hippocrates uſes the words ἀρχαιη φυσις, to ſignify the former healthy ſtate before the attack of the diſeaſe.

ARCHAGATHUS. A phyſician who firſt brought the knowledge of phyſic to Rome. Pliny ſays, that the Romans were ſix hundred years without phyſicians. *Archagathus* went there, A. U. 535.

ARCHANGELICA. A name of angelica, and alſo of dead nettles.

ARCHE, ἀρχη. The firſt attack of a diſeaſe, its firſt ſtage, that time of the diſorder in which the patient firſt takes to his bed, or in which help might be effectual.

ARCHENDA. A powder prepared of the Egyptian privet, to be applied to the feet to check their fetid odour.

ARCHEUS. A term coined by Paracelſus; by it he would expreſs the ſole active principle in the material world.

ARCHEOSTIS. White briony.

ARCHIATER. The principal phyſician at a court.

ARCHIDOXA. The title of a chemical work of Paracelſus.

ARCHIGENES. A phyſician who lived under the emperor Trajan, and practiſed at Rome.

ARCHIGENI MORBI, acute diſeaſes, ſo called from ἀρχη, *the chief*, and γινομαι, *to be*, becauſe they hold the principal rank amongſt diſeaſes.

ARCHIMAGIA. A name for chemiſtry, becauſe by it gold is attempted to be made.

ARCHIMIA. The art of changing imperfect into perfect metals.

ARCHITHOLUS. See ACHICOLUM.

ARCHOS. The anus. Alſo the inteſtinum rectum.

ARCHOPTOMA. In Vogel's Noſology it is defined to be a bearing down of the rectum.

ARCION Burdock.

ARCIUM. Burdock.

ARCOS. Burnt copper.

ARCTATA PARS. So Scribonius Largus calls a part compreſſed, or cloſed by a fibula.

ARCTATIO It is when the inteſtines are conſtipated from an inflammation. Alſo a preternatural ſtreightneſs of the pudendum muliebre. It is alſo called arctitudo.

ARCTION. Woolly-headed burdock.

ARCTOSCORDON. Bear garlick.

ARCTOSTAPHYLOS. Spaniſh whortles.

ARCTURA. Inflammation, &c. of the finger, from a curvature of the nail. Linnæus.

ARCTURUS CRETICUS. A ſpecies of moth mullein.

ARCUATUS MORBUS. The jaundice.

ARCUALIA OSSA. The ſinciput; but ſome ſay, the temple bones.

ARCUALIS SUTURA, i. e. Sutura coronalis.

ARCUATIO. A gibboſity of the fore parts, with a curvation of the bone of the ſternum.

ARCUATUS MORBUS, i. e. Icterus.

ARCULÆ. The caverns in which the eyes are lodged.

ARDABAR. A ſpecies of arum.

ARDAS Sordes, filth.

ARDEA. The heron. There are ſeveral ſpecies of this bird.

ARDENS FEBRIS The ardent fever, from *ardeo, to burn*. It is the ſame as cauſus.

Fevers from ardency are the ephemera and lipira, and all in which a phlegmonous inflammation attend, the hectic, all *fevers* from an inflammation of the mucous membrane, and moſt intermittents.

Ardent fevers have for their principal cauſe too much craſſamentum in the blood, which retains too great a portion of the vital heat. In a healthy ſtate, the heat of the blood is about ninety-eight degrees of Farenheit's thermometer. To preſerve this ſtate, perſpiration, and all the ſecretions, ſhould be free, and in due quantity; for whatever increaſes the craſſamentum, or leſſens the diſcharge of vital heat, alike lays a foundation for this ſort of *fever*. When the heat is exceſſive, the blood divides faſter than it can be ſecreted by the ſeveral emunctories, and in fevers the blood is thinner than it was before, and ſo takes up more room in the veſſels, whence many of the ſymptoms uſually attending.

A dry air is a cauſe alſo of this kind of *fever*; in ſpring, when the air is cold and dry, the *ardent* and inflammatory *fevers* prevail much. A dry air does not conduct ſo much heat from our bodies as a moiſt one does; hence it is detained, and an undue accumulation of it ſoon deſtroys that par of nature which conſtitutes health.

That an increaſe of the natural heat is alone the immediate cauſe of *ardent fevers* is farther evident from its being a ſufficient cauſe of all the ſymptoms that uſually attend them, ſuch as the ſtrong quick pulſe, redneſs of the eyes, hot breath, white tongue, anxiety, &c.

Barley and oatmeal gruels are the propereſt kind of aliment, as they leaſt increaſe the craſſamentum of the blood.

In order to the cure, as the ſymptoms ariſe from increaſed heat, the remedies will be whatever moſt ſpeedily reduceth it. And as the redundant heat is principally owing to an accumulation of the craſſamentum in the blood, to leſſen the quantity thereof by an immediate and free bleeding, alſo to carry off the heat by ſuch medicines as repel it, are the obvious methods of relief.

Firſt, then bleed freely from a large orifice, and if the patient is robuſt, and the heat exceſſive, let him be ſupported on his feet, until the operation is ended, that he may faint, if poſſible; the heat is always leſs after fainting, than when the ſame quantity of blood is diſcharged without this accident happening. If a repeated loſs of blood ſeems needful, proceed therein at proper intervals until the pulſe and the heat contra-indicate it.

Immediately after bleeding, let a briſk, but cooling purge be adminiſtered. Sydenham obſerves, that purging immediately after bleeding, cools to a great degree; alſo, that the method of curing *fevers* by perſpiration, is not only leſs certain, but more troubleſome and tedious; nay, that it prolongs the diſeaſe, and endangers the patient. Among the cooling purges, none excels the ol. Ricini, and may be thus given.

℞ Ol. Ricini ver. ℥ ſs. ad ℥ ij.

Aq. menth pip. ℥ i. ad ij. m. f. hauſt. ſtatim ſumend. & repet. altern. quaq. die.

In want of the ol. Ricini, draughts with ſal nitri & electar. e caſia may be given, or an infuſion of tamarinds, and ſuch like.

During the intervals of purging, let frequent ſmall draughts of acidulated ſubtepid liquors be taken, and the doſes of cooling medicines ſhould be repeated every two hours, or oftener, ſo that the effect of one may not be loſt before its power is aſſiſted by the repetition of another; a fault very manifeſt in the common methods of adminiſtering them. Nitre, ſal diuretic. and ſal ammon. will be proper on this occaſion; and if to each doſe of them as much tart. emet. vin. antim. is added as the ſtomach will eaſily retain, or in want of them, the vin. ipecacuchan. their advantages will be increaſed.

If there is a conſiderable nauſea during the firſt two or three days after the attack, a grain or more of the tart. emet. may be added to the purge, which is adminiſtered after the firſt bleeding, and thus the ſtomach will be relieved by the ſame medicine by which the general complaint is oppoſed.

If this kind of *fever* hath attended four or five days before aſſiſtance is obtained, the above method muſt not be put in practice; yet if the heat is great, and the pulſe ſtrong, a moderate bleeding may be of uſe. A gentle laxative that is cooling may alſo be given by the mouth; and, until the criſis, let gentle alexipharmics, and light broths, be duly continued; for after the fifth or ſixth day of an *ardent fever*, there is generally ſome difficulty to keep up the vital heat to that degree which is neceſſary to health, or the due procedure of the ſecretions and excretions.

If a nauſea continues after the emetic is worked off, the common ſaline draughts may be given at proper intervals.

A diarrhœa may be critical, ſo ſhould be attended to with care, and until the patient's ſtrength is affected by it, there is nothing to be done. When a check to it is judged neceſſary, give the following:

℞ Pulv. ipecachuan. gr. iii.

—— contray. c. gr. xv. m. f. chart. 2da vel 3tia quaq. hora ſumend.

℞ Julep. e Cret. ℥ iv. tinct. japon. ℥ ſs. m. ſumat. cochl. ii. poſt ſingulas fedes liquidas.

Deliriums coming on demand attention to diſtinguiſh whether their cauſe is inflammatory or ſpaſmodic. If from inflammation, bleed, inject cooling clyſters with nitre frequently, and ſupply the patient with cooling medicine by the mouth. In caſe of ſpaſms, with low ſpirits and a weak pulſe, apply bliſters to the neck and arms, and ſinapiſms on the feet: Sydenham aſſerts, that garlick bruiſed and applied thereto, quiets the delirium more effectually and ſpeedily than bliſters. See the article Febris.

ARDENTIA. Things obnoxious to combuſtion, as turpentine, &c.

ARDENTES PAPULÆ. See Ecbrasmata.

ARDESIA. Lapides ſciſſiles, lapides cruſtati. Slate. This hath no known medical powers.

ARDESIA HIBERNICA, i. e. Lapis Hibernica.

ARDOR. A very intenſe acute heat raiſed in our bodies.

ARDOR URINÆ. See Dysuria.

ARDOR VENTRICULI. The heartburn.

ARE-ALU. A ſpecies of fig-tree. See Tsjakela.

AREA. A ſpecies of alopecia.

ARECA, alſo called fauſel, avellana Indiana verſicolor. The Indian nut, and the Malabar nut.

It is the fruit of a ſpecies of palm-tree which is met with in the Eaſt-Indies, though ſome reckon this nut among the ſpecies of cocoa nuts. The outward coat is about the ſize of a pullet's egg, under it is the fruit which is brown on the outſide, in ſhape like a nutmeg at one end, and flat at the other; within it is white and marbled with purpliſh veins: it is rather inſipid to the taſte; the Indians chew it to help digeſtion; it is moderately aſtringent.

The inſpiſſated juice of this fruit is the terra Japonica; but it is generally adulterated with other matters.

ARECÆ INDICÆ. An ordinary kind of nutmegs.

AREMAROS. Cinnabar.

ARENA. Sand or gravel in the kidnies. In foſſilogy, *ſands* are a genus of ſtone, in the order of ſaxum. The characters of *ſand*, are ſaxum, compoſed of granules, which are looſe, and where not together, and formed

neither of comminuted nor decompounded foſſil bodies. Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

ARENA LITORADIS. Sea ſand.

ARENA MARIS. Arena marina. Sea ſand.

It is heated in bags and applied to parts that are pained. Hydropic people are alſo ſweated by being covered with hot *ſand*.

ARENAMEN. Bole armoniac.

ARENNARIA. A ſpecies of coronopus, ſo called becauſe it delights in ſandy places.

ARENARIUM SAXUM Rough free-ſtone.

ARENARMEI. Bole armoniac.

ARENATIO, or Saburratio. It is the caſting of hot ſand on the bodies of patients.

ARENTES. A ſort of cupping-glaſſes uſed by the ancients.

AREOLA. It is the circle which ſurrounds the nipple on the breaſts: in virgins it is little and red; in pregnant women it is larger and more brown.

ARES. A word of Paracelſus's, by which he would expreſs that power of nature in the whole material world, by which ſpecies are diſtributed into individuals.

ARESTA BOVIS, i. e. Anonis.

ARETÆNOIDES, from αρυω, *to draw*, αρυτιω, *to open*, and ειδος, *form*. A cartilage as well as a muſcle of the wind-pipe bears this name. See ARYTÆNOIDES.

ARETÆUS. An eminent phyſician among the ancients. When he lived is not eaſy to ſay; but he writ before Paulus Ægineta, or Actius, for he quotes him. He was in ſome inſtances of the ſame opinion with the Pneumatics, and in others of the Methodics. When he ſpeaks of ſpirit he means the matter of reſpiration. The Pneumatic ſect aſſerted that fire, air, earth, and water were not elements; but that the name of element rather belonged to the qualities of which theſe bodies were poſſeſſed, or to heat, cold, moiſt, dry, &c. and Aretæus was of this opinion.

He was not leſs modeſt than ſkilful and knowing. He generally begins his chapter by a ſhort anatomical deſcription of the parts whoſe diſorders he intends to treat of in the ſequel.

ARETOS. A ſpecies of moth mullein.

AREUS. The title of a peſſary mentioned by P. Ægineta.

ARFAR. Arſenic.

ARGAL. Tartar.

ARGASYLLIS. The plant which is ſaid to afford gum ammoniacum.

ARGEMA. or Argemon. A diſorder of the eye called ALBUGO, which ſee; from αργος, *white*. Vogel defines it, an ulceration of the cornea.

ARGEMONE. Some ſpecies of the poppy are thus named.

ARGEMONE MEXICANA. Purging thiſtle. Alſo a ſpecies of glaucium.

ARGEMONIA. An herb called by the Greeks ſarcocolla, but it is unknown.

ARGENTINA, alſo called anſerina, potentilla pentaphyloides, ſilver weed, and wild tanſey. In is the Potentilla Anſerina of Linn.

Boerhaave reckons up nine ſpecies.

It is a low creeping plant, with leaves that are covered on their under ſide with a ſilver-coloured down, and is commonly on the ſides of rivulets and uncultivated places; it flowers in June.

The leaves are rather aſtringent; the root reſembles the taſte of parſnips, but are not of any value as a medicine.

ARGENTUM, alſo called luna and ſilver.

Silver is ſometimes found pure in the mine, but generally mixed with tin or with lead. To the ore there often adheres a corroſive bituminous ſulphur, which in fuſion renders the *ſilver* volatile, or converts it into a gloſſy ſcoria: this loſs is prevented by firſt roaſting the ore, then reducing it to powder, afterwards adding mercury, and grinding them ſo long together that the *ſilver* becomes wholly united to it, which may afterwards be ſeparated by diſtillation.

The greateſt mines are found in Chili and Peru, and there they ſeparate it from the other mineral matters by pulverization, ablution with water, and amalgamation with mercury. The *ſilver* mines in England, Germany, and other parts of Europe, afford it moſtly in an ore of a yellow, red, brown, or blackiſh colour, from an admixture of arſenic, ſulphur, or both; and this ore requires a calcination for the diſſipation of the arſenic, &c. and then the *ſilver* is ſeparated from the remaining earth by fuſion.

By means of lead it is ſeparated from all the baſer metals, and from gold by diſſolving it in aqua regia. It turns to ſcoria, and becomes volatile if uſed with antimony.

It melts with nearly the ſame heat as gold, and is the next to it in ductility.

It is the next to lead in point of gravity.

It turns yellow and then black from the vapours of brimſtone, or any ſulphureous ſteams, as from vaults where human excrements are depoſited, &c.

It is eleven times ſpecifically heavier than water.

It is fixed, and indeſtructible by the fire.

It is ſoluble only in the nitrous acid, with which it unites ſo ſtrongly, that a heat which fuſes the *ſilver* will not part them. In the nitrous acid it is diſſolved into a limpid fluid, which ſtains the ſolid parts of animals black, is corroſive, and intenſely bitter.

Though not ſoluble in the vitriolic or the marine acids by a moderate digeſtion, yet it may be precipitated from the nitrous acid by them.

As it is inſoluble by any vegetable or animal juice, if ſwallowed, it is neither uſeful nor hurtful. Its only medical uſe is as a cauſtic, for which purpoſe that preparation called the lunar cauſtic is made.

Cauſticum Lunare. Lunar *Cauſtic*.

Diſſolve pure *ſilver* by a ſand-heat in about twice its weight of aqua fortis; then dry away the humidity with a gentle fire; afterwards melt it in a crucible, that it may be poured into proper moulds, carefully avoiding overmuch heat, leſt the matter ſhould grow too thick.

The crucible ſhould be large enough to hold five or ſix times the quantity of the dry matter, for it bubbles and ſwells greatly, and the operator ſhould guard againſt the drops that ſpirt up; keep the fire moderate until the ebullition ceaſes, and till the matter becomes conſiſtent in the heat that firſt made it boil, then quickly increaſe the fire until the matter is thin at the bottom, like oil; on which immediately pour it into moulds, without waiting until the fumes ceaſe to appear.

The moulds may be of iron, or of pipe-clay that is ſoft enough to admit of a greaſed ſtick into it.

When it is cold break the moulds, wrap each piece of the cauſtic in paper, and keep it from the air, or elſe it will diſſolve.

If this cauſtic is diſſolved in water, and then ſome thin plates of copper be added, the pure *ſilver* will be precipitated.

Some call it inflammable *ſilver*, for it flames like nitre until it is reduced to the pure ſtate of *ſilver*, if laid on a red hot turf.

The pilula lunaris is only a milder kind of lunar cauſtic, and is now wholly neglected.

Tinct. Argenti. *The Tincture of* Silver.

Take a quantity of pure *ſilver*, melt it in a clean crucible, then directly pour it into fair cold water, eight inches high, in a cylindrical veſſel; the *ſilver* is thus ſcattered into grains, which are called granulated *ſilver*. Put an ounce of this granulated *ſilver* into a clean urinal glaſs; then take two ounces of the ſpirit of nitre, put thereto one grain of refined *ſilver*, and if it be ſoon perfectly diſſolved, and ſo as that the liquor is ſtill limpid, the ſpirit is good; if not, it is not fit for this uſe. If the ſpirit is good, pour two ounces of it upon one ounce of the granulated *ſilver* in the urinal glaſs; upon which it ſoon becomes hot, and diſſolves the *ſilver*. A little of a black powder is always obſerved to ſettle, and it is pure gold; ſo pour off the clear ſolution into a clean glaſs for uſe.

At one touching this tincture eats away the callous lips of ulcers: it ſoon deſtroys warts: it makes a laſting black ſtain in all animal ſubſtances; and is alſo uſed for making artificial agates. See ACHATES.

The *ſilver* never gives any tincture to the ſpirit; if therefore any colour is obſerved, it is probably from ſome copper which the *ſilver* retains: however it is not fit for the nicer experiments in which this tincture is uſed.

Pure

Pure ſtrong ſpirit of nitre diſſolves half its weight of *ſilver*, in a moderate heat; but it will not diſſolve in aqua regia, hence the method of ſeparating gold from *ſilver*.

ARGENTUM MOBILE. So Ariſtotle calls the argent. vivum.

ARGENTUM VIVUM, called alſo hydrargyrus, mercurius, liquor metallicus, metallum fluidum, argentum fuſum, argentum mobile, vomica liquoris æterni, and *quickſilver*.

Its chemical character is ☿, which denotes that the inſide is pure gold, but the outer part is of the colour of *ſilver*, with a corroſive underneath.

Some diſpute its being a metal; others aſſert it to be a proper one: it hath all the properties of metal except malleability, and, according to the experiments of profeſſor Braun, it is rendered malleable by expoſing it to a due degree of artificial cold, that is, to about 528 below the freezing point on Farenheit's thermometer, whence it may properly be deemed a perfect metal.

In the Venetian territories are the greateſt quantity of mines producing *quickſilver*; we have much from the Eaſt-Indies; Spain and Hungary both afford great quantities of it; in China, Japan, and many other places, it is met with; about Montpelier, in France, there are ſome mines in which it is found.

It conſiſts of a volatile vitrifiable earth and ſulphur.

It is found in the earth in a fluid form ſometimes, and ſo pure as not to need any refining; it is then called virgin *quickſilver*; but moſt frequently it is found mixed with other ſubſtances: the moſt general ſtate in which it is met in the mines is mixed with ſulphureous ores, of a red colour, called cinnabar, and the richer the ore, the redder it is.

From the ore it is ſeparated by waſhing in water; grinding with vinegar and a little ſalt, which diſſolves the metalline impurities; and by diſtillation either alone or with the addition of lime, pot-aſh, or iron filings.

The people who work in the *quickſilver* mines ſoon die; at the firſt of their being affected they are ſeized with tremors, after which a ſalivation comes on, their teeth drop out, and pains ſeize them all over, particularly in the bones.

Hippocrates does not ſeem to have been acquainted with this mineral; Ariſtotle and Dioſcorides rank it amongſt poiſons; Galen ſays that it is corroſive; Meſue, the Arabian, was the firſt who uſed it medicinally, and he only applied it in the form of an ointment in cutaneous diſtempers. Avicenna obſerves that it may be ſwallowed crude, and that it paſſes through the body. About the end of the thirteenth century it was introduced into Europe as a medicine, but not eſteemed a ſafe one until the venereal diſeaſe was brought over, and was found to yield to its efficacy. The firſt internal mercurial medicine which gained real credit was the pilul. Barbaroſſæ, which was compoſed of *quickſilver*, rhubarb, muſk, &c.

The Characters are as follow.

It is the heavieſt of all bodies except gold. Gold is to *mercury* nearly as 4 to 3.

When well purified it is as ſimple as pure gold.

It is totally volatile in the fire by heat not much greater than that of boiling water, and by a far leſs heat it is calcinable into a red powder.

The fumes raiſed by fire are ſcarcely viſible, and yet by being received into cold water may be reduced to the ſtate of pure *quickſilver*.

It amalgamates moſt readily with gold, next with lead, next with ſilver, next with tin, ſcarcely at all with iron, and with great difficulty with copper.

By the aſſiſtance of trituration or of heat it diſſolves all metallic bodies except iron.

The vitriolic acid hath no effect upon it until it is concentrated by heat; the nitrous acid acts quickly upon it; fixed ſalts make no impreſſion, and the ſpirit of ſalt hath little or no effect upon it; vegetable acids have as little; nor do neutral ſalts alter it any way.

It is allowed to be pure when a little held over a fire in an iron ladle totally evaporates.

It is often adulterated with lead, a large quantity of which may be incorporated with it by the intervention of biſmuth in a moderate heat; and in this caſe the lead cannot be ſeparated by preſſure through leather. This abuſe may be diſcovered by the *mercury* ſtaining paper blackiſh; by its not running into round globules; by its leaving a powdery matter or a coloured ſpot on the bottom of the veſſel; and by its producing a turbid milkineſs during its diſſolution in aqua fortis.

As a medicine it is uſed to promote the ſecretions in general, particularly the ſaliva. The more perfectly it is divided the more powerful and penetrating is its action, which is chiefly exerted in the ſmall lymphatic veſſels. Whether uſed internally or externally it liquifies all the juices in our bodies, and may be ſo managed as to promote excretions through all the emunctories. If not reſtrained it firſt fuſes the humours, then determines them to the mouth, and cauſes inflammation, tumors, and ulcerations there.

No taſk is perhaps more difficult than to dwell on the modus operandi of medicines; yet an obſervation of Dr. Kirkland in his Inquiry, vol. i. p. 496, &c. deſerves attention. He ſays that its effects (ſpeaking of the ophthalmia) are not entirely to be aſcribed to removing obſtruction in the vaſa minima, as it corrects more kinds of acrimony than one. I have ſeen good effects from different preparations, but I prefer very ſmall doſes of pure *quickſilver* to all the boaſted chemical preparations of this mineral. A ſingle grain of *quickſilver*, extinguiſhed in ſtarch, repeated in the manner we give the ſolution of ſublimate, will have powerful effects, without troubling the patient, as too often happens in the uſe of the ſublimate. It is happy for the patient that the ſpiculæ added to it by the chemiſts, are diſſolved in the primæ viæ. I believe all the preparations of *mercury* are decompoſed in this paſſage; and I am of opinion, that giving ſmall doſes, adds to its efficacy, becauſe a grain of *quickſilver* taken twice a day, very often affects the teeth, if not prevented in a very ſhort time. I have repeatedly ſeen twenty grains of *quickſilver* affect the teeth: Would a ſcruple taken at once produce the ſame effect? A large quantity of pure divided *quickſilver* ſometimes paſſes off without any remarkable effects. See the remark under the article ÆTHIOPIS MINERALIS.

Dr. George Fordyce obſerves, in his Chemical Lectures, that *mercury* is a powerful ſtimulant in ſlow inflammations to forward ſuppuration, as in ſcrophulas particularly. Indolent tumors often ariſe which are of long continuance; theſe may often be diſperſed by the uſe of mercury, the ſtimulus of which occaſions ſuch a quantity of watery fluid to be thrown out, and the abſorbents to act ſo ſtrongly as to cauſe it to be diſſolved and reabſorbed. In old ulcers the efficacy of *mercury* is often valuable. In chronic rheumatiſms, when there is no conſiderable degree of inflammation, and where it is required to keep up a conſtant ſtimulus, mercury will generally remove the diſeaſe. It is advantageouſly uſed as a ſudorific in cutaneous eruptions, which it very powerfully removes; it keeps the ſkin moiſt, and diſpoſes the little inflammations to heal. Beſides the property of *mercury* in its being a ſtimulant, it hath a peculiar power in deſtroying the venereal virus, and alſo various other inſtances of acrimony. *Mercury* is the only known ſalivant; many things ſtimulate the glands in the mouth, and increaſe their uſual diſcharge, but *mercury* alone produceth this effect, by being abſorbed, and carried into the circulation. In ſloughs and in eryſipelatous ulcers it is improper, alſo in caſes of ſcirrhous or of cancerous tumors; in ſpaſmodic complaints, inſtances of ſtupor or of gout, it ſhould be avoided. Its advantages in caſes of ſuppreſſed menſtrua are not worthy of attention; the aid it ſeems to give is never laſting. Some employ it as a purgative, but this is not vindicable. In dropſies *mercury* is not adviſeable; for though it may promote the abſorption of the ſtagnant fluid, it ſo weakens the habit as to re-produce a proportioned inundation. Beſides the ſalivary glands, *mercury* ſeems peculiarly to affect the throat, the inteſtines, and the joints, a circumſtance to be regarded in the uſe of this powerful medicine; and from which, if due care is not taken to prevent them, the effects will be injuriouſly active.

It hath been ſwallowed crude, as an univerſal remedy.

Dr. Dover and Dr. Cheney commend it in the following diſorders.

1. Joined

1. Joined with the gum guaiacum and a little aloes, it hath been ſucceſsfully uſed in the eryſipelas, gout, and defoedations of the ſkin.

2. In hyſteric complaints its advantages are conſiderable if joined with the bark, valerian, aloetics, or the gum pills, as circumſtances may require.

3. In conjunction with preparations of iron, it ſucceeds in ſuppreſſion of the menſes.

4. In intermittents it avails, when joined with the bark and iron.

5. In ophthalmias it hath been effectual when accompanied with millepedes and laxatives.

6. The merc. alkalizat. joined with gum guaiac. and the antimonial wine, does wonders in chronical rheumatiſms.

7. In the jaundice, ſciatica, and anaſarcous dropſy, the mercurius alkalizatus is ſucceſsful to admiration.

And to theſe of Dr. Cheyne may be added, that old foul ulcers are ſometimes brought to digeſt by its uſe.

The hard bellies of children are relieved by it, if accompanied with ſuch other medicaments as the particular caſe may require.

By boiling two or three ounces of *quickſilver* in four pints of water to two pints, and uſing the clear liquor for common drink, it deſtroys worms.

And in the venereal diſeaſe it is a ſpecific.

The true ſecret of curing diſeaſes with mercury is to cauſe it to circulate with the blood as long as poſſible, without producing any evacuation at all.

A long uſe of mercury weakens the habit, and ſo ſhould be accompanied with mild antimonials, the bark, or ſarſaparilla, &c. as circumſtances ſeem moſt to require.

Quickſilver is divided by earthy powders, balſams, mucilages, &c. but with nothing more advantageouſly than the mucilage of gum arabic. Mr. Plenck, of Vienna, directs a dram of it to be mixed with two drams of gum arabic in powder, by degrees to add a little water, and to continue the trituration of them together until the globules totally diſappear, after which half an ounce of any ſyrup, and half a pint of water may be added, and two common ſpoonfuls of the mixture may be taken every night and morning in ſuch caſes as require its uſe.

Gum arabic powerfully reſtrains the mercury from running off by the ſalivary glands; and if a ſalivation is already excited, it is the beſt aſſiſtant in checking it.

Crude mercury in general is of equal advantage with any of its preparations; yet, in particular conſtitutions, one or other of them may demand a preference.

Many are the preparations made from this metal, and the moſt uſeful are inſerted in the courſe of theſe pages.

Argenti Vivi *Purificatio. The Purification of* Quickſilver.

The general method in uſe, and that commended by the London college is, to diſtil the *quickſilver*, in a retort, and afterwards to waſh it with water, or with vinegar, and which ever of them be uſed, let ſome common ſalt be added to it.

If a retort is uſed it ſhould have a low body and a long neck, the neck ſhould be inclined downwards, ſo as to allow the elevated mercury a quick deſcent, and the receiver ſhould be filled almoſt to the neck with water, to cool the *quickſilver*; for if it falls hot upon the glaſs it may break it. No more heat ſhould be uſed than is neceſſary juſt to raiſe the *quickſilver*, leſt other ſubſtances ſhould be elevated with it. If the *quickſilver* is amalgamated with one fourth its weight of lead, and then put into a retort in which is ſome vinegar, it will riſe before the vinegar boils.

ARGISTATA. Incorporated with wax.

ARGILLA, Clay or argillaceous earth. Mr. Edwards defines it to be, a genus of earth, which is ſoft, very ductile, and tenacious, when moiſt; and rendered very hard by fire. See his Elements of Foſſilogy.

Moiſt clays, beſides the tenaceous indiſſoluble earth, which is their principal characteriſtic, contain, 1ſt. A portion of an earth that is ſoluble in acids. 2dly, Of acid, which may be ſeparated by a ſtrong fire in diſtillation; this acid is of the vitriolic kind And, 3dly, A ſmall portion of iron reducible by inflammable fluxes into its metallic form.

Clays unite with water into a turbid liquor, ſlippery and ſmooth to the touch, and remain ſome time ſuſpended, the ſand, grit, and other groſs matters ſubſiding.

They may be freed from their alkaline earths by means of acids; from their ſaline matter by a coction in water; and from their iron by digeſtion in aqua regia. Thus purified, they have all nearly the ſame appearance and qualities. If dried ſo as to fall into powder all clays adhere again with moiſture.

Expoſed to a ſtrong fire, they loſe their ſoft glutinous quality, and are reduced into hard maſſes.

An eſtate poſſeſſed of clays, marles, or loams, may be better than for paſture or tillage. And all the apparatus to examine them with is, water, aq. fortis, a crucible, a microſcope, a fire, and your ſenſes.

ARGILLA ALBA. Tobacco-pipe clay. See TERRA CIMOLIA ALBA.

ARGILLA CANDIDA, i. e. Argilla alba.

ARGUS. The name of a ſort of pheaſant.

ARGYRITIS. Litharge.

ARGYRITIS TERRA. A ſort of earth taken out of ſilver mines, beſpangled with many particles of ſilver.

ARGYROCOME. A ſpecies of gnaphalium.

ARGYRODAMAS. A kind of talc, of the colour of ſilver, that will not yield to the force of fire.

ARGYROLITHOS. A ſort of talc, ſo called from its ſilver colour.

ARGYROPHORA. The name of an antidote.

ARGYROPŒIA. The art of making ſilver out of more imperfect metals.

ARGYRUS. Silver.

ARGYROTROPHEMA. A cooling food, made with milk.

ARHEUMATISTOS. An epithet given to the external parts, particularly the joints, while free from gouty rheums.

ARIA. The white boam tree. It grows in woods upon rocky mountains, and flowers in April. The fruit mitigates coughs and promotes expectoration. Dale.

ARIA-BEPOU, See NIMBÆ ACCOSTÆ.

ARIDA MEDICAMENTA. Dry medicines, ſuch as powders, &c.

ARIDITAS CORPORIS. A maraſmus.

ARIDURA. A waſting or leanneſs, ſuch as appears in hectic or conſumptive habits; or according to others, the withering of a particular part, as a limb.

ARILLA. A grape-ſtone.

ARIMASPES. The ancient Scythians were fabuloufly ſo called, from a ſuppoſition that they had but one eye; *ari* in their language, ſignifying *alone*, and *maſpe*, *the eye*. Anton. Muret. See MONOPIA.

ARIS. The name of an inſtrument uſed by the ancients, and alſo of an herb.

ARISARUM. Friar's cowl. Dioſcorides ſays it is a ſmall plant with a root like that of the olive, which is more acrid than arum. It grows in Italy, &c.

ARISTA. In botany, it is that ſharp-pointed needle which ſtands out from the huſk or covering of the grain of corn or graſs, and is called the awn or beard.

ARISTÆUS. A pupil of Chiron's: he made ſome improvements in his art, and is ſaid to have diſcovered the methods of making cheeſe, and oil, and alſo of gathering honey.

ARISTALTHÆA. The marſhmallow.

ARISTIONIS MACHINAMENTUM. A machine for reſtoring luxations, invented by Ariſton.

ARISTOLOCHIA. Birth-wort. It is ſo called becauſe eſteemed for promoting the lochia in child-bed women.

There are ſeveral ſpecies of this plant; they are natives of the ſouthern parts of Europe, whence we are ſupplied with the dry roots. Moſt of them bear the cold of this clime. The roots of all the kinds are aromatic and bitter; they give out their virtues both to water and to ſpirit; but to the latter moſt perfectly. The roots of all the kinds have been uſed in ſuppreſſions of the uterine purgations; but the preſent practice almoſt excludes them, for they hurt the appetite and produce a languidneſs in weakly conſtitutions. Any one of them may be uſed for the other; though Dr. Alſton of Edinburgh, thinks that the roots of the creeping ſort are the beſt. The doſes are from gr. v. to ʒ i.

ARISTOLOCHIA ROTUNDA. Lin. Alſo called malum terræ, round-rooted birth-wort, and according to Paracelſus the great matrix root. Its peculiar diſtinction is, that its roots are round.

ARISTOLOCHIA LONGA. Lin. Called alſo ariſtolochia maſcula, and long-rooted birth-wort.

ARISTOLOCHIA CAVA, i. e. Fumaria bulboſa.

ARISTOLOCHIA TENUIS, called alſo piſtolochia, ariſtolochia polyrhizos. Buſhy-rooted or ſlender birth-wort.

ARISTOLOCHIA TENUIS, called alſo ariſtolochia clematitis, Lin. Creeping birth-wort. It is the ariſtolochia tenuis, vel ariſtolochia foliis cordatis caule erecto, floribus axillaribus confertis. Lin. The root, Dr. Alſton thinks is equal to the Virginian ſnake-root, for all the purpoſes in which that foreign root is uſed.

The rad. ſerpentar. Virg. is a ſpecies alſo.

ARISTOLOCHIA. A name of the moſchatellina.

ARISTOLOCHIA ADULTERINA. Great bulbous fumitory.

ARISTON. Dinner.

ARISTON MAGNUM ET PARVUM. Avicenna ſays they are remedies againſt a phthiſis when attended with a fever, &c.

ARISTOPHANEION. The name of a plaſter uſed by the ancients.

ARISTOTELES. Ariſtotle. He deſcended in the Æſculapian line, and was born 384 years before the Chriſtian æra. He ſtudied under Plato from the age of 18 to 37. He was tutor to Alexander the Great; afterwards he eſtabliſhed a ſchool at Athens, and as he gave his lectures walking, his ſect were called Peripatetics.

ARLADA, or Arladar, i. e. Realgar.

ARMALA. Wild rue.

ARMALGOL. Coral.

ARMATURA, i. e. Amnios.

ARME. A coalition of wounds, alſo the joining of the ſutures of the head.

ARMENA BOLUS. Armenian bole.

ARMENA. An inſtrument with all the apparatus for any work we are about.

ARMENIACA MALA, called alſo præcocia. The apricot-tree. Theophraſtus calls it perſea, to diſtinguiſh it from the peach; it was afterwards called perſea-præcox. The Latins called it præcoqua, whence the latter Greeks formed their bericocca, whence the French word abricots.

This fruit is more uſed for pleaſure than health: of the kernels in the ſtones is made ratifia.

ARMENUS (Lapis), alſo called lapis Armenius, azutum, cœruleum foſſile, Armenium. The Armenian ſtone.

It is a copper ore, of a pale blue colour. It operates inſtantly as an emetic in a doſe of four grains: it is very little different if at all from the lapis lazuli.

ARMERIA. Armerius pratenſis, armerius ſylveſtris. Meadow pink. It grows in watery places, and flowers in May. The flowers are alexipharmic. Dale.

ARMERIA RUBRA LATIFOLIA. Broad-leaved ſweet William.

ARMERIUS MONTANUS. A ſpecies of ſtatice.

ARMERIUS SIMPLICI FLORE. A ſort of gilly-flower.

ARMILLA. The round ligament that confines the tendons of the carpus. From *armus*, *an arm*.

ARMONIACUM, i. e. Ammoniacum.

ARMORACIA. Water-raddiſh. See Sisymbrium. Alſo wild raddiſh, and horſe-raddiſh. See Raphanus.

ARMORARIA PRATENSIS MAS. i. e. Armeria.

ARMORUM PUGNA. A ſort of gymnaſtic exerciſe, conſiſting of a mock duel, the antagoniſt being only a poſt.

ARMUTHEUS (Lapus.) Corruptly written for armenius lapis.

ARNABO. Zedoary.

ARNALDIA. A malignant flow diſeaſe of the chronical kind, attended with an alopecia; it was formerly very common in England.

ARNICA. The ſpecies recommended by the Edinburgh college is the *arnica* montana, or *arnica* Plantagini folia, foliis ovatis integris, caulinis geminis oppoſitis. Lin.

ARNOGLOSSUM. Lamb's tongue. A ſpecies of plantane.

ARNOTTO. See Orleana.

AROEIRA. A ſpecies of lentiſk.

AROHOT. Mercury.

AROMA. Any thing fragrant or odorous; ſometimes it is taken for myrrh.

AROMA GERMANICUM. Elecampane.

AROMA PHILOSOPHORUM. Saffron; alſo the ſaffron-coloured flowers raiſed from lapis hæmatitis.

AROMATICA. Spicey.

Aromatics, or *ſpicey* drugs, are of a warm pungent taſte, with more or leſs of a fragrant ſmell; ſome are purely *aromatic*, as cinnamon, nutmegs, &c. others have a ſweetneſs mixed with them, as in the angelica root, anniſeed, &c. ſome have an aſtringency, as cinnamon; others a mucilage, as the caſſia lignea, &c. ſome a bitterneſs, as orange peel; and others are alſo bitter and aſtringent, as the bark.

The ſeveral medicinal virtues of theſe mixed *aromatics*, are extracted by the ſame means as from thoſe which are leſs compounded; thus the *aromatic* part of lemon-peel ariſes in diſtillation with water, whilſt the bitter remains behind in the extract, &c.

The *aromatic* matter contained in different ſubjects differs much in their pharmaceutic properties. The virtues of all *aromatics* are extracted by ſp. vini rect. water extracts a portion from ſome, but from many none at all.

In diſtillation they ariſe with water more perfectly than with ſpirit, though in ſome few inſtances the *aromatic* matter wholly riſes in diſtillation, both with ſpirit and with water, as of lemon-peel, whilſt pepper ſtill retains part of its *aromatic* matter, though diſtilled with water.

In the eſſential oil, and reſinous part of *aromatics*, all their peculiar qualities reſide. The more eſſential oil any vegetable affords, the weaker the oil is, and vice verſa.

Aromatics warm the ſtomach, and by degrees the whole body, hence are uſeful where the vital heat is below the par of health; they promote the natural ſecretions; they reſiſt putrefaction, hence ſo plentifully produced in hot climes; many of them have a ſpecific virtue, which fits them for uſefulneſs to particular parts: thus wormwood is uſeful to the ſtomach, parſley to the kidneys, ſaffron to the heart, &c.

AROMATICA (Aqua.) i. e. Aq. piper. Jamaica.

AROMATICA NUX. The nutmeg.

AROMATICÆ (Pilulæ.) Aromatic pills.

Take of Socotrine aloes an ounce and a half, of gum guaiacum an ounce, the *aromatic* ſpecies, and balſam Peru, of each half an ounce. Powder the aloes and gum guaiacum ſeparately, then mix the whole together, and make them into a maſs with the ſyrup of orange-peel.

This is a ſubſtitute for, and an improvement of the pil. diambræ. In ſmall doſes, as of ten grains or more, they warm the ſtomach, and by degrees the whole habit; they promote perſpiration and all the ſecretions.

AROMATICUM (Lignum.) i. e. Canella alba.

AROMATICUM ROSATUM. Roſe ſpice. An aromatic powder, formerly kept in the ſhops in which roſes were a part of the compoſition.

AROMATICÆ, (Species.) The aromatic ſpecies.

Take of cinnamon two ounces, the leſſer cardamoms freed from their huſks, ginger, and long pepper, of each one ounce, mix and make them into a powder.

This is an improvement of the ſpec. diambræ ſine adoratis.

AROMATICUS (Cortex.) i. e. Canella alba.

AROMATITIS. A precious ſtone of a bituminous ſubſtance, in colour and ſmell reſembling myrrh. It is found in Arabia and Egypt.

ARON, i. e. Arum.

ARONIA. The Neapolitan medlar. See Mespilus.

AROPH. A contraction of aroma philoſophorum, a name given to ſaffron. Alſo a name which Paracelſus gave to the flowers raiſed by ſublimation, from lap. hæmat.

ARQUATA. A name of the birds called the curlew and the wren.

ARQUATUS MORBUS. The jaundice.

ARQUEBUSADE. It is the name of a water which is alſo called aqua vulneraria, aqua ſclopetaria, and aqua catapultarum. The name *arquebuſade* is a French word, that implies, it is good for gun-ſhot wounds. It is mint, ſage, mugwort, &c. diſtilled in wine.

ARQUIFOU. See Alquifou.

ARRAC. See Oryza.

ARRACHE, i. e. Atriplex.

ARRAPHON. Without future. The word is applied to the cranium when naturally without futures.

ARRHŒA. The ſtoppage of a flux: and by Hippocrates appropriated to the ſuppreſſion of the menſes.

ARRHOSTIA. Infirmity, ill health.

ARRHYTHMUS, i. e. Arythmus.

ARSACUM, i. e. Acrai.

ARSAG. Arſenic.

ARSALTOS, i. e. Aſphaltos.

ARSANECK. Arſenic ſublimed.

ARSATUM, i. e. Acrai.

ARSENICUM ALBUM, called cryſtallinum, riſagallum, realgar, riſigallum, white arſenic, and rat's-bane.

Arſenic though it ſeems to have an affinity both to ſulphur and to a ſemi-metal, yet is not manifeſtly either. It is contained more or leſs in moſt kinds of ores, particularly thoſe of tin, biſmuth, the white pyrites, and cobalt, from which laſt the greateſt quantity is obtained: the ore of the cobalt being broken in pieces, is placed over a fire, and the *arſenic* ſublimed from it, which reſting on the ſides of long chimnies deſigned for its reception, is ſwept off into proper veſſels to be re-ſublimed, or at leaſt melted, by which it is formed into the ſhining maſſes which are met with in the ſhops.

What we have in Englaud is chiefly brought from the mines in Saxony and Bohemia. Some ſmall quanties are ſublimed in Cornwall from the cobalt that is found there.

If *arſenic* is mixed with any metal it renders it friable, deſtroying its malleability.

One grain of *arſenic* makes a pound of copper like ſilver, without wholly depriving it of its malleability; the copper thus changed is called alchymy.

It is uſed by enamellers, glaſs-makers, potters, and painters.

Expoſed to the fire in an open veſſel, it ſoftens, then is diſſipated in fumes, which have a garlic ſmell; theſe fumes, if received on iron, appear in the form of flowers, and if they paſs into the mouth, a dryneſs is inſtantly perceived there, with an uneaſy pricking ſenſation.

Lead mixed with it, and ſet over the fire, boils up and evaporates moſtly in ſmoke; the remainder runs into a yellow glaſs that is fuſible.

Iron abſorbs *arſenic* in the greateſt quantity, and moſt readily; copper the next, then tin, lead, and ſilver the leaſt.

Common ſulphur unites readily with *arſenic*, and renders it fuſible, making it alſo yellow or red according to the quantity that is added.

Large portions of ſulphur renders it inert.

The pure *white arſenic* hath a penetrating corroſive taſte, and taken into the body is a violent poiſon; it produces ſpeedy dryneſs in the throat and inflammation, dejection, fainting, ſtupor, delirium, tremors, convulſions, palſy, thirſt, burning in the ſtomach, gripes, vomiting, cold ſweats, hiccoughing, and at laſt death. Beſides the effects which it hath in common with other poiſons, it remarkably attenuates the coats of the ſtomach, and perforates the inteſtines, occaſions a ſwelling and ſphacelation of the whole body, and a ſudden putrefaction after death, and particularly of the pudendæ.

When the quantity taken is not fatal, it occaſions tremors, palſies, or lingering hectics.

Though there is but little hope, after this poiſon is ſwallowed, yet if aſſiſtance is to be had, immediately give a ſcruple of the white vitriol to excite a vomiting, and repeat it two or three times; give the patient plentifully of warm water mixed with ſweet oil, after each doſe of the vitriol, that if poſſible the ſtomach may be well cleared of the poiſon; large draughts are peculiarly proper, as they diſtend the ſtomach, and ſo more effectually waſh away what may be lodged in its villous rugæ. After ſufficient vomiting, give mucilages and demulcents, particularly plenty of gum Arabic, both by the mouth and clyſterwiſe; fat broth ſhould be continued ſome time, and the bowels muſt be kept lax. If the poiſon hath had time to get into the blood, let cordial perſpiratives be added, ſuch as rad. ſerpent. V. &c.

ARSENICUM FLAVUM FACTITIUM. Arſen. citrinum, yellow arſenic.

ARSENICUM RUBRUM FACTITIUM. Red arſenic.

In reading ancient authors on the yellow and *red arſenics*, it ſhould be obſerved, that their *arſenics* are not the ſame as ours. Among the Greeks two kinds were in uſe, viz. the yellow, which we now call orpiment, and auripigment: and the red, which they call ſandaraca. The Arabians had alſo two kinds, viz. the yellow, which they call ſandaraca; and the red, which they call realgar. It was the foſſil ſulphurated *arſenics*, that the ancients uſed medicinally, and only thoſe which were yellow and flakey like talc, and which alone they called arſenicon. The white *arſenic* is a diſcovery of later times. The auripigment we meet with is of the yellow ſort, its taſte is not very acrimonious. Boerhaave and Mead, both of them commend the uſe of its fumes to be received into the mouth in aſthmas. The beſt mineral orpiment is brought from Turkey; it is very little, if at all, poiſonous. See AURIPIGMENTUM.

Our yellow and red *arſenics* are artificial, being no other than the white, mixed with different proportions of ſulphur. The white is the ſtrongeſt, the yellow weaker, and the red weakeſt.

White *arſenic*, ſublimed with one tenth its weight of ſulphur, is yellow; and with one-fifth it is red.

Both the yellow and the red foſſil *arſenics*, when of a ſmooth texture, are called zarnichs, but when compoſed of ſmall ſcales or leaves, they are called auripigmenta.

ARSIORA. Ceruſs.

ARTABA. An Egyptian meaſure containing about five of our pecks.

ARTANECH, or Artaneck. Arſenic.

ARTEMISIA, called alſo mater herbarum, partheniun, pingulum ſancti Johannis, herba regia, toxiteſia, anactorium, bubaſtecordium, the heart of bubaſtus, and common mugwort. The ſpecies uſed by the direction of the Edinburgh college is the artemiſia vulgaris, or artemiſia foliis pinnati fidis planis inciſis ſubtus tomentoſis, racemis ſimplicibus recurvatis, floribus radio quinque floro. Lin.

It is a plant with firm ſtalks of a purpliſh colour, with deeply-divided leaves, reſembling thoſe of common wormwood, of a dark green colour above, and hoary underneath. The flowers are ſmall, purpliſh, naked, and diſcous; they ſtand erect on ſpikes on the tops of the branches. It is perennial, grows wild in the fields and on waſte grounds, the flowers appear in June.

It hath been in much eſteem for promoting the uterine evacuations, and moderating hyſteric ſpaſms, for which purpoſes it is uſed in infuſions for common drink, and in baths.

The flowers and the tops are the ſtrongeſt.

ARTEMISIA TENUIFOLIA. Mugwort.

ARTEMIUS DIANIO. The inventor of a dentifrice againſt the ſtridor dentium.

ARTEMONIUM. The name of a collyrium deſcribed by Galen.

ARTENNA. An aquatic web-footed bird, called alſo diomedia.

ARTERIA, ἀρτηρια. An artery. From ἀηρ, *air*, and τηρεω, *to keep*.

By the word *artery* Hippocrates means what is now known by the name of aſpera *arteria*; nor were the veins diſtinguiſhed from the *arteries* in the oldeſt times.

An *artery* is a ſtrong elaſtic ramifying tube, ariſing from the heart. The *arteries* are properly but two, they riſe from the two ventricles of the heart, one of them is called aorta, which ſee; the other is named the pulmonary *artery*, for it ſprings from the right ventricle of the heart, and is wholly confined to the lungs.

The figure of an *artery* ſomewhat reſembles a tree; the ſmaller ramifications of the *arteries* frequently anaſtomoſe with each other, as may be obſerved in the coats of an inteſtine when they are injected. The largeſt appearances of this kind are in the vertebral *arteries*, which unite in the ſkull. The uſe of the anaſtomoſis is to keep up an equal circulation, they likewiſe ſerve to mix the blood better.

It is generally ſaid that the *arteries* are of three ſorts, viz. the ſanguine, which circulate red blood; the ſerous, through which ſerum only is naturally conveyed; and the lymphatic, whoſe contents are lymph; it is alſo ſaid, that if the blood is puſhed into ſerous veſſels, it is there obſtructed,

ſtructed, but they are all the ſame tube continued, which gradually divides into branches, and theſe branches grow ſmaller the farther they are from the heart; near to the heart, the thicker blood circulates, the force of the circulation is there ſtronger; and far from the heart the circulation leſſens in its vigour, ſo the thinner fluids only run there; but if by exerciſe, or other means, the heat of our bodies is increaſed, the circulation is puſhed, the red blood, and other orders of thinner fluids, can proceed to where ſtill thinner fluids only circulated before; for the ſmaller veſſels not being conſtructed to receive only ſuch certain fized globules, can diſtend to the capacity required by ſuch degrees of circulation as are occaſionally happening, and contract again to their former dimenſions, as ſoon as the diſtending force is removed.

Arteries terminate three ways, the moſt common is that into the veins. Harvey diſcovered, or demonſtrated, the circulation of the blood; but Malpighius firſt obſerved, that the laſt branches of an *artery*, running into minute diviſions, diſpoſe themſelves on a membrane as on a firm baſe, and there open into one another by the mutual intercourſe of ſmall canals: he firſt traced out theſe canals through numerous mazes and windings, through which they convey the blood; but here the ſmall branches, diſpoſed with great nicety, extend over equal ſpaces, and deſtitute of lateral ſhoots, as being no longer ſub-divided, changing their figure, conſtitute the origins of the veins and lympheducts, with their ſinuſes.

The next termination of *arteries* is into little cavities or ſinuſſes, as into the corpora cavernoſa, penis, &c.

The laſt is into excretory ducts.

The *arteries* generally lie deep, and always run on the inflected ſide of the limb, as in the axilla, the inner part of the cubit, &c. this ſituation prevents their being either ſtretched or compreſſed in the various motions of the body.

In the beginning of each *artery* there are three valves, which appear like purſes, and prevent the return of the blood to the heart; the other parts of the *arteries* are free from valves.

The coats of the *arteries* are three in number.

1. The external; it contains a great number of blood-veſſels, and many nerves run through it; it is elaſtic, and its fibres run quaquaverſum.

2. The middle; it is made of fibres which are diſpoſed nearly circularly, and parallel to each other.

3. The internal is a thin membrane, whoſe ſurface is very ſmooth, to give an eaſy paſſage to the blood.

Some anatomiſts ſay, that theſe coats are muſcular, but this opinion ſtands confuted, when it is conſidered that the coats of the *arteries* remain elaſtic after the animal is dead, and that the muſcles after death are abſolutely inelaſtic.

The cellular membrane is improperly numbered among the coats of the *arteries*, for it only connects the real ones.

The nearer to the origin the weaker are the arterial coats, whence the frequency of aneuriſms in the beginning of the aorta.

Arteries are often met with of a ſerpentine form, but they are not ſo in a natural ſtate of health, except during particular actions, &c. and then they recover their original ſtate as ſoon as the temporary cauſe is removed. The cauſe is the dilatation; the coats are elaſtic; therefore whatever diſtends them, muſt at the ſame time, lengthen them, and thereby produce ſerpentine turns. This frequently happens in injecting the *arteries* of dead bodies: in the viper it is very apparent in an *artery* which runs along the outſide of its lungs, every time that the heart beats, this *artery* is ſeen in a ſerpentine form. The *arteries* of the uterus are more convolved in the laſt months of pregnancy, than they were before conception; ſo far is the common obſervation from being true, that the uterine *arteries* have naturally a ſerpentine courſe, to admit of the enlargement of that organ in pregnancy, without ſtretching the *arteries*.

The *arteries* are liable to oſſification, particularly the iliac and crural. This happening where an amputation is performed, requires a cauſtic. The oſſification begins in the internal membrane, which firſt thickens, then grows ſpongey, by degrees becomes griſtly, and at laſt like bone; and then this diſorder extends to the outer coats. From this circumſtance a mortification is ſometimes produced. See MORTIFICATIO.

The particular *arteries* may be ſeen under their reſpective names, but their general courſe runs thus. From the right ventricle of the heart ariſes the pulmonary artery, which is wholly diſtributed in the lungs.

The aorta ariſes from the left ventricle of the heart, and immediately ſends off the coronary *arteries* into the heart and its auricles.

From the upper part of the arch of the aorta riſes the carotids, which ſupply the head.

Near the carotids riſe the ſubclavian *arteries*, which ſend off the internal mammary, the upper diaphragmatic, and others, which are diſperſed in the breaſt: when the ſubclavian hath paſſed out of the thorax, it receives the name of the axillary *artery*, and when in the arm the humeral, and in the fore-arm the cubital.

The upper portion of the aorta deſcendens ſends off the bronchialæ, œſophagæ, intercoſtales, &c.

The inferior portion of the aorta ſends off the inferior diaphragmatic, cœliac, meſenteric, ſpermatic, emulgents, &c. then dividing into two, form the iliac *arteries*, which ſend off branches about the lower part of the belly, then deſcending into the thighs, legs, and feet, form the crural, tibial, &c.

Wounds of the large blood-veſſels require amputation too frequently; the great quantity of blood which would be loſt, if the uſual methods to reſtrain hæmorrhages ſhould fail, would endanger if not deſtroy the patient. After a ligature is formed, the circulation may or may not be duly carried on; if it ſhould not, the operation will be indiſpenſible. The collateral branches are not always ſufficient for carrying on the circulation, ſo as to preſerve from mortification. The intercoſtal *artery*, when wounded, is fatal. Wounds of the *arteries* in the hands are dangerous. The popliteal *artery* in the ham, if injured, abſolutely demands amputation. The humeral *artery*, if injured high up, it requires the amputation of the arm, &c. of various other inſtances.

ARTERIA VENOSA. The pulmonary vein.

ARTERIACA. Medicines againſt diſorders of the voice, and the aſpera arteria.

ARTERIOSUS (DUCTUS,) alſo called canalis *arteriofus*. This, in the fœtus, ariſes from the extremity of the arteria pulmonalis, juſt where it is going to give off the two branches, and opens by its other end into the beginning of the deſcending aorta, juſt below the great curvature. See CANALICULIS ARTERIOSUS.

ARTERIOTOMIA, from ἀρτηρια, *an artery*, and τεμνω, *to cut*. It is the opening of an *artery* for the diſcharge of blood.

Galen, Antyllus, Oribaſius, P. Ægineta, and ſeveral others highly extol this practice in inveterate head-achs, which reſiſt all other means; alſo as a remedy againſt violent inflammations of the eyes, the epilepſy, &c. The operation is generally confined to the head, becauſe of the bone being immediately under, and giving the advantage of a proper compreſs. When the temporal *artery* is opened, a ſmall knife, ſuch as is uſed for the fiſtula lachrymalis, is better than a lancet, and the inciſion muſt be ſo as to divide the *artery* tranſverſely, then the inconvenience of an aneuriſm is avoided.

Heiſter condems *arteriotomy*, eſpecially before every other method hath been tried.

ARTETISCIUS, or Artetiſcos. One who ſuffers the loſs of any member, or who hath a very defective one.

ARTHANITA, called cyclamenus, cyclamen, panis porcinus, ſow-bread. It is the cyclamen Europæum. Lin.

It is a low plant without any other ſtalk than the ſlender pedicles of the leaves and flowers; the leaves are green, with white ſpecks above, and purpliſh beneath; the flowers are purpliſh, monopetalous, deeply divided into five ſegments, followed by round ſeed-veſſels; the roots are large, ſomewhat globular, with ſeveral fibres, blackiſh on the outſide and whitiſh within. It is perennial, a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe.

The freſh roots have a nauſeous, acrid, biting taſte, but little or no ſmell. Long keeping deſtroys all their virtues.

One dram of the powder purges, but its moſt frequent, as well as moſt proper uſe, is as an errhine.

There is another ſpecies, called cyclamen autumnale, or common *ſow-bread*.

ARTHETICA, or Arthretica, from ἄρθρον, *a joint*. The herb ground-pine. It is uſeful againſt diſorders of the joints.

ARTHOICUM, or Artoicum, or Pannonium, from ἄρτος, *bread*. An oil formerly made by digeſting ſeveral roots with bread.

ARTHREMBOLUS, from ἄρθρον, *a joint*, and ἐμβάλλω, *to impel*. An inſtrument for reducing luxated bones.

ARTHRITICA, i. e. Arthritis.

ARTHRITIS, from ἄρθρον, *a joint*. The gout.

Dr. Cullen, in his Noſology, gives it the name of podagra. It is his 24th genus of diſeaſes, and according to his arrangement, it is of the claſs of febrile diſorders, and the order of inflammations. He diſtinguiſhes its ſpecies into, 1. Podagra Regularis. 2. Podagra Atonica. 3. Podagra Retrograda; and 4. Podagra Aberrans. The regular *gout* is when the inflammation appears in the joints to a due degree, and after continuing a while, gradually diſappears, and the patient recovers his uſual health. The atonic *gout* is when there is manifeſtly the *gouty* diatheſis, but from ſome cauſe it does not produce the inflammatory affections of the joints, but digeſtion is diſturbed, and the general health is variouſly affected. The retrograde or recedent *gout* is when inflammation hath as uſual attacked the joints, but not with either its uſual degree or the uſual pain, and then ſuddenly abates, an internal part as ſuddenly being affected thereby. The aberrans, or miſplaced *gout*, is when the gouty diatheſis produces inflammation in ſome internal part, inſtead of the joints of the extremities.

The ancients called all kinds of pain, which was ſeated in the joints or the external parts, by the common name of *arthritis*. The word rheumatiſmus was not known amongſt them; but in the ſixteenth and ſeventeenth centuries, ſome celebrated French phyſicians have called the pains which afflict the intermediate ſpaces, between the joints and muſcles of the neck, or of either arm, or of the anterior or poſterior part of the thorax, the ſhoulders, ſcapulæ, thighs, and hands, by the name of rheumatiſm. And thoſe they ſtyle arthritic which affect the joints, though according to the different part, they diſtinguiſhed the ſame gouty pain by a different name, as podagra in the feet, chiragra in the hands, onagra in the elbow, dentagra in the teeth, lumbago in the vertebræ of the back, dolor iſchiadicus in the articulations of the os iſchium: but the difference betwixt the gout and the rheumatiſm is conſidered as very great, both in their cauſe, ſeat, ſymptoms, and cure.

The *gout* is a chronical diſorder, and the pain that attends it is principally ſpaſmodic. It is generally conſidered as regular, when it only affects the extremities, is regular in its returns, and gradually leaves the patient in its decline; and irregular, when its attacks are irregular, when it afflicts the patient variouſly, and when it ſeizes the internal parts.

When the fits are regular, it chiefly affects the nerves, tendons, membranes, and ligaments of the joints, particularly the feet; when irregular, the viſcera, as the lungs, ſtomach, &c. are the ſeat of this diſorder: but it is the tunica cellularis of the reſpective parts that are affected, which is the proper and immediate ſeat of the diſeaſe. Aretæus ſays, that any part of the body is ſuſceptible of the *gout*, and Aetius obſerves, that in the extremity of it the iris is affected.

It generally attacks thoſe aged perſons whoſe early life hath been ſpent in indolence and luxury; thoſe who have large heads and voracious appetites; the plethoric, and thoſe who poſſeſs the beſt ſtamina of life. Youth are not exempt from it. Women are rarely affected with it; but Aretæus obſerves that when they have it, the pain is exceſſive. It is often hereditary.

Among its various cauſes, indigeſtion is the primary one. The pre-diſpoſing cauſe is a largeneſs of the lacteals, and ſtraightneſs of the ſmall veſſels, particularly the perſpiratory; Dr. Kirkland obſerves, that if ever the *gout* is hereditary, it is plain the ſolid parts of the body are thoſe primarily affected; for if we look into nature, it is the organization or peculiar form and texture of its parts, that the offſpring inherits from its progenitors; and that it is this ſtructure in animals which alters and adapts the juices paſſing through them to their proper office. Conſequently, if the ſolids are formed in a diſeaſed ſtate, the fluids they carry will degenerate from health; and it is therefore reaſonable to ſuppoſe the alteration from nature; we obſerve, in the juices thrown off in an hereditary *gout*, is the conſequence of ſome morbid ſtructure; the ſame may be ſaid of the *gout* brought on by intemperance, for diet hath the power of changing the whole body. The immediate cauſe ſeems to be the acrimony of earthy particles undiſſolved; whatever elſe conduces to the production of the *gout*, is but an occaſional cauſe, but yet may aggravate as well as give riſe to it. Dr. Cheyne ſays, that the chief reaſon why the gouty matter ſo generally fixes on the joints, is becauſe of the preſſure there from the heads of the bones, which leſſens the capacity of the ſmall veſſels; to which may be added, the ſmallneſs of the glands in the joints, and the natural coldneſs of theſe parts, occaſioned by the diſtance from the heart; that the earthy particles above named are conveyed into the tunica cellularis of the ligaments, tendons, &c. where the veſicles are leſs than in the bellies of the muſcles and fleſhy ſubſtances, and is retained in them, and being more or leſs acrimonious, they occaſion more or leſs heat, and cauſe that inflammatory appearance, and intolerable pain, which accompany this complaint; but the parts affected, ſoon loſing their ſenſibility, the ſpaſm abates, and the offending matter is again returned into the circulation, or ſent out of the body through the pores.

Cajetanus Tacconus, M. D. tried many experiments, in order to diſcover whether the *gouty* matter is acid or alkaline, and he concludes that it is ſometimes one, and ſometimes the other. The ſigns by which he diſtinguiſhes theſe are, firſt, if the *gout* produces no tophi or knots, or does it very ſlowly, and eſpecially if it is attended with œdematous ſwellings, it depends on an alcaline humour; but if the knots are large and quickly formed, an acid is the cauſe.

Dr. Hunter thinks that the oſſeous matter is ſeparated by ſmall arteries, and thrown upon the membranes or cartilages, as proper beds for it to lie on, and that there is more or leſs ſeparated as the vis vitæ is greater or leſs; and that in the *gout* there is a redundancy of bony matter, and it is probably this that forms the chalk ſtones. Dr. Cullen, as indeed ſeveral others, conſider the *gouty* matter as an effect, and not a cauſe of the diſeaſe.

The firſt approaches of the *gout* are generally ſudden, and happen very early in the ſpring, or in the beginning of winter. The regular fit is uſually preceded by indigeſtion, drowſineſs, head-ach and ſickneſs, a wearineſs, dejection of ſpirit, pain in the limbs, with a ſenſation as if wind or cold water were paſſing down the thigh, is alſo complained of, the appetite is ſometimes very keen a little before the fit approaches, a ſlight pain is felt in paſſing the urine: ſoon after midnight a pain attacks the great toe, or ſome other part of the foot, or ancle, though now and then it is fixed in the calf of the leg; this pain is accompanied with a ſenſation as if cold water was poured thereon, and ſoon followed by a ſhivering with ſome degree of fever: after this the pain increaſes, and fixing in the ſmall bones of the foot, the patient feels a variety of torturing pains there for about twenty-four hours, which then abate, the part becomes inflamed and ſwelled; towards the morning the patient falls aſleep, a perſpiration comes on, which terminates the fit; but what is commonly called a fit of the *gout*, conſiſts of ſeveral ſuch as theſe: and though a recovery proceeds from the firſt remiſſion, ſome uneaſineſs returns every night, and goes off the following morning. The firſt fit may continue two or three weeks, but a tenderneſs where the pain was ſeated remains much longer. It may be that the patient remains free from any return during the following or a ſecond year, but when it does it is ſtill more painful; and ſoon after this the returns grow more and more frequent, increaſing until the ſtrength failing, and ſenſation is diminiſhed, then, though the patient is ſeldom free, he is not violently afflicted.

There is a great reſemblance, in many particulars, betwixt the *gout* and chronic rheumatiſm, ſo they ſhould be carefully diſtinguiſhed; the inflammatory rheumatiſm too hath been miſtaken for this diſeaſe. It ſometimes requires much attention to diſtinguiſh a gravelly complaint

from a *gouty* one. There is a great ſimilarity betwixt an intermitting fever and the progreſs of a *gouty* fit, and inſtances have occurred, where the patient, having not been manifeſtly viſited with it, that much difficulty attended a rightly diſtinguiſhing of the complaint. Nervous diſeaſes require our care no leſs, to diſtinguiſh them from *gouty* diſorders.

The regular *gout* is conſidered as more troubleſome than dangerous, or rather as nature's method of relieving from all other complaint; though Aretæus obſerves, that the podagra ſometimes degenerates into a dropſy, or an aſthma, in which caſe death is unavoidable.

In order to the cure, there is little to be done in the fit, and out of it the beſt intentions are, firſt to increaſe the digeſtive powers; and ſecondly, to promote and ſupport the natural perſpiration.

On the approach of the fit, and until its departure, a ſlender diet is generally preſcribed, but ſo various are the conſtitutions of different perſons, that this article is moſt properly determined by the attending phyſician. Sydenham's rule, viz. moderation, is perhaps, the beſt general one on this ſubject: he ſays, let the patient take no more than is eaſily digeſted, nor leſs than is neceſſary to keep up the ſpirits; and as to the quality, the palate and appetite may determine, for that which is beſt reliſhed is the moſt eaſily digeſted, though it be what is uſually eſteemed the contrary. One kind of fleſh meat he confines the patient to, at one meal, and that to be eaten only at noon; but in different days a variety may be allowed. It is good neither to oppreſs by exceſs, nor induce feebleneſs by needleſs reſtrictions. Meed ſeems to be an unexceptionable cordial.

An early going to bed is ſtrictly to be conformed to, but early riſing is not ſo neceſſary.

When circumſtances admit, *gouty* patients ſhould always endeavour to be in a good air when they expect the return of the fit. In the country, perſpiration is moſt eaſily ſupported, and there the patient recovers the ſooneſt. A warm and dry air is almoſt alone both a preſervative from, and a cure of the *gout*.

How neceſſary exerciſe is, as ſoon as the pain will admit of it, and that daily, during the intervals of the fits, need be no farther noticed than by obſerving how much a due and conſtant perſpiration preſerves from this diſeaſe. Frictions with coarſe flannel, the fleſh-bruſh, &c. riding in a carriage, or on a horſe, and, when ſtrength admits, ſome regular daily labour, ſhould be the methods that nothing is to interfere with the uſe of.

Paſſions unreſtrained, and cloſe attention, by weakening the digeſtive powers, conduce to the violence of this diſeaſe, and to the frequency of its returns.

In the fit, cover the affected limb with new combed wool, or the ſofteſt flannel. As to external applications there are very oppoſite opinions aſſerted. Dr. Kirkland thus far obſerves, that emollient cataplaſms, warm bathing, camphor, aromatic oils, and anodyne ſpirituous applications, give eaſe, either by relaxing or taking off the ſenſibility of the part; yet they have no property in themſelves of promoting a diſcharge of the *gouty* matter. Compoſitions, for promoting a diſcharge of *gouty* matter, muſt be ſo managed as to be capable of ſoftening the inflamed parts without over relaxing them; for either tenſion or relaxation will prevent exudation: they muſt have an attenuating and ſtimulating property to invite the humours outwards, and yet be incapable of inflaming; and in this intention the ſtate of inflammation muſt direct us. If the inflammation is great, a neutralized ſoft plaſter, that does not adhere will anſwer the purpoſe. If the parts are leſs tenſe, and require a warmer ſtimulus, a volatile plaſter will be preferable; but with external applications, internal medicines will be neceſſary to promote an outward diſcharge, and when the metaſtaſis ſeems to be about complete, theſe methods will ſcarcely fail to evacuate and produce eaſe.

If there is a ſickneſs, or uneaſineſs in the ſtomach, give carduus, or camomile tea, to excite two or three evacuations; or if ſomething ſtronger is required, give a little ipecacuanha. Vomits promote perſpiration, and if uſed when a ſickneſs, or other uneaſineſs is already felt in the ſtomach, no danger need be apprehended.

If a ſanguine plethora is obſerved, the loſs of a little blood ſhould precede the emetic. The heat of the body, and the ſtrength of the pulſe, will ſafely direct the quantity to be taken away: as bleeding can only be uſeful by unloading the veſſels, it ſhould be taken away with caution, by a little alkaline, and repeat as required.

The day after the emetic, a gentle purge may be given, if in a ſanguine and robuſt habit.

℞ Infuſ. ſenæ, ℥ ij. vel iij. ſal. Glaub. ʒij. aq. menth. ſp. ʒ iii m. f. hauſt.

But if not remarkably ſtrong, and attended with great heat,

℞ Tinct. ſacræ, tinct. rhabarb. ää ʒ vi. vel ℥ i. m f. hauſt.

If this latter draught was taken, and repeated once or twice, as ſoon as any ſymptoms of an approaching *gout* appear, the violence of the ſucceeding diſorder would be much leſſened, if not the whole of the complaint prevented. If the pain is conſiderable after the operation of the purging medicine is over, an anodyne may be adminiſtered, and repeated at other times, if the urgency of the pain requires it.

Purges ſuited to the ſtrength of the conſtitution, and the peculiarities of any habit, if repeated at proper intervals, are of ſingular benefit either for haſtening away the preſent, or retarding the approach of an abſent *gout*, and as the pain is chiefly ſpaſmodic, opiates may be uſed without the uſual apprehenſions. The ſoap pill may be preferred; but if a draught is deſired the thebaic tincture may be uſed; eaſe and ſleep promote perſpiration, and thus a principal intention in preſcribing is anſwered.

Dr. Kirkland obſerves, that his ideas of the *gout* are, that in conſequence of a particular ſtate of the ſolids, the juices acquire a morbid diſpoſition, which in part brings on what are called *gouty* ſymptoms; but upon a depuration being made to the extremities by an effort of nature, the body is relieved till a freſh accumulation of *gouty* matter again diſturbs the patient. May it not then, he adds, be allowed, that nervous energy is leſſened, and a great degree of morbid irritability is brought on, and that both theſe effects ſhould be attended to in the cure? To effect the deſired relief, imitate nature, and remove the morbid matter out of the body by thoſe means that different circumſtances make moſt ſuitable. When *gouty* people have been troubled with flatulency, acrid eructations, reſtleſs nights, &c. much relief hath been afforded from merc. dul. 6ties ſublim. aſſiſted by gentle purges. Hence it ſeems clear, that the true method of relieving the *gout* is, to ſupport nervous energy and evacuate the *gouty* matter. When a regular fit occurs, nature accompliſheth the deſired relief, but when ſhe is interrupted in this effort, no method gives ſpeedier relief, under an inflammatory ſtate, than proper purging. Dr. Cheyne obſerves, that many have given an active purge every morning, and quieted its tumult with an anodyne in the evening; and thus continued until the fit was overcome. If required, beſides the anodyne at night, a cordial may be directed. The pain abated, and ſwelling ſubſiding, to reſtore the former ſtrength was attempted by gentle ſtomach-purges, aromatics, and warm alteratives. When the diſeaſe is not determined to one point, alſo when it affects the head, ſtomach, or bowels, proper purges give the moſt ſpeedy relief. In adminiſtering purges in *gouty* habits, however proper and neceſſary, no diſeaſe requires more prudence in the management of them, on account of the deficiency of the nervous power ſo generally attendant on the *gout*. Therefore, except inflammation forbid, the nervous energy muſt be ſupported during the operation of purgatives; and the patient's ſtrength muſt be duly attended to, leſt evacuation by purgatives ſhould too much enfeeble.

If a fever accompanies, plenty of ſmall diluting drink muſt be ſupplied, ſmall white wine whey may be given at night, with a little of the ſp. vol. arom. Sage tea acidulated with the jelly of any acid fruit, or with the elixir of vitriol, is alſo an uſeful mixture for common drink.

Let the vis vitæ determine the quantity of cooling and of cordial medicines. To ſupport perſpiration, and to preſerve the heat of the body as nearly as poſſible to that of

of health, are leading points of management through the whole of the paroxyſm.

In the decline of the fit, when the ſkin begins to peel, and the urine depoſits a laudable ſediment, a few gentle bitter purges ſhould be given, and frictions, or rather exerciſe, ſhould be uſed to recruit the ſtrength: three common ſpoonfuls of the following infuſion may be given twice a day.

℞ Cort. Peruv. opt. ℥ ij. —— aurant ficc. ℥ i. ſs. rad. ſerpent V. ʒ iij. croc. anglic. cort. cinnam. ā ʒ ij. ſp. vini Gallic. ℔ i. ſs. m.

Or if the ſtomach will bear it, a tea ſpoon-full of the bark may be taken (in fine powder) with a glaſs of good wine.

The Bath water is almoſt a ſpecific in enfeebled conſtitutions.

The flannels ſhould be gradually caſt off as ſoon as the pain is gone, though a ſwelling and lameneſs ſtill continue. Then to ſtrengthen the weak part, immerſe it every night at bed time in cold water, then wipe it quite dry before laying down.

Rye meal poultices are a faſhionable application, but topical remedies are moſt ſafely omitted.

Iſſues juſt above the knee, on the inſide, ſhould be made in *gouty* patients, their diſcharge contributes much to the preventing the *gout* from affecting the viſcera.

Dr. Dawſon's ſucceſs with the uſe of the tinct. guaiac. vol. and an occaſional bleeding, deſerves the attention of medical practitioners. He recommends it in the *gout*, with or without fever, and in both the acute and chronical rheumatiſms. His general mode of preſcribing it is as follows:

℞ Tinct. guaiac. vol. ℥ ſs. mucilag. e gum. arab. q. ſ. deinde adde gradatim aq. hordeat. ℥ i. ſs. ſyr. balſ. ℥ ſs. m. fiat hauſt. h. ſ. ſumend. & repet. bis vel ter, in die. See his Caſes in the Acute Rheumatiſm and *Gout*.

The INTERNAL GOUT appearing before a fit of it hath manifeſted itſelf on the extremities, cannot be diſtinguiſhed from other diſeaſes which affect the particular part on which it is fixed. The internal (or irregular) *gout* generally ſeizeth the ſtomach or the inteſtines, cauſing a loſs of appetite, colic, diarrhœa, &c. though ſometimes it attacks the head, and produces a vertigo, head-ach, or an apoplexy; or, falling on the lungs, it reſembles a peripneumony; if it takes its ſeat on the nervous ſyſtem, a palſy is the conſequence. But whatever part it reſts in, the only proper cure is the expulſion of it into the extremities, by cordials, diaphoretics, and chalybeates. Mild bliſters may alſo be applied to the feet. The ſudden tranſitions of the *gout*, which are ſometimes inſtantaneous, Dr. Kirkland thinks, are effected by the conſent of parts. He obſerves that pains in many inſtances have vaniſhed, though in very diſtant parts, when a medicine hath been applied to the ſtomach; that ſpaſms have been inſtantly produced in the ſide, when a wound in the ancle hath been wiped with a ſoft rag. May not then a diſtant *gouty* pain be inſtantly brought on by a local affection of the nerves?

The GOUT in the STOMACH. It is ſometimes invited here by acrid matter lodged in this viſcus, and ſometimes repelled from other parts by injudicious management, and other accidents. In this caſe there is ſickneſs, loathing of food, eructations, cardialgia, vomiting, heat, a conſtriction, or pain, &c. Some one or more of theſe appear at the ſame time the extremities are free and eaſy. Old people who have lived freely in their youth, but are now become ſober and abſtemious, are ſometimes affected with hypochondriac ſymptoms in the ſtomach, which reſemble *gouty* ones; but they are to be diſtinguiſhed by the manner in which they ſeize the patient, their vehemence, and intervals.

If a ſanguine plethora with an ardent heat is obſerved, bleed, then apply a mild bliſter to the feet. If the breathing is difficult, the ſtomach oppreſſed, eructations, nauſea, or vomiting are troubleſome, a gentle vomit may be adviſed; and ſoon after its operation, if coſtive, let a ſolutive clyſter be injected, and afterwards a doſe of Venice treacle.

Three or four times a day give a doſe of ſome warm bitter ſtomachic, and now and then purge gently with the pil. Rufi, or with the tinct. ſacr. made with brandy, of the tinct. rhab. Here proper purging is generally required. See above on their uſe.

If, notwithſtanding the above, the ſickneſs continues, give ten drops or more of the tinct. thebaica with a glaſs of mint or cinnamon water, and repeat it every four or five hours until the ſtomach can retain its contents; after which, to haſten the diſorder into the extremities, give the following powder three or four times.

℞ Limatur. mart. gr. v. ad x. rad. ſerpent. V. ℈ i. m. f. pulv.

Or inſtead of this powder, the patient may take two large ſpoonfuls of an infuſion of garlic in brandy, adding to each doſe ten or fifteen drops of the tinct. flor. mart. and repeat it two or three times in the day.

A glaſs of ſtrong wine may be mixed with ſome agreeable ſpice, heated, and drank betwixt each doſe of the medicine.

The ARTHRITIC COLIC, or the GOUT in the INTESTINES.

Any part, or the whole of the inteſtinal tube, may be affected. It often happens to the aged and infirm, and ſometimes the more robuſt ſuffer this way. A general uneaſineſs, loſs of appetite, a nauſea, or a wandering pain in the bowels uſhers it in, but the pain ſoon fixing on one part of the belly, confirms the diſorder; by this time a remarkable oppreſſion is felt in the breaſt. To theſe two ſymptoms, pain in the belly and oppreſſion in the breaſt, which are capital ones, are added one or more of the following; a rumbling in the guts, frequent eructations, coſtiveneſs, a vomiting of bilious matter, low ſpiritedneſs, want of ſleep, &c.

A peculiar weakneſs in the bowels, and an accumulation of impurities in them, may invite the *gouty* matter; error in diet, repellents imprudently applied to the extremities, &c. may determine it to this part.

If the pain in the inteſtines, and the oppreſſion in the breaſt, continue long, the danger is hardly to be overcome, nor, indeed, is there much ſafety until the complaint is wholly in the extremities again.

A bilious fever ſometimes attends, in which caſe if the heat and ſtrength of the patient will admit, begin the cure with bleeding, but be careful not to reduce him much. If the ſtomach ſeems oppreſſed by its contents, a gentle emetic will be adviſeable, and, preſently after, let a warm bitter purge be adminiſtered; or, opening glyſters with aſſa fœtida in them. During the intervals of purging, if an acid is prevalent in the firſt paſſages, magneſia alba ſhould be given frequently; or if a bilious matter abounds, bitter infuſions, that are alſo laxative, muſt be preferred. That complied with, thoſe chalybeates recommended for removing the *gout* from the ſtomach muſt be uſed for the ſame end in this caſe. A glaſs of ſtrong wine may now and then be taken. If the ſpaſms in the bowels prevent the efficacy of purging medicines, apply a warm fomentation to the belly; or if they are ſo weak as that the medicines run off too faſt by ſtool, proper aſtringents muſt be uſed. Red port wine, from half a pint to a quart in twenty-four hours, will produce ſingular advantage; and as ſoon as any medicine is perceived to agree with the ſtomach, let that be adhered to until the diſorder is fixed in the extremities. If after this the belly is greatly diſtended with wind, let an oily emollient clyſter be now and then adminiſtered, and this ſymptom will ſubſide.

To prevent returns, the Bath water is the ſpecific.

A GOUTY DIARRHOEA. If in *gouty* patients, and during a fit, a diarrhœa comes on, the pain and ſwelling at the ſame time gradually vaniſhes, the diarrhœa is evidently cauſed by the *gout*. The effect of this diarrhœa is very uncertain. If it ſoon abates, and is not exceſſive, it often proves uſeful; but when the inteſtines are enfeebled by previous irregularities, &c. great danger attends.

If the cauſe be crudities in the firſt paſſages, a doſe of the tincture of rhubarb will be neceſſary, and then reſtringents, with perſpiratives, muſt be given, tinct. thebaica, in ſmall doſes, accompanying. The white decoction will be a proper drink, now and then adding red wine. When this diſorder is abated, to prevent a return, give

give the chalybeate powder directed againſt the *gout* in the ſtomach. Sydenham recommends a ſweat, and to repeat it night and morning for ſeveral days when this caſe proves obſtinate.

A Gouty Dysentery. When this mode of the *gout's* attack is preſent, there is a gnawing pain, a quick pulſe, and a ſmall fever. If at the time there is any *gouty* ſymptoms in the feet, they ſoon diſappear, fly to the inteſtines, where the diſtended arteries at length burſting, blood is diſcharged, and paſſes off by ſtool, and ſometimes a quantity is thrown up by the mouth. Subſequent to this are great languors, loſs of ſtrength, coldneſs of the extremities, and the utmoſt danger.

In this caſe keep the patient as free from motion as poſſible. Cordials muſt be given with caution, leſt the blood ſhould be too much rarefied, juſt ſo much as to keep off ſwooning will be then needful. If the loſs of blood is conſiderable, give five or ſix drops of the tinct. theb. in a ſpoonful of ſtrong cinnamon water now and then. The white decoction may be drank, but any other food or medicine muſt be omitted until the danger is leſſened. Great care is required to keep the bowels in a proper ſtate, for a tendency to either conſtipation or laxity are equally pernicious. Jellies are the moſt proper diet, rice milk for a change, and ſuch other aliment as is eaſily digeſted, nourithes much, and is agglutinant. As ſoon as the patient is a little recruited, ſteel waters may be uſed, and after a while preparations of the iron itſelf may be adminiſtered.

A Gouty Melancholy. The tender and delicate are often reduced to this ſtate, during regular fits of the gout in the extremities. Theſe perſons are chearful in the intervals, but when the paroxyſms ceaſe, or are imperfect, the appetite fails, and the digeſtion is depraved, rumblings in the bowels are troubleſome, and an almoſt conſtant pain is felt in the inteſtines, hence a melancholy is induced. When the *gout* is afflictive this melancholy abates; but when the *gout* gives way, the melancholy increaſes ſo that the intervals of health are very ſhort.

For relief from this deplorable ſtate, begin with an emetic, then give the pil. Ruſi, and in the evening after its operation a cordial, inſtead of an opiate. On the days that are free from purging, the tinct. ſacra may be directed as an alterative. Let chearfulneſs be encouraged, daily exerciſe on horſeback, and ſuch means as may duly regulate the vital heat be attended to.

A Gouty Swooning. This may be from an imprudent uſe of cold liquors, from irregularities in the diet. The patient complains of general indiſpoſition, a paleneſs and general cold ſweat comes on, the pulſe is ſlow and unequal, and, at length, the patient faints: whatever degree of the *gout* was in the extremities, now retires, and without ſpeedy help death cloſes the ſcene.

Speedily adminiſter cordials in a liquid form and large doſes; repeat them as often as the leaſt tendency to ſwooning may require; let frictions be uſed on the feet, and flannels wrung out of hot wine or brandy be applied to the belly: proceed thus until a recovery is effected. If the ſtomach ſeems oppreſſed with improper aliment, let it be diſcharged with an emetic of vitrol. alb. worked off with warm wine. One of the beſt cordials is brandy, mixed with as much hot water as the patient can bear to ſwallow with it.

The Gouty Asthma. Thoſe who are conſtitutionally inclined to an aſthma, are the moſt ſubject to this ſpecies of it. An injudicious uſe of opiates, and of repellents, a ſuppreſſion of any uſual evacuations may be the cauſe of the *gout* appearing in this form; an aſthmatic *gout* ſometimes follows an interrupted fit of the regular *gout*, as a fit of the *gout* ſometimes cures an aſthma. The *gouty* aſthma is of two kinds, viz. the dry and the moiſt. Thoſe who have been accuſtomed to drink ſpirituous liquors are moſt ſubject to the dry ſpecies, in which the breathing is ſhort and difficult, attended with oppreſſion in the breaſt; but there is little or no cough, nor any ſpitting. Thoſe of a thin lax habit are more ſubject to the moiſt kind, in which a viſcid matter is freely coughed up, and which relieves a little until a freſh quantity is accumulated. The *gouty* matter is ſometimes ſo diſcharged this way, that *gouty* perſons are kept free from all other indiſpoſitions, whilſt free from returns of the regular *gout* by it. Sometimes the *gout* appears originally in the form of an aſthma, and cannot be diſtinguiſhed until a regular fit falling on the extremities frees the lungs. The dry aſthma is the moſt dangerous.

Where there is a ſanguine plethora, bleed. Where this is not attendant, repeated purging, with ſuch medicines as determines the *gout* to the extremities muſt be uſed. To relieve the cough, the uſual medicines are proper here. To prevent a return of either the dry or moiſt kinds, freſh air, an exact regimen, and particularly to avoid ſuppers, are of great ſervice. A tendency to the dry aſthma is beſt oppoſed by gum ammoniacum, with the powder recommended above againſt the *gout* in the ſtomach. The moiſt requires diuretics, perpetual bliſters between the ſhoulders, and iſſues above the knee on the inſide of the limb.

A Gouty Peripneumony. Thoſe with a tender conſtitution, and a bad conformation of the breaſt, or whoſe lungs have been hurt by ſome accident, are ſubject to this diſorder when alſo *gouty*. If a regular fit of the *gout* hath not previouſly affected the extremities, ſit is hardly poſſible to know that the *gout* is the cauſe when the ſymptoms of a peripneumony come on; but when a perſon who hath been uſed to regular fits of the *gout*, is more rarely, or more mildly affected by them than uſual, or when a regular fit is interrupted in its courſe, a heavineſs in the breaſt is perceived, a cough, and a glut of phlegm in the lungs, which at the firſt is thin, but gradually grows thicker, and more abundant in quantity, after which there is an hoarſeneſs, with difficulty of breathing. As the ſpitting increaſes, the *gout* in the extremities declines. This ſpitting, if not ſo exceſſive as to greatly weaken the patient, is uſeful. Of all the above accidents a cough is the moſt frequent, and generally follows a regular fit, though it rarely accompanies it. It alſo ſometimes ends in a regular fit, eſpecially if aſſiſted by ſome briſk warming purge. A catarrh or defluxion is always accompanied with an aſthma and inflammation of the lungs. This is not dangerous, except the lungs are naturally very weak, or have been much hurt by any accidents. Theſe coughs and defluxions are rarely attended with any fever; but a ſlight cold, or a ſmall degree of imprudence in the uſe of ſpirituous liquors, endanger an inflammation of the lungs.

If the conſtitution is not very weak, bleed; and in all caſes of this kind give repeated purges. After the firſt purge, join pectorals to ſuch other remedies as tend to drive the *gout* to the extremities. In inveterate caſes the bark is very uſeful. If great care is not had to produce a regular *gout*, the cough increaſes, and the patient falls into a fatal conſumption. Diaphoretics, and externals to bring the *gout* into the feet, muſt be early uſed, or other means will be ineffectual. If this diſorder hath continued any time, the treatment will be wholly as in the peripneumony, without any regard to the *gout*, i. e. bleeding, gentle vomits, bliſters, and expectorants.

A Gouty Quinsey. This complaint ſometimes ſeizes the patient at the ſame time that the pain attacks the joints, at others it follows a regular fit. When it forms an abſceſs that diſcharges plentifully, it always ſupplies the place of a *gouty* fit. This quinſey ſometimes ends in a regular fit in the extremities. Perſons with ſhort thick necks are the moſt ſubject to this diſorder. A greater degree of fever precedes this quinſey than any other ſpecies of regular *gout*; and the blood, when taken away, is more ſizey than in any other inſtance of it. If a nauſea and ſickneſs, a heavineſs, numbneſs, and wandering pain hath preceded this diſorder, the cauſe may be ſuſpected to be *gouty*, if the patient was formerly ſubject to regular fits of the *gout*, and which have been ſome time paſt interrupted.

Begin the cure by a free bleeding; immediately after let a clyſter be injected; the next day let a gentle purge be given, a bliſter applied to the neck, and from the beginning uſe gargariſms.

In a day or two more if the ſymptoms run high repeat the bleeding. If the pain is conſiderable in the throat a cataplaſm may be applied warm acroſs it; and if danger of a ſuffocation attends, proceed to bronchotomy.

What-

Whatever medicines are uſed, thoſe that drive the *gout* down to the feet muſt not be neglected. If the tumor in the throat ſuppurates, aſſiſt it with an emollient gargariſm, and when it is diſcharged an aſtringent one ſhould be uſed.

The antimonial wine may be uſed in this caſe to moderate the fever.

A GOUTY CONSUMPTION. The *gouty* matter affecting the already diſordered lungs, ſometimes produces a conſumption. At the firſt, a heavineſs in the breaſt, a difficulty of breathing, and hoarſeneſs comes on; then a thin phlegm is diſcharged, which ſoon grows thicker, and as it increaſes in quantity the patient waſtes away: in the mean time the extremities are free from all ſymptoms of the *gout*. A violent cough, which is always an attendant, brings on an hæmoptoe; at length a hectic comes on, followed by violent ſweats. Old men, and women after the time of child bearing, are alone the ſubjects of this diſorder.

Bleeding and purging, ſo as not too much to diminiſh the vis vitæ, are proper remedies. If the leaſt appearance of *gouty* ſymptoms are obſerved in the extremities, apply ſtimulating topics to the part uſually affected: with proper linctuſes join the uſual remedies for determining the *gouty* matter to the feet; opiates muſt be uſed with great caution. After the lungs are quite relieved, chalybeate waters ſhould be drank for ſome time. Riding and iſſues are alſo not to be neglected.

The GOUTY HEAD-ACH. This is generally an attendant of thoſe who have been afflicted many years with the *gout*, and who indulge in luxury and eaſe. It is frequently preceded by the ſigns of an approaching fit of the *gout*, which ſigns end in a regular one; but the pain flies to the head, and continues there for ſome weeks or months, and, unleſs relief can be obtained, the reſult is an apoplexy. A giddineſs, noiſe in the ears, a large pulſe, difficulty of breathing, wandering pains in the limbs, a florid colour of the face, are attending ſymptoms, but they all vaniſh as ſoon as this head-ach is changed into a regular fit of the *gout* in the extremities.

Begin the cure with bleeding, eſpecially if accompanied with dimneſs of ſight, and a pulſation of the temporal arteries; but have regard to the *gout*, and be cautious of leſſening the vital heat below what health requires. If the ſtomach is very uneaſy, order carduus, or camomile tea, to provoke two or three evacuations. A mild ſtomach purge ſhould alſo be given, and occaſionally repeated. The uſual methods for producing a regular *gout* ſhould be uſed, but with caution, as ſometimes they rather aggravate the head-ach. The head may, however, be rubbed with ſp. vol. arom. and a bliſter applied betwixt the ſhoulders.

A GOUTY GIDDINESS. What is ſaid of the ſubjects, cauſes, &c. of the head-ach, are applicable here; but it may be obſerved, that this giddineſs does not terminate in an epilepſy as does the common ſort; but if a regular fit of the *gout* does not terminate it, an apoplexy may be the conſequent, and then the uſual ſymptoms of a common giddineſs leads on to thoſe of the apoplexy; ſo that its *gouty* nature muſt be diſcovered by attending to the ſtate of the conſtitution, and by conſidering what ſort of paroxyſms have preceded.

To remedy this diſorder proceed as in the head-ach, avoid waſhing the head with cold applications, keep the feet always warm, and the bowels lax.

The GOUTY APOPLEXY. In this caſe the head is heavy, the face bloated and red, the tongue often faulters, the motions of the body are diſorderly, and the ſteps are unequal, the diſorder increaſes, ſenſe and voluntary motion are loſt, the eyes become like thoſe of a corpſe, a ſnorting, &c. as in the genuine apoplexy, ſo that its *gouty* nature is to be diſcovered only by enquiring whether or not any *gouty* ſymptoms have preceded. One comfort attends this that does not in the common apoplexy, viz. that if the patient recovers of his diſtemper, he afterwards enjoys a much better ſtate of health.

The cure conſiſts in removing the *gout* into the extremities. Bleed as freely as the ſtrength and heat of the conſtitution will admit; inject a clyſter, in which are two large ſpoons full of common ſalt; and, as ſoon as it can be ſwallowed, let a briſk purge be given. Keep the feet very warm, and apply to the joint that was laſt affected a ſtimulating plaſter. If the patient is not thus relieved, apply a bliſter to his neck, or all over his head; and one on each ancle, if the *gout* uſed to be moſt in the feet; or to the wriſts, if it chiefly affected the hands. Horſe-radiſh may be chewed to excite a diſcharge of ſaliva; the uſual medicines for expelling the *gout* are not to be omitted, the feet or hands may be ſtrongly rubbed two or three times a day. After recovery make iſſues.

The GOUTY PALSY. The *gouty* matter ſo affects the nerves in ſome inſtances as to be the cauſe of a palſy, and this more particularly in plethoric habits, thoſe who reſide in damp ſituations, live ſedentarily, indulge in exceſſes, &c. Affecting the tongue, it renders the ſpeech defective, or deſtroys it. Sometimes the appetite is diminiſhed, and an averſion to aliment is occaſioned by the ſtomach being affected: a member only is affected in ſome, in others one ſide of the body, or the whole of it. If this diſorder happens in bilious conſtitutions, particularly if it occurs after a bilious colic, the patient loſes his appetite, he waſtes away, and his eyes have a yellow hue. Succeeding an apoplexy it is difficult of cure, and, if the apoplexy returns, it is fatal.

Begin the cure with bleeding, if the pulſe and heat admit of this evacuation, or at leaſt cup with ſcarifications on the back; preſently after inject a clyſter, ſtimulating purges muſt be repeatedly given to agitate the blood, and drive the *gout* into the extremities, and apply to the joints that are moſt frequently affected ſome ſtimulating plaſter. After theſe, if a tumour appears on the extremity to which the application is made, lay a bliſtering plaſter on it, and another on the neck. The powder with iron, recommended againſt the *gout* in the ſtomach, ſhould be given with the bark; frictions and baths may alſo be uſed. Guard well againſt coſtiveneſs, and forget not to inſert iſſues.

The WANDERING GOUT. Gouty people often feel pains wandering in the back, loins, ſhoulders, external parts of the head, &c. which remove and return without fixing long any where; theſe are often miſtaken for rheumatic. The wandering *gout* ſome ſay is a ſcorbutic affection, conſiſting in a wandering, or a ſhifting pain, affecting the nervous parts about the joints, and proceeding from an acid and malignant acrimony in the lymph, together with an extraordinary mobility and vaporoſity of the ſame, on account of the thinneſs of its contexture: happening in the loins, it ſometimes is very troubleſome, and of ſome duration. The pain in this caſe reſembles that from a ſtone in the kidnies, but it is ſeated in the cellular membrane about the ſpine. The *gouty* matter falling on the eye cauſes an inflammation in its coats; an eryſipelas terminating in a *gout*, ſhews that its cauſe was a *gout*. Theſe kinds of *gouty* ſymptoms are leſs dangerous than when the viſcera are affected, and it is very rare that they fall on the internal parts, though they are often transferred to the extremities, cauſing regular fits of the *gout*. The teeth are ſometimes the ſeat of the wandering *gout*, ſo are the noſe, lips, tongue, and indeed any part of our frame.

When the back, ſhoulders, and external parts of the head are affected, if the pain is violent, and the ſtrength and heat will admit, begin with bleeding, then give an aloetic purge, and repeat it as occaſion requires. After which, if the diſorder is not thereby ſent into the joints, repeated ſweatings may be tried. The ſame method may be obſerved in wandering pains, or an eryſipelas from this cauſe. If the inflamed eye does not give way to this method alſo, waſh it with the following collyrium.

℞ Camphor. gr. vi. ſpi. vini gal. & aq. pure ää ℥ii. m.

If this inflammation does not thus give way, bleed in the jugular vein, and the next day give a briſk purge; after which apply a bliſter to the neck, which keep open with the ung. veſic. as long as poſſible, and, at the ſame time, uſe ſuch other means as bring the *gout* into the feet. If the pain in the teeth are obſtinate, proceed in the ſame manner as when the eye is inflamed; only inſtead of the collyrium let horſe-radiſh, or other means be uſed, which promote a diſcharge of the ſaliva: or the tooth may be pulled out, and immediately put into its place again.

If the muſcles of the belly, ſide, breaſt, or the calves

of the legs are the parts pained, apply bags of hot ſand, or bladders of hot water thereto, and, if required, aſſiſt nature to drive the complaint to the extremities.

When this diſorder imitates the gravel, beſides the application of bladders filled with hot water upon the loins, inject clyſters, in which from ten to thirty drops of the tinct. thebaica are mixed.

The GOUT complicated with the STONE. This caſe ſhould not be confounded with the arthritic colic, in which the pain is about the navel, and not in the loins.

For relief in this painful ſituation, let the patient drink plentifully of a decoction of marſhmallow roots, and ſo as to puke with it. Direct him a lubricating clyſter; as ſoon as this hath paſſed a draught with tinct. theb. gt. twenty or twenty-five will be proper; or let the enem. terebinth. be injected every hour, and opiates in ſmall quantities given by the mouth: but be careful in the uſe of aromatics leſt inflammation ſhould be excited in the part aggrieved. Purging with manna, diſſolved in whey, will alſo be proper, and may be repeated in three or four days, not forgetting an opiate after its operation.

In thoſe inſtances in which there is great debility without inflammation, bliſters, ſinapiſms, ſmall doſes of James's powder in the conf. card. powerfully remove the complaint. But even in the vague and miſplaced *gout*, where the nerves of the viſcera are rendered torpid, and almoſt inſenſible to the effects of ardent ſpirits, and warm active cordials are neceſſary to give warmth, and enable them to exert themſelves in this oppreſſed ſtate; yet gentle purging is alſo highly uſeful: here the warm aloetic purgatives carry off the offending matter, and thus afford great eaſe and relief. Sometimes, advantage is not to be expected from purgatives, as when the *gouty* ſymptoms are produced, not by *gouty* matter, but by the *gout* affecting the nerves. In enfeebled ſubjects, medicines which invigorate the nerves are chiefly to be relied on; ſuch as the generous warm cordials, volatile ſalts, fœtid gums, warm ſtomachics, iron, &c.

Of the GOUT in the intervals of the FITS. It is only by the uſe of proper means, when no manifeſt diſorder attends, that any laſting advantages are to be reaped from medicine. and, even now, no ſpeedy relief is to be expected. The patient muſt be informed, that perſeverance muſt accompany patience, if any degree of durable benefit is obtained.

The means now uſed are reſidence in a good air, diet, exerciſe, and medicine. Theſe are to be attended to daily, and through life, becauſe the diſeaſe being habitual or conſtitutional, it neceſſarily requires continued oppoſition. Air, diet, and exerciſe, are to be ſuch as experience manifeſts to be the moſt ſuitable, and, as to medicines, thoſe which ſtrengthen the digeſtive powers, and ſuch as keep up the diſcharge through the ſkin, are to be properly adhered to.

See Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham's Works, who admirably deſcribes the regular *gout*. See Muſgrave on the *Gout*, he excels in his deſcription of the irregular *gout*. See Warner's Full and plain Account of the *Gout*; he includes the chief of what his predeceſſors have writ on this ſubject. See Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic. Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. i. Kirkland's Inquiry, vol. i. Numerous, indeed, are the authors on this ſubject, particularly ſince Dr. Cadogan publiſhed his ſmall Diſſertation on it, to which the curious enquirer might be referred; but, perhaps, multiplicity of opinions may tend to confuſe, rather than inſtruct.

ARTHROCACE. An ulcer of the cavity of the bone, with caries. Dr. Cullen makes it a ſynonym with ſpina ventoſa. which ſee.

ATHRODIA, from ἄρθρον, *a joint*, and δέχομαι, *to receive*. It is when a round head is received into a ſhallow cavity, and admits of motion on all ſides.

ATHRODYNIA. The chronical rheumatiſm.

ATHRON. A joint.

ARTHROPUOSIS, from ἄρθρον, *articulus*, and πύον, *pus*. This word is variouſly uſed. Dr. Aitkin in his Elements of Surgery, expreſſeth by it, inflammation of a joint; and then by phlegmone *articuli*, he means the ſame thing. In another part of the ſame work he expreſſeth by it, an abſceſs in a joint. And, in a third place in the ſame Elements, he with others uſes it as ſynonymous with inflammation in the loins, particularly in the celluſar membrane lying under the pſoas muſcle, &c. as by Dr. Cullen.

Dr. Cullen by this word expreſſes a genus of diſeaſe which he ranks in the claſs pyrexiæ and order phlegmaſiæ; and as its ſynonyms, he places it with the lumbago pſoadica, lumbago apoſtematoſa, lumbago ab arthrocace, iſchias ex abſceſſu, and morbus coxarius. In this diſeaſe he ſays there are pains in the joint or the muſcular parts about it: theſe pains happen oftentimes after bruiſes, they are deep, dull, of long continuance; the ſwelling is either none, or but little diffuſed; the inflammation not conſiderable; the fever at firſt is but gentle, but at laſt is hectic; and to conclude, the part apoſtemates. See abſceſs in the back and loins; and alſo pſoa abſceſs, and hip abſceſs.

ARTHROSIS, i. e. Articulatio.

ARTIA. According to ſome it is the ſame as arteria; and others ſay it is only the aſpera arteria.

ARTICOCA, or *Articocalus*. An artichoke.

ARTICULARIS MORBUS. When the gout riſes from the toes to the ancles and knees, and they ſwell and inflame, it is thus named.

ARTICULARIS VENA. Under the head of the os humeri the baſilica vena ſends off this branch. It paſſes almoſt tranſverſely round the neck of that bone from within backwards, and from behind outwards, and runs upon the ſcapula, where it communicates with the venæ ſcapulares externæ.

ARTICULATIO, *Articulation*, or jointing. It is the joining of bones together, and is of two kinds, viz. *articulation* and connection. *Articulation* is of two kinds, 1ſt, DIARTHROSIS, which ſee, it is capable of motion. 2dly, SYNARTHROSIS, which ſee, it is not capable of motion. There is a ſpecies compoſed of theſe two, which ſome call amphiarthroſis. Connection or ſymphyſis is of three kinds: 1ſt, By ligament, called ſyneuroſis, or ſyndeſmoſis. 2dly, By cartilages, called ſynchondroſis. 3dly, By muſcles paſſing from one bone to another, called ſyſſarcoſis.

Articulation, in botany, is the connection of parts that conſiſt of joints or knees, ſuch as the pods of French honey ſuckles, which, when ripe, divide into ſo many parts as there are knees or joints; alſo thoſe parts of plants which ſwell into nodes or joints, and which uſually ſend forth branches.

ARTICULUS, a joint. The diſeaſes of the *joints* are a luxation, a ſubluxation, and anchyloſis. The inſertion of a number of tendons into the ligament, ſerves not only to ſtrengthen it, but, by their action, to hinder it from being pinched in the motion of the limb, which is a mechaniſm obſerved in every *joint* of the body. Wounds here often require amputation. See VULNUS.

ARTIFICIALE. Whatever is made or prepared either of the native ſtone of cinnabar itſelf, or from the vein of cinnabar.

ARTIFICIALIS SAL, i. e. Sal commun.

ARTISCHOCUS LÆVIS. The artichoke.

ARTISCUS, from ἄρτος, *bread*. Troches are thus called, becauſe formed like a loaf.

ARTIYPOCHROS COLOR. A paliſh yellow colour which attends a diſorder of the ſpleen.

ARTIZOA, from ζωὴ, *life*. Short lived.

ARTOMELI, from ἄρτος, *bread*, and μέλι, *honey*. A ſort of cataplaſm prepared of bread and honey.

ARTOPTICIUS PANIS. Toaſted bread.

ARTOS, ἄρτος, *bread*. See PANIS.

ARTYMA. The ſame as CONDIMENTUM.

ARUBUS. Butter.

ARVINA. Fat.

ARUM, called alſo arum maculatum, aron, jarus, pes vituli, barba aronis, ſacerdotis virile, ſerpentaria minor, dracontia minor, allimum, lords and ladies, cuckow-pint, wake Robin.

Ray enumerates ten ſpecies. That directed by the college of Edinburgh, is the *arum maculatum*, or *arum* acaule, foliis paſtatis integerrimis, ſpadice clavato. Linn.

It is a low perennial plant, grows wild under hedges, and by the ſides or banks in ſhady places. In March it ſends out two or three leaves ſhaped like a ſpear, a naked ſtalk follows theſe, which bears a purpliſh piſtil incloſed in

in a long ſheath, which is followed in July by a bunch of red berries. The root is irregularly round, about an inch thick, brown on the outſide, and white within. Some of the plants have leaves that are ſpotted black, others with white, and others have none. The black ſpotted are the ſtrongeſt of all the three. Thoſe that grow in moiſt ſhades are ſtronger than thoſe that grow in dry expoſed places.

The freſh roots are acrid and pungent to the taſte. If chewed, the tongue will be affected with a burning ſenſation, which continues for ſome hours, but may ſoon be relieved with a little milk. The firm, hard roots ſhould be choſen. They looſe too much by drying to be worth keeping; but a ſyrup made with them would keep as well as the ſyrup made of garlic does. They afford nothing by diſtillation, nor infuſion; yet if buried in freſh ſand, they will keep very well for ſeveral months, provided that they are kept juſt moiſt only; and, in every ſeaſon, they are in full virtue alike.

As a warm ſtimulant they may be given, if mixed with a mucilage of gum arabic, or as follows:

℞ Rad. *ari* recent bene contus. Pulv. gum. arab. ad part. ij. Sperma cæti, part. i. Syr. alb. q. ſ. f. electar.

A continued uſe of this firſt warms the ſtomach, and afterwards the remoter parts. It hath been uſeful in deep ſeated pains of the rheumatic kind, in doſes of a teaſpoonful, which were taken three times a-day.

Theſe roots anſwer, as well as garlic, for cataplaſms to be applied on the feet in deliriums, &c.

The London college directs the following powder, but it is not worth keeping, it is as follows:

Take of the freſh roots of cuckow-pint, freſh dried, two ounces; the roots of yellow water flag, and of burnet ſaxifrage, of each one ounce; prepared crabs eyes and cinnamon, of each half an ounce; of ſalt of wormwood, two drams; mix, and make it into a powder, which muſt be preſerved in a cloſe veſſel.

ARUM PUMILE ANGUSTIFOLIUM, &c. i. e. Ariſarum.

ARUM MOSCHATUM, i. e. Piper.

ARUM POLYPHYLLUM, i. e. Dracontium.

ARUM SCORZONERÆ FOLIO, i. e. Ariſarum.

ARUNDO, Harundo, vel Calamus. The common reed. It hath thick jointed roots, which ſpread very much. The ſtalks run up ſix feet high, or more, are hollow, and jointed. At each joint there iſſues long, narrow, graſs-like leaves, that are rough and hard; and, on the top, is a ſpike of a browniſh red colour, full of a ſoft downy ſubſtance, without any viſible ſeed. Theſe reeds die away every winter.

Of reeds, or canes, there are a great variety, the fineſt of which for walking with comes from Bengal. Some are hollow, and fit for making muſical inſtruments of. Others afford the matter which is manufactured into ſugar. But as to any medical qualities, they poſſeſs no remarkable ones.

ARUNDO DONAX, called alſo arundo Cypria, arundo ſativa. The great reed.

ARUNDO SCRIPTORIA. Harundo minor, elegia. The writing reed.

ARUNDO TABAXIFERA. Alſo called arundo mambu, tabaxir arabibus, canna bambu. The bambu cane. Theſe contain a ſugary kind of juice. The young ſhoots are the baſis of the compoſition called achar; but when this cane becomes tall and old, it loſes all its agreeable qualities.

ARUNDO FARCTA ATRO-RUBENS. Arundo naſtos craſſa major & minor. Calamus toxicus, naſtos. The walking cane. Theſe are brought from India and Syria; the beſt from Bengal.

ARUNDO FARCTA FLAVA. Arundo naſtos vel toxica. The dart-weed. It is brought from Syria.

ARUNDO FARCTA INDIÆ ORIENTALIS. The dragon's blood cane. It grows in the Eaſt Indies. The juice of its fruit is called dragon's blood in drops.

The ſugar cane is another ſpecies. There are many other ſorts, but theſe are the chief as to any value that they are of.

ARUNDO INDICA. See SAGITTARIA ALEXIPHARMACA.

ARUNDO MAJOR. A name of the tibia.

ARUNDO MINOR. A name of the fibula.

ARUNDO VIBA BRASILIENSIBUS. The ſugar cane.

ARVISIUM. See MALVASIA.

ARYTÆNO-EPIGLOTTICI. They are ſmall fleſhy faſciculi, each of which is fixed by one end in the head of one of the arytænoid cartilages, and the other in the neareſt edge of the epiglottis.

ARYTÆNOIDES, from ἀρυταινα, a *funnel*, and εἶδος, *ſhape*. The *arytænoid*, or ewer-like cartilage. An epithet of two cartilages, which, together with others, conſtitute the head of the larynx.

ARYTÆNOIDEI MUSCUL. MINOR, vel Obliquus, vel Tranſverſalis. They are ſituated on the back part of the *arytænoid* cartilage. They are very ſmall muſcles which run upon the ſurface of the greater *arytænoid* muſcles; they ariſe from that part of each of the cartilagines *arytænoidæ* next the cricoides on the other ſides, and terminating in that part of the other or adjoining *arytænoidal* cartilage that is fartheſt from the cricoides on the other ſides. Their uſe is to aſſiſt the *arytænoidei-majores* in their action, which is much ſtrengthened by the manifeſt decuſſation of their fibres. Douglas.

ARYTÆNOIDEI MUSCUL. MAJOR. They are under the *arytænoidei* minores. They have an inſertion into the annular cartilage, and help to cloſe the glottis. They ariſe fleſhy from the *arytænoide* cartilages near their junction with the cricoid cartilages, and running tranſverſely of an equal breadth, with ſtrait fibres. They are inſerted into the ſame ſide of the other cartilage. Their uſe is to ſhut the rimula, or chink called glottis, by bringing theſe two cartilages nearer one another.

ARYTHMUS, from α, *negative*, and ῥυθμος, a *modulation*, or modification of time and ſound in muſic; but uſed to expreſs order and harmony in other things. Galen applies it to the pulſe not modulating according to nature. It is oppoſed to eurithmus, or juſtly modulated. The pulſus *arythmus* is of three kinds.

Every age hath its natural pulſe, which as long as it keeps in its due *rythmus*, or modulation of time and force, is called *eurithmus*; but if it tranſgreſſes, it is a pulſus *arythmus*. But,

1ſt, If it tranſgreſſes into a modulation proper to the next age, it is pulſus *pararythmus*.

2dly, If it changes to a pulſe proper for any other age, it is called pulſus *hetero-rythmus*.

3dly, if it paſſes into a modulation proper to no age, it is then a pulſus *ecrythmus*.

AS, the name of an ancient coin. It was alſo a weight and a meaſure amongſt the Romans, each of twelve ounces.

ASA. Healer.

ASA DULCIS. The ſweet healer. The gum Benjamin, and its tree.

ASA FŒTIDA. The ſtinking healer. Alſo called hingiſch, laſer, laſer-pitium, ſilphium, hin, hindiſch, and devil's dung. It is the fetid concrete juice of a plant which grows in Perſia, and other parts of the eaſtern countries. Kempfer ſays, that the plant is a-kin to lovage, and that it is the root which yields the gummy juice. See Kempfer's Amænitates Exoticæ. It is the juice of the ferula *aſſa fœtida*, or ferula Perſica umbelli fera, foliolis alternatim ſinuatis obtuſis, floribus ex viridi luteis. Linn. This juice is whitiſh at the firſt, but it gradually becomes brown, and grows harder alſo. The beſt pieces that are brought into Europe are of a pale red colour, variegated with white. This gum hath a ſtrong fetid ſmell like that of garlic, and a nauſeous bitter biting taſte, but loſes much by keeping. Its ſmell and taſte reſide in the reſinous part, ſpirit is therefore the beſt to digeſt in it; though water extracts the greateſt part of it by the aid of the gummy matter. In diſtillation with water a ſtrong impregnation is received, and thus a pale coloured eſſential oil is received; the remaining decoction affords a bitter extract.

As a medicine it is in high eſteem; it is the ſtrongeſt of all the deobſtruent fetid warm gums; it is more diaphoretic than the gum ammoniacum. When it diſagrees by reaſon of its ſtrength, the milder gums of ſimilar efficacy ſhould be uſed in its ſtead. The next to it is the gum galbanum, which if too ſtrong muſt give way to the

gum ſagapenum, or to the ſtill milder gum ammoniacum, or to myrrh, or to the wild valerian root, which is the mildeſt of them all. In flatulencies, and all the ſymptoms called nervous, it acts as an anodyne and antiſpaſmodic; though ſometimes the addition of muſk or opium, or both, greatly improves its efficacy. It is by far more quick in its effects than any other of the fetid gums; and it is the ſpeedieſt in relieving the anxieties and oppreſſions of the precordia, which frequently attend nervous diſorders, and malignant fevers: but in ſuch caſes its efficacy is increaſed by joining it with valerian, one part of the former to two parts of the latter may be a general proportion. Large doſes of *aſſa fœtida*, with a bliſter on the back, hath relieved in epilepſies, and in palſies that ſucceed epilepſies; proper evacuations premiſed. It is a ſovereign remedy if joined with ſalt of amber and bliſters. In the nervous aſthma, joined with an equal quantity of the gum ammoniacum, it relieves to admiration; however, it muſt be owned that it ſometimes fails in this caſe, and then the bark is to be tried. In hyſteric complaints, fetids are only palliatives; for hyſteric ſuffocations a plaſter of *aſſa fœtida* ʒ vi. and camp. ʒ ſs. mixed, by far excels thoſe made of the gum galbanum. In nervous caſes it acts as an opiate ſometimes where opium fails, and without leaving any lowneſs on the ſpirits, and where neither ſucceed ſeparately, they often anſwer if joined.

The officinal preparations are the

Pilulæ Gummoſæ. Gum Pills.

Take galbanum, opopanax, myrrh, and ſagapenum, of each an ounce; of *aſa fœtida*, half an ounce; with the ſyrup of ſaffron, make a maſs.

At the firſt taking of theſe pills, much diſorder is occaſioned in ſome nervous conſtitutions; but this effect ſoon wears off, or may be relieved by a doſe of opium taken at bed time.

Spiritus Volatilis Fœtidus. Fetid *Volatile Spirit.*

Take of any fixed alkaline ſalt, a pound and a half: of ſal ammoniac, a pound; *aſa fœtida*, four ounces; of proof ſpirit, three quarts. Diſtil off, with a gentle heat, five pints.

Tinctura Fœtida. *The* Fetid *Tincture.*

Take of *aſa fœtida*, four ounces; of rectified ſpirit of wine, one quart. After digeſtion, ſtrain it off.

Theſe three preparations are according to the London college.

ASA ODORATA. Gum Benjamin, and its tree.

ASAB. See Berozail.

ASABA HERMES. The fingers of Mercury, or hermodactyls, or the flowers of ſurengian.

ASABON. Soap.

ASAGAR. Verdigriſe.

ASAGEN. Dragon's blood.

ASAGI. Vitriol, or calcined vitriol.

ASAMAR. Verdigriſe.

ASAMAZ. Vitriol.

ASANON. Prepared ſal ammoniac.

ASAPHATUM. A ſort of ſerpigo, impetigo, or intercutaneous itch, generated in the pores like worms. When the ſkin is impreſſed, they come out like long threads, with black heads.

ASAPHEIS, from *α*, *negative*, and *σαφης*, *clear*. Such patients as do not utter their words diſtinctly are thus named.

ASAPHIA. It is the paraphonia palatina of Cullen. It is derived from *α*, *neg.* and *σαφης*, clear. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs that utterance of words that is not clear; a muffled heſitating tongue that hath no plain utterance; ſuch a confuſedneſs of voice as proceeds from an indiſpoſition of the organs of ſpeech. Sometimes this word ſignifies a dubious kind of delirium not eaſy to be diſcovered.

ASAPHODES, i. e. Aſaphia.

ASARABACCA, i. e. Aſarum.

ASARCON. Void of fleſh.

ASARITES. The wine of aſarum, made with muſt, ℔ vi. and aſarum three ounces.

ASARON, i. e. Aſarum.

ASARUM, called alſo nardus ruſtica, aſaron, nardus montana, wild nard, and common aſſarabacca.

It is a low plant, without ſtalks, the leaves are ſtiff and roundiſh, with two little ears reſembling a kidney, of a dark ſhining green colour, ſet on pedicles three or four inches long. The flowers conſiſt of purpliſh ſtamina, ſtanding in a cup, and are followed each by a capſule containing ſix ſeeds. It is perennial and evergreen, a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe and the warmer climes, and raiſed in our gardens. The dried roots are brought from the Levant, but thoſe of our own growth are nearly as good.

The roots and leaves have a ſtrongiſh, but not unpleaſant ſmell, ſomewhat like that of nard, and a nauſeous, bitter, acrid taſte. They both have the ſame effect as a medicine; but when dry, three times the quantity ſhould be given that is required of the freſh. twenty grains is emetic and cathartic. In ſmall doſes this herb promotes the menſes, is diuretic, and perſpirative. Spirit of wine extracts its virtues, and, infuſed in water, it gives out a conſiderable portion of them. Boiled in water its virtues are deſtroyed, but not if boiled in wine.

Its operations is rugged, and its uſe is confined to that of an errhine. A grain or two of the powdered root ſnuffed up the noſe, procures a conſiderable evacuation, without cauſing the patient to ſneeze. The leaves, though as ſtrong as the roots in all other reſpects, in this of an errhine they are milder. The herb ſnuffs have this plant for their baſis.

An ounce of juice expreſſed from the freſh leaves, operates as an emetic in maniacs when antimonials fail.

The ſpecies in uſe, is the *aſarum* Europæum; or the *aſarum* foliis reniformibus obtuſis binis. Linn.

The London college directs the following

Pulvis Sternutatorius. Sneezing Powder.

Take the dried leaves of aſſarabacca, of marjoram, of Syrian maſtich thyme, and dried lavender flowers, of each equal parts. Mix, and make them into a powder.

This powder was called pulv. cephalicus.

ASARUM VIRGINIANUM, called alſo ſerpentaria nigra, aſarum cyclamina. Black ſnake-weed.

This hath leaves like thoſe of piſtolochia, and they are ſpotted like ſow-bread. The roots are brought from Virginia, mixed with the red ſerpent. Virg. and are uſed as being the ſame.

ASBESTOS, or Aſbeſtus. Quicklime. Alſo a name of the Amianthus, which ſee.

ASBO. The name of an unknown animal.

ASCALONIA. A ſpecies of onions.

ASCALONITIDES. Eſchalots, barren onions, or ſcallions.

ASCALONITIS. A ſpecies of onions.

ASCARDAMYCTES. One who keeps his eyes long fixed and immovable, without twinkling.

ASCARIDES, from *ασκιω*, *to move*. A ſort of worms ſo called from their continual troubleſome motion, which cauſes itching. They are very ſmall, white, and have ſharp pointed heads. They are generally lodged in the rectum; but ſometimes are alſo higher up, even in the ſtomach.

The ſymptoms by which it is known that worms are exiſting in the body, are the ſame in general, whatever be the ſpecies of them, but an itching in the anus is the almoſt conſtant ſign of the *aſcarides* being in the rectum. They occaſion ſuch uneaſineſs in ſome people as to make them faint; and generally are ſo troubleſome in the night as to deprive them of ſleep. Sometimes there is ſo much heat in the inteſtine, as to cauſe a ſenſible tumor about the anus; but as theſe worms are voided in the ſtools, their preſence is moſt certainly known by ſeeing them there: for there is no one ſign but what is wanting in ſome patients.

Though this ſort of worms are as difficult to deſtroy as any other, they are leſs dangerous.

Theſe little worms are ſo inveloped in mucus, that great difficulty attends the deſtruction of them. The beſt known remedy is the Harrowgate water, if drank at the ſpring: the flower of brimſtone, taken with treacle, in ſuch a quantity as to gently purge the patient every day, is perhaps the next in efficacy to the Harrowgate water. The fumes of burning tobacco injected clyſterwiſe into the rectum is of ſingular efficacy; ſuppoſitories of cotton dipped in the gall of an ox may be tried; a decoction of ſavin in water hath been often uſed with ſucceſs, when

taken

taken for ſome time; and perhaps repeated doſes of rhubarb may anſwer as well as any other remedy. See VERMES.

ASCENSUS MORBI. The aſcent or increaſe of a diſeaſe.

ASCETÆ. Wreſtlers.

ASCHIA. The grayling or umber. The fiſh is remarkable for its delighting in rapid ſtreams that are ſhallow and clear.

ASCIA. The ſimple bandage is ſo called when the rounds aſcend or deſcend upon each other in the form of a ſcrew; the French call it doloires.

ASCITES, from ασκος, *uter*, a *bottle*, or *water bottle*. It is the dropſy of the belly. When water is accumulated in the cavity of the belly, betwixt the peritoneum and the viſcera; in the dilated cavities of the glands or other veſſels contained in the abdomen; or in the duplicature of the peritoneum, it conſtitutes this diſeaſe.

Dr. Cullen ranks this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs cachexiæ and order intumeſcentiæ; and he enumerates two ſpecies, viz. 1. *aſcites* abdominalis, as when the tumour of the belly is equal, and with evident fluctuation. 2. *aſcites* ſaccatus, as when the ovaries, &c. are the ſeat of the diſeaſe, in which caſes the humour is not equally extended in all parts of the belly, and the fluctuation is not ſo evident.

No age or ſex are exempted from it; but generally old men, and women after child-bearing, are the ſubject.

The cauſes are various; the jaundice, long continued intermittents, an aſthma, a rupture of ſome lymphatic veſſel, obſtructions in any of the viſcera, moſt frequently a ſcirrhous liver, and, in ſhort, whatever can leſſen the quantity of craſſamentum in the blood, and conſiderably reduce the vital heat may be a general cauſe: but the immediate cauſes are either a rupture of the lymphatics, in which caſe the fluid appears whitiſh when tapping is performed; or the exhalent veſſels throwing off more than the abſorbents can take up again.

This kind of dropſy is ſometimes very rapid in its approach and progreſs, then continues many years at a ſtand; at others its advances are very ſlow, even a number of years before it manifeſts itſelf in a confirmed ſtate. One of the firſt ſigns is a pitting of the ancles towards the evening, with a ſhortneſs of breath; though it ſhould be obſerved that the pitting of the ancles is not concluſive, for it often attends pregnant women, and old men with groſs habits, and who have laboured many years under an aſthma, who, when ſuddenly freed therefrom, have an œdomatous ſwelling in their ancles. However, if after the ſwelling of the feet, the legs and thighs ſwell too, the caſe is plain, and this uſually happens in the progreſs of the *aſcites*. Beſides theſe ſymptoms the inſide of the hands are dry and hard; tranſpiration is greatly diminiſhed; the urine is leſs and leſs in quantity, appears turbid, high coloured, and depoſits a large quantity of a lateritious ſediment; the belly gradually ſwells; and in proportion the breathing is ſhort; the appetite for eating fails, and thirſt increaſes; a ſlow fever attends; the face and arms are emaciated; a paleneſs at firſt and afterwards a yelloviſh colour is ſeen in the ſkin; theſe ſymptoms growing worſe a dry cough comes on; the belly is greatly diſtended; and except the water is contained in cyſts, or hath rendered the integuments too tenſe, it may be heard to fluctuate by gently tapping one ſide of the belly with one hand, while the other is placed on the oppoſite ſide; at length little bliſters ariſe on the feet, which containing an acrid liquor, corrodes, inflames, and ulcerates them; when this ſymptom appears the bowels are alſo inflamed, and death is at hand. Many other ſymptoms occur, as varieties in the circumſtances of conſtitution, &c. give riſe to them, but theſe already recited are the more conſtant attendants.

The *aſcites* muſt be diſtinguiſhed from pregnancy; from excreſcencies, and other tumours in the belly; and from a tympany.

If a ſcirrhus in any of the viſcera is the cauſe, a cure is not to be expected; a purging, by preventing the efficacy of medicines, is a dangerous, generally a fatal circumſtance; perſpiration increaſing, or the diſcharge of urine becoming more plentiful, are favourable prognoſtics; if an *aſcites* ſucceed other diſeaſes, in which the viſcera were injured, if the thirſt is great and other ſymptoms violent, there is but little hope of recovery: an hæmorrhage, or an eryſipelas coming on, with an increaſe of the fever, are deſtructive viſitants. It is a bad ſign, if, when diuretics are properly uſed, the urine is not diſcharged in a proper quantity. If the fluctuation (when you lay your hand on one ſide of the belly and tap with the other on the other ſide) can only be felt partially, the operation of tapping is vindicable, as it will afford a temporary relief; though in ſuch a caſe you are not to promiſe an emptying of the belly totally; for if you do, ſeven times in ten, you will be deceived, except you can feel the fluctuation by ſtriking on any point of the belly.

In order to the cure, the intentions are, firſt, to promote the natural ſecretions, that the water may be evacuated, and ſecondly, to increaſe the vital heat: which, if the viſcera are unſound, cannot be effected. Whatever increaſeth bodily ſtrength, will aſſiſt in carrying off the water, by giving power to the abſorbent veſſels. Some dropſies, therefore, may be cured in the beginning by exerciſe, the bark, chalybeates; but this method will not ſucceed, except where the ſtrength is but little impaired, the vital parts ſound, and abſorbing powers ſtrong. In general, more ſucceſs may be expected from attempting an increaſe of the uniary diſcharge; particularly if the complaint is of long ſtanding, and the bowels are weak.

The diet ſhould be cordial and nouriſhing; and vinous liquors are to be preferred for drink to all other kinds; the following medical one may be daily uſed.

℞ Rad. raph. ruſt. rec. ſem. ſinap (non contus) & ſummit. abſinth. āā ℥ i. vin. alb. ℔ iii. m. in fund. frigid. & colaturæ cap. ℥ iv. ter quaterve. in die. Muſtard whey may be made for a change, and with conſiderable advantage.

Frictions, exerciſe without fatigue, and a dry air, conduce much to the patient's relief.

Proper evacuations being made, proceed with antimonials, chalybeates, aromatics, diuretics, or ſudorifics. In the uſe of evacuations the choice of them may be directed by conſidering the cauſe of the diſeaſe, as when obſtructed perſpiration gave riſe to it, ſudorifics will be indicated, &c.

Stimulating, acrid, and aromatic medicines ſhould accompany the uſe of evacuants, that the extravaſated fluids may be abſorbed and determined to the reſpective emunctories; in weakly habits, diuretics and ſodorifics may accompany them; in the more robuſt emetics and cathartics may be uſed.

As to purges, in anaſarcous caſes, ſtrong doſes of the draſtic kind are often neceſſary; but in the *aſcites* ſome caution is to be had in their uſe, leſt an inflammation ſhould be produced: in a beginning complaint of this ſort, briſk doſes, and of the active kind, ſometimes do well; but when the patient's ſtrength is reduced, more moderate ones, or purgatives mixed with emetics, will be the beſt, and they may be thus adminiſtered, moderate doſes of them may be alternately repeated, and in their intervals diuretics and corroborants are to be duly ſupplied.

Purges ſhould be repeated as often as the patient's ſtrength will admit; when their uſe is thought neceſſary, during their operation, cordial liquors inſtead of the uſual ſimple ones ſhould be given, and at night an opiate muſt not be omitted. It is true that different purging medicines will be required for different patients, and ſometimes for the ſame at different times; but in general for the ſtronger calomel and jalap, and for the weaker calomel and rhubarb, will be proper; as ſoon as they are worked off, the following, or ſuch like draught will be neceſſary, the belly being quickly diſtended again if it is neglected. In general, if emetics and purgatives are given, it ſhould only be in the early ſtate of the diſeaſe, where the patient is young, and the internal parts yet remain firm; and uninjured; for if due ſkill and caution do not direct, they will increaſe the patient's weakneſs, and aggravate the diſeaſe. Sometimes, indeed, they promote urine, when diuretics failed, and in ſuch caſes they may be continued with advantage; but after their operation, it will be proper to direct ſome proper ſtrengthener, that the veſſels may be braced as the water is drained off.

℞ Syr. e mecon. ℥ ſs. vel ℥ i. aq. menth. pip. ſpt. Mindereri āā ℥ ſs. tinct. ſtomach. ℥ ij. ſal ſuccin. gr. vi. m. f. hauſt.

Many other forms are to be met with in Brookes's, or in the London Practice of Phyſic, by which the preſcriber may be directed to an agreeable and uſeful variety.

When the water of an *aſcites* is carried off by any other method than by a puncture through the peritoneum, it is done by that operation of nature called abſorption; purging, ſweating, and diuretics, of all other medicines, moſt promote it, whence their principal uſe.

Vomiting, when the viſcera are ſound and the ſtrength will admit, by the ſhock it gives to the belly in particular, and its efficacy in promoting abſorption, is highly beneficial.

If the ſwelling is moderate, or the conſtitution feeble, diuretics will be more ſuitable than emetics and cathartics; though, as theſe, ſo they require to be accompanied with warm ſtrengtheners; and when the cure is attempted this way, purgatives ſhould be wholly omitted. In cold pituitous habits fixt alkaline ſalts are the beſt diuretics; ſalt of tartar may be added to every pint of wine that is drank, and a common wine glaſs full may be taken every three hours; brandy or rum may be given with a watery infuſion of juniper berries. Of the varieties for drink, thoſe to which the conſtitution is the leaſt accuſtomed, generally paſs off the ſooneſt; and hence a frequent change of liquors may be attended with advantage. But where a fever attends, inſtead of the fixt alkaline ſalts, the neutral are to be preſcribed, and here the following forms have generally the moſt deſirable effects.

℞ Limatura martis ʒ ij. ad ℥ ſs. rad. ſcbillæ pulv. ʒ i. ſpec. aromat. ʒ ij conſ. abſ. Rom. ℥ i. ſyr. q. ſ. f electar. cujus capt. q. n. m. m. bis terve in die cum hauſt. ſeq.

℞ Sal diuret. ʒ ſs. ad ʒ i. ſs. aq. font. ℥ i. ſs. aq. raph ruſt. ʒ ij. m.

If the ſal diuret. runs off by ſtool it muſt be checked. The bark, joined with iron, ſoap, and rhubarb, ſucceed very well, when accompanied with this neutral ſalt. Diuretics ſometimes fail from a ſpaſm affecting the kidneys; in which caſe give now and then a tea-ſpoonful of oxym. ſcillit. and tinct. fœtid. in the patient's drink; and afterwards, to relieve the pain in the bowels, &c. give magneſia and powdered galangal root.

Dr. Leatherland obſerves, that an *aſcites* is the leaſt apt to return when removed by diuretics.

Hellebore, joined with lixivial ſalts, is powerfully diuretic. The tonic pills of Dr. Bacher are celebrated in dropſies; their operation is purgative and diuretic: hellebore is the chief part in their compoſition, and they are thus prepared.

℞ Extract. hellebor. nigri. myrrhæ ſolutæ, ãã ℥ i. card. bened. pulv. ʒ iij. & ℈ i. m. f. maſſa ære ficco exſiccanda, donec formandis pillulis apta ſit, ſingul. ad gran. ſemiſs.

N. B. The extract is made from the helleborus niger foliis anguſtioribus of Tourneſort, and is obtained thus: bruiſe the roots, cover them with ſpirit of wine, in which ⅛th part of a fixt alkaline ſalt was previouſly mixed; let them ſtand twelve hours, now and then ſtirring them about; pour off this, and add a freſh quantity of ſpirit; treat it as before, then pour on as much Rheniſh wine as will raiſe about ſix inches above the ſurface of the hellebore, and now and then add a little, to keep it to the ſame height for forty-eight hours, after which ſet it over the fire to boil for half an hour, then ſtrain by the aſſiſtance of ſtrong expreſſion: repeat the whole of this proceſs with the remaining root. Mix the liquors obtained at both expreſſions, and add to the whole twice the quantity of boiling water; then evaporate to the conſiſtence of a ſyrup: add to it again about twice the quantity of boiling water, and evaporate as before. Then add about a ninth part of the ſpirit of wine, and evaporate the whole to the conſiſtence of turpentine. Thus the volatile nauſeous and acrid parts are diſſipated, the uſeful active parts being ſtill retained.

The ſolution of the myrrh is made by diſſolving it in water over a gentle fire, ſtraining through a linen cloth, and then evaporating to the conſiſtence of a thin extract.

As to the carduus, the dried leaves gathered before the ſeeds appear, are to be powdered fine.

Theſe pills have been given in different numbers up to thirty for a doſe, taken by ten at a time, and an hour between each portion. As they brace up the ſolids, they are prohibited where inflammation, ſuppuration, or tendency to a gangrene is ſuſpected; but in cold pituitous habits they are greatly to be relied on. Though it hath been generally ſaid that the thirſt of hydropic patients is not to be gratified by a free uſe of liquids, Dr. Bacher orders them without any reſtraint, and aſſerts that the efficacy of his medicine very much depends on the unreſtrained uſe of mild ones. He alſo ſays that, whatever may be the principle of cure, in all dropſical caſes, the patient ſhould drink in proportion to the requirement of his thirſt. This practice of allowing the patient to drink is farther confirmed by the ſucceſs of ſeveral inſtances related in the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii.

The urinary diſcharges are alſo much promoted by opium, in caſes that are attended with much pain, eſpecially when it is ſeated about the kidneys.

The forms of diuretics are numerous, and ſo abound in all practical writers, as to render a long liſt of them unneceſſary here: however, as ſquills are generally uſed in theſe caſes, it may be obſerved that they are moſt diuretic when neither very dry nor very moiſt, and when given in as full doſes as will ſit eaſy on the ſtomach; nitre improves their operation by the kidneys, and may be added in a double proportion to that of the ſquills; and to check the nauſea which they excite, a glaſs of cinnamon water is effectual.

Horſe-radiſh may be eaten freely, and whole muſtard-ſeed may be ſwallowed two or three times a day, to the quantity of a table ſpoonful at a time. And as the vehicle in which diuretics are adminiſtered may leſſen or improve their effects, it may be obſerved that whey is one of the moſt convenient; in want of which an infuſion of juniper berries, or other material of ſimilar quality, may be ſubſtituted; or a decoction of the ſeneka root may be uſed. Diuretics are a very uncertain kind of medicines; and ſo diverſified they are in their effects on different habits, that until trial is made, it will be difficult to fix on any thing: they operate the beſt when the patient is much in the open air.

Sudorifics have ſucceeded, but are very uncertain; of theſe none ſeems to excel the pulv ſudorific. Doctoris Doveri. Their happieſt effects are when ſome relief is already obtained by ſome other means. Dr. Percival gives an inſtance of ſucceſs, in the ſecond vol. of his Eſſays, from rubbing the ſkin every night and morning with dry cloths fumigated with camphor, and giving internally the julep. e camphor. ſo as that a dram of camphor was taken in a day.

A ſalivation raiſed with mercury hath ſucceeded after the failure of all the other uſual means.

When the *aſcites* is attended with an anaſarca, ſcarifications made in the legs may be tried before tapping; but there is no direct method by which the water of an *aſcites* can be expected to be thus diſcharged.

When other methods fail tapping ſhould be tried, it is at leaſt a palliative; and if earlier uſed might be often abſolutely curative. When this operation is performed, the water is drawn off too ſpeedily, by which too much of the vital heat is waſted, and hence the patient ſometimes ſwoons, and ill ſucceſs enſues. Some adviſe this operation as ſoon as there is water enough to make it ſafe and practicable, without waiting for a diſtenſion: Dr. Fothergill adviſes to this purpoſe, ſee Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 114. And though Dr. Hunter is ſomewhat doubtful in this reſpect, his objections rather plead for than againſt. See PARACENTESIS. Dr. Baker too urges an early operation.

For the relief of occaſional ſymptoms, ſee HYDROPS.

The *aſcites* happening to a pregnant woman, palliatives only are to be uſed until her delivery, unleſs danger of ſuffocation from the exceſſive diſtenſion demands it.

When the duplicature of the peritoneum is the ſeat of the *aſcites*, tapping is the alone remedy. See Milman on the Dropſy. Leake's Medical Inſtructions, edit. 5.

ASCITES UTERINUS, i. e. Hydrometra.

ASCITES SANGUINEO-UTERINUS, i. e. Hydrometra.

ASCITICUS. One who labours under an *aſcites*.

ASCLEPIADÆ. The deſcendants of Æſculapius, whoſe name in the Greek is Aſclepius. They kept their knowledge of medicine in their own family until Hippocrates, who was the eighteenth deſcendant of Æſculapius, made it public.

ASCLE-

ASCLEPIADES. A phyſician who was famous in Rome long before Galen's time. Before him the Empiric ſect reigned, but he introduced a new mode. He had practiſed as a barriſter at law; but obſerving that the phyſicians got money faſter than he, and being well ſkilled in the weakneſs of mankind, he exploded all other practice, and introduced ſomething different from all of them, with a view to none being thought well of but himſelf.

Cœlius Aurelianus gives a good account of Aſclepiades as a philoſopher and a phyſician, an abſtract of which ſee in Dr. James's Med. Dict. article ASCLEPIADES. Atoms were the principle of his philoſophy: frictions, wine, and exerciſe, formed his practice; but his atoms were what we call particles, which are compounded of atoms. It was this Aſclepiades who firſt ſpread about the notion of medicine being only a conjectural art.

ASCLEPIAS, called alſo hirundinaria, vincetoxicum, tame poiſon, ſilken cicely, and white ſwallow-wort.

This plant hath unbranched ſtalks, ſmooth leaves ſet in pairs, and cluſters of monopetalous flowers, followed by two long pods full of a white cottony matter, with ſmall brownish ſeeds. The root is large, compoſed of many ſlender ſtrings hanging from a tranſverſe head, brown externally, and white internally. It is perennial, grows wild in gravelly places, and flowers in July. It is reckoned a ſpecies of apocynum, or dog's-bane; but it is diſtinguiſhed from all the other ſpecies by its affording a limpid juice, that of all the reſt being milky.

The root when freſh gathered, ſmells like valerian root, but loſes its odour by drying: chewed it is ſweetiſh at the firſt, then bitteriſh. In doſes from ℈ i. to ʒ i. it is ſudorific and diuretic; in the firſt characters it hath been ſo commonly uſed by the Germans as to have obtained the name of contrayerva Germanorum.

ASCLEPIOS. The name of a dried ſmegma deſcribed by P. Ægineta; of a troche in the writings of Aetius; and a collyrium in Galen.

ASCLITES, i. e. Aſcites.

ASCOMA, from *ασκος, a bottle.* The eminence of the pubes at the years of maturity.

ASCOS, from *ασκυτος, leather.* A bottle. They were formerly all made of *leather*, and Hippocrates uſed to apply them when filled with hot water to pained parts.

ASCYROIDES, Aſcyros, Aſcyrum, Aſcyrus, i. e. Androſæmum.

ASDENIGI. The blood-ſtone.

ASE, or Aſſe. Hippocrates by theſe words means a loathing of food from a conflux of humours in the ſtomach.

ASEB. Alum.

ASEDENIGI. The blood ſtone.

ASEF, i. e. Hydroa.

ASEGEN. Dragon's blood.

ASELLI, alſo called millepedes, centipedes, ſlaters, hog-lice, church-bugs, ſow-bugs, and wood-lice.

Theſe are inſects, according to Linnæus, of the claſs aptera, and genus oniſcus. This genus diſtinguiſhes thoſe inſects that are without wings, have fourteen feet, are ſetaceous, have bent antennæ, a mouth furniſhed with two palpi, the head intimately joined to the thorax, and an oval body. It comprehendeth fifteen ſpecies. One ſpecies is the *wood-louſe*, and the variety which is of a bluiſh colour, and, if touched, rolls itſelf up into the form of a pill, is the ſort that is generally ordered in medicine: they are found under ſtones and logs of wood, in cold moiſt places. There are different ſpecies, but the pale brown and the blueiſh black ſorts are indiſcriminately uſed. Thoſe found in vaults are ſaid to contain the moſt ſalts, and ſo are the moſt eſteemed.

The London college directs them to be dried by ſuſpending them in a thin canvas bag, placed within a covered veſſel and over the ſteam of hot ſpirit of wine, in which they ſoon die and become friable.

Vinum Millepedatum.

℞ *Milleped.* viv. ʒ ij. contund. & digere in vin. Rhen. ℔ i.

Millepedes are reckoned diuretic, but the effects uſually attributed to them are doubtful.

ASELIUS (CASPAR.) This anatomiſt was born at Cremona, and was profeſſor of Pavia. He is one of the firſt among the moderns who noticed the lacteal veſſels in the meſentery: he modeſtly declines the honour of the diſcovery, becauſe he ſays they were known to Hippocrates, Eraſiſtratus, and Galen. He firſt noticed theſe in 1622, and publiſhed his obſervations on them in 1627.

ASELLUS MAJOR. The cod-fiſh; it is called alſo merluccius, cabeliau, morhua, molva, and the keeling. It is a ſea-fiſh, and ſhould be choſen by its whiteneſs. It is very nouriſhing.

ASELLUS MOLLIS, vel MINOR. The whiting.

ASELLUS MARINUS. See MERLANGIUS.

ASEMOS, from *α, neg.* and *σημα, a ſign.* An epithet applied to events that fall out contrary to all appearance, and without any manifeſt cauſe. A criſis happening beyond hope.

ASEPH. Plumous alum.

ASEPTA, from *α, neg.* and *σηπω, to putrify.* Unputrified; but Hippocrates uſed this word to ſignify unconcocted or undigeſted.

ASIATIC. (BALS.) The balm of Gilead.

ASIGI. Verdigriſe.

ASILUS. The name of a ſort of beetle.

ASILUS, called alſo tabe, tabanus, and the gad-fly. It is an oblong ſlender fly, of a blackiſh colour; its body is ſhaped like an hunting-horn, and is ſharp pointed: this fly is troubleſome to horſes, &c.

ASIMION. An ingredient mentioned by Myrepſus, but not known.

ASINGAR. Verdigriſe.

ASINUS. The aſs. Its milk is in much eſteem as a medicine. See LAC.

ASIO. The horn-owl.

ASIRACUS. A ſpecies of graſshopper.

ASITI } Thoſe are ſo called who take no food for
ASITIA. } want of an appetite.

ASIUS (LAPIS.) See ASSIUS.

ASJOGAM. A tree growing in Malabar and the Eaſt Indies, whoſe juice is uſed againſt the colic. Raii Hiſt.

ASMAGA. A mixing of certain metals.

ASMIAR. Verdigriſe.

ASODES. See ASSODES.

ASOPER. Soot.

ASPADIALIS (*Iſchuria*). A ſuppreſſion of urine from the urethra being imperforated.

ASPALATHUM, called alſo agallochum. Calambac wood. It is brought from the Eaſt Indies, it is of a bituminous and fatty kind, or reſinous, and of a bitter taſte. It is ſold very often for the agallochum, being of ſimilar virtues, but weaker.

ASPALATHUS, called alſo lignum Rhodium, lignum roſæ odoræ, lign. thuris, eryſiſceptrum, radix Rhodina, Rhodium, or roſe-wood.

Roſe-wood is the root, or the wood of a thorny ſhrub, but of which we have no certain account. It is brought from the Canary iſlands in long crooked pieces, externally of a whitiſh colour, internally of a deep yellow with a reddiſh caſt. The heavieſt and the deepeſt coloured is the beſt.

When rubbed or ſcraped it ſmells like roſes. To ſpirit of wine it gives out all its virtue, but this tincture ſends nothing off by diſtillation except the ſpirit, hardly affected with the ſmell or taſte of the wood; water alſo extracts its virtues, and carries them with it in diſtillation; this diſtilled water reſembles that from damaſk roſes. Fifty pounds weight of good wood afford one pound of eſſential oil, which is uſed as a perfume; it is weaker than the oil of roſes, but of the ſame odour.

An agreeable cordial tincture is made by macerating ʒ iv. of this wood with a pint of rectified ſpirit of wine, from ten droops to a tea-ſpoonful is a doſe.

ASPALTUM, i. e. Aſphaltum.

ASPARAGI. The young ſhoots of vegetables.

ASPARAGODES. Curled colewort.

ASPARAGUS, called alſo aſpharagus, ſparagus, ſperage, and ſparrow-graſs.

It is a perenial plant, chiefly uſed as aliment; in the ſpring a number of ſhoots appear, they riſe to the height of two or three feet, then divide into ſlender firm ſpreading branches, clothed with ſoft green capillary leaves, the flowers are of a pale green colour, and ſucceeded by ſhining red berries. It grows wild in Cornwall and ſome other parts of England.

Though

Though confined to the kitchen, it affords very little nouriſhment, the young ſhoots only are eaten; a decoction of the roots is diuretic, a ſtrong infuſion of them is preferred by ſome.

ASPARAGUS. See Cyma.

ASPARINE. See Aparine.

ASPASIA. The name of a conſtrictive medicine for the pudenda muliebria, conſiſting of wool moiſtened with an infuſion of galls.

ASPER. A ſmall river-fiſh found in the Rhone. It is ſo named from the roughneſs of its ſcales and jaws. It is good food.

The oil of *aſper* is commonly enquired for as a means of catching fiſh with eaſe and certainty. It is probably the oil of oſpray which is meant, for there is a fable, that the bird ſo called, as it flies, drops ſomething on the ſurface of the water, by which the fiſh is allured; hence the oil of the bird is ſuppoſed to have the ſame effect; but as there is no ſuch oil, the oil of box, or any other ſuch like, is ſold for it.

ASPERA. A ſpecies of polypodium.

ASPERA. So called from the inequality made by the cartilages of it.

ASPERA ARTERIA. The wind-pipe, called alſo trachea arteria. It paſſes down from behind the tongue into the lungs, is ſituated before the œſophagus, and ſurrounded, laterally and before, by the thyroid gland. It enters the cavity of the thorax behind the upper part of the ſternum, where it is croſſed by the large veſſels which run up to the head. At about the fourth vertebra of the back it divides into two branches, that which goes to the right lung is divided into three branches, the other which goes into the left is divided into two; theſe branches are called bronchiæ, and at their extremities are expanded into oblong veſſels, after having loſt their cartilaginous nature, and are called veſiculæ Malpighianæ. It is cartilaginous forward, and membraneous backward. See Laryx.

When any ſmall ſubſtance falls into the trachea, it occaſions much uneaſineſs until it is thrown up. To aſſiſt its diſcharge, Aetius commends ſternutatories; ſome commend expectorants and emetics, which may alſo be ſafely uſed, but to excite a cough, as ſome adviſe, is too hazardous.

ASPERATA. See Asperum.

ASPERATUM SPECILLUM. The raſp-like probe, the ſame as blepharoxyſtum.

ASPERELLA, i. e. Aſprella.

ASPERGINES. The ſame as aſperſio.

ASPERGULA, i. e. Aſperula.

ASPERIFOLIUS, of *aſper*, *rough*, and *folium*, *a leaf*. An epithet for ſuch plants as are rough leafed, having their leaves placed alternately, or without any certain order on their ſtalks. They have monopetalous flowers, cut or divided into five, and after each flower there commonly follow four ſeeds.

ASPERITAS. Roughneſs, aſperity, ſharpneſs.

ASPERSIO. To ſprinkle. Medicines adminiſtered this way were called by the Greeks ſympaſmata, and by the Latins aſpergines.

ASPERUGO. See Asperula.

ASPERULA, called alſo aſpergula, hepatica, ſtellaris, ſtellata, matriſylva Germanica, rubeola montana odora, aparine, woodrow, and woodroof. Aſperula odorata, Linn.

It is a low umbelliferous plant, grows wild in woods and copſes; it flowers in May, hath an agreeable odour, which is much improved by moderate drying; the taſte is a little auſtere. It imparts its flavour to vinous liquors, and is commended as a cordial and deobſtruent.

ASPERULA. Squinancy wort.

ASPERUM. Rough. An epithet applied to bodies with uneven ſurfaces. Galen obſerves that every *rough* body is uneven, but every uneven body is not *rough*; and that roughneſs is occaſioned by too great dryneſs, or from acrimony.

ASPHALATHUS. A ſpecies of laburnum, called trefoil acacia.

ASPHALITIS. A kind of trefoil. Alſo a name of the laſt vertebra of the loins.

ASPHALTOS. It is a ſpecies of bitumen.

ASPHALTUM, i. e. Bitumen.

ASPHARAGUS. Sparrow-graſs.

ASPHENDAMNOS. The mountain maple.

ASPHODELUS. The aſphodel.

Ray takes notice of five ſpecies, three of which are but a baſtard kind; the others are the

ASPHODELUS ALBUS. White aſphodel. And

ASPHODELUS LUTEUS, alſo called haſta regia, Bernhardi teſticulus, anthericum, affodilus, iphion, erizambæ, king's ſpear, and yellow aſphodel.

The *aſphodel* roots reſemble an acorn, are acrid, heating, diuretic, &c. The leaves are like thoſe of a leek, the ſtalk is ſmooth, bearing on its top a flower called Antherico, which ſee.

Theſe plants are natives of Italy, France, and other warm parts of Europe. The freſh roots are commended in the form of a cataplaſm, to be applied to ſcrophulous ſwellings.

ASPHODELUS FOLIIS FISTULOSIS. A ſpecies of phalangium.

ASPHYXIA, from *α neg.* and *σφυξις*, *a pulſe*, from *σφυζω*, to leap or beat like an artery. A privation of the pulſe. Though this cannot be abſolutely the caſe, whilſt a perſon lives, yet to our perception it may. It is by a long failure of vital and animal power; as from drowning, mephitiſm, &c. Moſt inſtances of *aſphyxy* are varieties of apoplexy; the reſt are inſtances of ſyncope, for the moſt part, if not all. See Lipothymia and Apoplexia.

ASPHYXIA a CARBONE. i. e. Apoplexia venenata.

ASPHYXIA CONGELATORUM. i. e. Apoplexia venenata.

ASPHYXIA FLATULENTA. When this complaint can be diſtinguiſhed by its external ſymptoms, Dr. Cullen ranks it in the genus apoplexy.

ASPHYXIA FORICARIORUM. i. e. Apoplexia Venenata.

ASPHYXIA a FUMIS. i. e. Apoplexia venenata.

ASPHYXIA IMMERSORUM. i. e. Apoplexia ſuffocata.

ASPHYXIA MEPHITIDE. i. e. Apoplexia venenata.

ASPHYXIA a MUSTO. i. e Apoplexia venenata.

ASPHYXIA a PATHEMATE. i. e. Apoplexia mentalis.

ASPHYXIA SIDERATORUM. i. e. Apoplexia venenata.

ASPHYXIA SPINALIS. i. e. Apoplexia ſanguinea.

ASPHYXIA SUSPENSORUM. i. e. Apoplexia Suffocata.

ASPIC. Broad leaved lavender. See Lavandula.

ASPIDION. A diminutive of *ασπις*, *a buckler*. A name of the alyſſon of Dioſcorides, becauſe it hath ſmall round pods reſembling a buckler.

ASPIDISCOS, from *ασπις*, *a buckler*. By metaphor it was applied to the ſphincter muſcle of the anus, as we are informed by Cœlius Aurelianus.

ASPIS. The aſp. A venomous kind of ſerpent, of which Galen reckons up three ſpecies. Paulus Ægineta, in lib. v. and cap. xviii. ſays, that amputation is the only remedy when a limb is bit; and to cut away the fleſh to the bone if the bite is where amputation cannot be performed.

ASPLENIUM, alſo called ſplenium, ſcolopendrium, ceterach, milt-waſte, and ſpleen-wort. It is the aſplenium ceterach, or aſplenium frondibus pinnati fidis lobis alternis confluentibus, Linn. Spleenwort.

This is a ſmall buſhy plant, growing on fiſſures of rocks and on old walls; it conſiſts of capillary blackiſh roots, long narrow leaves, cut down to the rib on each ſide alternately, into a number of oblong, obtuſe, narrow ſections, with broad baſes. It hath no ſtalk or flower; the ſeeds are a yellow powder, produced on the backs of the leaves.

The leaves are ſimilar to maiden-hair, as a pectoral; they are diuretic, and uſed by way of infuſion, they clear away fabulous matter from the urinary paſſage.

ASPREDO. The ruff. A fiſh that is found in many large rivers.

ASPRELLA, i. e. Equiſetum majus.

ASPRIS MAURORUM. The holm oak with great acorns. See Ægylops.

ASPRITUDO. The ſame as aſperum.

ASPRUM, i. e. Aſperum.

ASSAC, i. e. Gum ammoniacum.

ASSA FŒTIDA, i. e. Aſa fœtida.

ASSALA. A nutmeg.

ASSALIÆ. Worms that breed among planks. They are alſo called coſſi, teredones, termes, thripes, and xylophagi.

ASSANEGI. The powder that falls off from the walls of ſalt in the ſalt mines.

ASSANUS. A weight conſiſting of two drams.

ASSARABACCA, i. e. Aſarum.

ASSARE. In the ſpagirical language it is to dry a thing ſo as to fit it for powdering.

ASSARIUM, i. e. As.

ASSATIO, Aſſation, from *aſſo, to roaſt with fire.* Frying, toaſting, broiling, and roaſting, are different ſpecies of *aſſation.*

ASSATURA. A piece of any thing juſt removed from the fire after roaſting.

ASSE. See Ase.

ASSERAC, i. e. Aſſis.

ASSERVATIO. In pharmacy it is the ſame as conſervatio, or the repoſiting things ready for uſe.

ASSIDENS SIGNUM. An aſſident ſign, that is, ſuch an one as uſually accompanies a diſeaſe; but is not as the pathognomonic, inſeparable from it.

ASSIDUUS. Some uſe this word inſtead of continuus, ſo ſay *aſſiduus* febris, inſtead of continua febris.

ASSIMULO, to aſſimilate, from *ad* and *ſimilis, to make like to*; as when what we eat is converted into our fleſh. *Aſſimilation*, when ſpoken of our aliment, differs in name only from nutrition.

ASSIS. The Ægyptian name for bangue.

ASSISTENTES. i. e. Paraſtatæ.

ASSITRA. See Mandaru.

ASSIUS LAPIS, called alſo aſius lapis, ſarcophagum, and Aſſian ſtones. Theſe ſtones receive their name from Aſſos, a city of Troas, in the Leſſer Aſia, where they are found. It is of a tophous, ſoft, friable, and looſe ſubſtance, with a powdery matter growing on it like meal, ſuch as is ſeen on the walls of mills; it is called the flour of the Aſſian rock. This flour conſumes looſe ſpongy fleſh; the ſtone poſſeſſeth the ſame virtue in a leſs degree.

ASSODES. A continual fever, in which the outward parts are moderately warm, but inwardly there is great heat, an inſatiable thirſt, perpetual toſſing, watching and raving. Some call it a kind of tertian fever.

ASSOS. Alum.

ASTACUS, or aſtacus marinus. The lobſter. Lobſter is one of the firſt among the foods that are alcaleſcent, and poſſeſſes all the advantages as ſuch, that are attributed to the crab. See Cancer.

ASTACUS FLUVIATILIS. The crevis or cray-fiſh. Theſe are found in rivers; are of the ſame general nature as crabs and lobſters. They afford the concretes called crabs eyes. See Oculi Cancrorum.

ASTAPHIS. A raiſin.

ASTARZOF. The name of an ointment, and alſo of a mixture, which were uſed by Paracelſus. The firſt conſiſted of litharge, houſe-leek juice, &c. The ſecond, of camphor and roſe-water.

ASTCHACHILOS. So Paracelſus names a malignant gangrenous ulcer, which ſpreads from the feet upwards. Some call it araneus.

ASTER. Star-wort. See Inguinalis.

ASTER ANNUUS RAMOSUS ALBUS LATIFOLIUS CANADENSIS. A ſpecies of leucanthemum.

ASTERARVENSIS CŒRULEUS ACRIS. Blue flea-bane. See Senecio.

ASTER ATTICUS. A name of eryngo, and of the golden ſtar-wort.

ASTER MARITIMUS, i. e. Tripolium.

ASTER OMNIUM MAXIMUS, i. e. Enula.

ASTER PALUSTRIS. Boerhaave makes this a ſpecies of flea-bane. See Jacobæa.

ASTER PALUSTRIS PARVO FLORE GLOBOSO. Small flea-bane. See Conyza.

ASTER PERUANUS. Potatoes.

ASTER PRATENSIS AUTUMNALIS CONIZÆ FOLIO. Common flea-bane.

ASTERES THALATTII, i. e. Stella marina.

ASTERIA, called alſo gemina ſolis, baſtard opal, and ſtar gem, which laſt name it receives from its ſparkling like a ſtar. It is generally ſaid to be a ſpecies of opal; it is tranſparent like cryſtal, but much harder. It is a name alſo of the oculus cati.

ASTERIA GEMMA, i. e. Aſteria.

ASTERIAS, i. e. Aſtroites.

ASTERIAS. The bird called a bittern.

ASTERISCUS. Purple or golden ſtart-wort.

ASTEROIDES. Baſtard ſtar-wort.

ASTHENIA. Extreme debility.

ASTHENIA a HYDROCEPHALO. Apoplexia hydrocephalica.

ASTHMA, from *αω*, or *αημι, to breathe.* A chronic, laborious, wheezing reſpiration. Galen ſays, that the Greeks gave this name to a quick reſpiration, ſuch as happens to people who run, &c. The word now is applied to a diſorder, the chief ſymptoms of which is a difficult or ſhort breathing; or a laborious wheezing reſpiration, with a ſenſe of ſtraitneſs in the breaſt.

This diſorder is of two kinds, viz. the humoral, the pituitous, or moiſt; and the ſpaſmodic, dry, nervous, or convulſive. There are alſo three degrees of ſhort breathing, firſt, a dyſpnœa, from *δυς difficult*, and *πνεω, to breathe*, a difficulty of breathing, (ſee Dyspnoea), which in a yet greater degree is; ſecondly, *aſthma*, which in a yet greater degree is called orthopnœa, from *ορθος, ſtraight* or *erect*, and *πνεω, to breathe*: for in this caſe the patient cannot breathe but in an erect poſture, alſo with a violent motion of his breaſt and ſhoulders.

Dr. Cullen ranks this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſis, and the order ſpaſmi; beſides, the inſtances in which it is ſymptomatic, he obſerves three ſpecies, 1. *Aſthma* ſpontaneum; when there is no manifeſt cauſe, or any other diſeaſe attending. 2. *Aſthma* exanthamaticum; as when ſome acrid humour is repelled from the ſurface of the body. 3. *Aſthma* plethoricum; when any accuſtomed evacuation of blood ceaſes, or when, from any other cauſe, the veſſels are too full.

Thoſe of a ſanguine habit, with ſmall veſſels, and with ſtrait cheſts, are the moſt ſubject to this diſeaſe; it may come on at any age, but generally its approach is after the prime of life.

The cauſes of the *aſthma* are conciſely enumerated by Dr. Dover, who ſays they are inflammation, convulſions, or plenitude. When ſymptomatical, any diſtemper that affects the breaſt or lungs may be the cauſe; but when it is an original diſeaſe, ſome defect in the lungs, or other parts ſubſervient to reſpiration, is a principal one. The lungs may be preternaturally large; an œdema, alſo an emphyſema in this viſcus, may produce this diſorder; a redundancy of blood; the vital heat too copiouſly determined to the lungs, from a check to perſpiration; a defect of the vital fire in the lungs; a diminiſhed perſpiration is the moſt frequent cauſe in England, from the neglect of changing the cloaths with the ſeaſons; the nervous kind is produced by a preternatural irritability of the lungs, acrid defluxions, mineral and other ſubtil exhalations, or a ſpaſmodic ſtricture of the diaphragm alone may be the cauſe: cold north winds occaſion this kind of *aſthma* in ſome conſtitutions, and not unfrequently its riſe is from a ſubtil acrid matter about the nervous parts of the præcordia, which generally is ſent there by an imprudent repulſion of the morbid matter of exanthematous diſorders, the drying up of iſſues, or old ulcers, &c.

Dr. Cullen ſays, that the *aſthma* depends alone upon a particular conſtitution of the lungs: that the proximate cauſe is a preternatural, and, in ſome meaſure, a ſpaſmodic, conſtriction of the muſcular fibres of the bronchiæ, which not only prevents the dilatation of the bronchiæ, neceſſary to a free and full inſpiration, but gives alſo a rigidity which prevents a full and free expiration. He adds, this preternatural conſtriction, like many other convulſive and ſpaſmodic affections, is readily excited by a turgeſcence of the blood, or other cauſe of any unuſual fulneſs and diſtenſion of the veſſels of the lungs.

In the diagnoſtics of the humoral and nervous kinds of *aſthma*, the diſcharge of phlegm in the firſt, and the freedom of all apparent diſorder after the fit of coughing ceaſes, in the latter, being the principal difference, Ara-

ræus's deſcription may ſuffice for both: he ſays, "the patient is ſeized with an oppreſſion of the breaſt, a liſtleſſneſs on uſing any kind of exerciſe, the breathing is difficult and laborious, he becomes hoarſe and coughs, is troubled with flatulencies of the præcordia, and racked with uneaſy eructations; he is ſubject to watchings, and in the night time is very little, and almoſt imperceptibly hot, his noſtrils alſo become too much contracted for a free and eaſy reſpiration. If the diſorder is degenerating, and becoming more formidable, the cheeks grow red, the eyes prominent, like thoſe of ſtrangled perſons, he ſnores whilſt awake, but much more when aſleep, his voice is indiſtinct, languid, and faint; he is fond of a free and cold air, and loves to walk in the open fields, becauſe a houſe is a ſcene too narrow and confined for his breathing with the freedom he wiſhes. He breathes in an erect poſture, and is eager to attract all the air he can, for this purpoſe he opens his mouth wide, and ſeems diſconcerted becauſe it is too ſmall for his purpoſe. His face, except the cheeks, which are red, becomes pale, a ſweat breaks out about his forehead and neck, he is racked with a ſharp and continual cough, and expectorates a ſmall quantity of thin, cold, and as it were frothy matter. In reſpiration his neck becomes tumid, and there is a retraction of the præcordia. His pulſe is ſmall, frequent, and depreſſed: his legs becomes ſmall and ſlender; if theſe ſymptoms ſhould happen to be increaſed, they ſometimes ſuffocate the patient, in the ſame manner that an epilepſy does; but if they are alleviated and leſſened, the cough becomes leſs frequent, and returns at longer intervals; a large quantity of ſanious and moiſt ſpit is expectorated, copious and aqueous ſtools are diſcharged, and the urine is evacuated in large quantities, though nothing as yet ſubſides in it. His voice becomes more ſonorous and clear, his ſleep longer and ſufficient for the ſupport of nature, his precordia are relaxed and rendered eaſy, and his pain, upon its remiſſion, is ſometimes tranſlated to the ſcapulæ; breathes at longer intervals, and more eaſy, though with a certain roughneſs." To this may be added, that as the paroxyſm abates, the urine is higher coloured and lets fall a ſediment; and under this diſtemper different ſymptoms may appear as conſtitutions vary, but generally a coſtiveneſs attends. In many perſons there are œdematous ſwellings of the feet, hands, face, or back; a torpor ſeizes the arms, leaden coloured ſpots are ſeen in the face, there is alſo ſometimes a ſlight anomalous fever, which increaſes a little in the evening; this train of ſymptoms leads on to one ſpecies or other of dropſy, or perhaps ends in a palſy of ſome part, or of one ſide. In the pituitous *aſthma*, the patient is ſeldom free, though at ſome times much better than at others; eaſterly winds bring on or aggravate this diſorder, occaſioning a large expectoration of phlegm.

Though the humoral *aſthma* is ſo ſimilar to the baſtard peripneumony, that they are generally conſidered as one and the ſame, yet the convulſive, or dry *aſthma*, muſt be diſtinguiſhed from it, and from the moiſt *aſthma* too. The dry *aſthma* muſt be diſtinguiſhed from the convulſive ſuffocation of hyſteric patients, and from a ſuffocative catarrh.

When this diſorder is recent, and produced by gouty matter, and ſuch like, there may be ſome hopes of a laſting recovery; otherwiſe it is rarely if ever cured. An eruption of the menſes, or of the hæmorrhoids, during a paroxyſm, alleviates it much; improper management cauſes an *aſthma* more readily to end in a dropſy; convulſive *aſthmas* greatly endanger the life at every return, yet ſeldom proves fatal. If frequent and long continued, if the patient eſcapes with his life, a dropſy is the reſult, which is the deſtruction of the patient. If a ſlow fever comes on, an uneqal intermittent pulſe, a palſy of the arms, a continual palpitation of the heart, a preternatural ſmall diſcharge by urine, or a ſyncope, death is at hand. An *aſthma* coming on old people, it uſually attends them to the grave.

The indications of cure will be to drive the humours to the exterior and inferior parts, to procure a due and equable circulation of them, and to remove the ſeveral cauſes which ſupport the diſorder, by medicines adapted to their reſpective natures: the two firſt are to be anſwered during the paroxyſm, the latter in the intervals between them. In the convulſive *aſthma*, the care will be to alleviate the ſpaſmodic ſtrictures of the breaſt, and parts ſubſervient to reſpiration.

The diet ſhould be light: ſweet things, and ſuch as are flatulent, muſt be avoided: old Rhenith wine mixed with Seltzer water, or with a pure light common water, is uſeful: muſtard whey is an excellent common drink in the pituitous *aſthma*, ſo is an infuſion of hyſſop, groundivy, daiſy flowers, or of Paul's betony, ſweetened with liquorice. Exerciſe ſhould be moderate, but regular and daily, the feet ſhould be kept warm, and perſpiration aſſiſted with a flannel ſhirt.

With reſpect to the air which theſe patients breathe, it ſhould be obſerved, that ſome are eaſy only in a dry ſerene one in the country, and others are ſo only in the moiſt vapid air of great towns; with one a light, and with another a heavy atmoſphere, does the beſt. In order to a due exerciſe of the lungs, a proper quantity of the vital heat muſt be determined there, which ſhould be diſcharged with the vapours in expiration, whatever then deſtines more of this heat to this viſcus than can be eaſily diſcharged, will produce an *aſthma*, and alſo require a moiſt or foggy air to breathe in, for thus the ſuperfluous heat will be conveyed from the lungs. On the other hand, in ſuch conſtitutions as do not ſupply the lungs with the needful quantity of vital heat, a dry open ſerene air, on lands that are high, and where the ſun abides from early through the day, is neceſſary, for thus an eſcape of the already diminiſhed heat is prevented. Having diſtinguiſhed to which of theſe two claſſes any particular patient belongs, and ſeated him in the proper air, if he is of the firſt ſort proceed with bleeding, a thin, cooling, and diluting diet, give frequent ſmall doſes of nitre, and at proper intervals, let purges with Glauber's ſalt be worked off with plenty of warm but very thin gruel; bathing in ſubtepid baths, and bliſters, will alſo be of uſe: but if of the ſecond, the right air being choſen, order a nutritive animal diet, with generous liquors for common drink, let ferrugineous medicines, with the bark, bitters, gum Benjamin, gum ammoniacum, the warm balſams, as thoſe of Tolu and Peru, be duly uſed.

In both the above caſes, the natural perſpiration ſhould be carefully ſupported, and as a check thereto is the moſt frequent cauſe of *aſthmas* in this country, a particular regard ſhould always be had unto it.

Periodical *aſthmas* give way to the bark, aſſiſted with ſuch other means as peculiar circumſtances may require.

The nervous *aſthma* admits of bleeding only where there is a ſanguine plethora; in other caſes, antiſpaſmodics, warm nervous medicines, opiates, and the bark, are the principal means of relief; caſtor elix. paregoric. ſal C. C. with aſſa fœtida, and gum ammoniacum; and if they fail, try the bark and opium.

A ſmall degree of anaſarca is often attended with a greater difficulty of breathing than a confirmed aſcites, ſo when a ſudden *aſthmatic* fit is obſerved, without any viſible cauſe, if there is the leaſt fulneſs of the face (which indeed is only to be ſeen in ſome inſtances after laying down) or any appearance of an œdema in the ancles or feet, the cauſe is undoubtedly the ſame in the lungs; and that this is the caſe will be further confirmed by the pulſe being ſuppreſſed: as the ſpeedieſt relief, give immediately of merc. dulc. gr. x. by which, as ſoon as it operates, the pulſe and the breaſt will be relieved: this doſe may be repeated after a few days.

Vomits are uſually adminiſtered too ſoon in *aſthmas*: expectoration ſhould be rendered ſomewhat free, and then they may be given with more ſafety and greater advantage; the oxym. ſcillit. and tart. emet. are eſteemed the beſt, but Dr. Akenſide prefers, and with ſome reaſon, the ipecacuhana, which, whether in the humoral or ſpaſmodic kinds, he always uſes as ſpeedily in the fit as attending circumſtances will admit, and experiences the ſpeedieſt relief by it; when he preſcribes the ipecac. in chronical caſes, he gives from three to five grains every, or from five to fifteen grains every other morning, according to the degree of the diſeaſe, and without regard to any particular paroxyſm, and thus continued it for three, four, or ſix weeks; he ſays it is as uſeful when it only excites a nauſea, as when it pukes; whence it ſeems, that in the relaxing quality, its virtue conſiſts, as uſed in theſe caſes. When the ſpaſmodic attends the humoral *aſthma*, he preſcribes the

the ipecacuhana, with all deſirable ſucceſs. See Lond. Med. Tranſact. vol. i. Dr. Cullen remarks, that as flatulency in the ſtomach, and other ſymptoms of indigeſtion, are frequent attendants of *aſthma*, and very troubleſome to *aſthmatics*, ſo, both for removing theſe ſymptoms, and for taking off all determination to the lungs, the frequent uſe of gentle vomits is proper in this diſeaſe. In certain caſes where a fit was expected to come on in the courſe of the night, a vomit given in the evening has frequently ſeemed to prevent it.

Diuretics are particularly uſeful in an *aſthma* attended with a cachexy, two parts of nitre, and one of ſal ammoniac, given every, or every other day, ſo as to paſs freely by urine, is very beneficial; but if theſe ſalts are obſerved to irritate the cough, the rad. ſcillæ gr. iv. ad xii. may be preferred.

Expectorants, in the moiſt *aſthma*, are important aids. Garlic is celebrated, the ſquills and gum ammoniacum are moſt commonly uſed; but perhaps an extract of tobacco might be ſo managed as to exceed any of the medicines now in uſe for this end; for thoſe who are not uſed to chew tobacco, are very ſpeedily relieved by holding it in their mouth until a ſickneſs come on, and then going into bed to ſweat; a few repetitions of this hath totally freed the patient from a preſent paroxyſm.

One of the beſt general forms of expectorants is the following:

℞ Gum. aſſa fœtid. gum ammoniac. āā. ʒ i. ſs. Aq. pur. ℥ ix. m. detur. cochl. larg. freq.

To this mixture may be added as required, the elix. pareg the oxym. ſcillit. or ſyr. allii.

Diaphoretics are always ſo far needful, as that the natural perſpiration ſhould be ſupported; but when the *aſthma* is produced by acrid matter, &c. repelled from the ſkin, they are abſolutely neceſſary, being then principally to be depended on: powders, with nitre and pulv. contrayerv. with two or three grains of camphor in each doſe. The ſp. febrif. Di. Clutton is excellent for this purpoſe, and frequent draughts of warm elder-flower tea may accompany them.

Purges ſhould not be of the rougher kind, but manna with caſſia, joined to ſmall doſes of the tart. emet. or if the genuine can be obtained, the ol. Ricini, given in a warm vehicle, is the beſt.

Opiates, when admitted in the humoral *aſthma*, ſhould be accompanied with expectorants, the elix. paregoric, and the pil. e ſtyrace, are excellent; or if the tinct. thebaic. is ventured on, it ſhould be mixed with the ox. ſcillit. In the ſpaſmodic *aſthma*, the tinct. thebaic. hath been found neceſſary even to a hundred drops, in a few hours; but in all ſpaſmodic complaints, opiates, mixed with purgatives, in ſuch quantities as to keep the bowels lax, is the beſt method of adminiſtering them.

Bleeding. The pulſe and heat of the body will generally beſt determine when to uſe or to omit this operation, but as ſometimes the maxim is, of two evils the leaſt is to be choſen. When a ſudden fit is produced by an eaſterly wind, if it is violent, bleeding, though on other accounts not adviſeable, may, notwithſtanding, be neceſſary; in ſuch inſtances judgment and ſagacity will be put to the trial.

Iſſues ſhould be made in the inſide of the thigh, juſt under the gartering place, for there their diſcharge is uſually greater than in the back, and their trouble far leſs; their uſe is equal, be the kind of *aſthma* what it will.

Bliſters on the back are an excellent aid during the fit, in caſes of humoral *aſthma*, and to prevent returns, keep them open as long as poſſible. In the ſpaſmodic or true *aſthma*, iſſues and bliſters are of leſs efficacy.

Variety of forms are to be ſeen, which are well adapted to the diſorder in general, and the ſymptoms in particular, in Dr. Smith's Formulæ Medicamentorum, and in Dr. Brookes's and the London Practice of Phyſic.

Dr. Percival obſerves, that in Derbyſhire, when the miners or ſmelters of lead find themſelves affected with the *aſthma*, they uſually leave their occupation for a few days, and work at the lime-kilns, experience having taught them that the fixed air ariſing from the calcination of lime-ſtones, is an effectual and ſpeedy remedy in this diſorder.

The *aſthma*, in ſome inſtances, ends in a partial palſy; in other, in ſome ſpecies of dropſy; ſometimes, though not often, the patient is ſuddenly ſuffocated; this accident, when it happens, hath for its cauſe, a polypus in the lungs; and inſtances have occurred of its ending in an inflammation of the lungs.

See Sir John Floyer on the *aſthma*; Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic; Hoffman and Pitcairn on the *aſthma*; Cullen's firſt lines, vol. iii.

ASTHMA CATARRHALE, i. e. Dyſpnœa catarrhalis.

ASTHMA a GIBBO, i. e. Dyſpnœa Thoracica.

ASTHMA INFANTUM SPASMODICUM, i. e. Suffocatio Stridula.

ASTHMA METALLICUM, i. e. Dyſpnœa extrinſeca.

ASTHMA NOCTURNUM, i. e. Incubus.

ASTHMA PITUITOSUM, i. e. Dyſpnœa catarrhalis.

ASTHMA PNEUMODES, i. e. Dyſpnœa catarrhalis.

ASTHMA PNEMONICUM, i. e. Dyſpnœa catarrhalis.

ASTHMA PULVERULENTORUM, i. e. Dyſpnœa extrinſeca.

ASTITES GLANDULOSI, i. e. Paraſtatæ.

ASTRACIDES. Pine kernels.

ASTRAGALOIDES. The name of ſome ſpecies of orobus; alſo of the baſtard milk-vetch.

ASTRAGALUS, alſo called the ſling-bone, balliſtæ os. The talus, or firſt bone of the foot, ſo named from its being uſed in ancient ſports, or ſomething of that ſhape called cockal; in like manner with our dice, and going by the ſame name.

It is the upper *bone* of the foot, the tibia reſts upon it; its upper and under ſides are covered with cartilage, and on its under ſide it articulates with the os calcis; the fore part of this *bone* is cartilaginous, and there it articulates with the os ſcaphoides.

ASTRAGALUS. A name of the liquorice-vetch, of the milk-vetch, the ſilk-vetch, of Dioſcorides, and of a ſpecies of orobus.

ASTRAGALUS ACULEATUS, i. e. Tragacantha.

ASTRAGALUS LUTEUS PERENNIS SILIQUA GEMELLA ROTUNDA VESSICU REFERENTE. Wild chiches.

ASTRANTIA VULG. ET NIGR. i. e. Imperatoria.

ASTRANTIA NIGRA, i. e. Sanicula.

ASTRAPE. Lightning. Galen reckons it among the procatarctic cauſes of an epilepſy; and it is doubtleſs a cauſe of diſeaſe in leſſer degrees of its influence, as well as of death in greater. In the Phil. Tranſ. art. xlii. an. 1766, Dr. Laurence gives an inſtance of a ſingular effect of *lightning*.

ASTRICTA. When applied to the belly it ſignifies coſtiveneſs.

ASTRICTORIA. ASTRINGENTS.

ASTRINGENTIA. Aſtringents. Subſtances that coagulate the animal ſolids are called *aſtringents*; of thoſe that are uſed medicinally, ſome rank thoſe only as *aſtringents* that are taken by the mouth, calling thoſe ſtyptics that are only applied externally.

Aſtringents contract and ſtrengthen the fibres, and incraſſate the fluids; contracters, condenſers, corroborants, indurators, incraſſators, coagulators, anodynes, &c. are included therein; but more ſtrictly they are thoſe medicines that increaſe the contractile force of the veſſels, and at the ſame time inſpiſſate the fluids.

An animal fibre is capable of being contracted in two different ways, either from the property common to all matter, of its particles being brought nearer to each other by external cauſes; or from an internal power of action reſulting from the vital principle. The firſt ſpecies of contraction is produced by *aſtringents*, which exert their efficacy equally on dead and living fleſh; the ſecond is excited by ſtimulants, for the operation of which the vital principle is neceſſary. Theſe powers may exiſt ſeparate from each other, or they may be united. In general moſt of the medicinal applications belonging to either of theſe claſſes, unite in various proportions, a ſtimulant and an *aſtringent* quality.

Dr. George Fordyce obſerves, that *aſtringents* act more on the ſmall than on the large veſſels about the præcordia;

dia; hence they increaſe the quantity of blood there; they have, at the ſame time, a diſpoſition to throw the fluids out of the veſſels; when the veſſels are naturally lax, and the blood is watery, they tend to expel ſome of the water by ſome ſecretory organ, and ſo prove diuretic and ſudorific, &c. but this only in lax habits: in general, they tend rather to check than to increaſe ſecretion. There is a certain quantity of power of contraction in the whole body; this power of contraction may be exerted in the larger or ſmaller veſſels, but it is exerted more in the former. A moderate action then of *aſtringents* increaſing the contraction of the ſmall veſſels, and diminiſhing the contraction of the larger, prevents the living power from being exhauſted, and ſo ſtrengthening the ſyſtem. *Aſtringents*, then, are ſometimes, when employed in a moderate quantity, ſtrengthening medicines. The coheſive power of the parts is but little, if at all, altered by *aſtringents*, for ſimple *aſtringents* can in but very few caſes be applied to the bare fibres or membranes: ſtrength then is produced by the making the ſmall veſſels contract, rather than the large one; but *aſtringents*, generally ſpeaking, are rather weakening than ſtrengthening remedies; for in this reſpect they have juſt the ſame effect as ſtimulants. If all the veſſels be ſtrongly excited to preſs on the blood, the living power will by this means be exhauſted, and the patient will, after the action of the *aſtringent* hath ceaſed, be weaker than before; they produce only a temporary contraction, and when continued ſome time, they loſe their power, and leave the parts more lax than before they were given; ſuch are their effects, if given in a conſiderable quantity. *Aſtringents*, like ſtimulants, act ſome univerſally, others more particularly on the part to which they are applied; alum is an inſtance of the firſt, galls or oak bark are inſtances of the ſecond kind; ſo the effects of alum are over in a few hours, but as thoſe which act partially do not produce their effect till ſome time, ſo it continues longer when produced.

Some vegetable *aſtringents* are antiſeptic, by their fixt air correcting the putreſcent tendency of the blood, and by the tonic power of theſe drugs on the ſolids, by which they oppoſe ſpaſm.

Aſtringents are applicable in caſes where the muſcular fibres have been ſtretched, as in bruiſes and ſtrains; in theſe caſes *aſtringents* are uſed at the beginning as ſedatives to abate inflammation, and alſo as *aſtringents* to reſtore the loſt tone of the parts; and after the removal of inflammation they are continued only as tonics. *Aſtringents* are ſometimes uſeful for checking too great ſecretions, which effect they generally produce in conſequence of their acting more powerfully on the ſmall veſſels in conſtringing, than on the larger veſſels in increaſing the impetus of the circulation. In hæmorrhages, *aſtringents* have been employed with advantage, but the advantage is in paſſive hæmorrhages only; for when there is a ſtrong action of the veſſels, *aſtringents* would be very injurious. *Aſtringents* are often uſeful for leſſening morbid irritability and ſenſibility, for they act not only on the ſimple fibre, but alſo on the living power: morbid irritability is beſt removed by a moderate uſe of *aſtringents*. Thoſe *aſtringents* that have no ſtimulus, ſuch as the uva urſi, &c. eaſe pain from irritation, whence their uſefulneſs in fits of the ſtone. *Aſtringents* promote ſuppuration as well as the bark, and in the like inſtances that are benefited by the bark.

When ſudden changes are to be produced, give the foſſil *aſtringents*; when irritability or other habitual diſorders are to be removed, uſe vegetable and metalic *aſtringents* are the moſt powerful, they exceed alum in activity and efficacy; dilute ſolutions of metals, externally applied, are anti-inflammatory and ſedative, whilſt ſtronger ſolutions inflame and are powerful cauſtics.

During inflammation, or an inflammatory diatheſis, avoid *aſtringents* that have a degree of ſtimulus; avoid all *aſtringents* when the blood tends too much to the head; avoid *aſtringents* during a ſanguine plethora, or obſtructions in the viſcera.

Aſtringents are beſt adminiſtered in ſmall doſes, with a large quantity of ſome proper liquid. They are generally diſtinguiſhed by a rough auſtere taſte, and changing ſolutions of iron (eſpecially thoſe made with the vitriolic acid) of a dark purple or black colour; but theſe criteria are not without reſtriction, when conſidered with reſpect to the application of thoſe medicines to the living fibre. They yield their virtue to water by infuſion, and alſo to a ſpirit in a leſs degree; by diſtillation they afford nothing, nor to oils do they impart any of their qualities. Extracts made from *aſtringent* vegetables do not keep long.

Dr. Percival, in his Eſſays Med. and Exp. obſerves, that *aſtringents*, acid and bitters, neutralize each other; that vegetable acids leſſen their aſtriction externally, but mineral acids increaſe it both internally and externally.

Vegetable *aſtringents* are the moſt powerful, as medicines, and of theſe one of the ſtrongeſt is galls.

ASTRIOLISM. Blaſting, or planet ſtriking.

ASTRION, i. e. Aſtragalus.

ASTROBLES, from αστρον, *a ſtar*, and βαλλω, *to ſtrike*. Blaſted, or planet-ſtruck. When applied to human bodies, it ſignifies apoplectic or ſphacelated.

ASTROBOLISMOS, from αστρον, *a ſtar*, and βαλλω, *to ſtrike upon*, i. e. planet-ſtruck. The blaſting of trees, or mortification by a blaſt; but when applied to the human body, it ſignifies an apoplexy or a ſphacelus. This term is brought into our Lexicons, but is uſed only by Theophraſtus of Plants.

ASTROCYNOLOGIA, from αστρον, *a ſtar*, κυων, *a dog*, and λογος, *a diſſertation*. The name of a treatiſe on the dog-days.

ASTROCHITES, called alſo aſtroites, eſtellaris lapis, ſtellæ lapis, and ſtar-ſtone. It is of a brown colour, an inch long, angulated, and at the ends marked with the figure of a ſtar. It is thought to be a part of ſome ſea animal petrified. Some of them are white; they are found in quaries in many parts of England, Germany, &c.

ASTROITIDIS (Lapis.) Star ſtone.

ASTRONOMIA, Aſtronomy, from αστρον, *a ſtar*, and νομος, *law*. It is the ſcience which teaches the knowledge of the heavenly bodies, ſhewing their magnitudes, diſtances, order, and motion. Hippocrates ſays, that one ignorant of *aſtronomy* cannot be well qualified for a phyſician. Others, ſince his day, have greatly extolled the utility of this ſcience in the ſtudy and practice of medicine; ſome reckoning anatomy to be the right eye of phyſic, and aſtronomy its left; for they ſay, ſuch is the influence of the ſun, moon, and ſtars, eſpecially the planets, upon terreſtrial bodies, by the intervention of the æther and atmoſphere, that they induce very ſenſible changes in them; but admitting of ſome influence in the planets, it is in degrees too trifling to affect us in the practice of medicine. The planets may affect meteors, and, in ſome inſtances, the effects on our atmoſphere may be influential on our bodies for their good or harm. Meteorology, and thoſe other branches of ſcience by which we are taught the nature, properties, &c. of our atmoſphere, ſeem more directly proper to medical enquiries.

It is pleaded, that the aſpects of the ſtars influence the human body, becauſe that in the vernal equinox, or the ſummer ſolſtice, the force of intermitting fevers is deſtroyed, though obſtinate in all other ſeaſons; and becauſe that the equinoxes are peculiarly hurtful to ſome ſort of patients; but theſe circumſtances are better accounted for on principles leſs remote than thoſe derived from *aſtronomy*. The late Dr. Mead was a great advocate for this branch of ſcience being an eſſential qualification in a phyſician.

ASTRUM. A ſtar. With the chemiſts this word ſignifies that virtue and power which accrues to things from their preparation; thus, the *aſtrum* of ſalt is its reſolution into a fluid ſtate, by which it can exert itſelf more. *Aſtrum* is a name given to many medicines.

ASUGAR. Verdigriſe.

ASULCI, i. e. Lapis lazuli.

ASUOLI. Soot.

ATAC. Talc, or nitre.

ATA MARAM, i. e. Ahate de panucho recchi.

ATAXIA. Ataxy, from α, *priv.* and ταξις, *to order*. Some particular irregularity or diſorder.

ATAXMIR. An Arabic word expreſſing the method of treating an eye when preternatural hairs grow under the natural ones.

ATEBRAS. A ſubliming veſſel.

ATECHNIA, ατεχνια, from α, *neg.* and τεχνη, *an art, want of art.* Linnæus uſes this word as expreſſive of venereal impotency, and thus it is ſynonymous with anaphrodiſia.

ATER SUCCUS, i. e. Atrabilis.

ATERAMNA. This word occurs in Hippocrates's de Aere Locis et Aquis, and is expounded by Galen as ſignifying difficulty of concoction, and hard. He obſerves that the ancients called bad waters thus, and that, as joined with other words, it hath other ſignifications.

ATHANASIA. The immortal plant. A name given to tanſey, becauſe when ſtuffed up the noſe of a dead corpſe, it is ſaid to prevent putrefaction.

ATHANASIA, from α, *neg.* and θανατος, *death.* Immortality. The name of an antidote of Galen, alſo of an antidote ſaid to be Oribaſius's; it is the name too of a collyrium deſcribed by Aetius. Beſides theſe, it is the name of many other compoſitions, and among the reſt it is the name of the herb tanſey.

ATHANOR. Among the chemiſts it is a ſort of digeſting furnace, contrived to maintain its heat a long time, and is a furnace which communicates with its chimney by a lateral canal, ſuch as is in the furnace for a ſand-bath; this furnace is carried to a conſiderable height above the part where this canal enters it: it is filled with fuel up to the top, and cloſely covered, and as the lower part of the fuel conſumes, it is ſupplied by what is above, which falls down into its place; thus a conſtant and equal heat is maintained a long time without any attendance.

ATHARA. A ſort of pap made with wheat flour.

ATHENA. A plaiſter in much repute among the ancients.

ATHENÆUS. He was the firſt founder of the pneumatic ſect, and a native of Attalia, a city of Cilicia. He did not believe that water, fire, air, and earth, were true elements, for he only gave the name of elements to their effects, as heat, cold, moiſture, and dryneſs; the two firſt were efficient, the two laſt, he ſaid, were material. He added a fifth, which he called ſpirit. He imagined that this ſpirit pervaded all bodies, and kept them in their natural ſtate; this he borrowed from the ſtoics.

He ſaid that all diſeaſes were produced from this ſpirit being diſturbed.

Oribaſius hath two or three chapters from him, but though he writ extenſively his works are loſt.

ATHENATORIUM. A thick glaſs cover which is in the Theatrum Chymicum, vol. iii. p. 33, directed to be luted to a cucurbit, when the alembic is taken off in a particular proceſs there preſcribed.

ATHENIONIS CATAPOTIUM. The name of a pill in Celſus's writings.

ATHENIPPON. The name of a collyrium, alſo called diaſmyrnes. It is alſo a name of many collyria.

ATHENIPPUM, i. e. Aſclepios.

ATHER. The beard of barley; alſo the top of the beard of an arrow.

ATHERA. A ſort of food made with wheat flour, like the pap meat which is given to children. Pliny ſays it is an Ægyptian invention.

ATHEROMA, from αθηρα, *pulſe, pap,* or *a kind of poultice.* It is a kind of tumor, thus named from its poultice-like contents. It is a ſpecies of wen. It is colourleſs, void of pain, containing in a cyſt, a matter like pap, intermixed ſometimes with hard corpuſcles, and ſometimes with a hardiſh matter like the chewed bones of chickens. It is of an irregular ſhape, not eaſily impreſſed with the finger, nor after impreſſion does it eaſily riſe again, in which it differs from the meliceris. See Nævus.

ATHLETICUS, Athletic, from αθλεω, *to contend.* It implies the ſame as a robuſt conſtitution fit for wreſtling

ATHONOR, i. e. Athanor.

ATHROOS, or Athroon. An adverb. In medicinal authors it imports copious, accumulated, or ſudden, and is the reverſe of by degrees.

ATHYMIA, from α, *neg.* and θυμος, *courage.* Puſillanimity. In medicinal authors it uſually ſignifies that dejectedneſs, deſpondence, anxiety, and deſpair, which frequently occurs in the courſe of diſtempers. Some uſe this word as ſynonymous with melancholia.

ATINCAR, or Atinkar. Borax.

ATITARA. The Braſilian name for the palmo humilis ſpinoſa. Raii. Hiſt.

ATLAS, from ατλαω, *to ſuſtain,* or ατλημι, *to carry.* The name of the firſt vertebra of the neck, ſo called becauſe it ſuſtains the head, as Atlas was ſuppoſed to ſuſtain the earth. It is a boney ring, and in its back part it receives the proceſſus dentatus of the ſecond vertebra; it hath no ſpinal proceſs, its tranſverſe proceſſes are very thick; inſtead of the two ſuperior oblique proceſſes, which the other vertebra have, there are two oblong holes which receive the condyls of the os occipitis, and the inferior oblique proceſſes are horizontal to admit of rotation.

ATMOSPHÆRA. The atmoſphere. The whole body of air and vapours which ſurround the earth. The height of the atmoſphere probably depends on the level of the ſea. All the animating properties of the air ſeem alſo to be derived from the evaporation of the waters of the ſea, joined to the exhalations from the earth: theſe vapours which aſcend into the air, ſeldom riſe above a certain diſtance from the ſurface of the ſea, and above this height all fecundity is wanting; and as this water recedes from the tops of mountains, they become barren, and only the magazines of perpetual ſnow. Thus the atmoſphere may properly be divided into two, the animated and the unanimated parts. The animated part, as it is the ſeat of life in ſome ſenſe, ſo is it alſo the ſource of diſeaſe.

ATOCHIA. Præternatural labour.

ATOCIUM. A name of the lychnis ſylveſtris.

ATOLLI. A ſort of pap, made of the meal of maize and water, which the Indians mix with their chocolate.

ATOMUS, from α, *negative,* and τεμνω, *to cut* or *divide.* An atom. It is a particle of matter ſo ſmall as not to admit of any farther diviſion. Aſclepiades taught that *atoms* were the primordia of all things, and that they were not perceptible to our ſenſes, but only to our underſtandings; that they had no qualities, for the qualities of bodies which they compoſe depend on the order, figure, number, &c. of many atoms joined together; and this laſt circumſtance he proves by obſerving, that a lump of ſilver is white, but if filed down it is black; and horns of goats are black when whole, but white if filed down. Galen ſays, that Aſclepiades adhering to the ſentiments of Democritus and Epicurus, with regard to the principles of bodies, had only changed the former names of things, calling *atoms* molecules, and a vacuum pores.

N. B. Molecules were diviſible, but *atoms* not.

ATONIA, from α, *negative,* τεινω, *to ſtretch.* Atony; defect of muſcular power. Relaxation, laxity, debility, or diſtemperature. This word was much in uſe among the methodic ſect, who aſcribed the cauſes of all diſtempers to relaxation, ſtricture, or a mixture of theſe. It is generally ſynonymous with palſy.

ATORSAXACOTL. The fruit of a ſpecies of macaxocotlifera.

ATORSAXOCOTL. CHICHILTIC. The fruit of a ſpecies of macaxocotlifera.

ATRABILARIÆ, (Capsulæ) i. e. Renes ſuccenturiati.

ATRA BILIS. Black bile, or melancholy. According to the ancients it hath a twofold origin: 1ſt, From the groſſer parts of the blood, and this they called the melancholy humour. 2dly, From yellow bile being highly concocted. Dr. Percival, in his Eſſays Med. and Exp. ſuggeſts, that it is the gall rendered acrid by ſtagnation in the gall-bladder, and rendered viſcid by the abſorption of its fluid parts. *Bile* in this ſtate diſcharged into the duodenum, occaſions univerſal diſturbance and diſorder, until it is evacuated; it occaſions violent vomiting, or purging, or both, and previous to this the pulſe is quick, the head achs, a delirium comes on, a hiccough, intenſe thirſt, inward heat, and a fetid breath. Some deſcribe this kind of *bile* as being acid, harſh, corroding, and, when poured on the ground, bubbling up, and raiſing the earth after the manner of a ferment. Dr. Percival ſays, that by the uſe of the infuſ. ſenæ limoniet. warmed with the tinct. columb. he had checked the vomitings occaſioned by this matter.

ATRACHELUS, from α, *negative,* and τραχηλος, *the neck.* Short-necked.

ATRACTYLIDI. A name of a plant which reſembles the atractylis.

ATRACTYLIS, called cnicus, carduus luteus, carduo-cnicus, and diſtaff-thiſtle.

It is a plant which grows in Italy, Greece, and other warm countries. Its leaves are of the ſame nature as thoſe of the carduus benedictus, but the ſtalk is the part that is chiefly uſed. The women keep them for diſtaffs.

ATRACTYLIS. Common wild carline thiſtle.

ATRAGENE, called alſo viorna, clematis ſylv. latifolia, clematis arthragene Theophraſti, flammula ſepium foliis integris, and traveller's joy. It grows in hedges, flowers in July, the whole plant is of a cauſtic quality, and laid on the ſkin it preſently raiſes a bliſter there. Dale.

ATRAMENTOSUS LAPIS, The pyrite ſtone.

ATRAMENTUM SUTORIUM. A name of the green vitriol, of the chalcanthum, and melanteria.

ATRAPHAXIS, or Atraphraxis, i. e. Atriplex.

ATRESIA, from *α*, *negative*, and *τραω*, or *τρεω*, *to perforate*. Imperforation.

ARETARUM ISCHURIA. A ſuppreſſion of urine, from the menſes being retained in the vagina.

ATRETI, Imperforate, from *α*, *priv.* and *τρητος*, *perforate*. Thoſe of either ſex are thus called, when their anus, or other natural aperture is cloſed.

ATRICES. Small tubercles about the anus, which recede and return again, eſpecially at the firſt. Valeſius de Taranta reckoned them among condylomata & fici.

ARTICI. Small ſinuſes in the inteſtinum rectum, which do not reach ſo far as to perforate into its cavity.

ATRIPLEX, Orach, or Orache.

ATRIPLEX, called alſo atriplex alba vel rubra hortenſis, chryſolachanon, olus aureum, and white, red, or garden orach.

It is an annual plant riſing from ſeeds, and chiefly employed in the kitchen.

ATRIPLEX FŒTIDA. Called alſo garoſmum, vulvaria, chenopodium fœtida, chenopodium vulvaria, atriplex olida, blitum fœtidum, and ſtinking orach. It is the chenopodium vulvaria, foliis integerrimis rhomboideo-ovatis, floribus conglomeratis axillaribus. Linn. It is a low procumbent plant, ſprinkled all over with a whitiſh clammy meal, the leaves are ſmall, of a roundiſh figure, with an obtuſe point. On the tops of the branches come forth cluſters of imperfect flowers, followed each by a flattiſh ſeed. It is annual, grows wild about dung-hills, and flowers in Auguſt.

It hath a ſtrong diſagreeable ſmell, ſomewhat like that of ſalt-fiſh. Such of it as is found growing amongſt old rubbiſh is weaker than that in moiſter ground. Water takes up all its virtue by infuſion, it loſes its ſtrength by keeping. It is a fetid anti-hyſteric, and acts by its odour without irritation. The beſt form in which to uſe it is a conſerve, of which two or three drams may be taken in a day.

ATRIPLEX SYLVESTRIS. Blitum, chenopodium folio laciniato coma purpuraſcente. Wild orach.

It is much the ſame in its properties as the garden ſort.

ATRIPLEX CHENOPODIUM. The herb mercury.

ATRIPLEX MARITIMA. See HALIMUS & PORTULACA.

ATRIPLEX MORI FRUCTU, i. e. Chenopodium, morus.

ATRIPLEX SYLVESTRIS. See CHENOPODIUM, Chenopodio morus & atriplex.

ATROPA. Deadly night-ſhade. See SOLANUM LETHALE.

ATROPHIA, from *α*, and *τρεφω*, *to nouriſh*. An *atrophy*, or falling away of the fleſh. It is a waſting, with loſs of ſtrength; but without a hectic, or any expectoration. Some ſay that in an *atrophy*, the fat only is waſted. The Latins call it inutritio, the want of nutrition. It is alſo called a nervous conſumption. Dr. Cullen ranks this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs cachexiæ, and order marcores. He enumerates four ſpecies. 1. *Atrophia* inanitorum, from too great evacuations. 2. *Atrophia* famelicorum, from deficient nouriſhment. 3. *Atrophia* cacochymeca, from bad nouriſhment. 4. *Atrophia* debilium, when the function of nutrition is ſo depraved as to be productive of diſorder.

An *atrophy* implies a mere collapſion of the cellular, vaſcular, and muſcular ſyſtems, with univerſal weakneſs, from too great waſtings, or too ſmall recruits, of chyle, blood, lymph, &c. throughout the whole habit, without any ulceration, or organical deſtruction of the ſolid veſſels and viſcera. A phthiſis, or conſumption of the lungs, is from obſtruction, an *atrophy* from inanition.

This diſorder is beſt conſidered as but of one kind, and the different ſpecies as ſtill the ſame; but ariſing from different cauſes, or advanced to different degrees.

The cauſes are a weakneſs in the organs of digeſtion, whence an undue ſupply of chyle to the blood; a diet that affords inſufficient nouriſhment; a tenderneſs and irritability of the nervous ſyſtem; a defect of, or an excoriation of the mucus, which defends the inner ſurfaces of the heart and arteries; exceſſes of the paſſions, and in luxurious purſuits; too copious evacuations, &c.

The ſigns in the beginning are, a decreaſe of ſtrength, loſs of appetite without much fever, cough, or ſhort breath, though in the progreſs, when a conſumption of the fleſh hath gradually affected the whole habit, there is ſome degree of difficulty in the breathing; the urine is inconſtant in its colour, though generally high, and ſmall in quantity; ſometimes it is pale and profuſe; in time the blood grows hot and acrid for want of its due ſupplies, a hectic heat increaſes, as alſo a cough and difficulty of breathing. In children this diſeaſe frequently happens, and, beſides the above-mentioned cauſes, they are ſubject to it from a ſudden change from the breaſt to more ſolid food, in which caſe their legs become pendulous, the habit flaccid, their ſkin corrugated, and, in many inſtances, their appetite for food is almoſt inſatiable. As a weakneſs in their chylopœtic organs is the cauſe, ſoon diſſecting thoſe patients after death, their meſenteric glands are tumified, their livers much diſordered, their inteſtines are filled with black fetid ſordes, and the muſcles of their bellies are extenuated almoſt to a membrane.

This diſorder ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from leanneſs, the rickets, and that weakneſs and leanneſs in ſome children, who pine only for want of a due ſupply from the breaſt.

The cure will be regulated by the cauſe.

If this diſorder depends on any other, as on a diarrhœa, fluor albus, diabetes, gonorrhœa, &c. the cure will depend on the cure of the original diſeaſe.

If the cauſe is indigeſtion, with a viſcid obſtruction of the meſentery, which is the caſe in children and old people for the moſt part, give now and then gentle doſes of rhubarb with calomel; and, in the intervals, let ſtomachics, with warm perſpiratives, be preſcribed. Carefully avoid irritating purges, for they aggravate the ſymptoms by inflaming the bowels. The ſal diuret. tinct. guaiac. vol. and ferrugineous medicines, may be uſed, and thoſe with the helleb. nig. adding thereto the bark if required.

If there is an irritable habit from any of the cauſes above ſpecified, endeavour to abſtract from the ſtimulus, and appeaſe all ſpaſmodic affections by opiates, mucilages, gentle aſtringents that are glutinous, the bark, and ſuch other medicines as the preſent ſymptoms may indicate.

The ſcrophulous and cancerous caſes only admit of palliating, by keeping the circulation as low as the general health will admit. A thin light diet is the moſt proper, ſuch as jellies of both vegetable and animal ſubſtances, broths, &c. not forgetting the bark, and vitriolic elixir, as corroborants.

When exceſſive evacuations have been the cauſe, the decoction of ſarſaparilla, ſaloop, chalybeate waters, the bark, and gentle riding, are proper.

A venereal taint is often an unſuſpected cauſe; in which caſe mild mercurials, with ſarſaparilla, and a milk diet, are the cure.

ATTA. Feſtus ſays it is one who by reaſon of the tenderneſs or other defect in his feet, touches the ground, rather than treads on it.

ATTAGEN. The name of an Aſiatic partridge, commonly known by the name of francolin. The Greeks call it hare's-foot, becauſe its feet are downy. It is of a duſky red colour on its back, and ſeems to be the ſame as our red cock, which Aldrovandus calls attagen. Ray names it francolino Italorum. Pliny deſcribes it under the name of lagopus altera, and with us it is called the red cock, gor cock, moor cock, or red game. They are beſt in autumn for food, are not remarkable in medicine, though the gizzard on its inſide is very fragrant juſt after the bird is killed.

ATTAGENA PHRYGIA, i. e. Attagen.

ATTALICUS. The name of ſome compound medicines mentioned by Galen.

ATTELABUS ARACHNOIDES. An aquatic inſect, partaking of the nature of a ſpider and a graſshopper. It is ranked among the ſpecies of locuſts.

ATTENUENTIA, from *attenuo, to make thin.* Attenuating medicines. Theſe act on the ſolids and fluids. Such as operate on the fluids by immediate contact are but few, and indeed only ſuch as are watery, and they act only by the water in them. Viſcid humours, alkaline, and other ſalts, are diſſolved by water. Moſt of, or all the other *attenuants*, act on the ſolids by increaſing their tone, and ſo enabling them to attenuate the too thick fluids. See Hoffman, vol. i. and ii. cap. iv.

ATTICUM. The name of a plaſter uſed by Hippocrates. When joined with another word, it is an adjective, and ſignifies attic.

ATTILUS. The name of a river fiſh, found moſtly n the Po, it reſembles a ſturgeon.

ATTINCAR VENERIS. The whitening of copper to tranſmute it into ſilver.

ATTINGAT, i. e. Flos Æris.

ATTOLLENS AURICULIÆ SUPERIOR. A muſcle which riſes from the corrugator ſupercilii by a thin faſcia.

ATTOLIENS OCULI, i. e. Muſculus ſuperior, & rectus ſuperior oculi.

ATTONITUS MORBUS. A name of the apoplexy and of the epilepſy.

ATTONITUS STUPOR, i. e. Apoplexy.

ATTRACTIO. See REPULSIO and AFFINITAS.

ATTRACTIVUM, Attractive. Paracelſus pretends to have had an *attractive* medicine, which would draw away the diſeaſes of the body; but the extravagancies of this whimſical genius, with reſpect to it, though not deſerving a place here, may be met with in his Archidox. lib. vii.

ATTRACTIVUS, Attractorius, and Attrahens, are applied to remedies that have a power of attracting.

ATTRAHENTIA. Synonymous with Stimulentia.

ATTRITA. Galls from attrition, or rubbing one part againſt another. See INTERTRIGO.

ATTRITIO. Attrition. It is when the cuticle is ſeparated from the cutis, by compreſſion.

ATTY ALU, A ſpecies of fig-tree. See TSJAKELA.

ATYPOS, from α, *negative*, and τυπος, *a form* or *tenor*. Irregular. It is applied to diſeaſes which have no regularity in their periods. Alſo a deformity in the limbs.

ATZORSATL. The Mexican name for the mirabilis Mexicana.

AUANTE, or Auapſe. The dry diſeaſe. Hippocrates deſcribes it thus. The patient cannot bear either abſtinence or eating. Faſting cauſes a rumbling in his belly, and gnawing pain in his ſtomach. He vomits up various matters, and after vomiting he is at eaſe. After eating there are eructations, an inflammatory heat, and redneſs; a conſtant feeling as if a painful ſtool was to be diſcharged, yet only wind is evacuated; a head-ach is complained of; a ſenſe of pricking, as with needles, in different parts of the body; the legs ſeem heavy, grow feeble and extenuated, and he becomes weak.

The method of cure which he preſcribed was, firſt to give a purge, and after it an emetic; then directs abſtinence from fat food, temperance, bathing, unctions, and moderate exerciſe.

AUCHMOS, from αυω, *to dry*. The Latins call it ſqualor. It is hot dry ſultry weather.

AUCUPALIS, or Aucuparia. A name of the ornus, or ſorbus ſylveſtris.

AUDACIA. In a medical ſenſe is that ſort of boldneſs which we meet with in deliria or madneſs. It alſo ſignifies impudence.

AUDITORIA ARTERIA. The internal auditory artery goes off from each ſide of the arteria baſilaris to the organ of hearing, and accompanies the auditory nerve, having firſt furniſhed ſeveral ſmall twigs to the membrana arachnoides.

AUDITORIUS MEATUS. The paſſage that conveys the air to the auditory nerve. It leads from the lower anterior part of the concha to the tympanum, and is partly boney, partly cartilaginous; all within the temporal bone is the boney part, is the longeſt, and forms the bottom; the reſt is cartilaginous, and forms the external opening, or orifice of the canal: theſe two parts make a canal of about three fourths of an inch long, a little tortuous, and wider in ſome parts than in others. On the membranous covering of the cartilaginous part, we obſerve the yellow bodies, ſuppoſed to be the glandulæ ceruminæ. The boney part of the meatus is nearly horizontal, and ſtraight; the cartilaginous part is curved and winding, which ſhould be obſerved when a ſyringe is uſed to inject any thing with into the ear.

AUDITORIUS NERVUS. The auditory nerve. The ſeventh pair of nerves are called auditory nerves, ſo are the ſympathetici minores. This pair of nerves is divided into the portio mollis, which is diſtributed to the meatus *auditorius* internus, and ſo paſſes to the veſtibulum and cochlea, and into the portio dura, which goes out by the aquæduct, between the maſtoid and ſtiloid proceſſes. On theſe nerves, no covering from the dura mater can be traced. See PORTIA DURA.

AUDITUS. The ſenſe of *hearing*. By this ſenſe we perceive the elaſtic tremors of the air; hence the organ of *hearing* is made up of hard bones, and of elaſtic cartilages and membranes. The elaſtic air only receives ſonorous tremors, and transfers them, as we ſee water transfer any impulſe given to it. The aforeſaid ſound is increaſed in air that is condenſed, and is loſt in a veſſel emptied of its air. The body which produces ſound ought to tremble or vibrate in all, even the leaſt of its particles. From ſuch a tremor the contiguous air is beat into waves, whereby the parts of the air that lie outermoſt are compreſſed, and fly back again ſo ſoon as their elaſticity gets over the impulſe, whence the air flies again towards the ſonorous body, where it is now more looſe and rarefied, to be there again compreſſed by impulſion; and in the ſame manner the anterior and outer portion of air ſurrounding that which is impelled, is by the action of the latter compreſſed and removed farther from the trembling body, yet ſo as to return again in its proper time by the force of elaſticity, driving its contents to the tremulous body for the exciting of a new wave. Theſe impulſions of the air are required to ſucceed each other with a certain velocity; and in order to render them audible, they muſt not be fewer than thirty in a ſecond of time. As theſe ſonorous waves are more frequent in a given time, ſo much ſharper is the ſound heard, and the more ſtrongly does it affect us, till we come to the moſt acute of audible ſounds, which have 7520 tremors in a ſecond. Acute ſounds are in general yielded from bodies that are hard, brittle, and violently ſhook or ſtruck; but grave ſounds from the contrary. Sounds, whether acute or grave, are carried through the air with a celerity equal to about 1038 Paris feet in a ſecond; but a contrary wind retards their progreſſion about one-twelfth of their velocity. Sounds being elaſtic are reflected from hard bodies in angles, equal to thoſe of their incidence; but the ſame ſound uſhered into the open air, and dilating through an immenſe ſphere, grows proportionably weaker; but if it be uſhered through a tube in a cylindrical ſhape, it becomes increaſed: therefore the ſonorous waves of the elaſtic air being driven into the cartilaginous funnel of the ear, are repelled and collected together by alternate reflections from its elaſtic ſides into the cavity of the concha, from whence it proceeds through the auditory paſſage, with a force ſo much ſtronger as the ſurface of the outer ear is larger than the ſection of the ſaid auditory paſſage, through which the ſame force is continued entire forward, and increaſed by new reſonances, excited from the percuſſion of the elaſtic cartilages and hard bones, ſo as to mix imperceptibly with the primitive ſound. At the bottom of the auditory paſſage is the membrane of the drum of the ear; it conſiſts of ſeveral plates, one of which is dry, rattling, ſplendid, and pellucid; this membrane is conſtantly ſo ſtretched as to be eaſily put into a tremulous motion, and upon it the ſonorous waves ſtrike, after receiving their laſt reflections from the auditory paſſage. This membrane is ſtretched over a cavity in the os petroſum, called the tympanum or drum, which conſiſts of ſeveral cavities. In the tympanum are the bones called the bones of *hearing*, which are ſuſpended moveably: the firſt of which is the malleus, whoſe handle is fixed to the mem-

membrane of the drum, and at one end to the ſecond bone called the incus, to which it returns the tremors impreſſed upon the membrane; the incus reſts on the orbicular bone, and this upon the ſtapes; the ſtapes and the air of the tympanum preſs the auditory nerve, whence the ſenſe of ſound is conveyed to the common ſenſory. When by the force of external ſounds the membrane of the drum is forced too much inward, it is probably ſupported by air which paſſes from the mouth through the Euſtachian tube into the inner ear. The importance of the cochlea of the ear, in order to the conveyance of the ſound, is very conſiderable. For a more minute information, conſult Haller's Phyſiology, in the lecture on *Hearing*; and the ingenious obſervations of Dr. Shebbeare on this ſubject in his Theory and Practice of Phyſic, and the article SONUS.

AUGARES. The name of an unknown medicine.

AUGITES. The name of a gem of a pale green colour.

AUGMENTUM. The increaſe of a diſeaſe, which is from its attack to its height.

AUGUSTUM. An epithet given to ſeveral compound medicines.

AULISCOS. A catheter or clyſter-pipe.

AULOS. The onyx.

AURA, or Gallinaſſa. A ſpecies of raven in Mexico, almoſt as large as an eagle.

Aura alſo ſignifies an exhalation or vapour, ſuch as ariſes from mephitic caves.

AURA VITALIS. So Helmont calls the vital heat.

AURANGIA. An orange.

AURANTIA. See AURANTIUM.

AURANTIA CURASSAVENSIA. See AURANTIUM CURASLAVENSE.

AURANTIA ENASCENTIA. See AURANTIUM.

AURANTIA IMMATURA. See AURANTIUM.

AURANTIUM. The orange-tree. It is an evergreen with many prickly branches; ſmooth, firm, broad leaves, having each two heart-like appendages on the pedicle: the flowers are white, pentapetalous, ſet thick together among the leaves; the fruit is large, round, and yellow, divided internally into eight cells filled with a juicy pulp and white ſeeds: it is a native of the warmer climes, and ſcarcely bears the cold of our's. The beſt are brought from Portugal and Spain, the next from France and Italy. This tree bears flowers and fruit all the year. The fruit of theſe trees are the poet's golden apple.

AURANTIA HISPALENSIS, called alſo malus aurantia fructu acido, major arantia malus, arangia, mala aurea, chryſomelea, nerantia, orangia, and Seville orange. It is the citrus aurantium, or citrus petiolis alatis. Linn.

The flowers of this tree are highly odoriferous, and are uſed as a perfume: they are bitter to the taſte: they give their taſte and ſmell both to water and to ſpirit, but moſt perfectly to rectified ſpirit of wine. The water which is diſtilled from theſe flowers is called aq. naphæ. In diſtillation they yield a ſmall quantity of eſſential oil, which is called ol. vel eſſentia neroli; they are brought from Italy and France.

The leaves alſo yield an eſſential oil by diſtillation, but it is not ſo agreeable as that from the flowers.

The yellow rind of the fruit, freed from the white fungous part, is a grateful warm aromatic bitter, is a good ſtomachic, and is uſed to give a grateful flavour to other medicines. It is warmer than the peel of lemons, of a more durable flavour, and abounds more with a light fragrant eſſential oil, which exudes upon wounding it. Infuſed in boiling water it gives out nearly all its ſmell and taſte; cold water extracts the bitter, but very little of the flavour. In diſtillation all the oil riſes, but none of the bitter. The London college directs a ſimple and a ſpirituous water from it as follows; alſo a ſyrup, conſerve, and a candy.

Aqua Corticum Aurantiorum *Simplex. The Simple Diſtilled Water of* Orange-Peel.

Take of the outer yellow rind of freſh Seville oranges, four ounces; of water as much as is ſufficient to prevent burning. Diſtill off a gallon.

Aqua Corticum Aurantiorum *Spirituoſa. The Spirituous Water of* Orange-Peel.

Take of the outer yellow rind of freſh Seville oranges, half a pound; of proof ſpirit, a gallon, of water, as much as is ſufficient to avoid burning. Diſtill off a gallon.

Theſe waters are agreeable where the palate or ſtomach receives quick diſguſt.

Conſerva Corticum Aurantiorum. *The Conſerve of* Orange-Peel.

Take Seville oranges and ſcrape off their outer yellow rind with a grater or a raſp, then pound it well in a mortar with a wooden peſtle until it is ſufficiently ſmall or pulpy; then to each pound weight add three of fine lump ſugar; beat them well together ſo as equally to mix them.

This conſerve contains all the virtue of this peel, and keeps well.

Cortex Aurantiorum *Conditus. Candied* Orange-Peel.

Soak the freſh peel of Seville oranges in water, and change it often, till the peel loſes all its bitterneſs; then boil them with double-refined ſugar diſſolved in water, till they become ſoft and tranſparent.

Syrupus e Cortiebus Aurantiorum. *The Syrup of* Orange-Peel.

Take of the outer yellow rind of a freſh Seville orange-peel, eight ounces; of boiling water, five pints; ſteep the peel in the water for a night in a cloſe veſſel, and in the morning diſſolve in the liquors ſtrained, of double-refined ſugar beaten to powder as much as is ſufficient to make a ſyrup.

The ſugar is powdered that as little heat as poſſible may be uſed, a little of which diſſipates the flavour of the peel.

The juice of Seville oranges is a grateful acid, uſeful in both ardent and putrid fevers. Its acid matter differs in ſome of its pharmaceutical properties, both from the fermented acid of vinegar, and from the native acid ſalts of the leaves of plants; from the former in its not being volatile, or not exhaling upon inſpiſſating the juice, nor riſing in diſtillation with the heat of boiling water; from the latter, in its being ſoluble in ſpirit of wine, the inſpiſſated juice liquifies in air, water, or ſpirit of wine; whence it is eaſily preſerved during many years, either in the form of an extract, or in a dilute ſtate, as in a ſpirituous ſolution.

The young unripe Seville oranges are called curaſſoa, or curaſſao apples; alſo *aurantia* curaſſaventia, *aurantia* enaſcentia, and *aurantia* immatura. They are a grateful aromatic bitter, of a flavour very different from that of the peel from the ripe fruit, and without any acid, what little tartneſs they have when freſh, is loſt in drying. Spirit of wine extracts all their virtue; water but imperfectly; infuſed in wine or brandy they afford a good bitter for the ſtomach. They are uſed to promote the diſcharge in iſſues, whence their name of iſſue peas.

AURANTIA SINENSIS, called alſo *aurantia* dulcis, poma Sinenſis, mala *aurantia* Chinenſia, and China or ſweet oranges.

The rind hath a faint ſmell, and but little bitterneſs, ſo is never uſed in medicine: the juice hath a grateful ſubacid ſweetneſs, in general of the ſame qualities as our ſummer fruits.

AURANTIUM CURASLAVENSE. Curaſſao *oranges*. They ſeem to be immature *oranges* that by ſome accident have been checked in their growth. They are the citrus *aurantium*. Linn.

AURATA. The name of a fiſh, called alſo piſcis facer, orata, and gilt-head.

AURATA. A name of the fiſh called a ruff. See ASPREDO.

AURATUS GERMANORUM. It is an oleo ſaccharum with the oil of cinnamon.

AUREA ALEXANDRINA. An antidote invented by Alexander.

AURELIA. See CHRYSALIS.

AURELIANA CANADENSIS IROQUÆIS, i. e. Genſing.

AURES. The ears. See AURIS.

AUREUS. A weight equal to a dram and a half; alſo a pompous appellation for many compound medicines. Blancard ſays, it was a weight amongſt the Arabians of a dram, a ſeventh part; the ſame with denarius.

AUREUS CAPIL. MEDIUS. See ADIANTHUM.

AUREUS RAMUS. The art of making gold.

AURI-

AURICHALCUM. Braſs. A mixture of copper and lapis calaminaris. The alchymiſts found it out by ſeeking to turn copper into gold. *Braſs* is not ſo readily diſſolved as copper. See Æs.

AURICOLLA, i. e. Chryſocolla.

AURICOLLA ETHELA. A red tincture, and the white flower of gold.

AURICULA. The external part of the ear; which is divided into the upper part called pinna, and the lower ſoft part called the lobus. The pinna is divided into ſeveral eminences and cavities; the eminences are the helix, anti-helix, tragus, and anti-tragus.

The helix is the large border round the ear, or the exterior compaſs of the ear, ſo called becauſe of its tortuoſity.

The anti-helix is the large oblong eminence, ſurrounded by the helix.

The tragus is the little anterior protuberances below the fore part of the helix, which in the aged is often covered with hairs.

The anti-tragus is the poſterior protuberance below the inferior extremity of the anti-helix.

The cavities are the ſcapha, on the inſide of the helix; the cavitas innominata or foſſa navicularis, at the anterior upper part of the anti-helix; the concha, which is ſituated under the anti-helix: there is a ſort of ſeptum conchæ, which is a continuation of the helix; and the fourth cavity is the meatus auditorius externus.

The *auricula* is compoſed chiefly of cartilage, which gives and preſerves its ſhape. It hath the advantage of being variable, for there are certain ſmall muſcles called helicalis major and minor, tragicus and anti-tragicus, which are peculiar to the ear; they are ſuppoſed to act only upon the cartilage, and alter its ſituation, whence it is ſuppoſed that we have the power of receiving more or leſs ſound into the meatus auditorius.

The external ear is fixed to the cranium, not only by the cartilaginous portion of the meatus, but alſo by the ligaments, viz. the anterior, which is fixed by one extremity to the root of the apophyſis zygomatica of the os temporis, cloſe to the corner of the glenoid cavity, and by the other extremity to the anterior and ſuperior part of the cartilaginous meatus. And the poſterior ligament is fixed by one end to the root of the maſtoid apophyſis, and by the other to the poſterior part of the convexity of the concha, ſo that it is oppoſite to the anterior ligament. There is alſo a kind of ſuperior ligament which ſeems to be only a continuation of the aponeuroſis of the frontal and occipital muſcle.

The lobe ſeems to be a doubling of the teguments, it is only ſkin and cellular membrane. See Auris.

AURICULÆ CORDIS. At the baſis of the heart is obſerved two muſcular bags, which are called its *auricles*; they are joined to the ventricles. See Cor. The right is larger than the left, and it is very thin. The left *auricle* in human ſubjects is a kind of muſcular bag, pretty thick, and unequally ſquare, into which the four pulmonary veins empty themſelves.

AURICULÆ [Flos]. See Xochinacaztlis.

AURICULA INFIMA. The lobe of the ear.

AURICULÆ JUDÆ, called alſo fungus ſambucinus, fungus membranaceus, peziza *auriculam* referens, agaricus *auriculæ* forma, and Jews ears. Peziza auricula. Linn. They are a ſort of fungus which grows on elder-trees: their internal uſe is generally thought not ſafe, but a decoction of them in milk is a much eſteemed gargle in the quinſey.

AURICULA LEPORIS. See Bupleurum.

AURICULA MURIS, alſo called myoſotis piloſella major, dens leonis, and common or creeping mouſe-ear. Boerhaave makes it a ſpecies of dens leonis. The ſort uſed in medicine is the hieracium piloſella. Linn.

It is a low, creeping, hairy plant, with leaves like thoſe of a daiſy, joined to the ſtalks without pedicles, green above and white underneath; the flowers are a number of yellow floſcules, ſet in ſcaly cups, which are followed by ſmall black downy ſeeds; is perennial, grows wild in dry paſture ground, and flowers in June and July.

It is lactefcent and bitteriſh; the leaves are of the ſame nature as thoſe of dandelion, cichory, &c. but leſs ſucculent and bitter, with ſome aſtringency and a ſlight ſweetiſhneſs, that remains in the mouth for ſome time. The roots are more bitter than the leaves, but not ſo aſtringent. This plant is rarely uſed, if ever, in the preſent practice.

AURICULA MURIS CAMERARII. Sea kidney vetch.

AURICULA URSI, called alſo ſanicula Alpina lutea, yellow bear's ears, oricola, and French cowſlips. They grow plentifully in Switzerland, Savoy, and many other places: it bears thick, large, green leaves, and on the tops of the ſtalks there are flowers of different colours. In Utrecht this flower is called primula odorato, on account of its agreeable ſmell. The juice removes ſpots on the face.

AURICULA URSI. A ſpecies of verbaſcum, and a name of ſanicle.

AURICULARIA. Ear-wort. See Mentha.

AURICULARIA. The ear-wig. See Forficula.

AURICULARIS, i. e. Extenſor Minimi Digiti.

AURICULARIS DIGITUS. The little finger is called the ear-finger, becauſe with it we are moſt apt to rub and pick the inner ear.

AURICULARIS MEDICUS. A phyſician for the ear.

AURICULARIUS. Belonging to the ear, alſo an ear-doctor.

AURICULARUM SEPTUM. See Cor.

AURIGA. A name of the fourth lobe of the liver. Alſo a ſort of bandage for the ſides, deſcribed by Galen.

AURIGO. The jaundice.

AURIGO PLETHORICA. i. e. Icterus gravidarum.

AURIPIGMENTUM, alſo called arſenicum croceum, arſenicum flavum, orpin, orpiment, and auripigment. Galen called it arſenicon, and Serapion calls it narueth. See Arsenicum.

There are three kinds of orpiment, the gold-coloured, the deep red mixed with yellow, and the greeniſh and yellowiſh, which is the leaſt valuable. The beſt is a yellow ſhining ſulphureous mineral, conſiſting of little flakes or ſcales like talc. If powdered orpiment is ſet on fire, it will flame, and yield the odour of common brimſtone; if a plate of copper is held over theſe fumes at their firſt riſing it becomes white and brittle; an iron plate is alſo turned white by them; it is ſoluble in oil. Mercury joined to an acid ſalt is a part in this mineral; but, as is the caſe with crude antimony, its ſulphureous combination is ſuch as to render it inert. If it is kept long in a ſubliming veſſel over the fire, the whole maſs is raiſed and concretes in the upper part of the veſſel into a red pellucid ſubſtance like a ruby, leaving only a very ſmall portion of metallic earth at the bottom.

Some uſe it for fumigating venereal ulcers; Dr. Mead and others commend its fumes in aſthmas; mixed with quicklime it hath been uſed as a depilatory. The painters uſe it for a gold colour, without the opinion of its being poiſonous; but, if ſwallowed, its effects are ſimilar to thoſe of the merc. coroſ. alb.

AURIPIGMENTUM RUBRUM. i. e. Realgar.

AURIS. The ear. The *ear* is uſually divided into the external and the internal. See the external under the article Auricula. By the external is meant all that lies without the external orifice of the meatus auditorius in the os temporis; by the internal, all that lies within the cavity of this bone; but it is divided into the auricula (which ſee), the meatus (ſee Auditorius Meatus), the tympanum (which ſee), and the labyrinth (which ſee).

The arteries of the external *ear* come anteriorly from the arteria temporalis, and poſteriorly from the occipitalis. The veins are branches of the external jugulars. The portio dura of the auditory nerve having paſſed out of the cranium through the foramen ſtylo-maſtoidæum, gives off a branch, which runs up behind the ear, whence it ſends off ſeveral filaments to the meatus and fore-ſide of the ear. The ſecond vertebral pair ſend alſo a branch to the *ear*, the ramifications of which communicate with thoſe of the other branch from the portio dura.

The bones of hearing, called malleus, incus, orbicularis, and ſtapes, are placed in the cavity of the tympanum, immediately on the inſide of the membrana tympani. The malleus is joined by its handle to the membrana tympani, and its round head reſts on the incus, the long leg of which reſts on the os orbiculare, which is fixed to the fore

part of the ſtapes, the ſole of which reſts on the hole called feneſtra ovalis.

The uſe of the external *ear* is to collect ſounds, and to render their impreſſion on the other organs of hearing moſt perfect; this is evident from thoſe who have their *ears* cut off, being obliged to uſe a horn or ſome means to aſſiſt them in hearing: all animals, as deer, hares, &c. whoſe ears have much motion, always direct them ſo as to meet the ſound.

How hearing is effected, ſee AUDITUS and SONUS.

On the *ears* ſee Caſſebhomius, Du Verney, Valſalva, Celſus, and Winſlow's Anatomy. They treat either of the anatomy or the diſorders of the *ear*.

AURIS MARINA, or Aurmar. A ſhell-fiſh very common on the coaſts of Scotland, Guernſey, Normandy, &c. it is ſhaped like an ear, it adheres to rocks, and to render them eatable they are firſt boiled, then fried.

AURIUM SORDES. See CERUMEN AURIS.

AURMAR, i. e. Auris Marina.

AURORA CONSURGENS. A whimſical phraſe by which the alchemiſts expreſs the vegetation of their gold.

AURUM, Gold, called alſo ſol, and rex metallorum. The chemiſts called it ſol, becauſe they thought it to be under the influence of the ſun. Its character is a circle with a dot in the middle, thus ⊙, denoting a body perfectly inacrimonious, ſmooth, and equal.

It is found more or leſs in every country; but the greateſt part of what we have comes from America, particularly from the mines of Potoſi; but the Aſiatic is eſteemed the fineſt. Sometimes it is found pure and unmixed, in ſmall grains or in large lumps, and is then called virgin *gold*; but for the moſt part it is found in ores of different kinds, to ſeparate it from which various methods are required: its chief matrix is flint. All ſand contains a greater or leſs quantity of it.

Gold is a yellow metal, nineteen times heavier (ſpecifically) than water.

Its ductility is ſuch as to admit of one grain of it being drawn out to the length of five hundred feet, which no other metal will: indeed it is the moſt diviſible of all bodies; if melted with 100,000 times its weight of ſilver, it will be ſo perfectly blended with it, that any grain of the melted maſs is, on aſſaying, found to contain its portion of *gold*: a ſingle drop of its ſolution in aqua regia, gives a metalline taſte to a pint of the rectified ſpirit of wine. It is ſo ductile that the wire-drawers can extend a leaf to the 12,000,000th part of an inch in thinneſs, over a flatted ſilver wire, which will be perfectly covered though viewed with a microſcope. One grain of *gold* may be ſo beat out as to cover a large houſe, and ſtill be ſo compact as not to admit of the rays of light throught it. The force of coheſion in *gold* depends on its freedom from ſulphur; for one grain of ſulphur mixed with 1000 grains of pure *gold*, deſtroys its malleability.

It is fuſible in a low white heat, requiring more heat to melt it than tin does, and leſs than iron or copper. It turns white before it melts.

It is fixed, and indeſtructible by the fire: it ſuffers the heat of the greateſt burning-glaſs a long time before it evaporates. Antimony, which diſſipates all other metals, leaves *gold* behind it. It is the only metal that reſiſts the force of lead, and glaſs of lead, in fuſion.

It is not ſoluble in any of the ſimple acids in the common ways of making ſolutions; but eaſily diſſolves in a mixture of the nitrous and marine acids, called aqua regia; it is the ſea-ſalt in this that diſſolves this metal, for hardly any other ſalt will affect *gold*: but though aqua regia is the common ſolvent of *gold*, it is not the only one; for the fumes ariſing from a mixture of the oils of tartar and of vitriol will diſſolve it, and a common liquid menſtruum may be produced from theſe, which will have the ſame power. Mercury is alſo a ſolvent by amalgamation. And the liver of ſulphur fuſed with it, takes it up ſo perfectly that it will be carried into a milk of ſulphur, by the common proceſs afterwards with it. It may alſo be calcined by common ſulphur, if ſet on fire and flaming.

It is the heavieſt and moſt denſe of all bodies.

After repeated refinings, ſome ſilver is ſtill found adhering to it: yet it is the moſt pure and homogene of all natural bodies.

It cannot be reſolved into more ſimple principles than thoſe of itſelf.

If pure, it ſounds but little; is ſofter than lead, and ſcarce elaſtic. The alloy in *gold* renders it more fit for many uſes, but its coheſion is greater in its pure ſtate, conſequently would be leſs ſubject to wear, if coined into money without the alloy.

It readily amalgamates with pure quickſilver.

When in fuſion, it readily mixes with ſilver; and thus mixed it will run into a maſs with iron, but more eaſily with copper.

Its colour and beauty is not injured by the air, or any of the damps, &c. that uſually float in it. It is neither diſpoſed to tarniſh, itſelf, nor to diſcolour other things: *gold* and gilded things are only ſullied by the adheſion of other bodies, which may be waſhed off by their proper ſolvents, without affecting the *gold*, however thin it may be ſpread.

If eſſential oils are ſhaken with a ſolution of *gold* in aqua regia, they imbibe the *gold* from the acid, and carrying it up to the ſurface, keep it there a while diſſolved; but gradually throw it off again, on ſtanding for ſome hours, in form of bright yellow films, to the ſides of the glaſs. Æther, though ſo light a fluid, takes up the *gold* ſtill more readily and completely, keeping it permanently diſſolved. Rectified ſpirit of wine mingles uniformly with acid ſolution, but after having ſtood ſome days the *gold* ſeparates and riſes in films to the ſurface. Tin put into a ſolution of *gold* in aq. regia precipitates it.

It was the Arabians that introduced *gold* into medicines; Avicenna eſteemed it for its cordial quality; but as no means are yet diſcovered by which to ſeparate its component parts, and it is inſoluble by any of the animal fluids, its medicinal power can only conſiſt in its being an antidote to poverty.

If one part of pure *gold* be calcined with five parts of tin, a powder is produced which is uſeful in forming artificial rubies and amethyſts. And when diſſolved in aqua regia it dyeth ſkins, bones, and ivory, of a durable purple colour.

Gold is volatilized by mixing it with arſenic; or take the merc. cor. alb. rub it well with *gold*, firſt reduced to powder, then diſtil in a retort with regulus of antimony, and the body of the *gold* will aſcend in the form of a red oil, and be perfectly volatile.

Aurum *Potabile*.

Diſſolve in a moderate heat half a dram of fine *gold*, in two ounces of aqua regia, and add to the ſolution an ounce of the eſſential oil of roſemary, ſhake them together, and then ſet them to reſt; after which ſeparate the oil by decantation, and add to it four or five ounces of rectified ſpirit of wine, digeſt them for a month, and it will become purpliſh. This is alſo called tincture of *gold*, but it contains not any of the metal, the colour is from the other ingredients.

Aurum *Fulminans*.

Put a dram of the filings of *gold* with half an ounce of new made aqua regia, into a matraſs placed in ſand; when the menſtruum ceaſes to act, pour off the ſolution, and if any of the *gold* is left, add as much more aqua regia as will be neceſſary to diſſolve it; dilute the ſolution with ten times its quantity of warm water, then drop in the lixivium of tartar till the effervescence and precipitation ceaſe, let the whole ſettle, pour off the clear liquor, and waſh the precipitated matter with water till it becomes inſipid, and then dry it.

In drying it the utmoſt care is required, for in a ſmall heat it explodes with violence, even with ſtrong rubbing it flies off in the manner of gunpowder. The more it is waſhed the leſs violently it fulminates when heated. It is ten times ſtronger than the common gunpowder as to its explosive power. This eaſily explosive property is checked by adding a larger quantity of the ol. tart. per deliq. than is neceſſary in the preparation.

Pulvis Auri. *The Powder of* Gold.

Diſſolve *gold* in aqua regia, then evaporate the fluid from it, and the *gold* remains in the form of a purple powder.

Many attempts have been made to convert other metals into *gold*, but until they can be made as heavy, all attempts will fail; there ſeems only to want the art of giving gra-

vity to metals and ſtones in order to the production of *gold* and diamonds.

See a hiſtory of *gold*, and the various arts depending thereon, in Dr. Lewis's Philoſophical Commerce of Arts, vol. i.

AURUM HORIZONTALE. It is an oleoſaccharum, made with the oil of cinnamon.

AURUM LEPROSUS. A name of antimony.

AURUM VEGETABILE. A name given to ſaffron.

AUSTER. The ſouth wind, which is hot, moiſt, and productive of putrid diſeaſes.

AUSTER, Auſtere. It is formed by the union of acid with terreſtrial particles, ſuch as is in unripe fruits, aſtringent juices, *auſtere* wines, &c.

AUSTRIÆUS. A ſpecies of pine tree.

AUSTROMANTIA. A pretending to tell events from a ſuperſtitious obſervation of the winds.

AUTALES. Tooth-ſhell. See DENTALIUM. Alſo the entaglia. See ENTALIUM.

AUTHEMERON, from *αυτος, the ſame*, and *ημερα, a day*. The very ſame day. A medicine is thus called that gives relief on the ſame day it is taken. Galen has two remedies of this kind.

AUTOGENES, from *αυτος, itſelf*, and *γενομαι, to be produced*. An epithet of the narciſſus with a white flower, becauſe its bulbous root, before it is ſet under the earth, puts forth leaves, ſo that the plant ſeems to ſpring from itſelf.

AUTOPHOSPHORUS, i. e. Phoſphorus.

AUTOPSIA, Autopſy, from *αυτος, himſelf*, and *οψις, ſight*, or *αυτος, himſelf*, and *οπτομαι, to ſee*. Occular evidence.

AUTOPYROS. See ARTOS.

AUTOUR. A ſort of bark which reſembles cinnamon, but is thicker and paler; the inſide is of the colour of a broken nutmeg, with a multitude of ſpangles. It is almoſt inſipid, and hath no ſmell at all. It comes from the Levant, and is an ingredient in the carmine dye.

AUTUMNUS. Autumn. Celſus wiſely adviſes people to begin early in this ſeaſon with warmer cloaths, for the irregularity of the weather ſubjects them to a variety of diſeaſes.

AUXESIS, i. e. Augmentum.

AUXILIARIÆ (Muſc.) i. e. Pyramidales (Muſc.)

AUXYRIS. A corrupt word for oſyris, poet's roſemary.

AUZUBA OVIEDI. See CARANDAS.

AVACCARI. A little tree, the leaves, fruit, and flowers of which reſemble the myrtle, but it is more aſtringent; it grows on mountains in the province of Malabar. It is uſed againſt dyſenteries.

AVANACU. See GADEL AVANACU.

AVANTURINE. A reddiſh or yellowiſh ſtone, covered with ſparkles which reſemble gold; it is found in great plenty in France. An artificial ſort is made by mixing ſparkles of copper with glaſs whilſt it is in fuſion. It is uſed by enamellers, and to ſprinkle as ſand on writings.

AVARAMO-TEMO. The name of a ſiliquoſe tree which grows in Braſil. Its bark is externally of an aſh colour, and internally very red, both it and the leaves are aſtringent; a decoction of the bark hath been extolled to dry ulcers, and is ſaid to have cured cancers. Raii Hiſt.

AVELLANA, called alſo corylus, and the hazle-nut.

Miller takes notice of ſix ſorts, viz. the *hazle-nut*, the ſmall manured ditto, the large cob-nut, the Spaniſh nut, the red filbert, and the white filbert.

The juli, or katkins, which grow on the trees early in the ſpring, and the ſhells, are reſtringent or binding. An emulſion made of the kernels of nuts or filberts, and mead, is commended in coughs. Filberts nouriſh more than nuts, the roundeſt kernels are moſt eſteemed. They all afford a conſiderable quantity of an agreeable ſoft oil by expreſſion.

AVELLANA MEXICANA. See CACAO.

AVELLANA PURGATRIX. See CATAPUTIA and BEN.

AVELLANÆ INDICÆ GENUS OBLONGUM. An inferior ſpecies of nutmegs.

AVELLANA INDIANA. See ARECA.

AVENA. Oats. There are two kinds, the black and the white; they have ſimilar virtues, but the black ones are chiefly ſown for horſes; they are leſs viſcous and leſs nouriſhing than rice or wheat, yet afford a ſufficient nouriſhment to as active and vigorous a people as the world produces, viz. the Highlanders, in the north of this iſle. Gruels, made with them, digeſt eaſily, have a ſoft mucilaginous quality, by which they obtund acrimony in inflammatory diſorders, coughs, hoarſeneſs, roughneſs, and exulceration of the fauces.

Some aſſert that roaſted *oats* make hens lay eggs in great plenty.

Water-gruel anſwers all the purpoſes of Hippocrates's ptiſan.

AVENA GRÆCA. See BROMUS.

AVENA STERILIS. The great wild oat-graſs. See ÆGILOPS.

AVENQUA. The Portugueſe name for the adianthum Braſilianum. The maiden hair of Braſil.

AVENS, i. e. CARYOPHYLLATA.

AVENZOAR. An Arabian phyſician who lived to the age of one hundred and thirty-five; he began to practiſe at forty, or according to ſome, at twenty years of age. He is alſo called Abhomeron Aben Zoar.

AVERRHOES. He lived not long after Avenzoar; he died at Morocco. He is the only one among the ancient phyſicians, who ſays that the ſame perſon can have the ſmall-pox only once.

AVERSIO. Averſion. The diverting a flux of humours from one part to another, alſo a nauſea or inappetency, or the receſſion of the uterus from its proper place, which the ancients imagined to happen in hyſterics.

AVES CYPRIÆ. Odoriferous or perforated candles or ſticks of wax, made to be burnt in times of peſtilence.

AVEVETL. An Indian name for the abies mexicacua.

AVIB. An abbreviation of avibus.

AVICENNA. An Arabian phyſician, who was born at Bochara in Choraſan, in 980; he lived at Iſpahan chiefly; he died in the 58th year of his age; he compiled a large work which he called Liber Canonis; he copied chiefly from Galen. His writings, though they contain but little that is extraordinary, yet in the 12th and 13th centuries they were commented on in all public ſchools, and were in principal eſteem till the reſtoration of learning.

AVICULA CYPRIA, i. e. Aves cypriæ.

AVICULÆ HERMETICÆ. The univerſal ſalt which is ſaid to be found in dew.

AVICULARIA SYLVII. A name for the greater Venus's looking-glaſs.

AVILA. A ſpecies of apple produced in India; it is larger than an orange, round, and of a yellow colour. It grows in South America, on a ſhrub or creeping plant, which adheres to the adjacent trees. This apple contains eight or ten nuts, in which are bitter kernels.

AVIS MEDICA. The peacock.

AVO. The mallows of Madagaſcar.

AVOIR DU POIS. This, in the French language, ſignifies *to have weight*, becauſe the pound ſo called, contains ſixteen ounces, and hath more weight by ſome ounces than that which is called Troy weight, which contains twelve ounces.

AVORNUS. A name of the black alder.

AVOSETA. An aquatic bird as large as a pigeon; its beak is four or five inches long, black, and turned up, and pointed at the end; the head is blackiſh, the body white, feet bluiſh, the toes joined by membranes, and the legs long. It is found in Italy.

AVRANCUM. Egg-ſhells.

AVRARIC. Mercury.

AXEA COMMISSURA. A ſort of articulation. See TROCHOIDES.

AXEDO. The name of a ſpell in Marcellus Empiricus, to render a perſon impotent.

AXILLA. The arm-pit.

AXILLARIA ARTERIA. The ſubclavian artery having left the thorax immediately above the firſt rib, in the interſtice between the portions of the ſcalenus muſcle, there receives the name *axillary*, becauſe it paſſes under the axilla. This *axillary* artery detaches the external mammary arteries to the breaſt; the *axillary* lies behind, on the inſide of the coracobrachiæus, when it has got to the

the under ſide of the ſubſcapularis, it gives off a branch to that muſcle, the ſerratus major anticus, &c. The *axillary* artery gives off the inferior ſcapular, which paſſes backwards, chiefly to the infra ſpinatus. Juſt below the head of the humerus the *axillary* throws off the humeral or articular artery, which paſſing round the joint anaſtimoſes with its fellow. The *axillary* artery commonly runs down behind the tendon of the pectoralis major, then paſſes over the coracobrachæus, goes down on the inſide more and more forwards, juſt covered by the inner edge of the biceps, paſſes under the aponeuroſis of that muſcle, and a little below the bend of the arm, between the pronator teres and ſupinator radii longus, divides into the radial and ulnar arteries.

AXILLARIS NERVUS. The axillary nerve; alſo called the articular nerve, ariſes from the laſt two cervical pairs; it runs in the hollow of the axilla, behind the head of the os humeri, between the muſculus teres major & minor, and turns from within outwards and backwards, round the neck of the bone, and runs to the deltoid muſcles.

AXILLARIS VENA. The axillary vein. It is the continuation of the ſubclavian vein, from its paſſage out of the thorax to the oppoſite ſide of the axilla.

AXIOMA. An axiom. A ſelf-evident propoſition, ſo neither requires nor admits of demonſtration.

AXIRNACH. Superfluous fat, found ſometimes in the upper eye-lids of children.

AXIS. That round which any thing revolves or is ſuppoſed to revolve.

AXIS. In botany; it is a taper column placed in the center of ſome flowers or katkins, about which the other parts are diſpoſed.

AXIS. The name of the ſecond vertebra (and according to ſome the firſt vertebra) of the neck, it hath a tooth which goes into the firſt vertebra, and this tooth is by ſome called the *axis*, by others the axle. Blancard ſays it is the third vertebra from the ſkull.

AXIS ARTERIÆ CŒLIACÆ. See Coeliaca Arteria.

AXUNGIA, from its uſe of unguendi, anointing axem, the axle of a chariot or ſuch like. Hog's-lard. See Adeps.

AXUNGIA CASTOREI. See Castor.

AXUNGIA LUNÆ. A ſort of terra ſigillata.

AXUNGLÆ LUNÆ CAYMICUS. A name for the white bole.

AXUNGIA DE MUMIA. Marrow.

AXUNGIA SOLIS, i. e. Terra ſigillata.

AXUNGIA VITRI. Sandiver, or ſalt of glaſs; it ſeparates from glaſs whilſt it is making, it is acrid and biting. It hath been uſed to clean the teeth with.

AYBORZAT. Galbanum.

AYCAPHER. Burnt copper.

AYCOPHOS. Burnt braſs.

AZAA. Red marl.

AZAC. An Arabian name for gum ammoniacum.

AZADARACHENI ARBOR. See Azedarach.

AZAGOR. Verdigriſe.

AZAMAR. Vermillion, or native cinnabar.

AZANE. A drop.

AZANITÆ ACOPON. The name of an acopon, or ointment, in P. Ægineta.

AZANITÆ CERATUM. The name of a cerate in Oribaſius.

AZAR. A drop.

AZARAVIUS. See Albucasis.

AZARNET. Auripigment.

AZAROLUS. A name of the Neapolitan medlar.

AZEDARACH, called alſo pſeudoſycomorus, azadaracheni arbor, arbor traxini folio flore cœruleo, zizipha candida. The bread-tree.

Its flowers are ſaid to be poiſonous, ſome ſay aperient and deobſtruent.

AZEDEGRIN, i. e. Lapis hæmatitis.

AZEFF. Sciſſile alum.

AZEG. Vitriol.

AZEMAFOR. Red lead.

AZEMASOR. Native cinnabar.

AZENSALI. A ſort of black ſtone found amongſt gold; alſo a ſort of moſs that grows on rocks.

AZIGOS. See Azygos.

AZIMAR. Burnt copper.

AZIUS LAPIS, i. e. Aſſius lapis.

AZOB, i. e. Alumen ſaccharinum.

AZOCH. A name given by Paracelſus to the mercurius philoſophorum, that is, to quickſilver extracted from any metalline body.

AZOM. Boiled butter.

AZOTH. The ſame as azoch. Paracelſus alſo ſignifies by it, the univerſal remedy prepared of the ſun, moon, and mercury.

Azoth is alſo taken for the liquor of ſublimed mercury, or quickſilver mixed with vitriol and ſalt, and ſo ſublimed, which is alſo called aqua permanens, cryſtallis philoſophorum, & luna phyſica. *Azoth* is a name for braſs. It ſometimes ſignifies the mercury of any metallic body.

AZRAGAR. Verdigriſe.

AZUB. Alum.

AZUR. Red coral.

AZURIUM. A chemical preparation deſcribed by Albertus Magnus. It conſiſts of mercury two parts, ſulphur one third, ſal ammoniac one fourth, mixed in a mortar, then ſet in a veſſel over the fire till a bluiſh ſmoke ariſes, then take it from the fire, break the glaſs, and powder the contents.

AZUTUM. The Armenian ſtone.

AZYGES. A name of the os ſphenoides.

AZYGOS MORGAGNII, i. e. Staphylinis.

AZYGOS, from *α*, *neg.* and *ζυγος*, *a pair*, *without a fellow*. The muſculus *azygos* of Morgagni, riſes tendinous from the junction of the oſſa palati, and runs down the palatum molle to the middle of the uvula, ſerving to elevate it.

AZYGOS PROCESSUS. See Sphenoides (os.)

AZYGOS VENA. A vein, ſo called becauſe it hath no fellow. It is alſo called vena ſine pari, & jugo. It is ſituated within the thorax on the right ſide, having no fellow on the left, whence it is called the vena *azygos*, and vena ſine pari. It ariſes poſteriorly from the vena cava ſuperior, a little above the pericardium; it is immediately bent backwards over the origin of the right lung, forming an arch which ſurrounds the great pulmonary veſſels on that ſide, as the arch of the aorta does thoſe on the left, with this difference, that the curve of the *azygos* is directly backwards, but the other is oblique, from thence it runs down by the right ſide of the vertebræ dorſi, and before the intercoſtal arteries, and getting behind or below the diaphragm, it terminates by an anaſtomoſis, ſometimes with the vena renalis, at others with the neighbouring lumbar vein, ſometimes immediately with the trunk of the vena cava inferior.

The vena *azygos* ſends out branches from its upper part to the aſpera arteria and bronchia, by the name of venæ bronchiales, afterwards it ſends out the intercoſtales dextræ ſuperiores lower down the intercoſtales dextræ inferiores.

Sometimes there is an *azygos*, on the left ſide, proceeding from the arch of the common *azygos*; it is afterwards diſtributed in the ſame manner as the other on the right ſide; but this diſpoſition is very variable.

The *azygos* having reached the laſt rib, ſends off a large branch, which bending outwards perforates the muſcles of the belly, is ramified betwixt different planes, and communicates with the branches of the intercoſtal veins, which run there.

AZYMAR. Native cinnabar.

AZYMOS, from *α*, *neg.* and *ζυμη*, *ferment*. Unfermented bread, as ſea-biſcuit, which, as Galen obſerves, is not very wholeſome, except where the digeſtive powers are too ſtrong.

B.

BAC

B. In the chemical alphabet is mercury.

BABUZICARIUS, from βαζαζω, to ſpeak inarticulately. The incubus or night-mare.

BACANON. Cabbage ſeed.

BACCA. A berry. In botany is a roundiſh fruit, moſtly ſoft, with one or more ſeeds in a pulpy ſubſtance, covered with a thin ſkin; but if harder, and covered with a thicker ſkin, it is called pomum, or apple.

BACCÆ, are ſmall roundiſh fruit that grow ſcatteringly upon trees and ſhrubs, and in that are diſtinguiſhed from acini, which are berries hanging in cluſters.

BACCAR. A name of the baccharis.

BACCHARIS, alſo called bac Monſpelienſium, conyza major vulgaris, eupatorium, great flea-bane, ploughman's ſpikenard. It is a ſweet-ſcented ſhrubby plant, uſed for making garlands; the leaves are rough, the ſtalk is bent into angles, and from one to four cubits high; the flowers are purple, inclining to white, of a fragrant ſmell, the roots like thoſe of black hellebore, they ſmell like cinnamon. It delights in rough and dry grounds. The roots are a powerful emenagogue, the leaves moderately aſtringent. Miller Bott. Hiſt.

BACCHIA. So Linnæus named the gutta Roſacea, which ſee.

BACCHICA. The ivy.

BACCHUS. Wine; alſo a fiſh called mugil or mullet.

BACCIFERA ARBOR BRASIL. See CAAGUACUBA.

BACCIFERA ARBOR BRASIL. FRUCTU MONOPYRENO FOLIO SESQUIPEDALI, i. e. Copiiba Braſilienſibus.

BACCIFERA ARBOR BRASIL. FRUCTU PIPER RECOPIENTE. The cubeb tree.

BACCIFERA INDICA. See ANAVINGA.

BACCIFERA ARBOR LAURIFOLIA AROMATICA FRUCTU VIRIDI CALICULATO RACEMOSO. The wild cinnamon tree, or the Winter's bark.

BACCIFEROUS. Baccifer, Lat. of *bacca*, *a berry*, and *fero*, *I bear*. An epithet added to the name of any tree, ſhrub, or plant that bears berries.

BACCINIA, i. e. Vaccinia.

BACHARIS, i. e. Baccharis.

BACHERI [PILUL. TONIC.] Mr. Bacher's tonic pills. See ASCITES.

BACILLA. A ſtick. Troches are ſometimes ſo called; and alſo ſome chemical inſtruments.

BACILLI. Troches; alſo a ſort of odoriferous candles, ſuch as are burnt to perfume the air.

BACILLUM, i. e. Bacilla; alſo a name of the aves cypriæ.

BACOBA, i. e. Banana.

BACON (ROGER) He was excommunicated by the pope, as being guilty of magic. He was an admirable chemiſt in the thirteenth century, and ſurpaſſed the pretended miracles of the magicians. He was a monk of Weſtminſter, but reſided at Oxford, where he flouriſhed in 1226. He excelled in alchemy, chemiſtry, natural magic, mechanics, metaphyſics, phyſics, and mathematics. He died at Oxford in 1284. Such of his works as remain, are writ in a clear and eaſy ſtyle: he was the greateſt man in his day, perhaps none in this excel him. His writings are ſo elegant, conciſe, ſtrong, and abound with ſuch juſt and exquiſite remarks on nature, that among all the chemiſts his equal is not known. In his book on

BAL

the nullity of magic, he ſhews, with great ſagacity and penetration, whence the notion ſprung, and how weak all pretenſions to it are; he proves that there cannot be any ſuch thing as magic, unleſs by the word is meant, a knowledge of the properties of bodies, and the methods of nature, by a dexterous application whereof many things may be produced more ſurpriſing than all the tricks yet ſhewn by magicians. It appears, from his works, that he was no ſtranger to gunpowder, phoſphorus, the refraction of the air, and the air pump. His works were printed in octavo, under the title of Frater Rogerius Baco de Secretis Artis & Naturæ.

BACULUS, i. e. Bacillum.

BADITIS. A name for the herb nymphæa, or clava Herculis.

BADIZA [AQ.] The Bath water.

BADUKKA. The proper name for the capparis arboreſcens Indica flore tetrapetalo. Raii Hiſt.

BADZCHER. A Perſian word for antidote.

BÆOS. In Hippocrates it means few; but in P. Ægineta, it is an epithet for a malagma.

BAGNIO. A ſweating houſe.

BAHEI COYOLLI. Ray takes it to be the areca, or fauſel.

BAHEL SCHULLI. An Indian tree; alſo called geniſta ſpinoſa Indica verticillata flore purpureo cœruleo.

A thorny ſhrub, of which there is one ſpecies, growing in ſandy ground, another in watery. A decoction of the roots is diuretic; the leaves boiled and ſprinkled in vinegar have the ſame effect. Raii Hiſt.

BAHOBAB, i. e. Baobab.

BAIAC. Ceruſs.

BALÆNA. The whale. See SPERMA CÆTI.

BALAMPULLI, i. e. Tamarindus.

BALANDA, and Valanida. Names of the beech tree.

BALANDINA. A factitious ſtone ſpoken of by Raymond Lully.

BALANI, or Glandes. A ſort of ſhell-fiſh ſhaped like an acorn, whence its name. It is alſo called pollicipedes; many ſorts of them are found adhering to the rocks on the coaſts of Britain, Normandy, Spain, &c.

BALANINUM (OL.) Oil of the ben nut.

BALANOCASTANUM, i. e. Bulbocaſtanum.

BALANOS. Properly it is an acorn; but Hippocrates, in his treatiſe de Affectionibus, expreſſes by it an oak. Theophraſtus uſes it ſometimes to expreſs any glandiferous tree. From the ſimilitude of form, this word is uſed to expreſs ſuppoſitories and peſſaries. It is a name for the glans penis.

BALANOS. See ADIPSOS.

BALANUS. The glans, or nut of the yard.

BALANUS MYREPSICA, i. e. Ben.

BALASIUS. A ſort of gem of the carbuncle kind.

BALAUSTIA. See BALAUSTIUM.

BALAUSTIUM, called alſo balauſtia, malus Punica ſylveſtris; the double flowered wild pomegranate, or the *balauſtine* tree. The Punica granatum, plena major, Linn.

Balauſtium is properly the cup of the flower of this tree. The *balauſtines*, which are in the ſhops, are large roſe-like flowers of a deep red colour, ſet in long, bell-ſhaped, tough cups; they are produced on the *balauſtia* flore pleno majore, C. B. which is a low prickly tree or ſhrub, with long narrow leaves, with a browniſh acerb

fruit,

fruit, about the ſize of an orange. It is a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, and is cultivated in our gardens for the beauty and duration of its flowers. The dry flowers are brought from abroad into England, but thoſe of our own growth do not ſeem to be inferior to the foreign.

Theſe flowers are mildly aſtringent, and have a rough bitteriſh taſte. They give out their virtue to water, and to rectified ſpirit of wine; the extracts made from theſe tinctures retain all their aſtringency, but the watery infuſion yields moſt, and the ſpirituous a ſomewhat ſtronger extract.

The doſe of theſe flowers may be to two drams, to which quantity, moſt of the vegetable aſtringents may be given.

BALBUTIES. A defect of ſpeech, properly that ſort of ſtammering, where the patient ſometimes heſitates, and immediately after ſpeaks precipitately; the pſelliſmus *balbutiens* of Dr. Cullen.

BALLIA-MUCCA-PIRA, i. e. Momordica.

BALISTÆ (Os.) i. e. Aſtragalus, from βαλλω, *to caſt*.

BALITISTERA. The terra rubea.

BALLOTE, called alſo marrubium nigrum fœtidum, marrubiaſtrum, melliſſophyllum, and black ſtinking horehound.

It ſhoots up from one root, in numerous black, ſquare, hairy ſtalks; the leaves like common horehound, but larger and rounder, black, and hairy, and ſet at diſtances about the ſtalk, like thoſe of the melliſſophyllum, by which name it is called by ſome; the flowers are white, and grow about the ſtalks in whorles. It grows in paths, highways, and hedges, flowering in July.

A ſtrong decoction of it, freely taken, is of great efficacy againſt hyſteric affections.

BALM, i. e. Balſ. Gileadenſis.

BALNEA. Baths.

Embrocations, fomentations, and *baths*, differ from each other as follows: the firſt are fluids, deſigned to paſs through the ſkin, when rubbed on it, to diſlodge ſome obſtruction, eaſe pain, or to irritate the part into more warmth, and a greater ſenſe of feeling: the ſecond differ only in the manner of application, which is with actual heat, by means of flannel cloths or ſponges, and that they are made in an aqueous menſtruum, as their application is more extenſive: the third differs from them both in being univerſal, the whole body being immerſed in a bath, and from the firſt in being always of a watery kind.

Baths are either of ſimple cold water, and then are called cold *baths*; ſimple or medicated water made hot, or that is ſo by natural means, theſe are called hot *baths*.

The firſt inſtance of cold bathing as a medicine, is that of Melampus's bathing the daughters of the king of Argos; and the firſt of warm bathing is Medea's uſe of it, whence ſhe was ſaid to boil people alive, becauſe that Pelias, king of Theſſaly, died in a warm *bath* under her care.

Of the artificial warm *baths*, the ſulphureous are the moſt uſeful, they promote perſpiration, they relax and penetrate. The following are good general forms for them:

Baln. *Sulphur*, *a Sulphur* Bath.

℞ Raſſur. guaiac. ſulph. nativ. āā ℔ i. ſs. coq. in aq. font. cong. xiij. ad xij. & adde aq. font. frigid. q. ſ.

vel,

℞ Hepar ſulphuris. ℥ij. Aq. font. calid. q. ſ.

Theſe baths ſhould be entered into every day, and in ſome obſtinate diſorders of the ſkin, twice a day is not too much.

Spring waters are uſually the coldeſt; but if required, the coldneſs may be increaſed by adding ſal ammoniac, nitre, or rolls of brimſtone, juſt before the patient enters into it.

The ſea water is the heavieſt, and is ſo in proportion to the degree of its ſaltneſs; but it is not ſo cold as the freſh water of ſprings.

Of the Cold Bath.

Cold bathing is the moſt uſeful where a violent ſhock is required, the humours are too much diſperſed, and a counteracting revulſion of the ſolids to promote the circulation of the blood and humours are impeded, and the ſurface of the body requires bracing up to a more tenſe degree.

The cold *bath* contracts the ſolids, condenſes the fluids, and accelerates their circulation; and this by its ſtimulus, when the water is freſh, and by its gravity as well as ſtimulus, when it is ſalt. As to preſſure, the cold and the hot *bath* ſeem not to differ; if the benefit is expected from this principle, the ſea-water muſt be choſen.

In tender conſtitutions, and ſome diſeaſes in which a morbid viſcidity is the offending cauſe, a moderate warm *bath* ſhould be uſed before the cold one is attempted, and the approach to coldneſs ſhould be gradual.

When the fibres are rigid, and the viſcera unſound, cold bathing is injurious; fat people are very little benefitted by it; and none ſhould engage in it before a gentle glow is excited in them by moderate exerciſe, and this when the ſtomach is the moſt empty.

Previous to cold bathing, evacuations, ſuch as the conſtitution of the patient requires, ſhould be made. When ſweating is to follow the immerſion in cold water, the patient ſhould return from the *bath* as ſpeedily as poſſible, be rubbed dry, and then put to bed. If cold bathing is uſed to increaſe the ſtrength, to preſerve health, or to thin the humours, ſweating ſhould not follow it. In a morning is the beſt time for the cold *bath*, becauſe then the perſpiration is generally moſt finiſhed, and the body moſt freed from what nature can alone throw off by the ſkin. If the cold water continues to make the patient cold and numb after he comes out of it, notwithſtanding precautions againſt this effect, this kind of bathing muſt be omitted. While it continues to excite an univerſal glow after coming out it, is uſeful.

In climes that are changeable, and where there is much damp weather, cold bathing, by making the ſkin leſs ſuſceptible of ſuch changes, proves very ſalutary. In cold countries, bathing in cold water is generally the leaſt diſagreeable, and the moſt ſalutary. The Ruſſians uſed cold bathing both frequently, and in a manner that is almoſt peculiar to themſelves; they firſt make themſelves ſweat and then plunge into the cold *bath*; but it ſhould be obſerved, that the different effects of going into cold water when hot, are from the different modes of the heat being excited. The Ruſſians heat themſelves before cold bathing, by expoſing their bodies to an external heat, and ſitting quietly in it; now in this caſe, though the pulſe is quickened, yet the lungs are not affected, nor is reſpiration hurried: but if the heat had been excited by exerciſe, that is, from within the body, the reſpiration would have been affected at the ſame time, and in the ſame degree as the pulſe; and from this circumſtance ariſes the danger of ſudden cold ſucceeding heat thus raiſed.

Though the proper uſe of a cold *bath* is very ſtrengthening to many, yet if the patient ſtays in much longer than is neceſſary for being wholly immerſed, he will be weakened by it, and that proportionably to his continuance there.

Dr. Wainwright obſerves, that the moſt obvious effects of bathing are, from the preſſure of the water on our bodies, and from its moiſture. The preſſure is increaſed by cold, and the moiſture by warmth; he further ſays, that firſt, if we would have the blood diſſolved; ſecondly, viſcid matter removed from the ſides of the veſſels; thirdly, the glands ſcoured; fourthly, the ſpirits increaſed and rendered more active: fifthly, the urinary diſcharge promoted; ſixthly, obſtructions in the viſcera removed; if the caſes are not remarkably confirmed, order bathing, for on the firſt, ſecond, and third of the above intentions, it is that we proceed thereby to cure the itch, leproſy, and elephantiaſis; on the firſt four, the palſy, melancholy, and madneſs; on the fifth, gravelly caſes; the ſixth, in conjunction with the other, in cachectic, icteric, and hydropic caſes.

Of the Hot Bath.

Warm bathing was regarded by the Greeks and Romans not only as an efficacious remedy, but alſo as one of the higheſt enjoyments of luxury. The North American Indians, are very ſucceſsful in their cures by vapour bathing, which they manage by ſhutting themſelves in a ſmall

ſmall room, then throwing a very hot ſtone into a pail of water, and when thus ſweated for ſome time, they plunge into cold water, then return again to receive the hot vapours. The Greeks, at this day, have hot *baths* in their houſes, if capable of anſwering the expence; if not, public ones are provided by the government for them, which alſo obliges them to bathe there at certain periods of time, though no diſorder is manifeſt; and certainly with much reaſon, eſpecially as age advances, for old people are ſtrengthened by it, perſpiration is alſo facilitated, which in dry ſkins is much retarded, and thus many diſeaſes are prevented.

It is on the principle of abſorption that benefit by the warm, and all medicated *baths*, is expected.

Before entering on a courſe of hot bathing, let the plethora, if there is any, be reduced by proper evacuation; make the bowels lax if they are not already ſo; and conſider well whether the cold or hot *bath* is the propereſt means of removing the diſorder.

When diſorders, or their cauſes, are confined to the inward parts, ſo as to interfere with their functions, then the warm *bath* is the propereſt method of relief.

The heat of the *bath* being regulated (for weakly people faint in very warm ones), let the patient's body be well rubbed, that its power of abſorption may be increaſed, and it ſhould be well dried at leaſt, on returning out of the water.

In the morning faſting, and four hours after dinner, are proper times for bathing, and an hour at a time is the longeſt ſtay in the *bath* that ſhould be permitted.

If after bathing a few times, the belly ſeems retracted, the patient will be benefited by continuing it; but if the hypochondres ſeem inflated, and uneaſineſs is complained of in the bowels, or if alternate heat and cold affect the patient, it muſt be omitted.

The corpulent, thoſe with tenſe fibres, and thoſe with cold temperaments, are much benefitted by the warm *bath*.

The ſenſations of the patient will beſt determine the neceſſary degree of heat to be uſed, that which produces the moſt agreeable ones is the point to be abided by; but where much heat is moſt likely to be of uſe, it can be beſt ſupported by the patient, if a ſmall quantity of petroleum Barbadenſe is added to the water.

Cancers have been much relieved by *baths*, and more benefit may perhaps be obtained by this method of cure than by any other; for the glands are the moſt abſorbent parts, and by this method medicines come directly to the part, whereas by the ſtomach they undergo ſome change before they arrive at their proper ſeat of action. Probably ſcirrhous tumours, tophs, nodes, &c. would be beſt attacked in their beginning this way.

Warm bathing is generally forbid in thoſe diſorders which impair the underſtanding, which affect the head with giddineſs and pain, in which the lungs are impaired or troubled, when inflammation is an attendant ſymptom, when a flying gout or rheumatiſm is alſo the matter of complaint, and when there are moveable tumours. But in almoſt, if not every other caſe, where bathing is adviſeable, the warm is to be preferred; and if it neither ſinks the ſpirits, waſtes the ſtrength, nor leſſens the appetite, it will be proper to continue it.

See among the ancients Hippocrates, Celſus, Cœlius Aurelianus, Aretæus, and Trallian; and among the moderns, Hoffman, Sir John Floyer, and Dr. Wainwright, on Bathing.

BALNEABILIS. An epithet for ſuch waters as are proper for bathing.

BALNEUM ARENÆ. The ſand bath.

Over the mouth of a common wind furnace, place one end of an iron plate, with a ledge round it, and under this plate the canal muſt run, by which the furnace communicates with its chimney; the plate muſt then be filled with ſand or other dry matter, for placing the medicines to be digeſted in; the fire then being kindled, the heat will be different in different parts of the plate, and thus, as the things to be digeſted require more or leſs warmth, they may, at the ſame time, be ſuited by one and the ſame fire, for the heat of the ſand gradually decreaſes as the plate on which it lays is extended from the mouth of the furnace.

The veſſel containing the matter to be heated, hath its bottom and ſides totally covered with the ſand, and there it is continued until the digeſtion is completed.

Aſhes may be uſed in this *bath*, when a leſſer heat is wanted, ſand for a greater, and iron filings for the greateſt.

BALNEUM MARIÆ VEL MARIS. The water or vapour bath; ſometimes it imports the heat of boiling water.

This is when the veſſel, containing the matter to be treated, is placed in another that is full of water, under which a fire is put, that by this means the water becoming hot, may, in its turn, heat the matter to be digeſted. When a greater heat than that of boiling water is not required, this method of digeſtion is preferable to that by the ſand *bath*, becauſe the heat cannot exceed at any time that which is required.

BALNEUM SICCUM, i. e. Balneum arenæ.

BALNEUM VAPORIS. A vapour bath. This is properly when the veſſel containing the matter to be digeſted is expoſed only to the ſteam that ariſes from boiling water.

BALSAMATIO. The embalming of dead bodies.

BALSAMEA. Balm of Gilead fir. See ABIES.

BALSAMELÆON, i. e. Balm of Gilead.

BALSAMELLA, i. e. Balſamina.

BALSAMI OLEUM. Balm of Gilead.

BALSAMICA. Balſamics. *Balſamica* is a Latin word which ſignifies *mitigating*. The term *balſamic* is a very lax one; it includes medicines of very different qualities, as emollients, detergents, reſtoratives, &c. but in medicines of all theſe kinds there ſeems to be this requiſite in them, viz. that they be ſoft, yielding and adheſive, alſo that by their ſmallneſs they have a ready diſpoſition to motion. Medicines of this tribe are generally required for complaints whoſe ſeat is in the viſcera, and as they cannot be conveyed there but by the common road of the circulation, it follows that no great effects can be expected from them but by their long continuation. Hoffman calls thoſe medicines by the name of *balſamics* which are hot and acrid, alſo the natural balſams, gums, &c. by which the vital heat is increaſed.

Dr. Fothergill cautions againſt the very general uſe of *balſamics* in conſumptions; to this end he inſerted a valuable paper in the fourth volume of the London Medical Obſervations and Inquiries; ſee it alſo in Dr. Fothergill's Works, vol. ii. Amongſt other obſervations, he ſays, that from the idea, that all *balſams* are healing, and that in all ulcers they are indicated, they have been directed in caſes of ulcer in the lungs; the conſequence he doubts not, hath been frequently fatal. *Balſamic* medicines, he adds, are warm, and ſtimulate the ſolids; the effect of ſuch medicines will vary greatly in different ſtates, &c. of the ſame diſeaſes, *e. g.* If in an inflamed ulcer, in a young and vigorous conſtitution, a warm ſtimulating gummy reſin is applied, pain, heat, and inflammation will enſue, fluxion to the pained part will be great, a very conſiderable diſcharge will follow, conſiſting of the juices emitted from the wounded veſſels, and the veſſels themſelves diſſolved by heat and putreſcence. If theſe are exceſſive, the detriment to the ſick will be in proportion to the degree of the diſcharge and the part affected. The ſame medicines applied to a cold, ſerous, phlegmatical habit, in an advanced age, will be juſt ſufficient perhaps to produce ſuch effects as would be deemed perfectly ſalutary; that is, bring on a proper digeſtion. Suppoſe now, that theſe medicines have ſimilar effects when internally exhibited, what can be expected from them in caſes of ulcerated lungs? If they paſs the ſtomach, &c. and arrive at the ſeat of diſeaſe unaltered, their effects will be as juſt related. They will ſtimulate, quicken the circulation through the lungs, and by conſequence render their motion more frequent; a circumſtance very unfavourable to their being healed. If the patient is young and vigorous, the diſcharge of fluids, and the diſſolution of the ſolids, will be in proportion to the activity and heat of the medicine, and the temperament of the ſufferer. Theſe effects will at once be condemned as injurious in a diſeaſe which requires the heat to be abated, and the irritation to be leſſened; ſymptoms which never fail to manifeſt themſelves when the lungs are ulcerated.

Though,

Though, as antiſeptics, *balſamic* medicines ſhould be propoſed, their ſtimulus on the ſolids would produce ill effects, too far counterbalancing the advantage, to admit of their being adminiſtered.

BALSAMIFERA, i. e. Balſ. Peruv.

BALSAMIFERA (Arbor Brasiliensis). The balſam capivi tree.

BASAMIFERA ARBOR INDICA. The Peruvian balſam tree.

BALSAMINA, i. e. Momordica.

BALSAMITA, called alſo bálſamum mas, coſtus hortorum, mentha Saracenica officinarum Germaniæ, mentha hortenſis corymbifera, tanacetum hortenſe foliis & odore menthæ, ageratum latifolium ferratum, coſtmary and alecoſt. The tanacetum *balſamita* of Linn. The leaves have an agreeable odour, reſembling that of a mixture of mint and maudlin; to the taſte they are bitteriſh and aromatic; but they are not in uſe. In diſtillation water elevates their flavour; and rectified ſpirit of wine extracts all their virtue by infuſion.

The ageratum is a good ſubſtitute for this plant.

BALSAMITA LUTEA. A ſpecies of perſicaria.

BALSAMITA MINOR, i. e. Ageratum.

BASAMITA MAJOR, i. e. Balſamita.

BALSAMUM, called alſo balſamum genuinum antiquorum, balſamelæon, balſ. Gileadenſis, Aſiaticæ, Judaicum, e Meccha, & Alpini; oleum balſami, xylobalſamum, opobalſamum, and the balm of Gilead.

The *balm of Gilead* is a reſinous juice, obtained from an evergreen tree or ſhrub, ſaid to grow in Syria and Arabia. The amyris Gileadenſis, or amyris foliis ternatis integerrimis, pedunculis uniſloris lateralibus. Linn. The beſt ſort, which naturally exudes from the plant, is ſcarcely known in Europe. Proſper Alpinus ſays that it is at firſt turbid and whitiſh, of a ſtrong pungent ſmell, like that of turpentine, but much ſweeter and more fragrant, of a bitter acrid aſtringent taſte; on being kept it becomes thin, limpid, light, greeniſh, and then of a golden yellow; after which it is thick like turpentine, and loſes much of its fragrance; ſome compare its ſmell to that of citrons, others to a mixture of roſemary and ſage flowers.

It does not ſeem to excel any other of the balſams except in its fragrance; all the balſams agree in their general qualities, differing only in the degrees of warmth, pungency, and gratefulneſs. The *balm of Gilead* is a warm, ſtimulating, expectorating, detergent, diuretic, cordial, and nervine medicine; its diuretic quality is greatly increaſed by the addition of a fixt alkaline ſalt.

The Canadian *balm of Gilead* fir affords a balſam that is often impoſed for the genuine ſort. If the true balſam is dropped into water (when thin) it ſpreads itſelf on the ſurface, imparting to the water much of its taſte and ſmell, and the groſſer part remaining at the top is thick enough to be taken up with a needle; this is reckoned a mark of its being genuine. If pure balſam is dropped on a woollen cloth, it may be waſhed off without leaving the leaſt ſtain or mark, but the adulterated ſticks to the place. The pure coagulates with milk, but the adulterated will not.

This balſam is made into draughts by mixing it as follows:

℞ *Balſam. Gileadenſ.* ʒ i. Pulv. gum. arabic. ℈ i. Gradatim adde aq. puræ ℥ i. ſs. Aq. cinnam. fort. ʒ ij. f. hauſt.

BALUX. A name for the ſand of ſome rivers which is mixed with gold.

BAMBALIO. A man that ſtammers or liſps.

BAMBAX. Cotton.

BAMIA MOSCHATA, i. e. Abelmoſch.

BAMBU, i. e. Arundo Tabaxifera.

BAMIA, i. e. Alcea Indica.

BAMMA, i. e. Embamma.

BAN. The Egyptian plant called calaf.

BAN ARBOR. The coffee tree.

BANANA, called alſo ficoides ſeu ficus Indica, muſa fructu cucumerino breviori, ſenoriæ, paccira, bacoba, and the banana tree. It grows in America; its fruit is diuretic, heating, and nouriſhing.

BANANIERA. A name of the ficus Indica.

BANDURA, called alſo planta mirabilis diſtillatoria. Its ſeeds and ſeed-veſſels are like thoſe of gentian; but it is moſt remarkable for a foliacious ſheath about a foot long, and as thick as a man's arm; it hangs by a leaf, and is half full of a fine potable liquor. The root is aſtringent, the liquor in the ſheath is cooling, it grows not far from Columbo in moiſt ſhady woods. Raii Hiſt.

BANGUE, called alſo *bangue* canabi ſimile, cannabis Indica trifoliata, *bangue* Indorum; cannabis peregrina, altheææ foliis cannabinis, kalengi-cansjava, tſycru-cansjava.

It reſembles hemp in its ſtalk, the rind of the ſtalk, and the leaves; but its medicinal qualities differ very much. The ſeeds and leaves are heating, and ſtrangely affect the imagination. It grows in Indoſtan and other parts of the Eaſt Indies.

BANGUE. See Hyosciamus.

BANICA. See Pastinaca.

BANILIA, i. e. Vanilla.

BANILAS, i. e. Vanilla.

BANISTERA. Miller takes notice of five ſpecies, all natives of the warmer parts of America. Three ſorts grow in Jamaica, the other two in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. They grow in woods, and run up adjacent trees to the height of ten or twelve feet. Father Plumier and Sir Hans Sloane called them maple; but the flower, and indeed all the plant except its ſeed, being ſo very different, Dr. Houſtoun named them baniſteria.

BAOBAB. This tree is the largeſt production of the whole vegetable kingdom. The trunk is not above twelve or fifteen feet high, but from ſixty-five to ſeventy-eight feet round. The loweſt branches extend almoſt horizontally, and as they are about ſixty feet in length, their own weight bends their extremities to the ground, and thus form an hemiſpherical maſs of verdure of about one hundred and twenty or one hundred and thirty feet diameter.

The roots extend as far as the branches. That in the middle forms a pivot, which penetrates a great way into the earth, the reſt ſpread near the ſurface thereof.

The flowers are in proportion to the ſize of the tree; and are followed by an oblong fruit pointed at both ends, about ten inches long, five or ſix broad, covered with a kind of greeniſh down, under which is a ligneous rind, hard and almoſt black, marked with rays which divide it lengthways into ſides. This fruit hangs to the tree by a pedicle two feet long and an inch diameter. It contains a whitiſh ſpongey juicy ſubſtance, of an acid taſte, and ſeeds of a brown colour and the ſhape of a kidney-bean. The pulp that ſurrounds theſe ſeeds is powdered when dry, and brought into Europe from the Levant under the name of terra ſigillata Lemnia. It grows moſtly in the weſt coaſt of Africa from the Niger to the kingdom of Benin.

It is the only ſpecies of the genus called by Linnæus, adanſonia.

The bark of this tree is called lalo; the negroes dry it in the ſhade, then powder and keep it in little cotton bags, and put two or three pinches into their food; it cools them and promotes perſpiration.

The mucilage obtained from this bark is a powerful remedy againſt the epidemic fevers of the country that produces theſe trees; ſo is a decoction of the dried leaves. The freſh fruit is as uſeful as the leaves for the ſame purpoſes.

Proſper Alpinus, in his De Plantis Ægypt. deſcribes a fruit under the name of *bachab*, which is of the ſize of a lemon, and reſembles a gourd in its ſubſtance, of a gratefully acid taſte, with black ſeeds in it, and a pulp of a red colour. And from its reſemblance to this fruit, a ſtone which he mentions is called the *bachab* ſtone.

BAPTISTRUM FLORE LUTEO SILIQUA GLABRA ARTICULATA. A ſpecies of raphaniſtrum.

BAPTICA (Coccus). Kermes berries.

BAPTISECULA. The leſſer blue-bottle or corn-flower.

BAPTUS. A bituminous ſoft foſſil of an agreeable ſmell, mentioned by Agricola.

BARACH (Panis). Rulandus explains it by nitrum ſalis.

BARAMETZ. See Agnus Scythicus.

BARAS. In M. A. Severinus it is the ſame as alphas or leuce.

BARBA. So the four leſſer claws of the populus are called.

BARBA. See Barbus.

BARBA ARONIS, i. e. Arum.

BARBA CAPRÆ, i. e. Ulmaria.

BARBA HIRCI, i. e. Tragopogon.

BARBA JOVIS. The ſilver buſh.

Miller mentions nine ſpecies of it; but it is of no known medical uſe. Raii Hiſt.

The *barba Jovis* of Pliny is a ſpecies of ſumach.

Barba Jovis is a name of the ſempervivum majus.

BARBADENSIS (Aqua.) Barbadoes water. See Citreum.

BARBAREA, called alſo Herba ſanctæ barbaræ, naſturtium hybernum, pſeudobunias, eruca lutea latifolia, ſiſymbrium, carperitaria, winter creſſes, garden rocket, rocket gentle. This plant reſembles the muſtard plant, but is diſtinguiſhed by the ſmoothneſs of its leaves, and its diſagreeable ſmell. Its qualities are ſimilar to thoſe of creſſes. It is a native of Switzerland, but cultivated in our gardens.

The wild *rocket*, called eruca ſilveſtris, hath leaves like thoſe of dandelion, the flowers are yellow. It grows on old walls, and amongſt rubbiſh.

Both the kinds of *rocket* are acrid to the taſte, but the wild is the moſt ſo.

The active matter of the leaves is extracted by expreſſion; by infuſion in boiling water; and by digeſtion in rectified ſpirit; by diſtillation in water a pungent yellow oil is obtained; drying the herb, and making an extract, deſtroys the diſagreeable ſmell and pungency of the herb. The pungency of the ſeeds is leſs volatile, they are of ſimilar qualities to thoſe of muſtard, but not ſo ſtrong.

BARBAREA. A name of ſome ſpecies of ſiſymbrium.

BARBARIA. Rhubarb.

BARBAROSSA (Pil). Barbaroſſa's pill. It was compoſed of quickſilver, rhubarb, diagridium, muſk, amber, &c. and was the firſt internal mercurial medicine which obtained any real credit.

BARBARUM. The name of a plaſter in Scribonius Largus.

BARBEL. See Barbus.

BARBO. See Barbus.

BARBOTA. The barbut. A ſmall river fiſh, with a very large head. It is generally about ſix inches long, it lives on mud and ſlime, is found in the river which runs by Tamworth, in Warwickſhire. The row, as well as that of the eel-pout, operates both upwards and downwards.

BARBULÆ. They are the half-florets of compound flowers.

BARBUS, called alſo barba, barbo, myſtus fluviatilis, and barbel. It is a fiſh of an oblong form, and a middle ſize, beſet with large tender ſcales, and found in pure running waters. There are two ſorts, one is bearded, the other not. They breed three times in a year.

BARBYROUSA. A ſpecies of hog met with in ſome of the Eaſt India iſles, particularly that called Bouro.

BARDANA. Burdock. It grows on highway ſides, and is ſufficiently known by the burs which ſtick to the cloaths.

BARDANA MAJOR, called alſo lappa major, perſonata arcium Dioſcoridis, Britannica, clot-burr, or great bur-dock. It is the arctium lappa, or the arctium major, foliis cordatis inermibus petiolatis. Linn. The roots have very little ſmell, but a ſweetiſh taſte, with a light bitteriſhneſs and roughneſs. Boiled in water they impart a browniſh colour, and a ſoft vapid kind of taſte. Extracts, however made, are as inſipid as the root. They are chiefly commended as diuretic and antiſcorbutic; but are alſo uſed againſt rheumatiſms, the lues venerea, and in all caſes in common in which China and ſarſaparilla roots are uſed, for it reſembles them in all their ſenſible qualities.

The leaves are bitter, and more ſaline than the roots, and have none of their ſweetneſs. The ſeeds are bitter, and ſlightly aromatic. A dram of them is a doſe as a diuretic; but the prickly matter on their ſurface muſt be well removed before adminiſtering them. The beſt method of uſing this plant as a medicine is in the form of a decoction, in which the root only is boiled, e. g.

Decoctum Bardanæ *Rad.* *The Decoction of* Burdock *Root.*

℞ Rad. Bardan. ℥ ij. aq. puræ ℔ iij. coq. ad conſumpt. ℔ i. & adde tart. vitriolat. ʒ ij.

Of this a pint ſhould be taken every day in ſcorbutic and rheumatic complaints.

BARDANA MINOR, called alſo lappa minor, xanthium, the leſſer burdock, or louſe-bur. The ſtalk is juicey, the leaves oblong, and ſharp pointed, and of a yellowiſh green. The flowers are inconſiderable, but the fruit is a rough capſulæ, containing a ſingle ſeed. From this roughneſs of the fruit it is called a *burdock*, though not in the leaſt allied to that plant. It grows in rich fat ſoils, and is found on ſome commons. Its juice is commended againſt ſcrophulous diſorders.

BARDANA ARCTICUM, called alſo lappa major montana, bardana montana, perſonata altera, perſonata montana, and woolly-headed burdock. Its virtues are much the ſame with the other ſpecies of *burdocks*.

BARIGLIA, or Barilla. Names of the mineral fixed alkaline ſalt.

BARLERIA. A plant ſo called from Jacobus Barelier, of Paris, a great botaniſt. In Jamaica it is called ſnap-dragon. Miller mentions two ſpecies; but it is not noted for medicinal virtues.

BARNACLE. A ſhell-fiſh, that is found adhering to the planks of ſhips during long voyages. It is alſo a name of a ſpecies of gooſe that is met with in Scotland.

BARNET WATER. It is of the purging kind, of a ſimilar quality to that of Epſom; and about half its ſtrength. See Aqua.

BAROMETER, of βαρος, *heavy*, and μετρον, *meaſure*. An inſtrument for determining what the weight of the air is, or with which to obſerve the changes in the air; it is commonly called a weather-glaſs. It is frequently called the Torricellian tube, from Torricelli its inventor. He conſidered that a column of water of about thirty-three feet, was equal in weight to a column of air of the ſame baſe: and concluded, that a column of mercury, of about twenty-nine inches and a half would likewiſe be equal to a column of air. He accordingly made the experiment, and the apparatus he then uſed is now the common barometer.

The bore of the common ones that are hawked about for ſale is too ſmall. The glaſs tube ſhould be one-third, or at the leaſt one-fourth of an inch in diameter, hermetically ſealed at one end, and open at the other; the length ſhould be thirty-four inches: the mercury with which it is filled muſt be pure. Fill the tube quite full with this mercury; and having in readineſs a baſon with a flat bottom, and about two inches high, in which is alſo ſome mercury; invert the tube, and put it in the baſon, ſtill holding your finger underneath it, till it is in the mercury of the baſon, then place it in a frame. On taking away your finger, the mercury in the tube will immediately ſubſide to about twenty-nine or thirty inches, according to the ſtate of the air, it being very rarely lower than twenty-eight, or higher than thirty-one inches. In the *barometers* that are generally uſed, the higheſt which the mercury is known to ſtand in the tube, is uſually about twenty-nine inches, when the air is heavy; but not above twenty-ſix, when the air is very light. If a ſcale of four inches be divided into tenths, and placed againſt the upper end of the tube, the inſtrument is complete.

In fine dry weather the air is charged with a variety of vapours, which float in it unſeen, and render it extremely heavy, ſo that it preſſes up the quickſilver; or, in other words, the *barometer* riſes. In moiſt rainy weather the vapours are waſhed down, or there is not heat ſufficient for them to riſe, ſo that then the air is ſenſibly lighter, and preſſes up the quickſilver with leſs force; or, in other words, the *barometer* falls.

The *barometer* meaſures the weight of the air with exactneſs enough for the general purpoſes of life, yet it is often affected with a thouſand irregularities, that no exactneſs in the inſtrument can remedy, nor theory account for. When high winds blow the mercury is generally low; it riſes higher in cold weather than in warm; and is uſually higher in the morning and evening than at midday: it generally deſcends lower after rain than it was before it. There are alſo frequent changes in the air without any ſenſible alteration in the *barometer*. In general, men feel themſelves braced ſtrong, and vigorous, with a large body of air preſſing upon them: they are languid, relaxed, and feeble, when the air is light, and ſo fails to

give our fibres their proper tone. On advancing up high mountains, the air is leſs and leſs denſe, and uſually the ſame inconveniencies are felt there that are complained of when the air is moiſt. But it is obſerved in the Journey to the Glaciers (in the Duchy of Savoy) edit. 2. that Mr. de Luc and his companions, when at the ſummit of Buett, were above the level of the Mediterranean ſea 3315 Engliſh yards; yet, except by their inſtruments, did not perceive any difference in the denſity of the air. The air there they found to be near one-third leſs denſe than that of the plains below them; yet, though the weight of the atmoſphere was ſo much diminiſhed, the equilibrium within their bodies was undiſturbed. In this place, Mr. de Luc obſerves, how much naturaliſts are deceived, in attributing the alterations that many perſons experience upon the falling of the *barometer*, to a difference either in the weight or denſity of the air, aſſigning as a cauſe, the failure of an equilibrium between the external and internal air, or a difference of motion in the heart and lungs, occaſioned by the air's being more or leſs denſe. For, if theſe changes (he ſays) could ſo ſenſibly affect our organs, what would become of thoſe Chamois hunters, who paſs every day from the bottom of the vallies to the higheſt mountains? What would become of the women of the hamlets by Sixt, who go up to Fonds (a diſtance of above ſix hundred yards in perpendicular height) every night in the ſummer ſeaſon, to milk their cows, and leaving their cattle to the care of their children, go down again every morning to aſſiſt their huſbands in the cultivation of their lands? Theſe people perceive no inconvenience; even aſthmatic people find none, notwithſtanding the *barometer* varies in theſe ſeveral places, as is uſually obſerved in other ſimilar ones. It is added, that it is neceſſary to have recourſe to ſome other cauſe, which ordinarily accompanies the variations of the *barometer*, to account for the alterations in our health, and particularly in our ſtrength, from which few people, perhaps, upon ſuch occaſions, are entirely exempted.

The *barometer* may be applied to ſeveral uſes, as meaſuring the heights of mountains; for twelve thouſand and forty inches of air being equal to one inch of mercury near the ſurface of the earth, twelve hundred and four inches, or one hundred feet, muſt be equal to one-tenth of an inch of mercury. Conſequently, if a *barometer* be carried up any great eminence, the mercury will deſcend one-tenth of an inch for every one hundred feet that the *barometer* aſcends.

But the great uſe of the *barometer*, is to predict the future ſtate of the weather for ſeveral hours, and ſometimes days preceding, though not to a certainty, yet in many inſtances to a good degree of probability: in order to which obſerve, 1ſt, the riſing of the mercury preſages fair weather, and its falling, wet. 2d, In very hot weather, the falling of the mercury foretels thunder. 3d, In winter, its riſing portends froſt; and in a continued froſt, foretels ſnow. 4th, When foul weather happens ſoon after the falling of the mercury, expect but little of it; and ſo on the contrary of weather. 5th, When the mercury continues to riſe for ſome time before the foul weather is over, expect a continuance of fair weather to follow. 6th, In fair weather, when the mercury continues to fall before rains comes, then expect a great deal of it, and probably high winds. 7th, The unſettled motion of the mercury denotes changeable weather.

It is not ſo much the height of the mercury that indicates the weather, as its motion up and down; therefore to know whether the mercury is actually riſing or falling, obſerve the following: 1ſt, If the ſurface of the mercury be convex, it is then riſing. 2d, If the ſurface be concave, it is falling. 3d, If the ſurface is plain, or rather convex, it may be conſidered as ſtationary.

There are different forms of this inſtrument; they have each their advantages and diſadvantages: but the common ſort is as good, if not better, than any other.

BAROMETZ, i. e. Agnus Scythicus.

BARONES. Small worms, called alſo nepones.

BAROS. Gravity. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs by it an uneaſy weight in any part.

BAROS. An Indian name for that ſpecies of camphor, which is diſtilled from the roots of the true cinnamon tree.

BAROSCOPE, i. e. Barometer.

BARR. ICON. An abbreviation of Jacobus Barrelierus Icones Plantarum per Galliam, Hiſpaniam, & Italiam, Obſervatarum.

BARR. SPEC. INS. An abbreviation of Jacobus Barrelierus Specimen Inſectorum.

BARTHOLINIANÆ GLANDULÆ, i. e. ſublinguales glandulæ.

BARYOCOCCALON. A name for the ſtramonium.

BARYPHONIA, from βαρυς, *dull*, and φωνη, *the voice*. A difficulty of ſpeaking.

BARYPICRON. A name for the abſinthium latifolium.

BASAAL. The name of an Indian tree growing about Cochin. It flowers and bears fruit once every year, from the firſt year of its bearing, to the fifteenth. A decoction of its leaves with ginger in water is uſed as a gargariſm againſt diſorders of the fauces. The kernels of the fruit kill worms. Raii Hiſt.

BASALTES. A rough hard ſtone of the colour of iron. It is a genus of the order called cryptometalline ſtos. Its characters are amongſt the deſiderata. It is mineralized with iron and other metals. There are ſeven ſpecies, and ſeveral varieties. See Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy. The tranſlator of Macquer's Chem. Dict. adds in a note under the word *baſaltes*, that it is a heavy, hard ſtone, chiefly black or green, conſiſting of priſmatic cryſtals, the number of the ſides of which is uncertain. It is called by the Engliſh mineralogiſts cockle, and by the Germans ſchorl. Its ſpecific gravity is to that of water, as 3000 or upwards to 1000. It is conſidered by Wallerius as a ſpecies of the corneus or hornrock. Cronſtedt enumerates it among the earths which he called garnet earths. *Baſaltes* frequently contains iron, and conſiſts either of particles of an indeterminate figure, or of a ſparry, ſtriated, or fibrous texture. Black *baſaltes* is called lapis lydius, and is uſed as a touchſtone to ſhew the colour of metals. *Baſaltes* has a flinty hardneſs, is inſoluble by acids, and is fuſible by fire.

BASELLA. Climbing night-ſhade from Malabar. It hath an annual root, a purple climbing ſtalk, thick ſucculent leaves, and flowers that are in ſpikes. Miller enumerates three ſpecies, but they are of no note in medicine.

BASILARE (Os). A name of the os cuneiforme. It is alſo a name of the os ſphenoides from its forming the middle of the baſis of the ſkull. The os ſacrum is called by this name too.

BASILARIS ARTERIA. It is a branch of the vertebral *artery*, upon the apophyſis *baſilaris* of the os occipitis. The two vertebral *arteries* ſoon unite, after they have got into the ſkull and form this *artery* about the cuneiform proceſs of the os occipitis. It runs forward under the great tranſverſe portuberance of the medulla oblongata, to which it gives ramifications, as well as to the neighbouring parts of the medulla. Sometimes it divides into two branches from about the apophyſis *baſilaris*, which communicate with the poſterior branches of the two internal carotids, and are loſt in the poſterior lobe of the brain.

BASILEION. An epithet for a collyrium in Actius.

BASILIARIS APOPHYSIS. The great apophyſis of the os occipitis.

BASILICA NUX. The wall-nut.

BASILICA VENA. See Cephalica.

BASILICA VENA. The ancients termed the *baſilic vein* of the right arm, the *vein* of the liver (*vena hepatica brachii*); and that of the left arm, the *vein* of the ſpleen (*vena ſplenica brachii*). Sometimes the *baſilica* hath a double origin, by a branch of the communication with the trunk of the axillaris. It continues its courſe along the middle of the os humeri, between the muſcles and integuments; and having reached the inner condyle, and ſent off obliquely in the fold of the arm, the mediana *baſilica*, it runs along the ulna, between the integuments and muſcles, a little towards the outſide, by the name of cubitalis externa: and, a little below it, ſends off another branch, which runs along the inſide of the fore-arm near the ulna; this branch may be called cubitalis interna.

BASILICON, (Unguentum), from βασιλικος, *royal*. The royal ointment. It was ſo called from its ſuppoſed

kingly

kingly virtues. Quincy ſays that Meſſue was its inventor, but long before him Aetius deſcribed it in his Tetrab. iv. Serm. iii. cap. xxi. The London college directs three ſorts to be made thus:

Unguentum Baſilicum *Flavum*. *Yellow* Baſilicum.

Take of olive oil a pint; yellow wax, yellow roſin, Burgundy pitch, of each a pound; of common turpentine three ounces. Melt the wax, roſin, and pitch, with the oil, over a gentle fire. Then take them off, add the turpentine, and ſtrain the mixture while it remains hot.

It is commonly employed as a digeſtive on wounds and ulcers: it is as uſeful as the linim. Arcæi (now called unguent. e gummi elemi.) If it is required to be a little warmer, a few drops of ol. tereb. com. added juſt when uſed will make it ſo. It gives place to no medicine of its intention, and juſtly ſuperſedes the uſe of all others of its kind.

Unguentum Baſilicum *Nigrum*. *Black* Baſilicum.

Take of olive oil a pint; yellow wax, yellow roſin, and common pitch, of each nine ounces. Melt them all together, and ſtrain the mixture while hot.

This is alſo called unguentum tetrapharmacum. It is not ſo uſeful as the yellow, becauſe it renders wounds foul, and produces fungous fleſh.

Unguentum Baſilicum *Viride*. *The Green* Baſilicum.

Take of yellow *baſilicum* eight ounces; of olive oil three ounces; of verdigriſe finely powdered one ounce. Mix.

It is detergent.

BASILICUM. Baſil. It is a plant with ſquare ſtalks, oval leaves ſet in pairs, and long ſpikes of labiated flowers, whoſe upper-lip is divided into four parts, the lower entire, the cup hath alſo two lips, one cut into four ſections, the other into two.

BASILICUM, called alſo ocimum vulgarius, herba regia ocimum medium citratum. Common, or citron baſil.

Ocimum caryophyllatum, ocimum minimum. Small, or buſh baſil, with uncut leaves.

Both theſe are natives of the Eaſtern countries, and ſown annually in our gardens for culinary uſes. The ſeeds, which rarely come to perfection in England, are brought from the South of France and Italy. They flower in June and July, and ſeed in Auguſt.

Infuſions of the leaves are drank in catarrhous complaints and uterine diſeaſes, and to promote expectoration. They are ſucculent, ſlightly aromatic, have a mucilaginous taſte and ſtrong ſmell, which laſt it loſes partly in drying. The firſt ſort reſembles the ſcent of lemons; the ſecond that of cloves. Diſtilled in water they yield much oil, of a penetrating fragrance, ſimilar, but ſuperior to the oil of marjoram.

Clinopodium majus, called alſo clinopodium acinos, and great wild baſil.

Boerhaave enumerates nine ſpecies. It grows in hedges. Is an aſtringent and emenagogue.

BASILICUS PULVIS. The royal powder.

Various preſcriptions have been given for making this *powder*, moſt of which have ſcammony, cream of tartar, and other things, which increaſe the bulk of the medicine, without adding to its good qualities; and the following more ſimple method is obſerved to be both more agreeable and more uſeful.

℞ Calomel pp. ʒ ij. pulv. rhab. ℈ ſs. jalap ʒ x. m. or,

℞ Tart. emet. gr. iv. calom. ʒ i. gr. iv. jalap ℈ ſs. gr. viij. m.

This is a convenient purge for gouty and rheumatic people, for whom it is beſt made into pills, and to be taken at bed-time. It is alſo one of the beſt purges for groſs-bodied children, who are ſubject to breed worms, and have large bellies; for though the ingredients are efficacious, its operation will be mild and ſafe enough. It clears the bowels of ſlime, and diſcharges thoſe humours that obſtruct the meſenteric glands, and in a great meaſure the lacteals themſelves, which is often the caſe in children, and is attended with a hard belly, a ſtinking breath, frequent fevers, and a decay of ſtrength in the lower parts. Thoſe ſlight intermittents which ſuch children are ſubject to, will much ſooner be cured by ſuch a purge than by the bark; for theſe purges reach, and carry off the cauſe, but the bark pens it up; and by curing one, while ſuch reſtriction continues, gives room for a return with much greater aggravation.

The doſe for children is from ten grains to fifteen; for adults from fifteen grains to two ſcruples.

BASILIDION. A cerate deſcribed by Galen, and uſed for the itch.

BASILIS. A collyrium mentioned by Galen.

BASILISCUS. The baſiliſk. Called alſo a cockatrice, and regulus, or little king, becauſe of a white ſpot on its head, ſuppoſed to be like a crown. It is one of the moſt poiſonous kinds of ſerpents.

Baſiliſcus, in chemiſtry, is alſo the philoſophical ſublimate mercury.

Baſiliſcus is the name of ſome kinds of ſtones, and, among the reſt, a name for the philoſopher's ſtone.

BASIOGLOSSI, from *βασις, the foundation*, and *γλωσσα, the tongue*. The name of two muſcles that depreſs the tongue. See CERATOGLOSSUS, or HYOGLOSSUS.

BASIOGLOSSUS. See BASIOGLOSSI.

BASIO-PHARYNGÆI. See HYOPHARYNGÆI.

BASIS, from *βαινω, to go*. The ſupport of any thing upon which it ſtands or goes.

The broad part of the heart is called its *baſis*, to diſtinguiſh it from the apex or point.

In pharmacy by *baſis* is meant, that ingredient on which the moſt ſtreſs is laid for anſwering the intention of any compound medicine.

BASSI COLICA. The name of a medicine in Scribonius Largus, compounded of aromatics and honey.

BAT. an abbreviation of Batavia.

BATATAS, i. e. Battatas.

BATAVIS. A ſpecies of privet.

BATCIA. A name of the paſtinaca ſylveſtris.

BATEMAN's DROPS, called alſo his pectoral drops. They are the anodyne balſam, made with a weaker ſpirit, ſo that a larger doſe can be taken; and theſe drops are alſo tinctured with aniſeed.

BATHMIS. A ſeat, baſis, or foundation, from *βαινω, to enter*.

Hippocrates and Galen uſe it to expreſs a ſinus or cavity of a bone, which receives the protuberance of another at the joints, particularly thoſe at the articulation of the humerus and ulna.

BATHONIA, (AQUÆ.) Called alſo aquæ ſolis, aquæ badiza, and Bath water.

Dr. Cheyne accounts for the heat of this water as follows. "It is accounted for by the common experiment of mixing filings of iron, and the powder of ſulphur, then working them into a paſte with water, and putting them into a cellar, under a cock which drops water gradually and ſlowly, the paſte will ferment ſo, that the water running from it ſhall be of the ſame heat and virtue with the *Bath waters*, though not ſo pleaſant, nor ſo well fitted for human bodies." Theſe are the only two natural bodies known, which, meeting with each other, will produce heat in water without artificial fires. Tournefort obſerves, "that the filings of iron will grow warm by ſteeping in common water, but much more ſo in ſea-water; and if powdered ſulphur is added thereto, the mixture will burn."

Dr. Cheyne farther obſerves, that the *Bath water's* heat is owing to a principle in itſelf, as is evident from its retaining its heat longer than any other water heated to the ſame degree: that the ſulphur in the *Bath water* is evident to the ſenſes, for it is collected from the ſurfaces of the bath; and iron is manifeſtly in it, as appears from the blue tincture which it ſtrikes when mixed with an infuſion of galls; and by analyſis ſea-ſalt is found in it.

Moſt hot waters ſeem chiefly to conſiſt of ſulphur and iron, and to differ only as the ſulphur or the iron predominates; where the ſulphur moſt abounds, they are hotter, more nauſeous, and purgative.

According to the Experiments of Dr. Bryan Higgins, a Wincheſter Gallon of *Bath water* contains

	dwt.	gr.
Of calcarious earth combined with vitriolic acid, in the form of ſelenite	3	$19\frac{9}{10}$
Of calcarious earth combined with acidulous gas	0	$22\frac{7}{10}$
Of marine ſalt of magneſia	0	$22\frac{7}{10}$
Of ſea ſalt	1	$14\frac{8}{10}$
Of iron combined with acidulous gas	0	$0\frac{8}{10}$

Acidulous

Acidulous gas (beſides what is contained in the above earth and iron) twelve ounces meaſure. And atmoſpheric air two ounces.

It is from the combination of ſulphureous gas, ſea ſalt, &c. that the *Bath water* is ſo uſeful wherever the vital heat requires an increaſe; nothing but iron can make ſuch a ſpeedy improvement as this water does in decayed conſtitutions; and it is the ſoapineſs of it, from the union of its ſulphur and iron, that relaxes ſo as to give vent to gouty, and other matters, by perſpiration. This water gives much relief in gouty and nephritic complaints; in diſorders of the ſtomach, ariſing from a weakneſs of the abſorbent power in the digeſtive fluids. It is of ſingular efficacy in relieving that ſpecies of palſy which is frequently met with amongſt painters, plumbers, and other manufacturers of lead. It is ſafe and beneficial only when the vigour of the conſtitution is reduced, and when the vis vitæ is to be reſtored.

The ſeaſon for drinking the *Bath waters* is whenever they are wanted; for there is little or no ſenſible difference in them at any time compared with another. Some who have drank them for ſome time, leave them off for a month in the hotteſt weather, but cold conſtitutions need not, for they find them rather better then. With ſome perſons cold weather ſuits the beſt with their drinking it, eſpecially when the ſeaſon is dry, and in clear froſt it is the beſt of all.

More than two pints in a day can never be required, which may be drank at three or four times, a few hours intervening betwixt each portion; and in ſuch chronical diſeaſes as require preparations of iron, the artificial ones may at the time be uſed.

In all internal diſorders, where iron and ſulphur are preſcribed, the internal uſe of this *water* is effectual; and by bathing only in it, much relief is obtained from fixed or wandering pains, ſtiffneſs of the joints, contractions of the tendons, waſting of the limbs, palſies, rheumatiſms, &c.

By the experiments of Dr. Prieſtly and ſome others, it remains beyond a doubt, that to the quantity of fixed air contained in mineral *waters*, is owing the whole virtue of ſome, and a principal one of them all. And ſuch is the tenuity of the ſulphur and iron in theſe *waters* from their perfect ſolvend the fixed air therein, that the niceſt ſealed cork cannot long retain the medical parts, they ſhould therefore be drank on the ſpot.

The four principal *waters* in England that poſſeſs any remarkable heat, are thoſe of Bath, Buxton, Briſtol, and Matlock. The firſt of which raiſes Farenheit's thermometer from about one hundred to one hundred and twelve; the ſecond to about eighty; the third to ſeventy-ſix; and the laſt to ſixty-ſix or ſixty-eight.

See AQUÆ SULPHUREÆ; Dr. Cheyne's account of the *Bath waters*; and Dr. Falconer's Eſſay on the ſame.

BATHRON. The ſeat or ſupport. It is alſo the ſcamnum Hippocratis, an inſtrument invented for the extenſion of fractured limbs. Oribaſius and Scultetus both deſcribe it.

BATHYPICRON. A name of the abſinthium latifolium.

BATHYS. A ſort of cheeſe formerly uſed in Rome.

BATIA. A retort.

BATICULÆ. The greater ſamphire.

BATINON MORON. The raſpberry.

BATIS. A name of the crithmum, of the baticula, and of the fiſh called thornback.

BATITURA, i. e. Battitura.

BATOS. A bramble or briar.

BATRACHIOIDES. A ſort of geranium reſembling the ranunculus.

BATRACHITES. Toad-ſtones.

BATRACHIUM. Crowfoot, crane's-bill. See GERANIUM.

BATRACHUS. An inflammatory tumor which riſes under the tongue, eſpecially of children. Actius ſays it is a tumour under the tongue, eſpecially in the veins. See RANULA. From βατραχος, *a frog*.

BATTARISMUS, i. e. Pſelliſmus hæſitans.

BATTATAS, called alſo battata Virginiana, ſolanum tuberoſum eſculentum, papas vel pappus Americanum, vel Peruvianum. The common or Virginian *potatoes*.

They were firſt brought into Europe by Sir Francis Drake in 1486. He then brought home the famous mathematician Mr. Thomas Heriot, who was ſent to Virginia, by Sir Walter Raleigh, to explore the productions of the country, who brought theſe roots with him. He gave them to Gerard the botaniſt, who firſt planted them in London; and ſent them to Cluſius, in Holland, who alſo planted them in Burgundy; and he ſent them to Italy, as appears from the works of theſe, and ſeveral other authors. It was from this introduction into Europe that ſo many writers ſay they were natives of Virginia; but the truth is, they will not grow there without ſkilful culture. They are natives of Peru.

Potatoes are a ſpecies of ſolanum, viz. ſolanum tuberoſum of Linnæus, and though with us they require a ſunny expoſure, yet in the hot countries where they are native, thoſe that grow on the ſurface of the ground, or under too thin a covering of earth, are ſo ſtrong of the poiſonous quality of night-ſhade, that the hogs will not taſte them.

The light mealy ones are the beſt, and, by proper management, a wholeſome nouriſhing bread might be made of them. Their uſe, as at preſent, is both profitable and ſalutary. More brandy may be obtained from an acre of *potatoes*, than from an acre of barley. They alſo afford much ſtarch.

The varieties of *potatoes* are numerous, and may yet be increaſed from the ſeed contained in the apples. The *potatoe* itſelf is not properly the root of the plant, but rather an under ground fruit, produced upon a confined branch. The real roots do not produce *potatoes*, they only ſerve the purpoſe of drawing nouriſhment from the ſoil, as the leaves above extract it from the atmoſphere. The *potatoe* below, and the apple above, are in fact the ſame, but living in different elements, they aſſume different appearances. The one ſeems to be intended for the preſervation of the ſpecies, the other for the food of animals. Such is the increaſe of this vegetable, that from one large *potatoe*, which was cut into nine pieces, eight ſtone and eight pounds, of good ſizeable ones, hath been produced.

Potatoes produced from ſets, after a number of years are found to decreaſe in bearing; for which reaſon they ſhould be brought back every fourteen years to their original. It is after this period, that thoſe produced from the ſeeds themſelves decline.

In Sweden, the leaves of the *potatoe* plants are manufactured for ſmoaking inſtead of tobacco.

See on this article many remarks, both curious and profitable, in the Georgical Eſſays.

BATTATAS HISPANICA, alſo called amotes, Indica camotes, batatas occident. Indiæ, convolvulus Indicus, Indicus orientalis inhamæ, ſiſarum Peruvianorum, jetica Braſilientibus, kappa-kelengu, and the Spaniſh *potatoes*.

BATTATAS CANADENSIS, alſo called flos ſolis pyramidalis, heliotropium Indicum, adenes Canadenſis, corona ſolis, helianthemum Indic. tuber. Helenium Indicum, chryſanthemum Indicum, Americanum tuberoſum, after Peruanus tuberoſus, flos Farneſianus. Jeruſalem artichokes.

Both theſe kinds of *potatoes* are of qualities ſimilar to the common ſort.

BATTATA PEREGRINA, called alſo cacamotic ſlanoquiloni. The cathartic *potatoe*. They grow ſpontaneouſly in the warmer parts of America. Their taſte is very agreeable, and if about two ounces of them are eaten at bed-time, they gently move the belly in the next morning.

BATTISECULA. The leſſer blue-bottle, or corn-flower.

BATTITURA. The ſquamous ſcales of metals which fly off whilſt under the hammer.

BAUDA. A veſſel for diſtillation is thus named.

B. P. An abbreviation for Caſpari Bauhini Pinax Theatri botanici, ſive Index in Theophraſti, Dioſcorides, Plinii, & Botanicorum, qui a ſeculo ſcripſerunt Opera.

B. THEAT. An abbreviation of C. Bauhini Theatri botanici.

BAUHINIA. Mountain ebony. Father Plumier gave it this name in honour of John and Caſpar Bauhine. Miller enumerates ſeven ſpecies.

BAURAC. A name for the mineral fixt alkaline ſalt. It is the Arabic name for nitre, or for any ſalt; and hence it is that borax took its name, which is alſo thus called.

BAXANA. A tree in an iſland near Ormuz, the ſmalleſt quantity of whoſe fruit is ſaid to ſuffocate the perſon who taſtes it, and the ſame effect is ſaid to be the conſequence of continuing under its ſhade; yet the root, leaves, and fruit of the ſame are antidotes to poiſon in other countries. It is alſo called rabuxit. Raii Hiſt.

BAZCHER. A Perſian word for antidote.

BDELLA. A horſe-leech. Dioſcorides uſes this word to expreſs a varicoſe vein.

BDELLERUM. A horſe-leech.

BDELLIUM, called alſo madelcon, bolchus, and by the Arabians mokel.

BDELLIUM, is a gummy reſinous juice, produced by a tree in the Eaſt Indies, of which we have no ſatisfactory account. It is brought into Europe both from the Eaſt Indies and Arabia. It is in pieces of different ſizes and figures, externally of a dark reddiſh brown, ſomewhat like myrrh; internally it is clear, and not unlike to glue; to the taſte it is ſlightly bitteriſh and pungent; its odour is very agreeable. If held in the mouth it ſoon becomes ſoft and tenacious, ſticking to the teeth. Laid on a red hot iron it readily catches flame, and burns with a crackling noiſe, and, in proportion to its goodneſs, it is more or leſs fragrant.

Near half of its ſubſtance diſſolves either in water or in ſpirit of wine; but the tincture made with ſpirit is ſomewhat ſtronger, and by much more agreeable. Vinegar, or verjuice, diſſolves it wholly.

The ſimple gum is a better medicine than any preparation from it. It is one of the weakeſt of the deobſtruent gums, but it is uſed as a pectoral and an emenagogue.

BECABUNGA, called alſo anagallis aquatica, berula, laver Germanicum, veronica aquatica, water purpey, water pimpernel, and brook lime. The veronica *becabunga*, Linn.

It is a low creeping plant, with round, thick, ſmooth, reddiſh ſtalks, naked and procumbent at bottom, erect at the top, cloathed with firm, round, juicy leaves, of a dark ſhining green colour, ſlightly indented about the edges, and ſet in pairs about the joints; from the boſoms of the leaves ariſe naked footſtalks, bearing ſpikes of blue flowers, deeply cut into four ſegments, and followed by flattiſh ſeed veſſels. It is found in rivulets and ditches, and flowers in June.

It is a good antiſcorbutic, and in a leſſer degree it poſſeſſes the virtues of the cochlearia and naſturtium. It hath not the volatility of the cochlearia, nor is it pungent to the taſte, but rather ſubſaline and bitteriſh, than acrid. It acts without irritation or pungency, and ſhould be eaten plentifully as food, if benefit is expected from it.

BECASSINE. The woodcock.

BECHICA, from βηξ, *a cough*. Any medicine deſigned to relieve a cough. It is of the ſame import as the word pectoral.

Trochiſci Bechici *Albi*. *White* Pectoral *Troches*.

The London college directs them to be made thus: Take of double refined ſugar, a pound and a half; of ſtarch, an ounce and a half; of liquorice, ſix drams; of Florentine orris, half an ounce. All the ingredients being reduced to powder, with the mucilage of gum tragacanth, form troches.

Trochiſci Bechici *Nigri*. *Black* Pectoral *Troches*.

Take the extract of liquorice, double refined ſugar, of each ten ounces; of gum dragant, half a pound. By moiſtening with water make troches.

Thus the London college alſo directs theſe to be made, but Rhazes was their firſt author.

They are calculated, by letting them gradually diſſolve in the mouth, to ſoften acrid humours, and to abate tickling coughs.

BECHITA. Expectorating medicines.

BECHION, or BECHIUM, } i. e. Tuſſilago.

BECUIBA NUX. It is as large as a nutmeg, of a browniſh colour, with an oily kernel, in a woody brittle huſk. A balſam is drawn from it, which is eſteemed in rheumatiſms. It is brought from Braſil.

BEDEGUA. An Arabian name for a ſpecies of thiſtle.

BEDEGUAR. An Arabian name for the ſmall Spaniſh milk thiſtle. It is alſo a reddiſh green, ſpongy, hairy excreſcence, made by ſmall ichneumon flies on the ſtalks of the briar, or the dog-roſe buſh.

BEENEL. An evergreen ſhrub in Malabar.

BEESHA. A ſpecies of bambu.

BEETLA. See Betle.

BEGMA, from βηξ, *a cough* Hippocrates by this word means, both a *cough* and the ſpit brought up with it.

BEGUILL. A fruit about the ſize of an apple, with a rough and knotty rind, incloſing a pulp like a ſtrawberry. Raii Hiſt.

BEHEM, or Behemen. Been, and ben, are erroneouſly made to be homonymous with balanus myrepſica. The name of this root in Arabic, is *behem*, or *albehem*.

The *behem* is of two kinds, the white and the red. The Greeks uſe the term hermodactyls for *behem*; both of which they deſcribe as the ſame, and as being of two ſorts, viz. the white and the red.

The glans unguentaria is the Arabian *ben*.

BEHEN ALBUM, called alſo jacea orientalis patula, behmen abiad Arabum, raphonticoides lutea, and the true white *ben*, *been*, or *behen* of the ancients.

BEHEN ALBUM VULG. called alſo lychnis ſylveſtris, papaver ſpumeum, vulg. muſcipula pratenſis veſicaria, ſpadling poppy, bladder campion, or white *ben*.

BEHEN RUBRUM LIMONIUM, or Limonium Majus. Sea lavender, or red *behen*.

Two roots, viz. the red and the white *ben*, are talked of by the ancients. The white is a long, ſlender, white root, of an aromatic ſmell, and ſharp taſte; it is hard, but does not keep well. It comes from the Eaſt, and it is a ſpecies of jacea with yellow flowers. The red is a thicker root, it alſo is brought from the Eaſt. It is cut in ſlices, and taſtes acrid; but the root of the white lychnis is uſed for one, and the root of the ſea lavender is uſed for the other. This ſea lavender grows in ſalt marſhes, on ſome of our ſea coaſts. It hath a thick root that runs deep in the earth, and is of an aſtringent quality.

BEID-EL-OSSAR. An Egyptian plant growing on the borders of the Nile. It abounds with a milky juice uſed to make the hair eaſily ſtrip off from the ſkins that are ſteeped in it. The fruit is incloſed in a down, or a ſort of cotton, which is uſed for making beds and cuſhions.

BEJUCOS. See Nibbes.

BEJUIO, called alſo the habilla de Carthagena, i. e. the *bean* of Carthagena. It is a kind of *bean* in South America, and is famed for being an effectual antidote againſt the poiſon of all the kinds of ſerpents, if a ſmall quantity is eaten as ſoon as the bite is received. This *bean* is the peculiar product of the juriſdiction of Carthagena.

BELAE. Thus a particular kind of bark is named at Madagaſcar. It was firſt preſented by M. Saillant, to the College of Phyſicians at Paris. This bark is thin, of a yellowiſh colour externally, ddiſh within, and to the taſte ſlightly bitter and aſtringent. It is ſaid to be of conſiderable efficacy in diarrhœas.

BELEMNITES, called alſo lapis lyncis, lapis lyncurius, dactylus idæus, belenites, arrow-ſtone, or thunderbolt.

It is the remains of ſome ſea animal petrified, and generally thought to be the ſpines of the ſea urchin. In the hollow of the large end there is often a ſhelly ſubſtance.

BELEMNOIDES, from βελεμνον, *a dart*, and εἶδος, *ſhape*. A name for the proceſſus ſtyloides. It is alſo a name of the proceſs at the lower end of the ulna.

BELENITES, i. e. Belemnites.

BELENOIDES, i. e. Belemnoides.

BELESON. Balſam.

BELGIS CABELIAU. Codfiſh.

BELI, i. e. Covalam.

BELILIA. An Indian berry-bearing ſhrub; a decoction of which is cooling. Raii Hiſt.

BELLADONNA. Deadly night-ſhade. It is thus called from the Italian ladies uſing it to take away the too

florid colour of their faces. It is the atropa belladonna, Linn. See SOLANUM.

BELLERICÆ. An epithet for a ſort of myrobalans.

BELLICULUS. A ſpecies of ſhell-fiſh like the periwinkle.

BELLIDIOIDES. The great daiſy.

BELLIRICUS MARINUS. A ſhell-fiſh like the periwinkle.

BELLIS. The daiſy.

Of this plant there are many ſpecies, and ſeveral other plants alſo are called by this name.

BELLIS MINOR, called alſo conſolida minima, ſymphytum minimum, bellis ſylveſtris minor, bruiſewort, and common daiſy. Bellis perennis, Linn. It is too well known to need a deſcription. Its leaves and flowers looſen the belly, are commended in diſorders that ariſe from drinking cold liquor while the body was hot. The leaves are ſlightly acrid, the roots rather more ſo. They have a ſubtle penetrating pungency, that is not hot nor fiery, but like the contrayerva. It preſerves this pungent matter when dried, and an extract made with water, or with ſpirit, retains the greateſt part of its virtues. It is an excellent antiſcorbutic.

BELLIS MAJOR, alſo called conſolida media Lobelii, bellidioides, bellis ſylveſtris, caule folioſo major, leucanthemum vulgare, bupthalmum majus, oculus bovis, ox-eye, maudlin-wort, or great or ox-eye daiſy. The chryſanthemum leucanthemum, Linn. It is a plant with oblong, narrow, deeply indented leaves, joined cloſe to the ſtalks, which are pentagonal, hairy, branched, and bear on the tops pretty large ſolitary flowers, compoſed of white petala, ſet round a yellow diſk. It is perennial, grows wild in corn-fields, and in dry paſture grounds. It flowers in May and June.

The leaves have been in eſteem as diuretic and anti-aſthmatic.

BELLIS. A name of ſome ſpecies of ſantolina.

BELLIS CÆRULEA. French daiſy.

BELLIS LUTEA FOLIIS PROFUNDE. A ſpecies of chryſanthemum.

BELLIS LUTEA FOLIIS SUBROTUNDIS. A ſpecies of chryſanthemum.

BELLIS MAJOR RAMOSA UMBELLIFERA AMERICANA. A ſpecies of leucanthemum.

BELLIS MONTANA FRUTESCENS ACRIS. Pellitory of Spain.

BELLOCULUS. A ſort of precious ſtone reſembling the eye, hence ſuppoſed to be good againſt diſorders thereof.

BELLON. So the colic is called when produced by lead. Beaſts, and even poultry as well as men, are ſubject to it, if they remain much about ſmelting houſes.

BELLONIA. Father Plumier called this plant thus in honour of Petrus Bellonius. There is but one ſpecies which is the *bellonia* fruteſcens folio meliſſæ aſpero; the ſhrubby *bellonia*, with a rough balm leaf. It is not of note in medicine. Miller's Dict.

BELLONIO & BELLONIS. A ſhrub of the cedar kind.

BELLON. DE AQUAT. An abbreviation of Petrus Bellonius de Aquatilibus.

BELLOST's PILLS. ℞ Argent. viv. ℥ iv. in ſyr. e. g. ſpin. cervin. ℥ j. extinct. rezin jalapii & pulv. colocynth. ää ℥ j maſſa cujus cap. ʒ ſs. 2^da^ vel 3^tia^ quaq. nocte.

BELMUSCUS, i. e. Abelmoſch.

BELOIDES, i. e. Belemnoides.

BELONOIDES, i. e. Belemnoides.

BELOERE. An Indian evergreen plant. The ſeeds purge moderately, but the leaves roughly. Raii Hiſt.

BELULCUM, from βελος, *an arrow* or *dart*, and ελκω, *to draw*. An inſtrument for extracting darts or arrows.

BELUTTA TSJAMPACAM. The name of a large tree in Malabar. The root powdered and taken with ginger promotes ſweat. A decoction of the leaves is a good expectorant. Raii Hiſt.

BELUZAAR. The Chaldee word for antidote.

BELVEDERE. A ſpecies of chenopodium; alſo the Italian name for the ſcoparia.

BELZOE. Gum Benjamin, and its tree.

BELZOINUM. Gum Benjamin, and its tree.

BELZUR. Foſſile mineral.

BEM-CURINI. A ſpecies of Carim-curini.

BEM-TAMARA. The Egyptian bean. See FABA.

BEN, alſo called balanus myrepſica, glans unguentaria, nux ben, nux unguentaria moris. The oily acorn, oily nut, or ben nut.

It is a whitiſh nut, of the ſize of a ſmall filbert, roundiſh, triangular, with a kernel covered with a white ſkin, produced by a middle-ſized tree, reſembling the birch. It grows ſpontaneouſly in the Eaſt Indies and America; we have them alſo from Arabia.

Theſe kernels have a nauſeous bitter, oily taſte, are purgative, occaſion a nauſea and gripes: on expreſſion they yield one fourth their weight of a yellow oil almoſt inſipid and flavourleſs; the nauſeous bitter remains behind, and is not ſoluble in oily menſtrua. This oil does not grow rancid by long keeping, as is common with expreſſed oils, on account of which it is uſed as the baſis of odoriferous unguents and perfumes. It is impregnated with the odour of jeſſamine, and other flowers, by ſtratifying them with cotton dipped in the oil, and repeating the proceſs with freſh flowers, until the oil becomes ſufficiently odorous, after which it is ſqueezed out from the cotton in a preſs.

Dale ſays that the lignum nephriticum is the wood of the tree which bears theſe nuts.

There is another ſpecies of *ben*, much larger than the above. Monardus calls it *ben* magnum, ſeu avellana purgatrix, the great *ben* or purging filbert. It purges violently both up and down.

BEN. A name of the behem.

BENATH. The Arabic name for ſmall puſtules which riſe in the night after ſweating.

BENEDICTA (AQUA.) Formerly the aqua calcis ſimplex was thus called. It was the name of a water diſtilled from ſerpyllum, and alſo of the vinum benedictum.

BENEDICTA (AQUA COMPOSITA), i. e. Aq. Calcis. Comp.

BENEDICTA HERBA. The herb bennet.

BENEDICTUM (OLEUM), i. e. Ol Lateritium.

BENEDICTUM VINUM, i. e. Vinum Antimoniale.

BENEDICTUS LAPIS. A name for the philoſopher's ſtone.

BENEOLENTIA. Sweet ſmelling medicines.

BENGALENSIS. See RINZANGO.

BENGI-EIRI. A ſpecies of evergreen Indian ricinus, which grows in Malabar, &c. Raii Hiſt.

BENINGANIO. A fruit which grows in the bay of St. Auguſtine: it is of the ſize of a lemon, red without, and grateful to the ſtomach. Raii Hiſt.

BENIVI ARBOR. } The Benjamin tree.
BENIVIFERA. }

BENJOINUM, and Benjoivum. The Benjamin tree, and the gum.

BENJUI. The Benjamin tree.

BEN-KADALI. A ſpecies of kadali.

BENZOE, Benzoifera, and Benzoin. Gum Benjamin and its tree.

BENZOINUM, called alſo aſa dulcis, aſſa odorata, belzoe, benjoinum, benzoin, liquor cyrenaicus vel ſyrenaicus, balzoinum, benjovinum, and gum Benjamin.

The *gum Benjamin* is a concrete reſinous juice, obtained from a middle-ſized tree, with leaves like the bay-leaves, but not ribbed, and falling off in winter, bearing flattiſh nuts, the ſize of nutmegs, whoſe fleſhy covering is externally rough and hairy. It is a native of the Eaſt Indies and of North America, particularly of Virginia and Carolina; but it is only brought from the Eaſt Indies: it grows in open ground with vigour in England. According to Weſton, the tree is the laurus benzoin, or laurus foliis enervis ovatis utrinque acutis integris annuis, redolens benzoinum, floribus parvis luteis, baccis nigricantibus, Linn. The *Benjamin* tree. But the laſt diſpenſatory of the Edinburgh college, ſays it is the terminalia (benzoin) foliis lanceolatis, Linn. And Curtis in his Catalogue of the Britiſh Medicinal, &c. Plants, in the London Botanic Garden, ſays it is the croton benzoë. The leaves and the bark ſmell like the gum; and to rectified ſpirit of wine they give out a reſin, like the *Benjamin*; but no reſin naturally flows from it: the reſin is obtained by inciſions made in its trunk about the origin of the firſt branches. Some ſay it iſſues out from the inciſions

ſions made only in the bark: as it runs out it is white, but ſoon becomes yellowiſh, rediſh, or browniſh. It is brought into Europe in brittle maſſes, compoſed partly of white, and partly of yellowiſh or light brown pieces. The white pieces are called benzoe amygdaloides, and are reckoned the beſt; they are hard, ſolid, ſhining, tranſparent, and poſſeſs a very fragrant ſmell: this gum reſin hath but little taſte, impreſſing the palate with a ſlight ſweetiſhneſs; its ſmell is very fragrant if rubbed or heated, and is leſs heating than moſt of the other balſams.

If pure, it totally diſſolves in rectified ſpirit of wine. By digeſtion it imparts to water much of its fragrance and pungency: the filtered liquor gently exhaled leaves a cryſtalline matter, of a ſeemingly ſaline nature, amounting to an eighth part of the whole.

Flores Benzoini. *Flowers of* Benjamin.

Put a ſmall quantity of powdered *gum Benjamin* into a proper veſſel (the heat neceſſary for a large quantity forcing up the oil with the flowers), and, that time may not be unprofitably delayed, a number of ſhallow flat-bottomed earthen diſhes may be employed, each fitted with a cap over it, ſuch as a cone of bloom or blotting paper; with theſe a ſand furnace may be filled, having others in readineſs to re-place in the room of thoſe that have finiſhed their ſublimation. The reſiduum of the *Benjamin* ſhould be well cleaned out before the freſh parcels are put in again.

Theſe flowers ſometimes have a yellow tinge, from the oil aſcending with them, when too much heat is uſed: to ſeparate them from this oil, diſſolve them in hot water, from which they will ſeparate as it cools, leaving the oil in a great meaſure behind. But, however purified, they ſtill retain a little of the oil; whence by keeping they become yellow again, and this ſooner in a cloſe than in an open veſſel.

They partake of the fragrance of the reſin; diſſolve in ſpirit of wine, and with the aſſiſtance of heat, in water alſo, from which they are prevented from ſeparating, if as much ſugar is added as will give a ſyrupy conſiſtence to the water.

Oleum Benzoini. *Oil of* Benjamin.

If the powdered *Benjamin* is expoſed to a gentle heat in a retort, it melts and ſends up the flowers; after which a thin oil riſes, which is yellowiſh, ſlightly empyreumatic, and mixed with an acidulous liquor called the ſpirit of *Benjamin*; then follows a thick butyraceous matter. The thin oil re-diſtilled with water loſes its taint, and now ſmells agreeably of the *Benjamin*, and ſeems to be of the ſame nature as eſſential oils; and yet the *Benjamin* itſelf, when diſtilled in water, yields no eſſential oil.

Tinctura Benzoini. *The Tincture of* Benjamin.

Take of *gum Benjamin* four ounces, and rectified ſpirit of wine a pint. Digeſt three or four days in a ſand-heat, and ſtrain off the tincture.

Lac Virginalis.

To twenty ounces of pure water, add one ounce of the tincture of *Benjamin*; and if more water is neceſſary to render the mixture milky, add it.

Magiſterium Benzoini. *The Magiſtery of* Benjamin.

If the lac virginis be permitted to ſtand ſome time, the *Benjamin* precipitates in the form of a white magiſtery. This magiſtery is the *Benjamin* in its whole ſubſtance, and is preferred by ſome to the flowers; but the flowers are only the ſaline part of the gum with ſome of its fragrance, and it is the reſinous part that is moſt diſpoſed to be precipitated from ſpirit by water.

The principal uſe of the *gum Benjamin* is in perfumes and as a coſmetic. It approaches in virtues and fragrance to the ſtorax and balſam Tolu. It is uſeful in aſthmas and other diſorders of the breaſt, for removing obſtructions and promoting expectoration, in which intentions the flowers are given from grs. iv. to xv. the flowers are alſo a powerful errhine. The tincture may be given in doſes from twenty to eighty drops, but is chiefly uſed to make the ſkin ſmooth, and to clear it; and to ſcent waſh-balls. The lac virgin. muſt be uſed when a roughneſs or blotches and venereal ſpots diſcolour the ſkin and render it unſightly: it may be rubbed on gently every day with a ſoft rag: it renders the face and arms agreeably ſmooth.

Draughts are made with the gum itſelf by rubbing it with gum Arabic as follows:

℞ *Gum benzoin.* ſubtil. pulv. ʒ i. gum. arab. ℈ i. ſpt. vin. ten. ʒ ij. aq. puræ ℥ ij. m.

BER. The name of a tree growing in the Eaſt Indies and bearing a fruit like a jujeb.

BERBERI. According to Athenæus it is the name of a ſhell in which pearls are found.

BERBERIS, called alſo oxyacantha Galeni, ſpina acida, creſpinus, berbaris, piperidge or piperage buſh, and barberry. The *berberis* vulgaris, Linn.

It is a large prickly buſh, with brittle branches, covered with an aſh-coloured bark, under which lies another of a deep yellow colour; the leaves are ſmall, ſmooth, rather oval, of a pale green colour, finely ſerrated about the edges; the flowers are yellow, monopetalous, ſtanding in cluſters on the top upon naked foot ſtalks, followed by oblong red berries, containing in each generally two ſeeds: ſome of the individuals have no ſeeds in their berries; and ſometimes berries with and without ſeeds are found on one buſh. It grows wild on chalky hills, flowers in May, and ripens its fruit in September.

The fruit is a mild reſtringent acid, uſeful in hot bilious diſorders, and colliquative putrid diſpoſitions in the humours. The leaves have the ſame virtues as the berries, but in leſs degree. The inner yellow bark is auſtere and bitteriſh, gently purgative, and uſeful in the jaundice. The bark of the root is mildly aſtringent. Theſe barks do not keep long, and are beſt uſed in infuſions, one ounce of bark to a pint of water.

Sal. Eſſent. Berberis. *Eſſential Salt of* Barberries.

Digeſt two ounces of lemon juice with two pints of the juice of *barberries* in a ſand heat for two days, after which evaporate the liquor to one half, then ſet it in a cold cellar a few days and the ſalt will concrete; when the ſalt ceaſes to ſhoot, evaporate again, and more ſalt will be obtained. Simon Paulli calls this the tartar of *barberries*.

Gelatina Berberorum. *The Jelly of* Barberries.

To a pound of *barberries*, picked clean from their ſtalks, add a pound of white ſugar, boil them with a gentle heat, to a due conſiſtence, then preſs the jelly through a flannel cloth.

BERDIRAMON, i. e. Biſtorta Major.

BEREDRIAS. The name of an ointment mentioned in Aetius.

BERENI SECUM, i. e. Artemiſia.

BERENICE. Amber.

BERENICIUM. A ſpecies of nitre mentioned by Galen.

BERETINUS FRUCTUS. A fruit found in the Malacca Iſlands.

BERGAMOTE, or Bergamot. It is a ſpecies of citron, produced at firſt caſually by an Italian's grafting a citron on the ſtock of a *bergamot* pear-tree, whence the fruit produced by this union participated both of the citron tree and the pear tree. The fruit hath a fine taſte and ſmell, and its eſſential oil is in high eſteem as a perfume.

The eſſence of *bergamot* is alſo called eſſentia de cedra. It is extracted from the yellow rind of the fruit by firſt cutting it in ſmall pieces, then immediately ſqueezing the oil out of them into a glaſs veſſel. This liquor is an etherial oil.

A water is diſtilled from the peel as follows: take the outer rind of three *bergamots*, a gallon of pure proof ſpirit, and four pints of pure water, draw off a gallon in a balneum Mariæ, then add as much of the beſt white ſugar as will be agreeable. Or,

Take of the eſſence of *bergamot* three drams and a half, of rectified ſpirit of wine three pints, of volatile ſal ammoniac a dram, diſtil off three pints in a balneum Mariæ.

BERIBERIA. Dr. Aitkin in his Elements of Surgery, uſes this word as ſynonymous with contractura, which ſee.

BERIBERI. A ſpecies of palſy common in ſome parts of the Eaſt Indies. The name in the language of the country ſignifies a *ſheep*. Bontius thinks that this name

was

was given to this diſeaſe becauſe that in it the patients ſeem to imitate ſheep in lifting their legs when they walk. He ſays this *palſy* is a kind of trembling, in which there is a depravation of the motion and ſenſation of the hands and feet, and ſometimes of the body. The cauſe is generally from expoſing themſelves to the cold vapours of the night too ſoon after exerciſe.

In this caſe a pituitous matter inſinuates itſelf betwixt the joints and relaxes their ligaments. Generally its approach is gradual; but ſometimes it ſeizes ſuddenly.

The ſymptoms are, an univerſal laſſitude, a faulty motion of the hands and feet, and the ſame throbbing titillation is felt in them as is felt in the fingers and toes in a cold country in the winter ſeaſon, only the pain is not ſo great; ſometimes the voice is ſo obſtructed as to render articulation difficult. Other ſymptoms occaſionally attend, but theſe are the chief.

The cure is tedious. The diſeaſe is not mortal, except by ſeizing the muſcles of the breaſt, ſo as to obſtruct reſpiration and the voice.

In order to the cure, moderate exerciſe, and frictions are uſeful; the Indians uſe a half-bath made of water, in which is boiled an aromatic kind of herb called lagondi, or, in want of it, camomile and melilot. The affected parts are rubbed well with a mixture of the oils of mace and roſes. Bleeding is not required, but, on the contrary, warm nervous ſtrengthening reſtoratives are to be uſed: now and then a gentle purge may be admitted. Decoctions of ſarſaparilla and guaiacum are alſo of ſervice. See Bontius de Medicina Indorum.

BERICOCCA. The apricot.

BERILLUS, i. e. Beryllus.

BERMUDENSES (Baccæ.) Bermudas berries. See Saponaria.

BERMUDIANA. A plant ſo called by Dr. William Houſtoun, in honour of Dr. Bernard de Jeſſieu, of Paris.

The male and female are different plants; the male plant produces katkins; the female plant produces a fruit which reſembles that of the ricinus. Miller takes notice of four ſpecies; but they are not uſed in medicine.

BERNAVI. An electary mentioned by Proſper Alpinus, in his De Medicina Ægyptiorum. It is prepared in India: its compoſition is unknown; but very extraordinary effects are attributed to it.

BERNICLA, i. e. Branta.

BERRIONIS. Colophony, gum juniper, or vernice.

BERS. A ſort of electary uſed by the Egyptians for gaiety; it contains opium, and creates a temporary delirium.

BERULA. Brook-lime.

BERULA GALLICA. See Sium.

BERYLLUS, or Berillus. The Beryl. It is a precious ſtone. It is called alſo aqua marina, becauſe of its ſea-green colour. It is cryſtal, coloured with copper. It is tranſparent, different pieces have different ſhades, even to yellow. The gold coloured are called chryſoberillus, i. e. gilded beryl. It is found in the iſle of Zeylon.

BERYTION. The name of a collyrium deſcribed by Galen as good againſt an ophthalmia. Alſo of a paſtil againſt the dyſentery.

BES. An eight-ounce meaſure.

BESACHAR. A fungus or ſponge.

BESASA. Wild rue.

BESL. FASCIC. An abbreviation of Baſilii Beſleri Faſciculus rariorum.

BESL. GAZOPHYL. An abbreviation of Gazophylacium Rerum naturalium Michaelis Ruperti Beſleri.

BESL. HORT. EYS. An abbreviation of Beſleri Hortus Eyſtetenſis.

BESLERIA. A plant thus named in honour of Baſilius Beſler, an apothecary at Nuremberg, who was the author of a book called Hortus Eyſtetenſis. Miller takes notice of four ſpecies, but they are not of any medical uſe.

BESONNA. Rulandus explains it by muſcarum fungus. Probably he means a ſponge, which is the nidus of ſome ſort of flies.

BESSANEN. In Avicenna it is a redneſs of the external parts, reſembling that which precedes the leproſy; it occupies the face and extremities. Dr. James thinks it is what we call chilblains.

BESTO. A name in Oribaſius for ſaxifrage.

BETA. Beets. It is a plant with large, ſmooth, broad-ribbed, juicy leaves, and ſlender, ſtriated, branched ſtalks, bearing ſpikes of imperfect flowers, followed each by a roundiſh, rough, watery ſeed veſſel. Different ſorts are cultivated for culinary uſes: Linnæus ſuppoſes them to be varities of the wild *beet* which grows on ſome of the ſea-coaſts of England, Holland, &c. There is a whitiſh-leaved, called ficula or cicla, a green-leaved, and a red-leaved ſort, all with long, thick, white roots; and a long-rooted, alſo a turnep-rooted ſort, all over red. They are all biennial.

BETA ALBA, called alſo ficula, cicla, *beta* palleſcens. Common white *beets*.

BETA RUBRA VULG. called alſo beta nigra. Turnep-rooted red *beet*, red Roman *beets*, or *bectrave*.

BETA SYLVESTRIS. Wild *beets*. There is a wild ſort which Dioſcorides calls limonium.

Beets, uſed as food, are difficult of digeſtion, and afford but little nouriſhment. If freely eaten they are laxative and emollient. They give out their virtue to water by boiling. The red ones give out their colour to ſpirit of wine, and on expreſſion their colour accompanies their juice.

The juice of both the kinds is a powerful errhine, occaſioning a copious diſcharge, but no ſneezing. The dried red *beet* roots yield one twentieth part their weight of ſugar, and the dried white *beet* roots one tenth.

BETA CRETICA, i. e. Spinacia.

BEETLE.
BETELLE. } Betle.
BETHLE.

BETLE, called alſo *betre*, *betele*, *betkle*, *betelle*, *beetla*, piper longum foliorum nervis decurrentibus tenuioribus & mollioribus, and bulatwaela. *Betle*.

It is a ſcandent plant, growing in different parts of the Eaſt Indies: it bears a fruit which reſembles a lizard's tail: its taſte is agreeable, and in the Malacca iſles is called firii boa. The ancient botaniſts confound its leaf with the malabathrum.

Mixed with other things, as fancy directs, the Indians chew it almoſt continually. It is gratefully cordial, but ſeems to injure their teeth.

BETONICA, called alſo vetonica cordi, and common or wood betony. The Betonica Officinalis, Linn.

It is a low plant, with dark green, oblong, wrinkled leaves, that are crenated, hairy, and ſet in pairs, on ſquare unbranched ſtalks; bearing thick ſpikes of labiated purpliſh flowers, each of which is followed by four oblong triangular ſeeds, incloſed in the flower-cup. It grows wild in woody and ſhady places; flowers in June and July, in winter it dies to the ground, the roots continuing.

The leaves and tops are agreeably ſcented, but it ſoon flies off from the dry herb: to the taſte they are warm, rough, and bitteriſh; if powdered they make a good errhine.

An infuſion of the leaves in boiling water contains all the virtue of the herb, and is the beſt preparation of it. From large quantities a ſmall portion of eſſential oil is obtained by diſtillation. The roots are ſaid to be nauſeous, bitter, purgative, and emetic; and as a medicine very ſimilar to the hellebor. alb.

BETONICA AQUATICA. See Scrophularia.

BETONICA PAULI. See Veronica.

BETONICA. A name for a ſpecies of ſideritis.

BETONICA CORONARIA. Clove July-flowers.

BETRE, i. e. Betle.

BETTONICA. Great water-dock.

BETULA. The birch tree. The betula alba of Linn. It delights in moiſt woods. It hath many flexible branches and ſomewhat oval, ſharp-pointed, ſerrated, deep-green leaves, hanging on long and weak pedicles, producing ſmall ſcaly cones, which contain little winged ſeeds. The bark is externally white and chapt, conſiſts of a thick brittle ſubſtance, of a dark browniſh red colour, covered with three or four whitiſh, very thin, ſmooth, flexible, tough, ſemitranſparent, membranous coats.

If

If this tree is wounded in the ſpring, pretty deeply into its trunk, there gradually iſſues a large quantity of a limpid ſweetiſh juice. It is beſt when drawn from the upper part of the tree; ſoon after the leaves have begun to appear, the juice loſes its ſweetneſs. This juice hath been drank as an antiſcorbutic: it ſenſibly promotes urine, and freely taken it moves the belly. By fermentation it becomes a vinous liquor; and inſpiſſated to the conſiſtence of a ſyrup, it yields a browniſh concrete like manna, if ſet in a cool place.

The leaves and bark are antiſeptic: the bark is burnt to correct bad air, and for this purpoſe it is the next in goodneſs to juniper.

BETULUS. See Ostrys.

BEX. A cough. See Tussis.

BEXUGO. The root of the clematitis Peruviana of C. B. one dram of which is enough for a purge.

BEXUGUILLO. The Peruvian ipecacuana.

BEYA. So the alchymiſts call the aqua mercurialis, which, in their language, is wife to the gabrien or ſulphur of the philoſophers.

BEZAHAN (Lapis Siculus Albus.) The foſſile bezoar.

BEZOAR. This is originally a Perſian word, viz. *badzcher*, or *bazcher*, or *pabazar*, which ſignifies an *antidote*. Avenzoar is the firſt who mentions it as a medicine, or who gives its hiſtory.

Bezoar ſtones are preternatural or morbid concretions formed in the bodies of ſeveral land animals; they are compoſed of ſeveral ſtrata or layers, like an onion. In the Hiſt. de l'Acad. an. 1703, it is aſſerted that all *bezoar* ſtones are bilious concretions of the reſpective animals which afford them.

Bezoars may be ranked thus: 1. The true oriental and occidental. 2. Such ſtones are are got from animals, and reſemble *bezoar*; ſuch as thoſe from apes, and even the various ſpecies of pearls and crabs eyes. 3. The ſeveral ſpecies of foſſile *bezoars*. 4. Thoſe that have only the ſhape, without the virtues of *bezoars*, ſuch as the human calculi in the bladder, kidneys, and gall-bladder; or in the ſame parts of oxen. 5. The ægagropila, which are balls formed by hairs collected in the ſtomachs of ſeveral animals, eſpecially the ruminating ſorts, and are called bulithum or cow's *bezoar*: the German *bezoar* is a hairy ball taken out of the ſtomach of the rock goat. See Ægagropila.

BEZOAR ORIENTALIS, called alſo lapis *bezoar*, hircus *bezoarticus*, and the oriental *bezoar* ſtone. It is ſuppoſed to be produced in the cavity at the bottom of the fourth ſtomach of a ſpecies of goat in Perſia called parau. It is only found in the old ones, and only in thoſe which feed on particular mountains. Though theſe are of great value in Europe, they are of greater value in Perſia, whence we ſuppoſe that they are only artificial ones that are brought here. The genuine ones are about the ſize of a kidney-bean, generally of an oblong rounded figure, but often of other forms, varying according to the ſhape of the body over which they are as a cruſt; for all the *bezoars*, whether animal or foſſil, are formed upon a nucleus of one kind or another, as a bit of ſtraw, a ſtone, or other matter. They have an even ſmooth ſurface, and are of a ſhining olive colour, or of a dark greeniſh one. On being broken they appear to be compoſed of a number of concentrical coats, of which the inner are as ſmooth and gloſſy as the outer. In the middle is either a cavity, ſome powdery matter, or ſome ſmall bits of the leaves or ſtalks of plants, or other ſuch like ſubſtances. The ſubſtance included in the *bezoar* ſhews how it is produced; theſe ſolid bodies remaining in the ſtomach may irritate its glands, and the lymph continually thickening (together with the juices of the plants on which the animal feeds) round theſe bodies, may well be ſuppoſed to form the poliſhed layers.

The marks of its genuineneſs are, its ſtriking a yellow or green colour on white paper that hath been rubbed with chalk; a red-hot needle not piercing into it, or occaſioning any bubbles, but either making no impreſſion at all, or at moſt taking off only a little ſcale; and its ſuffering no diminution of its weight, or diſunion of its parts, by ſteeping in water. If on licking it with the tongue a powder comes off, it is fictitious.

The genuine ſtone is without either ſmell or taſte. Caſtheuſer thinks that they are all fictitious which have a ſcent like that of ambergriſe. It is not acted on by ſpirit of wine. Its gravity is to that of water nearly as $1\frac{1}{2}$ is to 1. Reduced into an impalpable powder, it retains its greeniſh hue, which by moiſtening with ſpirit of wine during its levigation, is ſomewhat improved. This powder gives no tincture to water or to ſpirit, though violently agitated in them; but diſſolves almoſt totally in the acids of nitre and ſea ſalt, and efferveſces ſtrongly with them; it tinges them of a deep yellow (almoſt red) colour; the vitriolic acid raiſes a ſlight efferveſcence with it, but diſſolves very little: vinegar acts on it but very little.

Notwithſtanding all their boaſted virtues, it is certain that they are abſolutely indigeſtible in the ſtomachs of the animals in which they are found; and they are equally ſo in the human, except when accompanied with an acid; ſo that no more can be expected from this concrete than from any of the teſtacea that are ſoluble in acids; but it is inferior to them, being far leſs abſorbent than they, and more difficultly acted on by any acid of either the animal or vegetable kinds.

A great degree of heat will ſeparate the lamina of *bezoar* ſtones; ſometimes they ſeparate in breaking them; and if bit between the teeth, the layers will ſeparate, if the *bezoar* is good, it ſticks to the teeth like glue. On expoſing them to heat they afford an oil and an alcaline ſalt.

When this ſtone is powdered for uſe, it muſt be levigated to an exquiſite fineneſs, with rectified ſpirit of wine. The ſpirit improves its colour.

The London College directs the following powder with *bezoar*:

Pulvis Bezoardicus. Bezoardic *Powder*.

Take of the compound powder of crabs claws a pound, of oriental *bezoar* prepared, one ounce, mix and make them into a ſubtil powder.

This powder was formerly made into balls, which were called Gaſcoign balls, from one Gaſcoign, their inventor.

BEZOAR OCCIDENTALIS, called alſo lapis *bezoar*, Peruvianus, the American or occidental *bezoar*.

It is found in the ſtomach of an animal of the ſtag kind, which is a native of Peru, and other parts in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. Cluſius relates, that a friend of his at Peru, who firſt diſcovered this ſpecies, being deſirous to know how theſe ſtones were formed in the bodies of theſe animals, he diſſected one, and found in the ſtomach a kind of pouch, where thoſe ſtones were ranged in a row like the buttons on a coat. This kind of *bezoar* is larger than the oriental, it is from the ſize of a walnut to that of a hen's egg. Its ſurface is rough, and not ſo green as the oriental ſort, being often greyiſh or brown: it is alſo more brittle, and of a looſer texture, compoſed of thicker coats, and exhibits, when broken, a number of fine cryſtalline ſtriæ, curiouſly interwoven. It is leſs eſteemed than the oriental, though not in the leaſt inferior to it as a medicine.

BEZOAR HYSTRICIS, called alſo pila hyſtricis, *bezoar* porci, lapis porcinus, pedro del porco, lapis Malacenſis, the porcupine *bezoar*, or gall-ſtone. It is found in the gall-bladder of an Indian porcupine, particularly in the province of Malacca; it is of a roundiſh figure, and of a pale or purpliſh colour, ſometimes betwixt a green and white; it is ſoft, ſmooth, and ſlippery to the touch, to the taſte it is intenſely bitter, and the water in which it is ſteeped ſoon becomes bitter alſo. It does not appear to differ from the biliary concretions of an ox or any other animal. It is rather to be called an ægagropila than a ſtone, as it conſiſts of woolly fibres, and a bitter friable matter, having neither laminæ nor membranes.

BEZOAR SIMIÆ, or lapis ſimiæ, the *bezoar* of the monkey. They are found in the ſtomachs of certain monkeys in Brazil, and the Eaſt Indies, but which very rarely produce them. They are about the ſize of hazle nuts, harder than the oriental *bezoar*, of a dark green colour almoſt black. Its ſcarcity renders it coſtly, and it is rarely to be met with.

BEZOAR FOSSILE. Foſſile *bezoar*. It is a ſmall hollow body from Italy, found in ſand and clay pits, of a purple colour, with a rough ſurface, the ſize of a walnut,

and light. When broke, it is found to be an irony cruſt, containing in its hollow a fine greeniſh white earth reſembling pale *bezoar*. The earth is uſed and not the ſhells. It ſeems to be of the nature of bole armoniac. It is alſo called *bezoar* minerale, terra Sicula, lapis bezahan ſiculus albus, belzuar miner. Siciliana, mineral bezoar, and Sicilian earth. They ſeem chiefly to be ſpecies of calcareous earth. See Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

BEZOAR MICROCOSMICUM, called alſo calculus humanus, the calculus of the human bladder.

It is various in its degrees of hardneſs, as well as in its ſize and figure. They have been uſed in the place of other more coſtly ſorts.

BEZOAR ANIMALE. Animal *bezoar*. Take the whiteſt calcined hartſhorn, levigated to the greateſt ſubtilty, pour on it drop by drop, the ſpirit of vitriol, to form it into a paſte to be formed into balls.

The liver and heart of vipers powdered, is called animal *bezoar*.

BEZOAR BOVINUS, called alſo lapis alcheron. The Portugueſe call it meſang de vaca. It is a ſtone found in the gall-bladder of a bull.

BEZOAR MINERALE, i. e. *Bezoar* foſſile, above. Alſo the *bezoarticum* minerale, below.

BEZOARDICA RADICE, i. e. Rad. contrayerva.

BEZOARDICUM JOVIALE. Bezoar with tin.

Take the regulus of antimony three ounces, pure tin two ounces, the white corroſive ſublimate five ounces; melt the regulus in a crucible, then put to it the tin, ſo as to make a new regulus, to which, after being levigated, add the ſublimate, and diſtil the mixture in a retort. Let the butter which riſes, be fixed, by three repeated diſtillations, with thrice its weight of the ſpirit of nitre; then calcine the powder, and throw it, whilſt ignited, into a proper quantity of ſpirit of wine, and dry it for uſe.

This differs very little from the anti-hecticum Poterii, and it is a mere calx, and might as well be prepared by ſimple deflagration with nitre.

BEZOARDICUS PULVIS. See Bezoar.

BEZOARTICUM, Bezoartic; that is, poſſeſſed of the virtues of *bezoar*.

BEZOARTICUM MINERALE. Drop the butter of antimony into three times its weight of the ſpirit of nitre, diſtil them in a retort; at firſt the marine acid ariſes with a little of the nitrous ſpirit, and is the ſpiritus nitri *bezoarticus*; the diſtillation being continued until a dry white maſs remains, which muſt be calcined in a crucible, in a naked fire, heated to an almoſt white heat, and ſo to be kept for half an hour.

The common calx of antimony generally ſupplies its place, for like that calx it is abſolutely inert.

BEZOARTICUS (Sp. Nitri.) See Bezoarticum Minerale.

BEZOAS. It is a name given to many chemical preparations.

BHACTA, i. e. Terra rubea.

BIANCA ALEXANDRINA, i. e. Album Hiſpanicum.

BIBINELLA, i. e. Pimpernella. Ray ſays it is the plantago anguſti folio ſerrata, of Cluſius and Parkinſon.

BIBITORIUS MUSCULUS, i. e. Adductor oculi, or rectus internus oculi.

BIBULUS LAPIS, i. e. Pumex.

BICAUDALIS MUSCULUS, i. e. Triceps auris.

BICEPS MUSCULUS, from *bis* and *caput*. A double-headed muſcle.

BICEPS HUMERI, called alſo biceps internus humeri; Dr. Hunter calls it *biceps* flexor. It riſes by two heads, one of them (which is a ſlender tendon) riſes from the uppermoſt part of the glenoid cavity; it runs acroſs, within the cavity of the joint, under the ligament of the articulation, it paſſes in the groove between the two tubercles, and going down it grows fleſhy. The ſecond head riſes from the extremity of the coracoid proceſs, runs down the axilla, and joins the firſt, forming a tendon, which ſinks between the interſtices of the muſcles, to be inſerted into the tubercle on the inſide of the radius. This muſcle, beſides being a flexor, acts as a rotator of the radius, when the hand is prone. This muſcle ſends off an aponeuroſis towards the inſide of the arm, which is commonly what is wounded when the tendon is ſaid to be pricked by bleeding. This aponeuroſis was firſt noticed by Cowper.

BICEPS EXTENSOR. This muſcle riſes by two heads, the longer taking its origin from near the neck of the os humeri, runs between the teres major and minor, down the back part of the arm, and joins the ſhort head which riſes on the outſide of the deltoid, and is inſerted into the olecranum.

BICEPS FEMORIS. This muſcle hath two heads, the longer riſes in one maſs with the ſemitendinoſus, but having advanced a little way they part; they ariſe from the protuberance of the iſchium, on its back part, as it advances it becomes fleſhy. Between the *biceps* and the ſemitendinoſus, the veſſels lie in the ham. The ſhort head riſes from the linea aſpera, between the inſertion of the *biceps* and the origin of the vaſtus externus. The two heads join, and are inſerted into the ſuperior epiphyſis, or outer part of the fibula. It bends the tibia, and partly rotates the leg by turning the foot outwards. Cowper.

BICHICHIÆ. An epithet of certain pectorals, or rather troches, deſcribed by Rhazes, which were made of liquorice, &c.

BICHOS. A Portugueſe name for the worms which get under the toes of the people in the Indies, and which are deſtroyed by the oil of the caſhew nut.

BICION. See Vicia.

BICORNE OS, i. e. Os hyoides, from *bis*, *double*, and *cornu*, *horned*.

BICORNIS. A muſcle is ſo called when it hath two terminations.

BICORNIS. A name of the flexor carpi radialis; alſo of the extenſor carpi radialis.

BICORNIS PISCIS. The cuckold fiſh.

BICUCULLATA CANADENSE RADICE TUBEROSA SQAMATA. A name of the fumaria tuberoſa inſipida cornuti. Mem. de l'Acad. Roy. 1733.

BICUSPIDES. See Molares.

BIDENS, called alſo verbaſina, verbeſina, cannabina aquatica, hepatorium aquatile, eupatorium cannabinum fœminia, ceratocephalus, water-hemp agrimony, water-agrimony, hemp-agrimony, and water-hemp.

It hath oblong acuminated leaves, deeply indented, ſet three on one pedicle, and the pedicles in pairs; the flowers, which ſtand in the umbel-like cluſters, conſiſt of purpliſh floſculi ſet in ſcaly cups, followed by oblong ſeeds winged with down. It is perennial, grows wild by the ſides of rivers and ditches, and flowers in July.

The leaves have a light agreeable ſmell, and pungent bitter taſte, are aperient, corroborant, and of ſome efficacy in icteric complaints; powerful againſt the ſcurvy and œdematous ſwellings of the feet. An infuſion in boiling water, and drank freely, is the beſt method of uſing them.

The juice of the freſh herb may be taken in doſes from one to two ounces: larger doſes operate by vomit and ſtool.

The root purges ſtrongly.

BIDENS ZEYLANICA, i. e. Acmella.

BIDENS URTICÆ, i. e. Acmella.

BIENNIAL. Herbs are ſaid to be biennial when their roots continue two years.

BIFOLIUM, alſo called ophrys, ophris, orchis bifolia, ordinary wood bifoil, and common tway-blade.

The root is ſlender, but much branched, it ſends up one ſtalk with two leaves from its ſides, that are large, oval, and full of nerves; the flowers grow on ſpikes at the top, they are roundiſh, and of a dull green colour. It is found in woods and other ſhady places, and flowers in June. It is ranked among the agglutinant aſtringents. Miller's Bott. Off.

BIGASTER. A name given to muſcles that have two bellies.

BIGNONIA. Tournefort called this plant thus in memory of the Abbé Bignon. It is the trumpet-flower, or ſcarlet jeſſamine. Miller in his Dictionary, enumerates eleven ſpecies, but they are of no value in medicine.

BIHAI. An American name of a plant whoſe flower is like a lily; there are two ſpecies of them, but not uſed in medicine. Miller's Dict.

BILADEN. Steel or iron.

BILIARIA ARTERIA. The biliary artery. When the hepatic artery hath advanced as far as the veſicula felis,

lis, it gives out the biliaria, which accompanies the two cyſtic branches in the gall-bladder, and then is loſt in the great lobe of the liver.

BILIMBI. A tree of about eight or ten feet high, which Bontius calls billing-bing; and by the Europeans it is named malus Indica, fructu pentagono.

It is cultivated in the gardens in Malabar, bears flowers and fruit all the year. The juice of the root is cooling; the juice expreſſed from the fruit cures the itch, and ſeveral other ſkin diſeaſes, if applied by laying on linen cloths that have been dipped in it. Inwardly taken, this juice abates the gripes and a diarrhœa. The ripe fruit is eaten as a delicacy, the unripe is made into a pickle for the uſe of the table.

There is another ſpecies called nebi-pouli, or *bilimbi* altera minor. The male ſpecies of the nebi-pouli is called ala-pouli. Raii Hiſt.

BILIS, called alſo fell, bile, and gall.

It is a bitter viſcid juice, ſecreted from the blood in the liver, and collected in the receptacle known by the name of gall-bladder. The blood collected from the adjacent abdominal viſcera, is thrown into the vena portæ in the liver, which ramifying through this viſcus, carries the blood, charged with biliary matter, fit to be ſecreted, to its ultimate branches, from which the *bile* is emptied into the beginnings of the biliary ducts, called bori pilarii, and by them is conveyed into the ductus hepaticus; this duct paſſes on a little way, then enters into the ductus communis choledochus, whence the *bile* is partly diſcharged into the duodenum, and partly regurgitated into the ductus cyſticus, then falling into the gall-bladder, it remains there until it is wanted; by lodging there ſome time it is alſo more perfected, for being at reſt its thinner parts are exhaled, and the reſt becomes thicker, more acrid, increaſes in bitterneſs, and the depth of its colour.

The hepatic *bile*, before it is mixed with the cyſtic, in every reſpect reſembles lymph, that is ſub-alcaline and rather oily; it continually paſſes into the duodenum, but the cyſtic only as required.

The *bile* is formed from the blood in the ſecretory veſſels of the liver. It is of a ſaponaceous quality; ten parts out of twelve is water. By analyſis ſix pounds of ox gall was found to contain eighty ounces of water, three ounces and two drams of oil, twenty-four drams of volatile ſalt, and five of a fixed one.

It is the leaſt putreſcent of any juice in the body; its uſe is to mix the chyle, to rouſe the periſtaltic motion of the inteſtines, and finiſh the digeſtion. When the ſtomach is full, the cyſtic *bile* is more copiouſly diſcharged into the duodenum; when it is empty the hepatic *bile* is more freely ſecerned into the gall-bladder.

This ſaponaceous juice reſiſts acidity, and corrects it in the bowels; it eaſily mixes with water; it renders oily, mucous, and viſcid bodies, miſcible alſo with water, and if rubbed with reſinous gums, it attenuates them. In ſhort, there is ſcarce an animal or vegetable ſubſtance that it will not diſſolve. When drove through the warm veſſels with the blood, it muſt neceſſarily produce its effects there; ſo the blood, in a ſhort time, is quite diſſolved, and a dropſy is the natural conſequence of a jaundice. Newmann ſays that it contains no alcaline ſalt, and it is not a ſoap. The livers of infants are very large, and their *bile*, though ſecreted in a conſiderable quantity, yet is frequently almoſt inert; whence acidity prevails in their firſt paſſages, and other ill effects of indigeſtion attends them. An exceſſive uſe of acids, by overcoming the qualities of the *bile*, induces indigeſtion. The *bile*, in common with all bitters, neutralizes acids by mixture, and is itſelf neutralized by them; and when the *bile* tends to putreſcency, the native vegetable acids are its beſt reſtorers.

The gall-ſtones formed in the gall-bladder, are not of a cretaceous nature, but are merely coagula of *bile*; this is plain from their unctuous inflammable nature.

It is obſerved, that the gall of ſmall animals is ſtronger and more ſubtile than that of the larger kinds, whether on land or in the water; and, that of land animals, the hawk and ſerpent; of water, the pike and eel are the moſt active.

Beſides its uſe in the animal œconomy, and in various manufactories, it is an article of ſome value in the materia medica; and, from its manifeſt properties, ſeems to be entitled to more notice in the practice of medicine.

The gall of oxen inſpiſſated to an extract, hath been commonly that which was uſed; it prevents milk from turning ſour in the ſtomach, and reſolves it when coagulated. An extract made by the evaporation of its humidity, in balneum Mariæ, until it can be rolled into pills, may be given to children in doſes of one grain, three times a day, and to adults three or four grains at each doſe. When adminiſtered clyſterwiſe, half a dram may be uſed at a time. This extract is an excellent bitter of the ſtimulating and reſolvent kind, and in want of appetite, or other diſorders, from a deficiency of *bile* in the firſt paſſages; this animal bitter is likely to be more uſeful than the vegetable kinds. The beſt ſucceſs hath followed its uſe in obſtructions of the abdominal viſcera, promoting urine, and the menſes; and if this is not thought ſufficiently efficacious, the gall of eels and pikes may be ſubſtituted in its ſtead; with this, Boerhaave tells us, that he hath frequently cured rickety children, whoſe bellies were hard and very much ſwelled. Theſe more acrid kinds alſo deſtroy warts if now and then applied thereto.

A defect of *bile* diſpoſes the body to various diſeaſes, as hypochondriac, cachectic, &c. Fernelius, in his Pathology, ſays, that many have died from this cauſe alone. When, from its defect, a coſtiveneſs is induced, the oleum ricini is of ſingular ſervice, it ſhould be followed with nitrous and ſaponaceous medicines, and the Bath water may finiſh a cure.

When the *bile* offends by its acrimony, producing too frequent and copious diſcharges by ſtool, the oleum ricini will be more ſafe and effectual in correcting it than any of the other uſual means; and here alſo a finiſh may be given to the cure by the uſe of Bath water.

When *bile* in the ſtomach offends, it cauſes horrors, anxiety, and ſhiverings; here too, the oleum ricini purges without irritating, powerfully obtunds the acrimony of the *bile*, and by moderating the fever, which almoſt always attends this caſe, it proves a moſt ſpeedy remedy.

Fernelius ſays, that "it is owing to the putreſcency of the *bile* that fevers are augmented;" alſo, that "in fevers, the *bile* becoming putrid, acquires a malignant quality; in the beginning of the acceſs it ruſhes violently, and in large quantities into the membranes of the duodenum, as is ſufficiently proved by the dry cough, the oſſitation, ſuffocation, anxiety, diſtenſion of the præcordia, the pain, nauſea, vomiting, and white urine." Pathol. de Febrif. and Hoffman obſerves, that "corrupted *bile* renders all fevers worſe; alſo that freſh portions generated, cauſe the returns of intermittents, whence it is obvious why evacuants, which operate without irritation, and ſuch medicines as oppoſe putrefaction, as the bark, &c. are the beſt for removing them." It is certain that in fevers the *bile* is not only plentifully generated, but is alſo peccant in its quality, whence, if not duly evacuated, muſt be productive of many diſagreeable ſymptoms; whence the importance of a ſoluble belly in febrile diſorders. From a faulty *bile* in the inteſtines, when a fever attends, is often owing the aphthæ, inflammation in the fauces, purple ſpots in the ſkin, eryſipelatous diſorders, hæmorrhages, diarrhœas, &c.

Such is the importance of the *bile* in our conſtitution, and the ill conſequences of an error in it, that every aid is deſirable, by which our knowledge of its nature, &c. can be promoted.

See Haller's Phyſiology, in the chap. on the liver. Percival's Eſ. Med. and Exp. Fordyce's Elements of the Practice of Phyſic, part firſt. Macbride's Exp. Eſſ. The appendix to Sir John Pringle's Diſeaſes of the Army. And Maclurg's Experiments on the human *Bile*, &c.

BILIOSUS FEBRIS. The bilious fever; called alſo the marſh fever, the remittent fever, the autumnal remitting fever, and the camp fever.

When a *fever* is accompanied with *bilious* diſcharges by vomit or ſtool, whether it be continual, intermittent, or remittent, it is called *bilious*. It is an inſtance of the typhus icterodes of Dr. Cullen. See his Noſology. In his Firſt Lines, vol. i. he obſerves that the typhus is a genus that comprehends ſeveral ſpecies; that theſe, however, are not well aſcertained by obſervation; many of the different

ferent cafes do not imply any fpecific difference, and feem to be merely varieties, arifing from a different degree of power in the cauſe, from different circumſtances of the climate or ſeaſon in which they happen, or from different circumſtances in the conſtitution of the perſons affected. One effect arifing from theſe circumſtances in the conſtitution of the perſons affected, is an unuſual quantity of bile appearing in the courſe of the diſeaſe. This unuſual quantity of bile is almoſt a diſtinguiſhing character of intermittent fevers; but if it ſhould appear with a continued fever, it could only be conſidered in ſuch a caſe as a coincidence, owing to the ſtate of the ſeaſon, producing no different ſpecies, or fundamental diſtinction, but merely a variety of the diſeaſe.

In Britain, it generally prevails after hot weather; in hot countries it is moſt frequent in damp marſhy places, and after great rains, that are ſucceeded by great heats. In both ſituations, they who are expoſed to damps, and to the night air, are moſt ſubject to it.

Beſides the cauſes in general of fevers, it is occaſioned by a copious ſecretion of the *bilious* fluid, which is poured into the duodenum and ſtomach, where, by its acrimony, it ſtimulates and produces inflammation, whence the ſymptoms proper to this fever ariſe.

Beſides the uſual ſymptoms of fever, there is an extraordinary inquietude and anguiſh, a burning heat, cardialgia, nauſea, vomiting or purging, or both, and thereby a diſcharge of bile. The thirſt, in this diſeaſe, is exceſſive, and the dejection of ſpirits equally ſo; the pulſe is ſmall but quick, ſometimes it remits very ſenſibly, at others the remiſſions are very obſcure; and at laſt an inflammation of the bowels comes on.

If the diſcharges are cadaverous, death uſually is at hand, and an involuntary diſcharge of the excrements is uſually fatal.

If the pulſe is full and hard, bleeding may be admitted of in the beginning, but rarely, if ever, admits of a repetition. And if in hot countries, it is beſt to omit this evacuation totally. But in all caſes begin with giving a grain or two of the tart. emet. by way of emetic.

If ſaline medicines are given, the neutral mixture is the moſt proper, but each doſe ſhould be adminiſtered in the act of effervescence.

And as ſoon as an intermiſſion is perceived, begin with the bark, for it is the chief dependence. But if the diſeaſe is very violent, or the patient in a hot clime, the bark muſt be given before the intermiſſion, for on its early uſe depends the cure; a dram may be given every hour in wine and water, or what elſe the patient uſes for his common drink. If the bark, in ſubſtance, is not agreeable, let a cold infuſion of it be ſubſtituted, which may be acidulated with the elix. vitriol. and the patient may take it as freely and frequently, as his ſtomach will bear it. If it runs off by ſtool, or is ejected by vomit, a few drops of the tinct. thebaic. will probably prevent it.

After a vomit with tart. emet. ſome commend the following powder, R tart. emet. gr. j. p. contray. c. gr. v. m. to be repeated every two hours, until it procures a vomiting, purging, and ſweating; but the uſe of the columbo root ſeems far more eligible.

Dr. Percival, in his Eſſays Medical and Experimental, informs us, that in theſe fevers, the pulv. rad. columbo. gr. xv. ad xx. with the tart. vitriolat. ℈ i. ad ℈ ij. given every four, five, or ſix hours, produces both ſpeedy and beneficial effects. The neutral ſalts, he obſerves, abate the febrile heat, allays thirſt, and brings on a gentle ſalutary diarrhœa; whilſt the columbo ſupports the patient's ſtrength, obviates the ſickneſs, and checks the ſeptic ferment in the primæ viæ. Dr. Haygarth, of Cheſter, farther remarks, that, after the primæ viæ are unloaded of their *bilious* contents, the columbo root admirably allays the nauſea, ſo conſtantly attendant on this diſorder; and that in this fever, though the remiſſions are very evident, and the acceſſions marked with chills, and other ſymptoms of an intermittent, yet the bark is not always ſo ſucceſsful as to encourage its uſe; but he ſays the columbo anſwers our warmeſt wiſhes, by correcting the bile, reſtoring the proper tone of the ſtomach, and of the whole habit; it excellently prevents relapſes, to which, in this fever, the patient is peculiarly diſpoſed.

BILIOSUS ARDENS FEBRIS. The burning bilious fever; called alſo the yellow fever; the Weſt Indian fever. It is the typhus icterodes of Cullen. It ſeems not to differ from the *biliofus febris* juſt noticed; except in that its cauſe is increaſed in its power, when it attacks a patient in a hotter country.

The Europeans who live irregularly, give way to exceſſes, and are not careful to guard againſt the heats and dews that are common in the Weſt Indies, are the chief ſubjects of this diſeaſe.

It attacks with a tranſient chilline ſs and ſhivering, which is ſoon ſucceeded by a burning heat all over the body, but more particularly complained of about the precordia; the pulſe is high and quick, but not hard; the eyes are heavy, a violent head-ach comes on, with beating in the temporal arteries, alſo a thick laborious reſpiration; a nauſea ſoon follows, and what is diſcharged upwards is *bilious*; anxiety is very great; pain is complained of in the back and loins, and an uneaſy laſſitude in the limbs. In about twelve hours after the firſt invaſion of this diſeaſe, the tongue is very dry, rough, and diſcoloured; thirſt is exceſſive, a foreneſs is felt all over the body, and a dilirium comes one. In the laſt ſtage the patient labours under a coma, manifeſts a great oppreſſion about the precordia, the reſpiration is very difficult, and at length the tendons tremble, cold ſweats and convulſions appear, to uſher in death. When the patient recovers, the criſis uſually happens in the fourth day after the attack; the regular criſis generally diſcovers itſelf by a ſuffuſion of the bile all over the body, the yellow tinge ſometimes appears in the eyes, twelve hours after the ſymptoms of this fever approached; the ſooner it appears the more favourable is the prognoſtic. If the ſkin continues dry and rough, the patient rarely recovers, however good his pulſe may be. Inceſſant vomiting, and the diſcharges growing darker coloured, are fatal ſigns; and if a dry ſkin accompany an inflamed redneſs of the eyes, death may be expected in a few hours.

In order to the cure, bleeding muſt immediately be propoſed, more or leſs freely according to the ſtrength of the patient; though after the third day it is rarely adviſeable: the operator would do well to obſerve the ſtate of the pulſe during the diſcharge of the blood, and if he finds it flag he ſhould deſiſt; if it riſes he may proceed.

After bleeding, let an emetic be given with tart. emet. gr. j. vel. ij. this beſt evacuates the offending bile. After this, the belly muſt be rendered ſoluble by repeated doſes ſaline purges.

The primæ viæ duly evacuated, the bark muſt be freely uſed, in doſes as large, and as frequently repeated, as the ſtomach can digeſt them. The propereſt time to begin with it is as ſoon as a remiſſion is obſerved, or a diaphoreſis is produced. If the bark in ſubſtance does not agree, let an infuſion of it in cold water be tried, and if that cannot be complied with, give the following:

R Rad. ſerpentaria V. ʒ ij croc. anglic. ʒ ſs. infund. in aq. bullient ℥ x. per horam unam; colatur. ℥ vi. adde aq. menth. vulg. ℥ ii. vin. Madeirenſ. ℥ iv. elix. vitr. acid q. ſ. ad gratam ſaporem; & cap. cochl. ij. omni horâ vel ſæpius. Or

Repeated doſes of the common ſaline mixture may be given in the act of fermentation.

The vomiting, which uſually eludes every means hitherto uſed, even the tinct. thebaic. gut. ij. vel. iij. in every draught of the patient's drink, and bliſters applied to the region of the ſtomach, may probably give way to the rad. columbo, as mentioned in the article BILIOSUS FEBRIS.

In the beginning the drink may be a decoction of toaſted bread in water, or other ſmall liquors acidulated with tamarinds; and as the fever declines, a little wine may be allowed.

When the delirium threatens or approaches, bliſters keep off the coma, which uſually comes on when they are omitted. If a coma is attendant, bliſters muſt be applied to the head, arms, and legs; and ſinapiſms to the ſoals of the feet. Cordial medicines, with camphor, muſt be duly adminiſtered.

The diarrhœa, which ſucceeds this fever, muſt not be ſuddenly ſtopped, if the patient's health is not too much impaired by it.

See Biſſet on the *Bilious Fever* of the Weſt Indies. London Med. Obſ. & Inq. vol. iv. p. 156. Blicke on the *Bilious Fever* of Jamaica. Sir John Pringle, Drs. Chalmers,

mers, Lind, Towne, Warren, Cleghorn, Rouppe, all deſerve attention on this ſubject.

BILIS ATRA, i. e. Atrabilis.

BINARIUS. Among the Romans, it is the number two. But the Spagiric philoſophers affix other ideas to it, of which the curious may be informed in the Theat. Chym. vol. i.

BINGALLE. The caſſumunair root.

BINOCULUS. A bandage for retaining the dreſſings on both eyes. It is either a ſingle or a double-headed roller, it is twelve feet long, and two or three fingers in breadth. Its application will eaſily be underſtood by that of the monoculus, which ſee. A napkin, or kerchief, anſwers as well.

BINSICA. A Rabbinical term, ſignifying mental ſickneſs, or a diſordered imagination.

BINSICA MORS. A binſical death. The death which follows diſorders of the mind, ſuch as are produced by the bite of a mad dog, &c.

BINTAMBARU ZEYLANENSIBUS. Convolvulus maritimus, pes capræ luſitanis. A plant growing in Malabar and Ceylon, it abounds with an acrid milky juice. A dram of the reſin of the root purges. Raii Hiſt.

BIOLYCHNIUM, from βιος, *life*, and λυχνιον, a *candle* or *lamp*. The lamp of life. It is of the ſame ſignification as vital heat, vital flame, or natural heat. It is alſo the name of a ſecret prepared by Beguinus, of human blood.

BIOS. Life, and its courſe. But ſometimes it only means victuals.

BIOTE. Life. In an affected ſenſe it ſignifies the time of a continuance of aliment in the body; thus weak food hath a ſhort life annexed.

BIOTHANATI. A term applied to thoſe who die a violent death.

BIPEMULLA. Blancard ſays it is pimpernella. Ray ſays it is the plantago anguſti folia ſerrata of Cluſius.

BIPETALOUS. See PETALA.

BIPINELLA, i. e. Pimpernella.

BIPULA. A ſort of worm mentioned by Ariſtotle.

BIRA. Beer. See CEREVISIA.

BIRAO. The true amomum.

BIRGANDER. A kind of wild gooſe.

BIRRETHUS. See CUCUPHA.

BIRSEN. An Arabian or Perſian word, ſignifying an inflammation or impoſthume in the breaſt.

BISCOCTUS. Twice dreſſed. This word is chiefly applied to bread twice baked, or that is much baked, i. e. Biſcuit.

BISEMATUM. The lighteſt, paleſt, and baſeſt lead.

BISERMAS. A ſpecies of horminum.

BISLINGUA. See HIPPOGLOSSUM.

BISMALVA. Marſhmallows.

BISMUTHUM. Biſmuth; alſo called wiſmuthum, marcaſita, plumbum cinereum Agricolæ, blende Germanis, marcaſite of ſilver, and tin glaſs.

It ſeems not to have been known to the Arabians, their marcaſite was the lapis pyrites. Some reckon it a ſpecies of tin. It is a bright pale lead-coloured mineral, when broke it appears of a ſilver white; it may be powdered without difficulty; it is nearly ten times ſpecifically heavier than water, of a flakey contexture; its earthy part affords as good a blue as that from cobalt; it is mixed with ſulphur and arſenic; by fuſion the ſulphur and arſenic evaporate, and the metallic part runs off from the earthy. In Cornwall there is much of this mineral; ſometimes it is found mixed with the cobalt. *Biſmuth* is eaſily ſeparated from its ore by means of fuſion with the common black flux. It melts long before ignition, a little ſooner than lead, but later than tin. A ſtrong fire ſublimes it into white flowers; it is convertible into glaſs by heat alone. The nitrous acid diſſolves it, from which it precipitates in the form of a bright white powder, by dilution with water. The marine acid does not readily affect it, and the vitriolic ſcarce at all. It impregnates the vegetable acid with a naſeous taſte. The chief of it that is brought into England is from Saxony. Dr. Alſton denies that the ores of *biſmuth* contain any arſenic; it is true that the *biſmuth*, when brought to us, is without ſuch particles.

It mixes eaſily with ſeveral metals, but deſtroys their ductility. It promotes the fuſion of other metallic bodies. Mixed with lead and tin, it forms a compound that melts with a very ſmall heat; the following proportion is ſo fuſible, that it hath been propoſed for injections, two parts of lead, three of tin, and five of *biſmuth*. If *biſmuth* is mixed with lead, a larger portion of the latter can be combined with quickſilver, than can be without this method; and the quickſilver cannot be freed from this mixture by the common methods.

It is not now in any medicinal uſe.

Flores Biſmuthi. *The Flowers of* Biſmuth.

Take four ounces of *biſmuth* ſubtilly powdered, half a pound of nitre finely powdered, put the mixture by little and little into an earthen body, that is perforated in the ſide, and fixed to a proper number of aludels; when the body is red hot, and the operation ended, take away the aludels, and wipe away the flowers with a feather.

Magiſterium Biſmuthi. *Magiſtery of* Biſmuth.

Diſſolve *biſmuth* in aqua fortis, without heat, adding the *biſmuth* by little and little at a time. Pour the ſolution into ſixteen times its quantity of water, and thus a bright white powder is precipitated. If a little rectified ſpirit of wine is added, the precipitation is haſtened. Waſh the precipitated powder in freſh parcels of water, and dry it in a ſhady place.

This preparation hath been uſed as a coſmetic, but it gradually impairs the natural complexion, and thickens the ſkin.

The Spaniſh white is a magiſtery of *biſmuth*, made by diſſolving it in ſpirit of nitre, and precipitating it with ſalt water.

BISNAGARICA ARBOR MYRTI AMPLIORIBUS FOLIIS, &c. A ſpecies of cubeb tree.

BISON. A ſpecies of ox in America, &c.

BISTACIUM, i. e. Piſtacia.

BISTORTA. Biſtort. Called alſo the greater biſtort, or ſnake-weed. It is the polygonum *biſtorta*, or polygonum caule ſimplicimo monoſtachyo, foliis ovatis in petiolum decurrentibus radice intorta, of Linn.

It is a plant, with oval, pointed, wrinkled leaves, of a dark green colour above, and bluiſh underneath, ſtanding on long pedicles, and continued a little way down the pedicles, forming a narrow margin on each ſide. Among theſe ariſe, round, ſlender, jointed, unbranched ſtalks, furniſhed with ſmaller and narrower leaves, which have no pedicles, bearing on the top ſpikes of imperfect five-leaved red flowers, which are followed by triangular leaves. It is perennial, grows wild in moiſt meadows, and flowers in May and June.

The root is bent vermicularly, whence its name, and jointed at each bending. It is commonly about the thickneſs of a finger, ſurrounded with buſhy fibres, of a blackiſh brown colour on the outſide, and reddiſh within. It is diſtinguiſhed from the other *biſtort* roots by being leſs bent; that of the officinal ſpecies having only one or two bendings, and thoſe of the other three or more.

This root is powerfully aſtringent, antiſeptic, and alexipharmic. It is of ſingular efficacy in fluxes, againſt looſeneſs of the teeth, ſpongy gums, and ſoreneſs in the mouth. It is ſaid to cool, but this is by its being antiacrid, whence all aſtringents are cooling. The doſe is from gr. x. to ʒ i. Water totally diſſolves its aſtringent matter. Extracts made with water, or with ſpirit, retain all the ſtyptic qualities. All the parts of this plant poſſeſs the ſame qualities as the root, but in a leſs degree. If the roots are boiled in vinegar, an excellent antiſeptic gargle is obtained.

The tormentil root is ſo ſimilar in its efficacy, that it may always be ſubſtituted for it.

BISUL. An abbreviation of biſulcis.

BITHNIMALCA. A word coined by Dolæus, to ſignify a peculiar active principle reſiding in the ſtomach, and preſiding over the functions of chylification, &c.

BITHYNICI TONSORIS EMPLASTRUM. The Bithnian barber's plaiſter for ſplenetic people. See Aetius Tetrabib. iii. ſerm. ii. cap. xxii.

BITHINOS. The name of a plaſter deſcribed by Galen.

BITI. A tall evergreen tree in Malabar, and other parts of the Eaſt Indies. An oil is prepared from its root, with which to cure the alopecia.

BITUMEN. Called alſo aſphaltos, piſaſphaltos, *bitumen* Judaicum, carabe funerum, gummi funerum, mumia, carabe of Sodom, foſſile pitch, and Jews pitch.

It is a mineral ſulphur. It is a ſolid light ſubſtance, of a duſky colour on the outſide, and a deep ſhining black within, having but little taſte or ſmell, except it is heated, in which caſe it emits a ſtrong pitchy odour. It is not ſoluble in oils, nor in vinous ſpirits; it melts but imperfectly in the fire. On burning it, a large quantity of aſhes are left behind. It is found in the earth in many parts of Egypt, and floating on the ſurface of the Dead Sea. At firſt it is ſoft, but grows hard by keeping.

The genuine ſort is generally ſupplied by different bituminous ſubſtances found in Germany, France, and other countries; but theſe ſubſtitutes have a ſtronger pitchy ſmell than the true ſort hath. They are farther diſtinguiſhed from the true, by their more perfectly diſſolving with heat, and by their not leaving ſo many aſhes behind when burnt. Neumann ſays, that when the genuine *bitumen* is diſtilled in a retort, it yields a light inſipid phlegm, about 1-11th its weight of an oil, that reſembles the native petrolea, but of a more diſagreeable and empyreumatic ſmell; and any of the above ſubſtitutes may well be admitted. Foſſile pitch is found in many parts of this iſland, in the ſeams of lime ſtones. The virtues of all theſe ſubſtances depend on the quantity of petroleum which they contain. See PETROLEUM and SUCCINUM.

In foſſilogy, it is a genus in the claſs of inflammables. See Dict. of Chem. edit. 3. Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

BITUMEN BARBADENSE. See PISSALEUM.

BITUMEN LIQUIDEUM. See PETROLEUM.

BIVALVA. Bivalve. In botany is the pods and huſks of plants which open lengthways in two parts like the ſhell of a muſcle.

BIVALVULA. i. e. Bivalva.

BIVENTER. Thus muſcles are named that have two bellies, from *bis* and *venter*.

BIVENTER, (MUSCULUS.) It ariſes from the proceſſus maſtoidæus. Its tendon frequently joins the ſtylohyoidæus, and the membranous ring fixed to the os hyoidæus, and is then attached to the inner part of the chin. It depreſſeth the jaw, ſo opens the mouth. It is fleſhy at both its extremities, and tendinous in the middle. The middle tendon paſſing through the aponeurotic ligament at the lateral part, and the root of the cornua of the os hyoides, is what renders it capable of performing its office. The ancients called it graphoides.

BIXA OVIEDI, i. e. Achiotl.

BLACCIÆ. A name which Rhazes gives to the meaſles.

BLACTARA. Ceruſs, white paint.

BLÆSITAS. Stammering or liſping. It is the pſelliſmus ringens.

BLÆSUS, βλαισος, a Greek primitive, the ſame as *valgi*, a bandy-legged perſon, or one whoſe legs are bent outward; one whoſe back bone is bended either forward or backward; alſo a paralytic perſon; and one who hath an impediment in his ſpeech. Blancard.

BLANCA. Ceruſs. Alſo the name of a purging medicine in the antidotarium of Nicolaus.

BLANC TARBE. Powder blue.

BLANCNON. A name in Oribaſius for fern.

BLAPTISECULA. A name for the cyanus, from βλαπτω, *to hurt*, and *ſeco*, *to cut*; becauſe it injures the mowers ſcythes.

BLAS. A term coined by Helmont, by which he means the force of motion, and applies it to the ſtars, the human body, &c.

BLASO. An Indian name of a tree, the fruit of which, when powdered, is given to deſtroy worms. Raii Hiſt.

BLASTEMA, from βλαστανω, *to germinate*. A bud, or off-ſet, or ſhoot of a plant: but Hippocrates expreſſes by it a cutaneous eruption or pimple.

BLATTA, or Blatta Fœtida. The ſlow legged beetle. It is that ſpecies of the beetle which is ſo common in bake-houſes. If they are boiled in oil, or bruiſed therein, then dropped into the ear, they relieve pains in that part.

BLATTA BYZANTIA, or Byzantina. Called alſo unguis odoratus, and the Conſtantinople ſweet hoof.

Blatta, and Blattea, have had various ſignifications. The purple fiſh, the welk, and other fiſhes of the ſame kind, i. e. that are wreathed, have but one perforation through which they put forth their tongues, and take their food; they have alſo a ſort of cover, under which they thruſt out their tongue to feed, and draw it back at pleaſure. In the purple fiſh, this cover is what is properly called *blatta byzantia*; it is called unguis from its likeneſs to a man's nail in its ſhape and colour. It is often confounded by writers with the unguis odoratus. This unguis, called *blatta bizantia*, is without any odour; but the Indian ſhell-fiſh, which affords an unguis, is agreeably ſcented.

Mr. Da Coſta, in his Elements of Conchology, obſerves, that, of all the univalve ſhells, only the turbinated have opercula, or lids, which when the fiſh contracts itſelf into its ſhell, cloſes it in ſo that nothing can follow it. Theſe opercula, or lids, are of various ſhapes, and different ſubſtances: the matter of ſome of them reſembles ſhells, others are like leather, and a third kind are horney. The horny and leathery kinds have a greaſineſs or unctuoſity, which, when they are burnt, exhales a ſtrong ſmell, ſometimes agreeable, but moſt generally very fetid. The *blatta byzantia*, conchylium, or unguis aromaticus of the ancients, was of this leathery horny kind. It was called unguis, becauſe imagined to reſemble the talons of a bird of prey. Dioſcorides propoſes two kinds; one from the Red Sea, white and greaſy, which was the moſt eſteemed; the other black and not ſo large, which came from Babylon. Of later times they have uſed indifferently the ſmall round opercula of purpuræ, and, by the name of *blatta byzantia*; when burnt they exhale a ſmell ſomewhat like that of caſtoreum. At preſent they are not uſed.

BLATTARIA LUTEA. Yellow moth mullein. Ray takes notice of ten ſpecies. It is ſaid to poſſeſs the ſame virtues as the verbaſcum, but is of very little note in medicine.

BLATTARIA. A name of a ſpecies of ſalicaria.

BLATTI. The wild Malabar plum-tree.

BLECHNON. The leſſer-branched fern.

BLENDE. A German name for biſmuth.

BLENNA, or Blena. A thick phlegm deſcending from the brain, through the noſtrils; which ſhews a beginning concoction.

BLENNUS. The name of a fiſh, found in ſhallow waters, but not of much value.

BLEPHARA. The eye-lids.

BLEPHARIDES, from βλεφαρον, *an eye-lid*. The hairs on the edges of the eye-lids, alſo that part of the eye-lids themſelves, on which the hairs grow.

BLEPHAROPTOSIS. A prolapſus of the eye-lid; or its relaxation and deſcent.

BLEPHAROTIS. Inflammation of the eye-lids.

BLEPHAROXYSIS, i. e. Ophthalmoxyſtrum.

BLEPHAROXYSTON, or Blepharoxyſtum. So Paulus Ægineta, in lib. iii. cap. xxii. calls the ſpecillum aſperatum, from βλεφαρον, *an eye-lid*, and ξυω, *to ſcrape off*.

BLESTRISMUS. A reſtleſs toſſing of the body, as in a phrenſy.

BLETA, (WHITE.) An epithet for milky urine, proceeding from diſeaſed kidnies.

BLETI. Struck. So thoſe were called who were ſuddenly ſeized with a ſuffocation, or difficulty of breathing, &c.

BLINCTA. Red earth.

BLITUM, Blites. Of this plant there are many ſpecies. The white and the red are the moſt common; their leaves reſemble thoſe of beets, the flowers are long ſpikes of a ſmall, moſſy, greeniſh floſculi. They are of but little worth in medicine.

Blitum is a name of the amaranthus ſylveſtris, alſo of the mercurialis, and of an African ſpecies of petaſites.

BLITUM BRASILIANUM LUSITANIS. A ſpecies of *blite* which grows in Braſil, but of no remarkable virtues. Raii Hiſt.

BLITUM ERECTUS. A ſpecies of chenopodium.

BLITUM FŒTIDA, i. e. A triplex fœtida.

BLITUM MINUS POLYSPERMUM. A ſpecies of chenopodium.

BOA, a large aquatic ſerpent which follows the herds of

of oxen, whence its name. It ſucks the milk from the cows. It is met with in Calabria. Alſo a ſymptomatic kind of miliary fever, in which the eruptions are of the ſize of millet-ſeeds, watery, without redneſs or pain; it is cauſed by inordinate ſweating.

BOANTHEMON, i. e. Buphthalmum.

BOAS, a large ſerpent mentioned by Pliny.

BOAX, the name of a fiſh. See BOOPS.

BOBERRI, i. e. Borri borri.

BOCCONIA. A plant ſo called from P. Boccone of Sicily, a curious botaniſt. It is a native of Jamaica, but of no medical virtue.

BOCC. PLANT. RARIOR. An abbreviation of Paulus Bocconus, Icones & Deſcriptiones rariarum Plantarum Siciliæ.

BOCC. MUS. An abbreviation of Muſco di Piante rare di Paulo Boccone.

BOCHETUM. A ſecondary decoction of lignum vitæ, and of other ſuch like woods.

BOCIA. A glaſs veſſel with a round belly, and a long neck, about ſix inches diameter, and firmly cloſed. It is called ovum ſublimatorium, urinale, & cucurbita.

It muſt not be touched with the cold hands during the time of working, for then it would break. See BOTUS.

BOCIUM, i. e. Bronchocele.

BOD. à STAPEL. An abbreviation of Joannes Bodæus à Stapel in Theophraſti Hiſtoriam Plantarum.

BOERHAAVE. He was born at Voorhout, a village near Leyden, in Holland, Dec. 31, 1668, and died Sept. 23, 1738. He was profeſſor of phyſic in the univerſity at Leyden. When a boy, and under the care of his father, he was ſent into the fields to exerciſe him in the buſineſs of agriculture, inſtead of employing his leiſure from his books in play. This was a due recreation, and at the ſame time gave vigour to his body. Such kind of rural occupations he continued through all his life, and by this viciſſitude of ſtudy and exerciſe, he preſerved himſelf, in a great meaſure, from thoſe diſtempers and depreſſions, which are the frequent conſequence of indiſcreet diligence, and uninterrupted application, and from which ſtudents often fly to wine, but exerciſe would afford them more happy and laſting relief.

He had not the moſt lively invention, but had a great ſhare of true ſagacity, and of ſound judgment.

He publiſhed on many ſubjects. He was a profeſſor of botany, and hath left much behind him on that ſubject. On chemiſtry he has writ largely, and in that art made many improvements; but his Aphoriſms and Inſtitutes are the moſt valuable of his works.

Among the ancients, he chiefly quotes Galen, Celſus, and Ægineta. His Aphoriſms are collected from thoſe writers he moſt approved of; his reaſonings are founded on the ſtructure of the parts, and the laws of mechanics. He greatly admired Hippocrates, and commended an attentive ſtudy of him to his pupils. His firſt view in his Aphoriſms was, when he lectured on them, to eſtabliſh, on mechanical principles, as much as poſſible, the doctrine of the ancients with reſpect to the diagnoſtics and prognoſtics of diſeaſes; and ſhews, that they could not be otherwiſe than they have repreſented them. His ſecond view was, to demonſtrate that the methods of cure purſued by the ancient phyſicians were generally the beſt that could have been contrived with the materials they were acquainted with, though for reaſons to which they were probably ſtrangers.

His Inſtitutes contain all the then modern diſcoveries in anatomy, phyſiology, and what relates to the laws of the animal œconomy, and the actions of medicines upon the body, with all his own improvements therein; but they are not eaſy to be underſtood by thoſe who are not previouſly acquainted with the ſubjects.

BOET. An abbreviation of Anſelmi Boetii de Boet, Gemmarum & Lapidum Hiſtoria.

BOETHEMA. A remedy.

BOETHEMATICA SEMEIA. Auxiliary ſigns in diſeaſes, ſuch as give notice of a cure obſervable in them.

BOGIA GUM. See ESSULA.

BOICININGA. The rattle-ſnake. Called alſo boicininninga, and Dominica ſerpentum.

It is a ſerpent of Braſil, about four or five feet long, as thick as a man's arm, of a reddiſh colour inclining to yellow, with ſmall eyes, a forked tail, long and ſharp teeth. The tail towards its end, is furniſhed with a parallelogramous ſubſtance, three fingers breadth or more, in length, and about half a finger's breadth in wideneſs, conſiſting as it were of ſmall links combined with one another; they are dry, ſmooth, ſhining, and of an aſh colour, inclining to red. This ſubſtance increaſes every year a link, and makes a noiſe like little rattles when the ſerpent creeps.

It is ſaid, that this ſerpent cannot approach a piece of a root, which in Virginia is known by the name of rattle-ſnake-root; but the blood-root is the moſt frequent remedy. This root is bruiſed and applied to the wound, and a decoction of it is drank.

Troches are made with the gall of rattle-ſnakes, which are caught in ſpring. This gall is mixed with chalk, or meal, into a paſte: theſe are called trochiſci Connecticotiani, from the Connecticut colony. They are anodyne, three or four grains are taken after great fatigue, but may be taken to fourteen grains or more.

The rattle-ſnake, as well as all other venomous ſerpents, is deſtructive of itſelf by its bite. Pigs eat theſe ſnakes greedily when they can meet with dying ones, or ſuch as are diſabled from biting them.

When a perſon is bit by a rattle-ſnake, purple ſpots, and a difficulty of breathing, ſoon attend, with other ſymptoms that manifeſt a coagulation of the juices; in which caſe, leſſening the quantity of blood in proper time will leſſen the overload at the heart, and give both it and the lungs more liberty to dilate and contract their muſcular membranous fibres; and with the aſſiſtance of proper alexipharmics, given at the ſame time, may attenuate and add freſh vigour to the curdled maſs; and thus a ſtop is put to thoſe ruptures, and extravaſations, which appear at the extremity of the ſmall veſſels. Many medicines are uſed by the Americans as an antidote to the poiſon of this animal. Thoſe in moſt eſteem have a quick, warm, pungent taſte, though mild and volatile on the tongue; but the moſt noted remedy is the following, which was diſcovered by a Negro, it is this: take of the roots of plantain and horehound (in ſummer the whole herb) a ſufficient quantity; bruiſe them, and ſqueeze out the juice, and give immediately a large ſpoonful. If the patient be ſwelled, pour it down his throat. If it does not relieve in one hour, give a ſecond ſpoonful, which never fails. If the roots are dried, moiſten them with a little water.

It is ſaid that rattle-ſnakes have a power of charming birds, and other ſmall animals, ſo as to make them their eaſy prey. This caſe is more properly related by a perſon, whoſe opportunities favoured his obſervations on theſe animals. His narrative may be ſeen in the Gentleman's Magazine for February, 1766, the ſubſtance of it is as follows: "Small birds, and ſuch things as theſe ſnakes prey upon, are much diſturbed when they ſee a rattle-ſnake. It muſt be noted, that theſe ſnakes ſeek theſe birds, &c. more particularly when they are breeding. The diſturbance which theſe birds, &c. manifeſt, is through fear; fear counteracts its own deſign, ſo precipitates them into the very danger which they would ſhun: the confuſion which fear excites hinders their eſcape, or elſe the deſperation that prompts them to reſiſt an enemy which they cannot ſubdue. In this lies all the inchantment that betrays them to deſtruction."

BOITIAPO. A ſerpent of Braſil, which the Portugueſe call cobus de cipo. Its bite is venomous.

BOJOBI. A ſerpent in Braſil, which the Portugueſe call cobre verde. Its bite is venomous. The cure is the root of the coa-apia, which the patient is to ſwallow in a little water.

BOLBIDION. A ſmall polypous kind of fiſh, mentioned by Hippocrates.

BOLBITON, or Bolbitos. Cow's dung.

BOLBONAC, i. e. Bulbonac.

BOLBOS, i. e. Bulbus.

BOLCHON, or Balchus, i. e. Bdellium.

BOLESIS. Coral.

BOLESON. Balſam.

BOLETTO. Frit. It is imperfect, or half made glaſs.

BOLETUS. Spunk. A genus of the funguſſes. It

is an horizontal fungus; and porous underneath. The *boletus* igniarius, commonly called agaric of the oak, is a ſpecies of this genus. See AGARICUS QUERCUS.

BOLISMUS. Avicenna hath this word inſtead of bulimus.

BOLUS. A bole or bolus. *Boluſes* differ not from electaries, only in that they are made in ſingle doſes, and are therefore more proper where great exactneſs is required in the doſes, and where the ſpeedily periſhing drugs are to be uſed, for they are only made for immediate uſe. The light and ponderous powders may more conveniently be mixed with mucilage, for ſo they are the leaſt bulky. The quantity of each is a morſel, or a mouthful, (i. e. as much as can be conveniently ſwallowed at once) whence their name buccella.

BOLUS. Bole. *Boles* are a genus of earths, which readily fall down into a looſe maſs in water; having a degree of ductility, when not pervaded with too much water; and ſmooth, and rather unctuous to the touch. Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

There are various ſpecies of *boles*, the chief of which are as follow, viz. the Armenian, French, of Blois, and the Bohemian.

Bole is a friable, but viſcid earthy ſubſtance; chalk is the ſimpleſt and drieſt of the earths uſed in medicine; marl is more fat and greaſy; clay is ſtill more ſo; but *bole* the moſt. It unites with water into a ſmooth paſte, adhering to the tongue, and diſſolving, as it were, in the mouth; it is of the clayey kind, but more readily imbibing water than the clays ſtrictly ſo called. When moiſtened, it is leſs viſcous and coheſive, more eaſily diffuſible through water by agitation, and more freely ſubſiding from it. It is ſoft and unctuous to the touch.

All the medicines, or the moſt of them, that are uſed under the names of terra, are *bolar* earths, or different kinds of *bole*. Some of them were made into cakes, and ſtamped with ſome impreſs or other, and theſe have the general name of terræ ſigillatæ, or ſealed earths. Theſe are all factitious.

All the *boles* have for their baſis one and the ſame argillaceous earth, which is not diſſoluble by the heat of boiling water, in acids, or alkalies, or any other known menſtruum; and in a ſtrong heat grows hard, loſing its property of imbibing of water, and being thereby formed into a tenacious maſs. The different colours of the *boles* proceed from a ſlight admixture of a ferrugineous calx, all which contain more or leſs of it. Some of them contain a portion of calcareous earth; the *bole* of Blois contains much of this earth, but the common French *bole* hath very little, and the Armenian none at all. The vitriolic acid, as well as the ferrugineous calx, are intimately mixed with the *boles*.

Boles are adulterated with ſand, and other ſuch like matters, and are artificially coloured too. But all theſe are ſeparated by diſſolving the mixed *bole* in water, and being heavier than it, they ſubſide before it. Genuine *bole* ſubſides uniformly, without any ſeparation of its parts. The genuine yellow *boles* retain their colour in the fire, or have it deepened; whilſt the counterfeit ſorts burn red. Pipe-clay coloured is the common ſubſtitute for *boles*.

The medical virtues of *bole* appear to depend on ſimple, *bolar*, or argillaceous earth. As this earth is not ſoluble in any animal fluid, it can act no otherwiſe than by imbibing, or giving a greater degree of conſiſtence to thin ſharp humours in the firſt paſſages, and, in ſome meaſure, defending the ſolids from their acrimony. In conſequence of this, they may be of uſe in alvine fluxes. They have not, as is ſuppoſed, any aſtringent property.

The doſe is from gr. v. to ʒ j.

When the *boles* are freely uſed as a medicine, a purge ſhould now and then be given, to prevent their adhering too much to the inteſtines.

The London college gives the following powders, in which *bole* is a part of their compoſition.

Pulvis e Bolo *Compoſitus ſine Opio. Compound Powder of* Bole *without Opium.*

Take of *bole* Armenic, or of French *bole*, half a pound; of cinnamon, four ounces; of tormentil root, and gum arabic, of each three ounces; of long pepper, half an ounce. Mix them into a powder.

Pulvis e Bolo *Compoſitus cum Opio. Compound Powder of* Bole *with Opium.*

Take of opium ſtrained, three drams; dry it a little, that it may be powdered: add to it the ſpecies of the preceding compoſition before they are pulverized, that they may be all beat together into a powder.

This latter with opium, is propoſed as a reform of the ſpecies Fracaſtorii, which, when made into an electary, with three times its weight of honey, was formerly called Diaſcordium. The ſpecies Fracaſtorii was firſt preſcribed by Hieronymus Fracaſtorius, an Italian phyſician.

Both the above powders with *bole*, are warm agglutinant aſtringents, and are given in fluxes from gr. x. to ʒ ſs. for a doſe.

In the ſecond of theſe powders, there is one grain of opium: in each forty-five grains.

BOLUS ARMENA. Armenian bole. Called alſo *bolus* Orientalis, *bole* Armenic, and *bole* Armoniac.

It is of a pale, but bright red colour, with a tinge of yellow. It is harder, and of a leſs gloſſy ſurface, than moſt other *boles*, having generally a rough duſty ſurface. It does not efferveſce with acids. It comes chiefly from the Levant, rarely from Armenia. It ſhould be ſmooth, ſoapy, and free from grit; it differs very little from the terra ſinopica. The Armenian and Lemnian *boles* were always reckoned the beſt, but they are generally ſupplied by ſubſtitutes of inferior *boles*, or with pipe-clay coloured with the colcothar of vitriol. Their virtues indeed are nearly alike.

BOLUS ARMENA ALBA. It is brought from the ſame parts where the red ſort is brought from, and is of the ſame efficacy.

BOLUS BLESENSIS. *Bole* of Blois. It is a yellow *bole*, it efferveſces ſtrongly with acids, and is much lighter than any other of the *boles*, and than moſt of the other yellow earths.

BOLUS BOHEMICA. Bohemian *bole*. Called alſo German *bole*. It is yellow, with a caſt of red, generally flakey, and is not acted on by acids.

BOLUS CANDIDUS. White *bole*. Called alſo terra ſigillata Goltbergenſis, unicornu minerale, & axungia lunæ chymicis.

BOLUS COMMUNIS. Common *bole*. Called alſo *bolus* Gallica, French *bole*. It is of a pale red colour, variegated with irregular ſpecks, and veins of a whitiſh yellow. It is much ſofter than the Armenian, and lightly efferveſces with acids. Pipe-clay, coloured with red chalk, is its uſual ſubſtitute.

BOLUS TOCCAVIENSIS. Tranſylvanian *bole*. Called alſo *bolus* Hungaricus, *bolus* Tokaikus, and *bolus* Pannonicus verus.

This is as good as the Armenian.

BOLUS FABRILIS. Red chalk.

BOLUS JUDAICUS. A name for the marſh mallow.

BOLUS SILESIANUS, i. e. Terra ſigillata.

BOLYNTHON. Cows dung.

BOMBAST. Cotton.

BOMBAX. Cotton. Called alſo xylon, goſſipium, and bombaſt.

There are three ſorts of *cotton* trees: one creeps on the earth like a vine, the ſecond is thick like a buſhy dwarf tree, the third is tall as an oak. All the three, after producing beautiful flowers, are loaded with a fruit as large as a walnut, whoſe outward coat is black. When this fruit is ripe, it opens and diſcovers the *cotton*; the ſeeds are ſeparated by a mill from the *cotton*. This tree grows in many places in the Levant, Eaſt and Weſt Indies, eſpecially in the Antilles. The fruit is oval. The *cotton* of the firſt ſort (which creeps on the ground) is the beſt. That produced near Smyrna is greater than any where elſe. They ſow the ſeeds, which are like little beans, in June, gather the *cotton* in October, and the ſoil there produces three crops in a year.

The ſkin of the ſeed is mucilaginous, the kernel is ſweet like an almond, and of virtues ſimilar to the althea. If *cotton* is applied to wounds it excites inflammation; and, when worn next the ſkin, it checks perſpiration.

BOMBUS. A reſounding noiſe, or ringing of the ears, from flatus confined there. A bad ſign in acute diſeaſes.

BOMBYCUM, and Bombyx. The ſilk-worm.

BOMPOUR-

BOMPOURNICKEL. A ſort of coarſe bread uſed in Weſtphalia. It was known by ſome very ancient nations by the name of panis furfuraceus, becauſe it was not cleared from the bran. It was called panis impurus, and ſyncomiſton, becauſe prepared of unſifted meal; and coliphium, from κωλον, *a member*, and ισχυς, *ſtrength*, importing that it greatly ſtrengthened the body. It hath been known at different times, or in different places, by the names of panis ater, panis cibarius, and panis gregarius.

The wreſtlers among the Greeks uſed this kind of *bread* alone; for the *bread* that is wholly of fine flour, does neither nouriſh nor ſtrengthen ſo much as the coarſer, that is made with the bran and all together. *Bread* made of the bran alone, is more ſtrengthening than that which is made of fine flour, when it is made for labouring people. The Romans, for three hundred years, only uſed the bran of the corn. In Norfolk this ſort of *bread* is in uſe at this day.

BON ARBOR. The coffee-tree.

BONA. The kidney bean.

BONAN. An abbreviation of Philippi Bonanni Recreatio Mentis & Oculi.

BONASUS. A kind of wild ox, found about the mountains between Pæonia and Media.

BONDUCH INDORUM. Called alſo *bonduch* cinerea, *bonduch* pianta Indiano, arbor ſpinoſa Indica muricatis ſiliquis, lobus echinatus, acacia glorioſa, lentiſci foliis ſpinoſa, flore ſpicato luteo ſiliqua magna muricata, caretti, inimboy Braſil criſta pavonis glycirrhizæ fol. minor, &c. marſas, Molucca nuts, and bezoar nuts.

The plant runs up to five or ſix feet in height; it is a native of both the Indies. The round beans only are in uſe, which are of an aſh colour on the outſide, and white within. It is warm, bitter, and carminative.

Ray mentions another ſpecies, which he calls *bonduch* Indorum ſiliqua minime ſpinoſa.

BON. SEP. An abbreviation of Bonetus Sepulchretum.

BONIFACIA, i. e. Laurus Alexandria & Hippogloſſum.

BONONIENSIS (Lapis.) The Bononian ſtone. Called alſo phoſphorus Bononienſis, ſpongia ſolis, lapis lucidus, lapis illuminabilis, phoſphorus Kircheri; the light-carrier, and Bononian phoſphorus.

It is a ſmall, grey, ſoft, gloſſy, fibrous, ſulphureous ſtone, about the ſize of a walnut. When broken, a kind of cryſtal, or ſtarry talc, is found therein. This *ſtone* is met with in the neighbourhood of Bologna, or Bononia, in Italy; and, when duly prepared, makes a ſpecies of phoſphorus.

When this phoſphorus is held to the light, it retains it for ſix or eight hours after. As a medicine, this *ſtone* is cauſtic and emetic.

BONT. An abbreviation for Jacobus Bontius, who is a writer of good credit.

BONTIA. The Barbadoes wild olive. It is of no note in medicine. Miller's Dict. vol. ii.

BONUS HENRICUS, i. e. Mercurialis.

BOONA. The kidney bean.

BOOPS, Boax, or Box. A fiſh mentioned by Aldrovandus.

BOOS THALASSIU. The ſea cow.

BORACE. Borax.

BORACTRION & BORAXO. Borax.

BORAGO, i. e. Borrago.

BORASSUS. The tender medullary ſubſtance which grows at the top of the great palm-tree.

BORAX. Called alſo chryſocolla, tincar, baurach, nitrum factitium, ſanterna, & nitrum nativum. See Tincal.

BORAC, or Baurac, ſignifies nitre. The barbarians corrupted it into *borax*, and applied it to the chryſocolla. It is a mineral cryſtalline ſalt; the ancients called it chryſocolla. It is not much unlike alum. If genuine, it hath a ſweet taſte at the firſt, but afterwards an unctuous one. Its pure cryſtals are octagonal priſms, finely cut; it diſſolves difficultly in cold water; it eaſily diſſolves in boiling water, but, on the water cooling, the *borax* concretes into a ſolid maſs; to keep it diſſolved in cold water, it requires near twenty times its weight of water. It ſwells and bubbles in the fire, and ſoon becomes a glaſs, which yet diſſolves again in water; but if mixed with flint or ſand, it becomes a hard and durable glaſs, even hard enough to cut common glaſs. It is an excellent flux for metals, and for their ores; it changes the colour of blue flowers to green; precipitates earthy and metallic bodies diſſolved in acids; it renders vegetable and animal oils miſcible with water; it does not ſenſibly ferment either with acid or alkaline liquors; it diſſolves in acids more eaſily than in water; a ſolution of *borax* made in an acid, (i. e. vegetable) menſtruum, when inſpiſſated by evaporation, is a tenacious ſubſtance that will not cryſtalize, but will diſſolve in the air. If *borax* is mixed with the crude ſal ammoniac, an urinous ſmell is emitted like that which ariſes from a mixture of fixt alkaline ſalts with it: whence it may be concluded, that *borax* is rather alkaleſcent, though it is a ſalt of its own kind.

There is a natural ſort called crude *borax*, it is brought into Europe in dirty lumps, and of a diſagreeable ſmell. In this ſtate it is called tincal, or tincar, and contains an oily matter, earth, and ſtones. The artificial is but this natural ſort rendered pure by art. The manner of refining it is known but to few; but after coming from the refiners, it differs ſo from the general ſalt, that Cramer calls it an adulterated *borax*. An artificial ſort is ſaid to be made of nitre, urine, &c. See Schroder on this ſubject. The oily matter is ſeparated from the natural *borax*, by heating it in an iron ladle until it ceaſes to bubble and flame; thus the oil is deſtroyed: then boil it in water, and the ſalt is extracted pure.

Geoffory ſays, that "*borax* is at firſt a fluid, which ouſes from various mines, but chiefly from thoſe of copper. Theſe ſprings are met with in Perſia, the Eaſt Indies, and other countries in Aſia. This fluid is ſalt, muddy, and greeniſh; but by the ſummer heats it is ſo evaporated, that the ſalt is found concreted in the reſervoirs made for its reception." Beecher alſo tells us in his Alphabetum Minerale, that "the univerſal acid, in diſſolving a ſtone or a fuſible earth, forms *borax*, as it forms alum when it meets with an earth fit to make lime."

The *borax* of the ſhops is often adulterated with alum; but then it is not ſo light, nor clear, nor does it ſwell ſo much as the pure when it is put on live coals.

Its conſtituents ſeem to be the mineral fixt alkaline ſalt, and a peculiar kind of acid. By all the mineral acids, its alkaline baſis may be disjoined from the ſubacid part. This analyſis may thus be effected: diſſolve eight ounces of *borax* in three ounces of warm water; then add three ounces of the oil of vitriol. Evaporate this mixture until thin plates begin to appear upon the ſurface, which are to be ſwept off with a feather; then let the fire decay, and the veſſel ſtand unmoved, till more cryſtals are formed, which are to be well rinſed with cold water, and dried for uſe. Theſe cryſtals are the famed ſal ſedativus, which Gaubius ſays will procure reſt in inflammatory fevers when opiates fail. To this end it is given from gr. viij. to xvj. Dr. Morris uſed to give it to maniacs in doſes of two drams to compoſe them. Lemery ſays, that two ounces of *borax* afforded him rather more than half an ounce of ſedative ſalt; but he obtained it by ſublimation, which method produces a purer ſalt, but is more tedious. It is obtained by ſublimation thus: put a mixture of nine parts of *borax*, three of the oil of vitriol, and one of water, into a wide-necked retort; place the retort over a fire at firſt gentle, and then haſtily to be increaſed until the veſſel is red hot; then the ſedative ſalt ariſes, and fixes itſelf about the neck of the retort; the liquor that diſtils and falls into the receiver ſhould be poured back as the matter dries which is in the retort, for the ſedative ſalt only riſes while it is moiſt.

After the ſeparation of the ſedative ſalt from the *borax*, by means of the vitriolic acid, what remains is only a combination of this acid with the mineral alkaline ſalt. The ſedative ſalt, joined to the marine alkali, recompoſes *borax* again.

This peculiar and characteriſtic ingredient of *borax*, the ſedative ſalt, though called ſubacid, from its property of neutralizing alkalies, ſcarcely diſcovers any other mark of acidity. Its taſte is bitteriſh, and rather cool; it makes no change in the colour of blue flowers, nor does it effervеſce either with acids or alkalies; a ſpirituous ſolution of it if ſet on fire, burns with a green flame. As a me-

dicine it is antiſpaſmodic and anodyne, whence its name ſedative.

The *borax* itſelf is uſed for ſoldering gold, whence its name chryſocolla. It is a ſolder for other metals alſo; and a powerful flux for fuſing minerals of all kinds with. It is uſed to give a gloſs to ſilks.

As a medicine, it ſeems to poſſeſs greater virtues than thoſe that are yet manifeſted in it. It is a powerful deobſtruent, diuretic, and emenagogue, in doſes of half a dram, or two ſcruples. A ſolution of it in water is the moſt efficacious means of removing aphthous cruſts from the mouth and fauces. Externally it is a far better coſmetic than biſmuth. Dr. Alſton of Edinburgh ſays, that it ſhould be diſſolved when taken inwardly, for the ſtomach will not melt it, and if given in a diſſolved ſtate it enters the vaſa minima, mixes with the blood, and dilutes it. If given in powder it is emetic, but mixed with aromatics, this quality is checked, and in the fluor albus it is ſaid to be a ſpecific.

The Edinburgh college gives the following powder, in which *borax* is an ingredient.

Pulvis ad Partem. Powder for aſſiſting Delivery.

Take of *borax*, half an ounce; caſtor and Engliſh ſaffron, of each a dram and a half; oil of cinnamon, eight drops; oil of amber, ſix drops. Mix and make them into a powder.

A doſe of *borax* is from gr. v. to ʒ i. ſs. And of the above powder from ℈ j. to ʒ j.

BORBONENSIS, or Borbonicus. A patronymic epithet for the Bourbon waters.

BORBORODES. Feculent. Muddy, dirty, earthy.

BORBORYGMUS. A rumbling noiſe, excited by wind, mixed with ſome degree of humidity in the bowels. This ſort of noiſe is likewiſe what is produced by treading in the mire, βορβορυγμος, whence its name.

BOREAS. The north-eaſt wind. The northern winds are of a cold, but wholeſome temperament. They abound with acid particles, whence they reſiſt putrid diſeaſes, but beget thoſe that depend on the rigid fibre.

BORI. Great eaters.

BORIDIA. A ſort of ſalt meat, prepared of a kind of fiſh, which is eaten raw. Oribaſius takes notice of it.

BORITIS. The philoſopher's ſtone, which melts the copper of the wiſe man, and renders it fluid like water.

BORIZA, i. e. Lunaria.

BOROMETZ, or Boronetz, i. e. Agnus Scythicus.

BOROS. Voracious. A voracious water, or ſuch a one as begets a good appetite.

BOROZAIL. The zail of the Ethiopians. It is a diſeaſe epidemic about the river Senegal. It principally infeſts the pudenda, but is different from the lues venerea, though it owes its riſe to immoderate venery. In the men it is called aſab, in the women oſſa batus.

BORRAGO. Borrage. Alſo called bugloſſum verum bugloſſum latifolium, and borago hortenſis.

It is a hairy rough plant, with wrinkled, blackiſh green leaves, approaching to an oval ſhape, with round hollow ſtalks, on which the leaves are ſet alternately. On the tops of the branches come forth blue, and ſometimes reddiſh, or whitiſh monopetalous flowers; each of which are followed by four wrinkled blackiſh ſeeds. It is perennial, grows wild on waſte grounds, and on old walls.

The leaves are ſucculent; their medical qualities are not diſcernible until the juice is ſeparated from them by preſſure, and then they are hardly worth our notice. A decoction of them affords a ſmall quantity of the nitrous and muriatic ſalts. The leaves are ranked among coolers, and the flowers among cordials.

BORRAGO MINIMA. A ſpecies of omphalodes.

BORRI-BORRI. An Eaſt Indian name for turmeric, and alſo of an ointment uſed there, in which are the roots of turmeric.

BOS. The bull, cow, ox, heifer, or any other of the neat kind.

As a medicinal article, we may reckon the beef-tea, which is thus made. Cut a pound of the lean part of a buttock of beef into thin ſlices, add to it two pints of water, boil them over a quick fire during five minutes, then ſeparating the ſcum, decant the clear liquor for uſe.

If it boils ten, fifteen, or twenty minutes, which laſt is the longeſt that it ſhould boil, it contains more of the excellence of the beef.

BOSA. An Egyptian word for a maſs which is made of the meal of darnel, hemp-ſeed, and water. It is inebriating.

BOSCAS. A ſort of dry pitch, which is tenacious like bird-lime.

BOS INDIANA, i. e. Bubalus.

BOSCAS MAJOR. A ſort of duck called a mallard.

BOSCI SALVIA. A kind of ſage, which takes its name from *boſcum*, or *boſcus*, *a wood*, the places where it grows.

BOSMOROS, from βοσκω, *to feed*, and μορος, *a portion*, or *diviſion*. A kind of corn is thus called, becauſe it is divided by the mill to fit it for food.

BOSPOROS, i. e. Boſmoros.

BOTAMUM. Waſhed-lead.

BOTANE. An herb, whence the term

BOTANY, the ſcience relating to vegetables.

The moderns have regulated plants under claſſes, to diſtinguiſh them, and they deſcribe them well: as to their virtues, they have done very little more than copy from the ancients, of whom Dioſcorides is the chief. But as the ancients, though careful in their account of the virtues of plants, have not only neglected an accuracy in their deſcriptions, but given the ſame name to different ſubjects; ſo the deſcriptions of the moderns, and accounts of the virtues given by the ancients, fail of that uſefulneſs which otherwiſe might have been expected.

This branch of knowledge is very ancient. Solomon is recorded as having known all the plants from the cedar of Lebanon to the hyſſop upon the wall. Hippocrates is the next, of whom we have any valuable account: he ſpeaks of the virtue of about two hundred and thirty plants, but does not deſcribe them. Cratevas, or Crateias, a contemporary of Hippocrates, deſcribes thoſe plants of whoſe virtues Hippocrates gives an account. Theophraſtus, and ſome others, purſued this kind of knowledge, until at length Dioſcorides roſe up, and ſurpaſſed them all. He deſcribes four hundred and ten plants, and mentions, by name, one hundred and ninety more; he alſo treats on their virtues; but ſince him no great notice hath been taken of this latter part of his enquiries.

William Turner gives Fuchſius's prints, with their names in Engliſh, German, French, Latin, and Greek. Fuchſius's prints are large. Tac. Theod. Tabernæmontanus gave figures, which are copied by ſeveral of his ſucceſſors. Rembertus Dodonæus of Leyden, hath given very elegant figures. Carolus Cluſius alſo hath left us many excellent figures. John and Caſpar Bauhine neglected to eſtabliſh the genuſes of plants, yet their Pinax is a very uſeful *botanic* work. Criſpinus Paſieus publiſhed his Hortus Floridus, with very accurate figures. Tournefort improved *botany* more than all before him; he formed it into a ſcience, and giving it the air of accuracy, he added figures alſo. Our countryman Ray is valuable in this purſuit. Boerhaave's peculiarity in his *botanic* ſyſtem, is to diſtinguiſh plants by the parts of fructification, for theſe never vary by ſoil, clime, culture, &c. but the appearances of plants alter very much in other reſpects. Beſides theſe, there are the improvements of Linnæus, Miller, and others, whom, but to name, is to praiſe. One of the lateſt works of this kind, is the Inſtitutes of *Botany*, by Colin Milne, LL. D.

Dr. Grew's work on the Structure of Plants, and on Vegetation, or the Growth of Plants, are among the moſt valuable on the ſubject of *botany*.

BOTANICON. The name of a plaſter deſcribed by P. Ægineta.

BOTARGUM. The ſalted ſpawn of the mugil, or mullet.

BOTHOR. It hath three ſignifications among the Arabians. 1. Tumors in general. 2. A tumor with a ſolution of continuity: and 3. Small tumors, which laſt is the moſt proper. Some take it for an abſceſs of the noſtrils. Blancard ſays it ſignifies pimples in the face, which do not ſpread, but are are eaſily ſuppurated and vaniſh. It is beſides a general appellation for pimples in the face, lungs, or other parts. And that the Arabians call the ſmall-pox and meaſles by this name.

BOTH-

BOTHRION. A ſmall ditch, from βοθρος, *a ditch*. This word is alſo uſed to expreſs a ſmall ulcer in the black of the eye, or tunica cornea. Alſo the ſockets of the teeth.

BOTIN. Turpentine. Alſo a balſam from it.

BOTIUM, i. e. Bronchocele.

BOTOTHINUM. A term uſed by Paracelſus, by which he would expreſs the flower of a diſeaſe.

BOTOU, or Botoua, i. e. Pareira brava.

BOTRITIS, i. e. Botryites.

BOTRYITES. Botrites, from βοτρυς, *a cluſter*, properly of grapes.

It is a ſort of burnt cadmia, reſembling a cluſter of grapes, and collected from the upper part of the furnace, where it is burnt; as what is collected in the lower part is called placitis. Schroder ſays, that the *botryites* is collected in the middle part of the ſurface, the placitis in the upper, and the oſtracitis in the loweſt.

BOTRYS. It is difficult to ſay what particular plant this is: the following are by ſome placed under this name.

BOTRYS. The oak of Cappadocia, or of Jeruſalem; alſo called artemiſia, ambroſia, chenopodium, and atriplicis adoræ ſeu ſuaveolentis. It is the chenopodium *botrys*, Linn.

BOTRYS MEXICANA. The Mexican tea. Called alſo *botrys* ambroſioides Mexicana, Mexicanave, chenopodium, *botrys* Americana, atriplex odor Americana, and Artemiſian *botrys*.

The above plants are natives of the ſouthern parts of Europe; they are ſown annually in our gardens. The leaves and flowery heads have a ſtrong, but not unpleaſant ſcent, are moderately aromatic and bitteriſh to the taſte. If they are much handled, an unctuous reſinous juice adheres in conſiderable quantities to the fingers.

The proper menſtruum for their active matter, is rectified ſpirit of wine; but boiling water alſo takes up the greateſt part of their virtue. An infuſion of them drank as tea is uſeful in coughs, and humoral aſthmas. They are ranked among the anti-ſpaſmodics.

Theſe plants differ from the Engliſh mercury, and from the ſtinking orach, chiefly in their leaves being like thoſe of an oak.

BOTUS. See Bocia.

BOUBALIOS. A wild cucumber. Some explain it to be the pudendum muliebre.

BOUBON. It ſometimes ſignifies the groin, ſometimes the glands in the groin, and a tumor of the ſame; alſo a tumor in the neck, or arm-pits, or behind the ears, or of any of the external glandular parts. Galen, in his lib. i. De Diff. Febr. ſays, "A bubo is a kind of inflammation."

BOUCERAS, i. e. Fenugreek.

BOUGIE. In the French language it ſignifies a *wax candle*, and is applied to a machine, which (as the wax candle formerly was) is introduced into the urethra for removing obſtructions there.

Monſ. Daran, a French ſurgeon, lately boaſted of his introducing them as an improvement in his art, and acquired conſiderable profit by making and ſelling them. Scultetus, about the middle of the ſeventeenth century, uſed *bougies* in diſeaſes of the urethra, and probably Monſ. Daran took the hint from him.

Different compoſitions have been uſed, and generally mercury was a part in them. Riverius made a plaſter as follows: ℞ Ol. oliv. ℔ iv. ceræ citrin. ℔ ij. minii & ceruſ. ää ℔ i. ſs. tereb. Venet. & rez. alb. ää ℥ iij. m.

Whether the *bougies* are made up of this, or any other compoſition, they muſt be of different ſizes, from the bigneſs of a knitting needle, to that of a gooſe quill. They are made of linen rags, ſpread with a proper matter, and then rolled up as follows. Having ſpread any quantity of linen rag with the compoſition that is choſen for the purpoſe, cut it into ſlips, from ſix to ten inches long, and from half an inch to an inch broad; then dexterouſly roll them on a glazed tile into the form of a wax candle. And as the end of the *bougie* that is to be entered firſt into the urethra, ſhould be ſomewhat ſmaller than the reſt, it would be as well to cut the ſlips a little tapering. It ſhould alſo be obſerved, that when the *bougies* are rolled up, that ſide muſt be outward, on which the plaſter is ſpread.

Monſ. Daran, and ſome others, attributed the action of their *bougies* to the compoſition they made uſe of in forming them. Mr. Sharpe apprehended, that as much of their efficacy was owing to the compreſſion they made on the affected part, as to any other principle. And Mr. Aikin juſtly ſays, as it is evident that *bougies*, of very different compoſitions, ſucceed equally well in curing the ſame diſorders in the urethra, it is plain that they do not act by means of any peculiar qualities in their compoſition, but by means of ſome property common to them all. This muſt be their mechanical form and texture, therefore their mode of action muſt be ſimple compreſſion.

The efficacy of mere compreſſion in many caſes of conſtriction is well known, from the uſe of ſponge tents for widening parts that are ſtraightened by cicatrices; and admitting obſtructions in the urethra to be from a conſtriction formed by cicatrized ulcers, or a projection of the ſpongy ſubſtance of the urethra into the canal, we may eaſily conceive that a gentle continued elaſtic compreſſion will, in time, overcome the diſeaſe. We may alſo readily account for the inferior efficacy of metallic and whalebone *bougies*, from their not having the property of ſwelling with moiſture, and therefore not making ſo equal a compreſſion.

As to *bougies* procuring a diſcharge of matter, there is no doubt but the mechanical ſtimulus of a foreign body, in ſuch a tender part, though free from diſeaſe, muſt produce it in ſome degree, and that this will be varied according to the chemically irritating quality of the compoſition, and the irritable ſtate of the urethra; but it ſeems an abſurdity to apply a topic made uniform throughout, to the whole length of a canal, with a view of producing extraordinary effects upon a particular part of it, by means of ſome powerful quality in the ingredients. As to that part of the *bougie* which was in contact with the diſeaſed part being particularly covered with matter, this circumſtance is owing to the greater irritation of the urethra where the diſorder is, than in the other parts of it.

See Sharp's Critical Enquiry, ch. iv. and Aikins's Obſervations on the external Uſe of Preparations of Lead.

BOUI. A Chineſe name for bohea tea.

BOULIMUS. A voracious appetite, from βε, *a particle*, which in compoſition augments the ſenſe, and λιμος, *hunger*. *Boulimus*, or *bulimus*, ſignifies an ox's appetite, though this diſeaſe is more frequently called fames canina, a canine or dog's appetite; it is alſo called malacia, or hungry evil, and phagedæna.

Dr. Cullen names this genus of diſeaſe bulimia. He places it in the claſs locales, and order dyſorexia; and diſtinguiſheth three ſpecies. 1. Bulimia helvonum, in which there is no other diſorder of the ſtomach than an exceſſive craving of food. 2. Bulimia ſyncopalis, in which there is a frequent deſire of food, and the ſenſe of hunger is preceded by a ſwooning. 3. Bulimia emetica, in which is an appetite for much food, which is preſently ejected by vomiting.

This diſorder conſiſts in an inſatiable deſire of food, and a quick return of the appetite after eating. Some diſtinguiſh betwixt *boulimus* and fames canina, whilſt others make them but one. The firſt ſay that the *boulimus* is not attended with a vomiting, but, in its ſtead, with fainting, and that in the fames canina, the patient vomits his greedy meals as dogs do; though with ſome they own it runs off by ſtool inſtead of vomiting.

In ſome it may be a natural misfortune, for on diſſection it hath been found, in a few inſtances, that the right orifice of the ſtomach was too large, conſequently the aliment was too ſoon expelled through it. Galen ſays it is cauſed by an intenſe acid in the ſtomach, or other acrimony in the gaſtric juice. Others attribute it to a weakneſs in the lower orifice of the ſtomach, worms, &c.

Lommius obſerves that in this caſe there is great hunger, much is eaten, which oppreſſing the ſtomach is again thrown up, the patient is thus relieved, but the appetite returns; the ſtomach eaſed by eating, is again oppreſſed, and is again relieved, as a dog's by vomiting.

There is no danger if food is but ſupplied, though the patient is pregnant, except large colliquations attend, or fainting is frequent. Fainting with a full ſtomach, is a dangerous ſymptom, coldneſs in the extremities, is generally fatal, and the breath failing when a fainting comes on, death may be expected as at hand.

From faintings the patient is recovered by offering to his ſmell a toaſt dipped in wine, or roaſted meat. After recovery from the fit give him ſome food; and let it be of ſuch a kind as cools and nouriſhes, but is not ſoon digeſted, ſuch as carrots, beets, parſnips, with ſoft fat, and farinaceous ſubſtances.

If an acid is the cauſe, after vomiting give the teſtaceous powders, the lixivium of tartar, and iron filings.

If worms are ſuſpected, anthelmintics muſt be preſcribed.

When the cauſe is not very manifeſt, moderate doſes of opium may be given at proper intervals, but ſome circumſpection is required in adminiſtering it. Beſides vomiting, purges with aloes will be adviſeable; wormwood, and ſuch other medicaments, as warm and ſtrengthen the ſtomach. Galen commends frequent ſmall doſes of brandy; and Riverius ſays, that ambergriſe is peculiarly uſeful, if five or ſix grains be repeated at due intervals.

This diſorder terminates variouſly, as in a lientery, dropſy, atrophy, cachexy. See Galen, Alexander Trallian, Paulus Ægineta, and Lommius.

BOUNIAS, i. e. Bunias, from *βουνος*, *rugged*, becauſe it delights in rugged places.

BOURBON WATER. This mineral water is of the ſulphureous kind, and more ſo than the Bath water.

BOUTUA, i. e. Pareira brava.

BOVILLÆ. The meaſles.

BOVINA AFFECTIO. The diſtemper of black cattle. A diſeaſe among black cattle, cauſed by a worm lodged between the ſkin and the fleſh, and perforating the ſame. The Arabians call it ægritudo vel paſſio bovina; it is but little known in Europe. It is not mentioned by the ancient Greeks.

Some confound this diſorder with the dracunculi, but they are very different: but ſomething analogous to this diſorder is a cutaneous one, with which ſome ſcorbutic conſtitutions are frequently affected, and which ſeems to be owing to an obſtruction of the perſpirable matter which concretes in the pores of the ſkin, and forms a ſebacious ſubſtance reſembling a worm, with a black head, which may be ſqueezed out, and which ſometimes cauſe a ſmall ſuppuration, and is diſcharged with the pus.

Avenzoar gives the following account of the *bovina affectio*: "Sometimes a worm breeds between the ſkin and the fleſh; and if this worm is not ſoon killed, the conſequences may be pernicious. As ſoon as it is perceived, burn the adjacent part with a hot iron, ſo that the heat may penetrate to the worm, in a degree ſufficient to kill it. This done, dreſs as is uſual after burns, and purge with aloes."

Here Avenzoar ſpeaks of this diſorder as in human ſubjects. But Albucaſis, who hath two chapters, one on the dracunculi, another on the *bovina affectio*, ſays, "This worm, which is generated between the ſkin and fleſh of black cattle, takes its courſe over the whole body, and is plainly perceivable in its motion, from one part to another, until it breaks the ſkin, and wherever it makes a breach, there it finds an egreſs." Alzaravius ſays, "that in human ſubjects this worm paſſes betwixt the ſkin and the fleſh, as Albucaſis hath repreſented it in brutes; and that it is generated of the ſame matter, as that from which lice are produced.

Another *bovina affectio* is deſcribed in a Diſſertation de Boum Œſtro, by Wallifnerius. This œſtrum, or vexatious fly, pitches on the backs of black cattle, and with a kind of ſting growing to its hinder part, perforates them, and into each perforation introduces an egg, which ſome time after gives birth to a worm, and this to a fly, which in due ſeaſon is like its parent. When this fly pierces the ſkin, it cauſes ſevere pain in the oxen. The worm, however, which is depoſited, grows without any remarkable injury to the health of the animal; it never moves from its place, but in the following ſpring it occaſions a tumour, out of which it finds its way when ſummer approaches, and becomes a fly. See Le Clerc Hiſt. Lumbric.

Under this article may be placed the chicos, or chicres. They are ſmall worms, which in the warmer parts of America, frequently breed in the muſcular parts, and particularly in the feet. The Indians pick them out, and then waſh the ſore by rubbing it with the aſhes of wood.

Hoffman ſpeaks of a kind of worms that the children in Miſnia are ſubject to. He ſays that theſe children are frequently ſeized with a tabes, which reduces them to mere ſkeletons. The cauſe is a ſort of worms like black hairs lodged under the ſkin. Theſe animals are uſually called comedones, or gluttons, becauſe they devour the nutritive juices in their diſtribution. When the ſkin is rubbed with honey in any warm place they come out; but cold makes them keep concealed within. See CRINONES.

Sennertus ſpeaks of a ſort of worms called ſeuren, firenes, or crinones. He tells us, that a ſpecies of puſtules among the Germans, which riſe on the palms of their hands, and the ſoles of their feet, are called ſeuren, and contain little worms called firones and chirones: that theſe worms are known to be there by the greater itching of theſe parts than is perceived at other times.

BOVISTA, i. e. Lycoperdon.

BOVISTA MAXIMA ALBA. Great duſty muſhroom.

BOXUS. The miſleto which grows on trees.

BOZA. The name of a drink much uſed in Turkey.

BRABE. An herb mentioned by Oribaſius.

BRABYLA. The plums which are called Damaſcene and Hungarian. They are large, ſweet, and of a blue black colour.

BRACHERIUM. A ſurgeon's bandage and truſs for a hernia. A word uſed by the barbarous Latin writers, probably from *brachiale*, *a bracelet*.

BRACHIA. The diviſion of the large branches of trees from the trunk.

BRACHIÆUS MUSCULUS. The name of two muſcles of the arm, from *brachius*, *an arm*.

BRACHIÆUS INTERNUS. It begins where the deltoid muſcle ends, covers the interior and anterior ſurface of the os humeri, and is inſerted into the coronoid proceſs of the ulna, ſerving to bend it.

BRACHIÆUS EXTERNUS. It ſeems to be the third beginning of the gemellus; its origination is continued from above the middle of the inſertion of the ſame, and from the back part of the os humeri, to its cavity, which receives the olecranum in the extenſion of the cubit, where joining with the tendinous outſide of the gemellus, it is inſerted into the ſuperior and external part of the ulna, called olecranum. See GEMELLUS, and ANCONÆUS. Cowper.

Douglas ſays, that the *brachiæus externus*, and the biceps externus, or gemellus, make but one ſingle muſcle with three heads, to which he gives the name of triceps cubiti, or extenſor cubiti magnus triplici principio natus.

BRACHIALE. So the ancients called the carpus.

BRACHIALIS ARTERIA. The brachial artery. It is the continuation of the axillary artery, which as ſoon as it hath paſſed behind the tendon of the pectoralis major, receives the name of brachial. It runs down on the inſide of the arm, over the muſculus coraco brachialis and anconæus internus, and along the inner edge of the biceps, behind the vena baſilica, giving out ſmall branches as it goes along.

Between the axilla and the middle of the arm, it is covered only by the ſkin and fat; but afterwards it is hid under the biceps, and runs obliquely forward as it deſcends, being at ſome diſtance from the internal condyle; but it does not reach the middle of the fold of the arm. Below the fold of the arm it divides into the cubitalis and radialis.

From its upper and inner part it ſends off a particular branch, which runs obliquely downward and backward, over the anconæi, and then turns forward again near the external condyle, where it communicates with a branch of the radial artery. A little below the inſertion of the teres major it ſends off another branch, which deſcends, and is united with the radial artery, and alſo with the cubital.

The common trunk of the *brachial artery* having reached the fold of the arm, it runs, together with a vein and a nerve, immediately under the aponeuroſis of the biceps, and paſſes under the vena mediana, detaching branches on each ſide to the neighbouring muſcles.

Sometimes, though very rarely, the *brachial artery* is divided from its origin into two large branches, which run down

down on the arm, and afterwards on the fore-arm, where they are called cubitalis and radialis. Winſlow.

BRACHIALIS EXTERNUS ET INTERNUS. See Brachiæus Externus & Internus.

BRACHIO-CUBITALIS LIGAMENTUM. The expanſion of the lateral ligament (ſee Laterales Ligamentæ), which is fixed in the inner condyle of the os humeri, runs over the capſula, to which it cloſely adheres, and is inſerted like radii on the ſide of the great ſigmoide cavity of the ulna; it is covered on the inſide by ſeveral tendons, which adhere cloſely to it, and ſeem to ſtrengthen it. Winſlow.

BRACHIO-RADIALIS LIGAMENTUM. The expanſion of the lateral ligament, (ſee Laterales Ligamentæ) which runs over the external condyle of the os humeri, and is inſerted round the coronary ligament, and from thence all the way down to the neck of the radius, and alſo in the neighbouring parts of the ulna. Through all this paſſage it covers the capſular ligament, and is covered by ſeveral tendons adhering cloſely to both. Winſlow.

BRACHIUM. The arm. In Hippocrates it ſignifies what is now called the *humerus*. From the elbow to the wriſt is called the *fore-arm*. By the *arm* is generally meant the whole, from the ſhoulder to the wriſt; but more particularly the os humeri.

BRACHUNA. The ſame as acrai.

BRACHYCHRONIUS, from βραχυς, *ſhort*, and χρονος, *time*. An epithet of a diſeaſe, which continues but a ſhort time.

BRACHYPNŒA, from βραχυς, *ſhort*, and πνεω, to *breathe*. Breath fetched at long intervals.

BRACHYPOTÆ, from βραχυς *ſmall* or *ſhort*, and ποσις, *drink*. Little drinkers. To drink but little in ardent fevers is a bad ſign.

BRACHYS. See Brevis.

BRACIUM. Copper.

BRADYPEPSIA. Weak concoction of food. Blancard ſays it is a ſlow digeſtion, proceeding from a depraved diſpoſition of the acid ferment in the ſtomach.

BRADYS. Slow.

BRAGGAT. A drink made of water and honey.

BRANCA. An Italian word ſignifying *foot*; hence the acanthus is called *branca* urſina, *bear's foot*, from the reſemblance of the leaves to the foot of a bear.

BRANCA LEONIS, or Pes Leonis, i. e. Alchimilla.

BRANCA URSINA, i. e. Acanthus, and Paſtinaca.

BRANCA URSINA GERMANICA, i. e. Sphondylium.

BRANCHÆ, or Branchi. Names of the glandulous tumors of the fauces which reſemble two almonds, and are accompanied with a difficulty of ſpitting and troubleſome breathing.

BRANCHUS. A defluxion of humours upon the fauces. It is a ſpecies of catarrh, which Cœlius Aurelianus calls raucitas.

BRANKS. So the mumps are called in Scotland.

BRANTA, or Bernicla. The road-gooſe.

BRASILIA, i. e. Braſilium Lignum.

BRASILIANA ARBOR AQUATICA, i. e. Aninga Iba.

BRASILIANA ARBOR JUGLANDI SIMILIS, NUCIBUS CARENS. A ſort of wood in Braſil, which reſembles that of the walnut-tree.

BRASILIENSIS ARBOR SILIQUOSA, &c. i. e. Courbaril.

BRASILIENSIS RADIX, i. e. Ipecacuhana Radix.

BRASILIS LIGN. Logwood, alſo red-wood.

BRASILETTO, i. e. Logwood.

BRASILIUM LIGNUM. Braſil wood, called alſo pſeudoſantalum rubrum, Braſilia arbor, hirapitanga Braſilienſibus, and ibirapitanga.

This wood is rarely met with in preſcriptions; it is ſometimes ſubſtituted for red ſanders, with which it agrees in moſt of its properties, with this difference, that the red ſanders does not give out its colour to water; but the Braſil wood gives out to this ſimple fluid all its colouring matter. This wood is of a deep red or purple colour. It cools and ſtrengthens; but is chiefly uſed by the dyers.

From the Braſil wood of Pernambuco is extracted, by means of acids, a carmine.

BRASIUM. Barley malt.

BRASMA. Bauhine ſays it is the immature black pepper, or rather ſuch as from ſome accident is hindered from ripening.

BRASMOS. Fermentation.

BRASSADELLA, or Braſſatella, i. e. Ophioglooſſum.

BRASSICA. Cabbage. There are thirty ſpecies of this vegetable; Linnæus ranks them all under the name of *braſſica* radice cauleſcente tereti carnoſa. They are all biennial. All the ſpecies are ſuppoſed to be only varieties of the ſmaller kind, which grow ſpontaneouſly on our ſea-coaſts.

Cabbages are ſaid to be difficultly digeſted, and to afford but little nouriſhment; but as they have a ſtronger tendency to putrefaction than moſt other vegetable ſubſtances, and during their putrifying ſtate ſend forth an offenſive ſmell, which much reſembles that of putrifying animal bodies, it ſeems moſt reaſonable to aſſert that they are the moſt eaſily digeſted in our ſtomachs, and alſo very nutritious.

Cabbages are far from being unſalutary; they neither induce nor promote a putrid diſpoſition in the human body; but, on the contrary, are a ſalubrious aliment in the true putrid ſcurvy. They looſen the belly when eaten freely, and produce much flatulency; but by well boiling, they loſe their laxative quality.

The Germans make the following preparation of *cabbage*, to which they give the name of

Sauer Kraut.

Take of the *cabbages* in common uſe, cut them into thin ſlices; put them into a caſk that is previouſly cleaned, dried, and lined in its whole inſide with the ſour paſte called leaven; on each layer of the ſliced *cabbage* ſprinkle a ſmall handful of ſalt and preſs it down; when as much is put into the caſk as it will contain when thus forcibly preſſed, and all the liquor is poured off which is ſqueezed out of the *cabbages*; cover it with a clean cloth, then lay the looſe caſk head thereon, and over it any heavy weight that the preſſure may be continued; laſtly, thus let it ſtand in a warm room until it ceaſes to ferment, and then it is fit for uſe. When uſed boil the needful quantity for the preſent meal in water, during two hours or more, then pouring off the liquor, add to it a little butter, and eat it with bacon, ſauſages, &c. as the palate directs.

If the caſk is cloſed up when the fermentation of the *cabbage* is finiſhed, this preparation will be preſerved in its perfection many years, and would be a convenient part of ſeamen's diet, as a preſervative from the ſcurvy.

The white ſort is the moſt putreſcible and fetid; the red is the ſweeteſt, moſt emollient and laxative: if the ſtalks of the red kinds are cut longitudinally in autumn, and placed in a cool ſhade, a laxative juice reſembling honey or manna exudes from the inciſions.

BRASSICA SATIVA. Colewort or cabbage, called alſo caulis, *braſſica* capitata alba vel rubra, *braſſica* ſabauda alba, &c.

BRASSICA FLORIDA. Cauli-flower, called alſo *braſſica* multi flora, caulis florida.

BRASSICA CONGYLODES. Turnep cabbage, called alſo *braſſica* caularapa, rapocaulis, *braſſica* caule rapum gerens.

The ſeeds yield by expreſſion an oil which is uſeful for lamps, and in the woollen manufactory. After the oil is obtained, the remains are excellent food for cattle.

BRASSICA FIMBRIATA. Boor cole, called alſo *braſſica* tophoſa, and *braſſica* criſpa lacinioſa.

BRASSICA CAPITATA VIRESCENS ITALICA CRISPA. Green brocoli.

BRASSICA RUGOSA, LONGIORIBUS FOLIIS. Brown brocoli.

BRASSICA SYLVESTRIS. Sea colewort or cabbage, called alſo crambe maritima folio *braſſicæ*, *braſſica* maritima monoſpermos, and *braſſica* marina Anglica.

Crambe in general ſignifies a *cabbage*; but the modern botaniſts diſtinguiſh it from a cabbage. Boerhaave ſays the characters of this plant are theſe, viz. the ſeed-veſſel

is unicapſular, divides into two parts, and contains each a ſingle oblong ſeed.

BRASSICA. A name of the turnip.

BRASSICA ITALICA TENERRIMA GLOMEROSA FLORE ALBO. The Savoy cabbage.

BRASSICA MARITIMA, called alſo ſoldanella maritima minor, convolvulus maritimus noſtras. Sea bindweed, ſea-coleworts, and Scotch ſcurvy-graſs. The convolvulus ſoldanella. Linn.

This is a ſpecies of convolvulus; its leaves are roundiſh and ſet on long pedicles; the flowers are of a reddiſh purple colour, large, and ſtanding ſolitary in the boſoms of the leaves. It grows wild on the coaſt of Scotland.

The leaves are a rugged cathartic; this quality reſides in the milky juice which exudes upon wounding them. A decoction of the dried leaves, from ʒ ſs. to ʒiij. of them is a doſe.

Miller takes notice of three ſpecies.

BRASSICA SABAUDA. Savoy cabbage.

BRASSIDELLA, i. e. Ophioglosſum.

BRASSIDELLICA ARS. A way of curing wounds, mentioned by Paracelſus, by applying the herb braſſidella to them.

BRATHU. The herb ſavine.

BREGMA, from βρεχω, *to moiſten*. In infants theſe bones are not only tender, but very moiſt. They are alſo called ſinciput and parietalia. They are two bones on the upper part of the head, of an irregular ſquare figure; they are nearly of the ſame thickneſs all over, and divided into an upper and lower part, by a circular line; on the upper part they are covered only by the integuments, on the lower by the crotaphite muſcle; towards the poſterior and upper part there is a hole through which the veſſels of the dura mater communicate with thoſe of the ſcalp. Theſe bones have a large extent, but are the weakeſt in the human body. The trepan may be applied to any part of this bone except on the lateral parts of the poſterior lower edge of it, the lateral ſinuſes lying under thoſe parts. It often happens that tumors are formed on theſe bones in infants which contain a fluid, and gives to the touch an appearance of deficiency of bone, which is not the caſe. The beſt method of treating theſe tumours is to leave them to themſelves, their contents will be taken up by the abſorbent ſyſtem.

BRELISIS, i. e. Gum Caranna.

BRENTA. The road-gooſe.

BRENTHUS. A ſpecies of duck or moor-hen.

BRENTWOOD WATER. It is of the alkaline kind, but not ſo powerful as that at Tilbury.

BRETANICA. Great water-dock.

BREVIA VASA. The vena ſplenica towards its termination is divided into ſeveral branches that go to the ſpleen, one of which produces the veins which receive this name.

BREVIS. A name of the teres minor.

BREYNIA. A plant ſo named in honour of Dr. Breynius, a botaniſt at Dantzig. It is found in Jamaica and other parts of America; but it is of no medical virtue.

BREYN. An abbreviation of Breynius, the doctor above named.

BREYN. CENT. An abbreviation of Jacobi Breynii, Exoticarum aliarumque minus cognitarum Plantarum, Centuria prima. Gedani, 1678.

BREYN. HIST. COCC. An abbreviation of J. P. Breynii Hiſtoria Naturalis Cocci Radicum Tinctorii. Gedani, 1731.

BREYN. PROD. An abbreviation of Jacobi Breynii Prodomus Faſciculi Rarior. Plant.

BREYN. SCHED. An abbreviation of ſchediaſma de echinis.

BRICUMUM. A name which the Gauls gave to the herb artemiſia.

BRINDONES. A red fruit in the Eaſt Indies. It is kept for making vinegar from, and is alſo a material uſed for colouring. Raii Hiſt.

BRISTOLIENSIS AQUA. Briſtol water. Of the four principal warm waters naturally produced in England this is the leaſt ſo. See BATH WATERS.

As the Bath waters are proper where the ſecretions are defective, ſo the Briſtol *water* is of ſervice where they exceed the requirements of health. The Bath water warms; the *Briſtol* cools. Bath water helps the ſtomach, inteſtines, and nerves; the *Briſtol* favours the lungs, kidneys, and bladder.

Except a jaundice attend, the *Briſtol water* may be of uſe in dropſies, by its drying and diuretic qualities.

Dr. Wynter aſſerts that there is no iron in the *Briſtol water*, and that its mineral contents are chalk, lapis calcarius, and calaminaris. Five gallons of this *water*, after evaporation, afforded only ʒiij. and gr. ij. of a mineral-like ſubſtance.

By the experiments of Dr. Bryan Higgins, a Wincheſter gallon of this *water* contains,

	dwts.	gr.
Of calcareous earth, combined with vitriolic acid in the form of ſelenite - -	o	8½
Of calcareous earth, combined with acidulous gas - - -	o	12½
Of marine ſalt of magneſia - -	o	5½
Of ſea ſalt - - -	o	6½

Acidulous gas, (beſides what is contained in the calcareous earth abovementioned) eight ounce meaſures. And,

Atmoſpheric air, two ounces.

The diſeaſes in which this *water* is uſeful are internal hæmorrhages, immoderate menſes, internal inflammations, ſpitting blood, dyſentery, purulent ulcers of the viſcera, conſumption, dropſy, ſcurvy with heat, ſtone, gravel, ſtrangury, habitual gout, atrophy, a ſlow fever, ſcrophula, gleets, and a diabetes; in which laſt it is a ſpecific, and may be drank as freely as the thirſt requires it.

The hotter months are the beſt for uſing it.

The *Briſtol* and Matlock *waters* are of exactly the ſame qualities.

See Dr. Maplet, Dr. Guidot, and Dr. Wynter on the *Briſtol Waters*. It was Doctors Mead and Lane who eſtabliſhed the reputation of *Briſtol water* in diſeaſes of the kidneys and bladder.

BRITANNICA. Bardana and Lapathum.

BRITANNICUM VINUM. See LEPATHUM.

BRIZA. Spelt wheat.

BROCHOS. See FASCIA.

BROCHTHUS. The throat. Alſo a ſmall kind of drinking veſſel.

BROCHUS. One with a prominent upper lip, or one with a full mouth and prominent teeth.

BRODIUM. Broth, or the liquor in which ſome ſolid medicine is preſerved, or with which ſomething elſe is diluted.

BROMA. Food. That is, ſuch as is to be eat and not drank.

BROMA THEON. The victuals of the gods, i. e. muſhrooms.

BROM. CHLOR. GOTH. An abbreviation of Olai Bromelii Chloris Gothica, ſeu, Catalogus Stirpium circa Gothoburgum naſcentium.

BROMION. A plaſter mentioned by P. Ægineta.

BROMUS STERILIS. Drank or wild oats, called alſo *bromus* herba, avena ſtirilis, ægilops, feſtuca avenacea, avæna Græca, gramen avenaceum. See ÆGYLOPS.

BRONCHIA. The aſpera arteria deſcends from the fauces down the throat, growing narrower as it approaches to the lungs, and a little before it approaches to them it divides into two branches called the *bronchia*. Theſe ramifications are divided into numberleſs others, which are diſtributed through the ſubſtance of the lungs, and which conſiſt of cartilaginous ſegments and contractile membranes; then they terminate in ſmall veſicles like cluſters, which adhere to theſe ſmall *bronchial* ramifications, conſtituting the chief part of the lungs. The uſe of the *bronchia* is to afford an ingreſs of the air into the lungs, and a free return of it thence, with ſuch ſuperfluous matter as is ready to be carried out of the body with it.

BRONCHIALES ARTERIÆ. They ſometimes go from the fore ſide of the ſuperior deſcending aorta, ſometimes from the firſt intercoſtal, and ſometimes from the arteriæ œſophagæa. Sometimes they ariſe ſeparately from each ſide to go to each lobe of the lungs, and ſometimes by a ſmall common trunk, which afterwards ſeparates towards the right and left hand, at the biſurcation of the aſpera arteria, and accompanies the ramifications of the *bronchia*.

The

The *bronchial* artery on the left ſide often comes from the aorta, while the other ariſes from the ſuperior intercoſtal on the ſame ſide; which variety is owing to the ſituation of the aorta. Sometimes there is another *bronchial* artery, which goes out from the aorta poſteriorly, near the ſuperior intercoſtal, above the *bronchialis* anterior.

Communications have been obſerved between the *bronchial* artery and the vena azygos, and with the coronary artery of the heart.

Ruyſch firſt diſcovered theſe veſſels, and he deſcribes both the *bronchial* arteries and veins in his fourth epiſtle.

BRONCHIALES GLANDULÆ. At the angle of the firſt ramification of the trachea arteria we find on both the fore and back ſides certain ſoft roundiſh glandular bodies, of a bluiſh or blackiſh colour, and of a texture partly like that of the thymus, and partly like that of the thyroid gland. There are many ſuch like glands at the origin of each ramification of the *bronchia*. Dr. Hunter ſuppoſes their office is to ſeparate a mucus with which to lubricate the lungs: they are different both in colour and ſtructure from the conglobate and lymphatic glands.

BRONCHIALIS GLANDULA, i. e. Thyroidæa Glandula.

BRONCHOCELE, from βρογχος, *the wind-pipe*, and κηλη, *tumour*. It hath various names in different writings; the Swiſs call it goutier; ſome have called it hernia bronchialis, guttur, & tumidum; Heiſter thought it ſhould be named tracheocele; Mr. Proſſer, in his late publication on this diſorder, from its frequency on the hilly parts of Derbyſhire, calls it (with others) the Derby-neck; and not ſatisfied reſpecting the ſimilitude of this tumor, with that obſerved on the neck of women on the Alps, and he calls it (particularly that which he ſo well deſcribes) the Engliſh *bronchocele*; as various cauſes give riſe to this complaint, the more ſtrictly to diſtinguiſh that, in which he expects ſucceſs in his attempt to cure, he calls that ſpecies which is not produced by external accidents, &c. ſuch as loud-ſpeaking, crying, blows, &c. the natural, the ſpontaneous, or the curable *bronchocele*.

The ſeat of this diſeaſe is the thyroid gland, which Dr. Hunter hath obſerved lies juſt below the larynx, round the trachea. The tumor appears in the fore-part of the neck, between the ſkin and the wind-pipe. Women are the moſt frequent ſubjects of this diſeaſe, in whom it uſually appears early. Dr. Hunter met with one caſe of this kind in a young ſurgeon; but it rarely happens in males, or being leſs in ſight is not often noticed.

Various cauſes of this diſeaſe are aſſigned by different writers. On the mountainous parts of Genoa and Piedmont, they attribute theſe humours to their drinking water cooled with ice. Dr. Leake obſerves, in his Medical Advice, ed. 5. that ſuch glandular ſwellings as happen about the neck and face, ſhould be owing to the ſeverity of the cold, moiſt air, is very probable, eſpecially ſince they generally appear in winter: he adds, as far as he could obſerve, theſe tumors were rare in the warm dry climates of Italy and Portugal. Some writers attribute it to a ſcrophulous cauſe. Mr. Proſſer inclines to think that it is a dropſy in the gland, and ſimilar to the dropſy in the ovaries. He relates that Dr. Hunter diſſected one of theſe glands that had been conſiderably enlarged, and it was found to be enlarged by a number of cyſts filled with water. Yet moſt writers agree in that its true cauſe and nature are alike unknown.

Mr. Proſſer very accurately deſcribes this diſeaſe as follows: the *bronchocele* is a tumor ariſing on the forepart of the neck; it generally firſt appears ſome time betwixt the age of eight and twelve years, and continues gradually to encreaſe for three, four, or five years; and ſometimes the laſt half year of this time, we are told, it grows more than it had for a year or two before. It generally occupies the whole front of the neck, as the whole thyroid gland is here enlarged, but it does not riſe near ſo high as the ears, as in the caſes mentioned by Wiſeman, and it is rather in a pendulous form, not unlike, as Albucaſis ſays, the flap or dewlap of a turkey-cock's neck when he is angry, the bottom being the bigger part of the tumor, it growing gradually leſs upwards: but as to its figure, it varies conſiderably in different caſes. It is ſoft, or rather flabby to the touch, and ſomewhat moveable; but when it has continued ſome years after the time of its growing, it gets more firm or confined. By the ſituation and nature of the complaint, it generally occaſions a difficulty of breathing, and very much ſo upon the patient's taking cold, or attempting to run or walk faſt; in ſome the tumor is ſo large, and ſo much affects their breathing, as to occaſion a loud wheezing; but we meet with many exceptions to this general rule. Some ſhall have the diſeaſe in an aggravated degree, and ſuffer but little by it; in others, though the enlargement of the gland is not near ſo conſiderable, yet they ſuffer much more from it. In common, the opulent of thoſe who have the complaint in a conſiderable degree, will be rendered incapable of enjoying life; the poor of getting their living. Dr. Hunter obſerved, in his lectures, A. D. 1771, that ſometimes this tumor contains water, but that now and then it ſuppurates.

The *bronchocele* ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from a ſcirrhus, alſo from an aneuriſm, and particularly thoſe ſwellings in the neck that ariſe from ſtrains, ruptured veſſels, &c. It is the natural, not the accidental, it is that above deſcribed, and which ariſes ſpotaneouſly as it were, that is curable, and not thoſe from external and other manifeſt cauſes.

This tumor is not apt to become cancerous. Mr. Gooch ſays, he never knew this diſeaſe to endanger life, however large it was; but he obſerves a conſiderable inconvenience from it in caſes of quinſey attending with it. Mr. Sharpe mentions, that the only caſes requiring bronchotomy, were owing to the preſence of *bronchoceles*. Dr. Hunter has noticed, that this diſorder appears two or three years before or after menſtruating; and that it ſometimes ſpontaneouſly diſappears if the menſtruation approaches kindly; and Mr. Proſſer adds, that often this change in the conſtitution does not ſeem at all to affect the tumor, but it continues to grow as before.

Some have obſerved, that the drain of an iſſue, or of a perpetual bliſter, applied on ſome other occaſion, has prevented the growth of the *bronchocele*; the iſſue or bliſter being dried up, the tumor in the neck would increaſe faſter; and upon the iſſue's being opened again, or the diſcharge of the bliſter, it would be ſomewhat ſunk, or however its growing bigger, prevented. But on this method no dependence can be had. By reaſon of its ſituation, it cannot be extirpated; it is ſo entangled with the recurrent nerves, the firſt branch of the external carotid artery, &c. that thoſe who have attempted to diſſect it, were glad to deſiſt: and if by chance, a ſuppuration is formed, an ill conditioned ulcer is the conſequence, and it is very difficult of cure. If it can be diſcuſſed, that mode of relief alone can be prudently attempted; and thus Mr. Proſſer hath ſucceeded in many inſtances. On this plan the late famous Coventry medicine was formed. Mr. Wilmer has inſerted it in an Appendix to his Caſes, &c. in Surgery. It begins with an emetic the day after the moon is at full, and the day after that a purge, the night following, and ſeven nights ſucceſſively; the following bolus muſt be laid under the tongue at bedtime; and on theſe ſeven days, a bitter ſtomachic powder ſhould be given at noon. The bolus to be laid under the tongue, is formed of calcined ſponge, cork, and pumice-ſtone, of each ten grains, ſyrup a ſufficient quantity. But to proceed to that method by which Mr. Proſſer aſſures us the ſpontaneous or curable caſes are relieved, he ſays, that ſeveral have ſucceeded by the uſe of his medicines, though they were nearly advanced to their twenty-fifth year, which was more than twelve years after the appearance of the tumor on their necks; after the twenty-fifth year of the patient's age, no inſtance of ſucceſs hath occurred. He orders one of the following powders to be taken early in the morning, an hour or two before breakfaſt, and at five or ſix o'clock in the evening, every day for a fortnight or three weeks. The powder may be taken in a little ſyrup, or ſugar and water, or any thing elſe, ſo that none is loſt. If it does not ſit well on an empty ſtomach, it may be taken betwixt breakfaſt and dinner:

℞ Cinnab. ant. op. levigat. Milleped. ppt. & pulv. ää gr. xv. Spong. calcinat. ℈j. m.

After theſe powders have been taken for two or three weeks, the patient ſhould omit them for about a week,

or nine days; then begin with them again, and take as many more, after the ſame manner; and alſo at bed-time, every night, during the ſecond courſe of the powders, three of the following pills are to be taken.

℞ Pil. mercurial. Pha. Lond. ℥ſs. f. pilul. No 48. æquales.

Theſe medicines do not require any confinement, except they are taken in ſevere weather, and then it may be only to the houſe; nor need the diet be much regarded. It may be ſufficient that the medicines are taken in a temperate ſeaſon, or rather warm weather, and the patient lives exactly in the uſual way, taking ſome care againſt catching cold, during the ſecond courſe of the medicines The patient, if a ſervant, ſhould avoid ſtanding, eſpecially at the waſhing-tub, or ſuch other work as is done with cold water. As to diet, when no alteration hath been made in it, the ſucceſs has been the ſame as when ſtated regulations were regarded. In this, diſcretion may occaſionally direct. If the pills continue to purge, after taking them a few days, it would be better to leave out the extr. cath. in the preparation of the pills, and ſubſtitute its weight of liquorice-powder, that the mercury may remain in the ſame proportion. In general it will be proper for the patient to be purged twice or thrice with manna and ſalts, or any gentle cathartic, before the powders are begun with. The medicines are here proportioned for an adult of a good conſtitution; therefore, if the patient is younger, or of a weakly habit, the doſes muſt be managed accordingly. As to external applications, they may be hurtful, but do not appear likely to be uſeful.

To conclude, it may be proper to obſerve, that the patient muſt not expect to find benefit in a little time; perhaps it will be as long after the medicines are all taken, as the time they are in taking, before much difference will be perceived in the tumor of the neck. It is neceſſary that the medicines be begun with at a proper time, eſpecially the ſecond courſe; a few days ſhould always be diſpenſed with on that account.

Amongſt the earlier writers, Albucaſis is the firſt who gives any uſeful account of this diſorder. See it tranſlated into Freind's Hiſt. of Phyſic, and into James's Med. Dict. art. *Bronchocele*. See alſo, Turner's Surgery, vol. i. p. 194. Wilmer's Caſes and Remarks in Surgery, in the appendix. But the beſt of the moderns on this ſubject is an Account of the Method of Cure of the *Bronchocele*, by Thomas Proſſer, edit. 3. Gooch, in his Med. Obſ. gives an inſtance of an aqueous *bronchocele*.

BRONCHOTOMIA. Bronchotomy. From βρόγχος, *the wind-pipe*, and τέμνω, *to cut*. It is a diviſion made between the rings of the wind-pipe. See THRACHEOTOMIA.

BRONCHOS. A ſuppreſſion of the voice from a catarrh. Alſo a catarrh, when it principally affects the fauces.

BRONCHUS. According to Galen it is the aſpera arteria from the larynx of the lungs; but bronchia or bronchi, as now underſtood, are the ramifications of the aſpera arteria.

BRONTE. Thunder.

BRONTIS. Thunder-ſtone. See BELEMNITES.

BRUCHUS. A ſort of caterpillars called May-worms.

BRUMA. Winter. But particularly when the days are ſhorteſt.

BRUMASAR. A ſpagirical term for ſilver or the moon.

BRUNELLA. Common ſelf-heal; called alſo prunella, conſolida minor, and ſymphitum minus. It is the prunella vulgaris, Linn. It is a ſmall plant with ſquare ſtalks, cut leaves that are ſet in pairs; the flowers are purple-coloured, forming ſhort thick ſpikes. It is perennial, grows wild in paſture grounds, and flowers in June and July. Its taſte is ſlightly auſtere and bitter, and hath been much uſed in fluxes, hæmorrhages, and in gargariſms, to remove apthous exudations in the mouth, &c. Miller's Bott. Off.

BRUNNEIRI GLANDULÆ. They are lodged under the villous coat of the inteſtines, cloſely adjoining to the nervous. They are more numerous in the ſmall inteſtines, and ſmaller than in the large ones. They are alſo called Peyer's glands.

BRUNSFELSIA. A plant thus named from Dr. Brunſelſius. It is common in Barbadoes and Jamaica; but of no note in medicine.

BRUNUS, i. e. Eryſipelas.

BRUSATHÆR. A tree that grows in China.

BRUSCANDULA. Lupines. Index ad Raii Hiſt.

BRUSCUS, i. e. Ruſcus.

BRUTA. That virtue of the celeſtial influence which is manifeſted by the brutes, as in the ſtork teaching the uſe of ſalt in clyſters.

BRUTIA. An epithet for the moſt reſinous kind of pitch, therefore uſed to make the oleum piſinum. The pix *Brutia* was ſo called from *Brutia*, a country in the extreme parts of Italy, where it was produced. The Brutii were a people of Calabria, over againſt Sicily. The pix *Brutia* was made from the tæda, i. e. mountain-pine.

BRUTINO. Turpentine.

BRUTOBON. The name of an ointment uſed by the Greeks.

BRUTUA, i. e. Pareira Brava.

BRUXANELI. A tall tree in Malabar: its bark is diuretic. Raii. Hiſt.

BRYGMUS. A peculiar kind of noiſe, ſuch as is made by the grating of the teeth, or their gnaſhing.

BRYON, or Bryum. A fertile kind of moſs, which differs from the polytrichum, by its ſmooth calyptra, and from the hypnum, principally with reſpect to the original of its pedicles, which proceed from the tops of the ſtalks and branches, or from the radicles and annual ſhoots, which the former years were the tops of the ſtalks, and have not their lower part incloſed in a ſquamous ſheath, like thoſe of the hypnum, and not trailing and creeping. The calyptræ are placed ſometimes perpendicularly, ſometimes obliquely in the head, and the ſeed-veſſels uſually part tranſverſly, ſometimes with an even, and ſometimes with an indented margin. It grows to the barks of trees, and Pliny calls it their grey hairs.

BRYON THALASSIUM, Sea-moſs, or alga.

Bryon is called ſplachnon by ſome, and is found on cedars, oak, &c. It is aſtringent.

BRYON, is a name of lactuca.

BRYON MARINUM THEOPHRASTI. Oyſter-green. It is a ſpecies of fucus, of the ſame uſe as the alga. See LACTUCA.

BRYONIA. Briony. Botaniſts enumerate ſeven or eight ſpecies; but the moſt common are the two following:

BRIONIA ALBA. White *briony*; called alſo vitis alba; *bryonya* aſpera, and wild vine. This ſpecies is moſt in uſe. It is the *bryonia* alba foliis palmatis utrinque calloſo-ſcabris, baccis rubris, of Linn.

It is a perennial rough plant, grows wild in hedges, and climbs up buſhes, with curled tendrils; the leaves are in ſhape ſomewhat like thoſe of the vine. The flowers are bell-ſhaped, of a greeniſh white colour, and monopetalous; the flowers are ſucceeded by red berries, containing an extremely viſcid pulp, with ſmall ſeeds; the root is large, as thick as a man's arm or leg, of a browniſh or yelloviſh colour on the outſide, and white within.

Theſe roots are taken up in ſpring, they afford much thin milky juice, which hath a diſagreeable ſmell, and a nauſeous, biting, bitter taſte; if it is applied to the ſkin it bliſters. If the root is dried, or its milky juice is inſpiſſated, they loſe moſt of their acrimony and ill ſcent.

Externally this root is ſtrongly diſcutient: Dr. Alſton ſays, that in ſwellings, ſtrains, and ſtiffneſs of the joints, he has experienced ſurpriſing effects from it; in contuſions, a decoction of it, with the addition of wormwood, does great ſervice; if this root is freſh it is emetic, if dry it is only purgative; the doſe, as a purge, is from ℈ j. to ℥ j. a ſpoonful of the juice purges violently both ways. Cream of tartar takes off its virulence.

BRYONIA NIGRA. Black briony; called alſo tamnus, ſigillum beatæ Mariæ, black vine, and the Chironian vine. This plant climbs without tendrils, the leaves are ſmooth, and like thoſe of the great bind-weed; it beareth black berries; the roots and leaves are commended as expectorants. Raii Hiſt.

BRYONIA. A name of the white jalap.

BRYONIA MECOACHANA NIGRICANS, i. e. Jalapa.

BRYONIA PERUVIANA, i. e. Jalapa.

BRYONIA (Aqua) Briony water. See Valeriana.

BRYONIÆ NIGRÆ FOLIO BRASILIENSIS TRICOCCA. See Caprifolata.

BRYOPTERIS, from βρυον, *moſs*, δρυς, *an oak*, and πτερις, *fern*. White fern of the oak, which grows on moſs of the oak.

BRYTHION. A malagma ſo called. It is deſcribed by P. Ægineta.

BRYTIA. The ſolid parts of grapes, which remain after the muſt is expreſſed.

BRYTON. Βρυτον. A kind of drink made of barley, which Ariſtotle calls pinon. It is ſaid that thoſe who are drunk with it never fall but on their backs; ſome ſay it is made of rice.

BUBALUS. The buffalo; called buffelus, and buffal. It is a kind of ox. This name it hath from the country in Aſia, from whence it was brought into Europe.

BUBASTECORDIUM. Mugwort.

BUBO. The owl. Of this kind of bird there are nine ſpecies, but they are not now of any uſe in medicine.

BUBO. A bubo, from βουβων, *the groin*. It is a tumid gland which is inflamed, or tends to ſuppuration: but it is generally underſtood only of thoſe glands which are in the arm-pits, or the groins.

Dr. Cullen ranks this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order tumores. He defines it to be the ſuppurating tumor of a conglobate gland. See his Noſology, edit. 3.

Buboes are diſtinguiſhed into mild and malignant; the mild is when no manifeſt previous diſeaſe is in the body; the malignant is when ſome peſtilential diſeaſe, or ſome infectious one, excites them, as in the plague, lues venerea, &c.

The chief danger when *buboes* ariſe, is from the bad habit of body, or ſome attendant diſeaſe; if neither of theſe accompany them, at the worſt they are but a little troubleſome.

The cure of the mild kind will eaſily be effected by gentle mercurials externally applied, and a purge now and then; though if a ſuppuration threatens, it is beſt to encourage it, and proceed as in a common abſceſs.

A peſtilential *bubo* is known by its appearing at the time of a peſtilence, and being attended with more or leſs of the ſymptoms thereof; though, indeed the *bubo* is the firſt ſymptom in ſome patients, at a time of peſtilence. The appearance of a *bubo*, when the plague either prevails or attacks a perſon, is generally a happy preſage, and in the management of it repellants muſt not be uſed, but by all means encourage ſuppuration; and as ſoon as a tumor appears, which, in this caſe, though the arm-pit is the general ſeat, yet it may be in any other part, as in the groin, the parotid glands, &c. apply the ſpeedieſt ſuppuratives, and ſecond them by the uſe of cordial antiſeptics inwardly.

A venereal *bubo*. Theſe very rarely happen any where but in the groin, though inſtances have occurred in which the arm-pits were the ſeat; they tend very ſlowly to a ſuppuration, and while no tendency to a ſuppuration appears, it is beſt to diſperſe them; but if nature directs it, let ſuppuration be encouraged; at the ſame time let antivenereal alteratives be uſed internally.

In the beginning theſe tumors are ſore, if touched, hard, and gradually increaſing they become painful; and if they tend to ſuppurate, an inflammation appears.

The venereal virus thickens the lymph in thoſe glands which are the ſeat of this diſeaſe, whence ſecretion is rendered difficult in them, then impoſſible, and at length they ſwell, &c. Sometimes this ſort of *bubo* ariſes ſolely from the venereal contagion directly paſſing to the affected gland, and there fixing itſelf; the *bubo* is then the eſſential diſeaſe. Or a gonorrhœa being ſuddenly ſtopped, or being too ſmall in its diſcharge, a *bubo* ariſes, and is a ſymptomatical diſeaſe: if it ariſes without any late contagion, it then is the pathognomonic ſign of a latent pox.

This tumor ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe that are ſimply inflammatory, peſtilential, ſtrumous, or the critical diſcharge of ſome other diſorder; and when in the groin, it muſt be diſtinguiſhed from the epiplocele, and the enterocele. Alſo from the detention of a teſticle in the groin.

In order to the cure, when venereal, the chief conſideration is to deſtroy the venereal poiſon with which the body is contaminated; this done, the *bubo* is no other than a ſimple tumor or abſceſs in the part; this being duly adverted to, if the *bubo* is but in its beginning, it may generally be diſperſed by bleeding, if the habit is inflammatory, or a ſanguine plethora is manifeſt; and by rubbing as much of the ung. cœrul. on the patient's groin as he can bear without ſalivating; gentle purging, at proper intervals, and a cooling diet, aſſiſt this intention. But if, by the increaſe of the inflammation, it appears that a ſuppuration is likely to follow, the ſooner this ſtate is completed the more perfect and ſatisfactory will be the cure. The common bread poultice applied warm, or, if this cannot be complied with, a ſoft plaſter, on which is galbanum, may be applied; all evacuations muſt now be forborne, and the diet may be more generous. The prominent part of the ſuppurated tumor may be deſtroyed with a cauſtic, and the ulcer may be treated as in common in venereal caſes.

The *buboes* that are ſcirrhous or cancerous, are beſt if left quiet, eſpecially while they are eaſy: when they are painful, treat them as ocult cancers.

See Heiſter's Surgery, Aſtruc on the Venereal Diſeaſe, or Chapman's Abridgment of Aſtruc.

BUBON. Vogel thus ſpecifies the bubo in the groin.

BUBONIUM. A name of the golden ſtar-wort.

BUBONOCELE, from βουβων, *the groin*, and κηλη, *a tumor*. It is alſo called hernia inguinalis, or rupture of the groin; and is when the inteſtines force the integuments through the ring of the external oblique muſcle of the belly, or as Dr. Freind remarks, through the cavity in the thigh, between the pectineus and the ſartorius, though this latter is called hernia femoralis, or cruralis.

The cauſe may be great diſtenſion of the bowels from wind, violent exerciſe, as leaping, lifting burdens, &c.

The ſigns are, a tumor in the groin, or upper part of the ſcrotum, beginning at the ring of the abdominal muſcle, and extending more or leſs downward towards, or into, the ſcrotum, in men, and the labia pudendi, in women. This tumor appears differently to the touch, according to its different contents. If a portion of the ileum forms the tumor, its ſurface is ſmooth and renitent, but much more ſo if the patient coughs or ſneezes. If only a piece of the omentum hath ſlipped down, the tumor is more flabby when felt, its ſurface is more unequal, and it makes leſs reſiſtance to the finger. If both the inteſtine and omentum are deſcended, the diagnoſtics will be leſs diſtinct, and requires generally ſome experience to aſſiſt in judging of what can hardly be learnt by deſcriptions.

This diſorder muſt not be confounded with the hydrocele, nor the tumor of the teſticle called hernia humoralis, nor a bubo, or other glandular ſwelling in the groin; nor with a teſticle detained in its paſſage through the groin, with the hydrocele of the ſpermatic cord. But it may be obſerved that the greateſt pain in the *bubonocele*, is at the pit of the ſtomach, which ariſes from the omentum, which is connected with it.

To reduce the hernia, without cutting or eroding the part, is called taxis; and when it is thus reduced by the hand, if the rupture conſiſted of a portion of the inteſtine only, it generally ſlips up at once; the patient being laid on his back, with his heels brought near to his buttocks, aſſiſts the return of the protruded parts: if a piece of the omentum is the contents, its return is not ſo ſpeedy; if there is both omentum and inteſtine, the latter aſcends firſt, and the former feels flabby, but ſoon after it follows alſo. Sometimes after the inteſtine is returned, a ſoft knotty ſubſtance remains unreduced, and reſiſts all the efforts to reduction, until the patient's veſſels are emptied by bleeding, repeated purges, and a low diet; the varicous feel which this ſubſtance hath, ſeems as if it was the meſentery with its veſſels diſtended.

In infants the reduction is generally eaſy, and as they get ſtrength they are leſs ſubject to a relapſe. In the vigour of life the return is generally more difficult, and the neglect or bad management more dangerous.

The greateſt miſchief to be feared is a ſtricture, which is made by the borders of the aperture in the tendon, through which the inteſtine paſſed; and of this accident there is greater danger in the robuſt than in infants and

valetudinary men. If no appearance of this ſymptom attends a patient, the uſe of gentle means alone are to be admitted; but a ſtricture demands preſent help at all times, and in every circumſtance.

The cure is palliative or radical: the means are the ſame in both kinds; the event depends on what is not within the reach of art. The ſurgeon's part is to reduce the prolapſed bodies, and with a proper bandage to prevent their deſcent; if nature lends her aid, the aperture may be ſo contracted as to remove our fear of the parts returning. It is true, circumſtances may attend, in different caſes, which may require ſome difference in the management. See HERNIA.

When the caſe is ſuch as to require an operation, the cauſe of it is, an increaſed degree of what renders reduction difficult, i. e. of the ſtricture. In this caſe the pain in the groin is great as alſo in the belly; the fever, nauſea, and ſuppreſſion of the inteſtinal diſcharges, all increaſe, as does the tenſion of the belly, &c. But as great nicety attends the determining when to uſe the knife, every operator, on ſuch an occaſion, will take the advice and aſſiſtance of thoſe whoſe experience hath enabled them to act with moſt advantage.

To proceed in the operation, ſhave the pubis and groin, and in order to have as much empty ſpace as poſſible for the return of the protruded parts, the patient ſhould be adviſed to empty his bladder entirely, then having laid the patient on his back, on a table of a convenient height, with his legs hanging eaſy over the end of it, with a ſtraight diſſecting knife an inciſion muſt be made through the ſkin and membrana adipoſa, beginning juſt above the ring of the abdominal muſcle, and continuing quite down to the inferior part of the ſcrotum; upon the diviſion of the membrana adipoſa, ſome ſmall tendinous bands appear diſtinct from each other, lying cloſe upon the hernial ſac, which is next to be divided: here caution is neceſſary, as the ſac is thinner in ſome parts than in others: Even this external inciſion of the teguments ought to be made with great caution; for although in by much the greateſt proportion of hernial ſwellings, the ſpermatic veſſels lie behind the protruded parts, yet on ſome occaſions they have been found on the anterior part of the tumor; ſo that in order to avoid the riſk of wounding them, ſo ſoon as the ſkin is divided, the remainder of the operation ought to be done in the moſt cautious manner, care being taken to avoid every large blood-veſſel that makes its appearance. The inciſion in the ſac is beſt made about an inch and a half, or two inches below the ſtricture, and need be no more than ſuch an aperture as will juſt admit the extremity of the probe, into which opening introduce one, and if it will go up and down, then enlarge it with a probe-pointed biſtory, ſufficient to introduce your finger to divide the whole, remembering to divide it downwards firſt, which gives more room, and leſſens the hazard of the inteſtines getting round your knife, and being wounded by it, which might eaſy happen in dividing it upwards firſt. The fore-finger introduced into it is the beſt of all directors, and upon that finger a narrow bladed curved knife, with a bold probe point, will be the only inſtrument neceſſary to finiſh the operation with. With this knife on the finger, the ſac ſhould be divided, firſt downward to the bottom of the ſcrotum, then upward to the ring. Upon the firſt diviſion of the hernial ſac, a fluid is diſcharged, differing in quantity, colour, &c. in different patients. In opening the ſac great care is required to evade wounding its contents. The ſac being fairly divided up to the ring, the inteſtine puſhes out, and ſeems to be more in quantity than it did while in its confinement. At this juncture, if the quantity of the protruded inteſtine is not very great, try to reduce it by firſt pulling down a little more, for thus its bulk being leſſened, it perhaps may paſs without dividing the ring; if this does not ſucceed, the probe-pointed knife, conducted on the fore-finger, will immediately divide the upper part of it, and ſet all free. The ſac and ring divided, the contained parts come into view, and according to their different ſtates, will be variouſly managed. If ſound, immediately reduce them, remembering that the parts laſt protruded ſhould be firſt returned. Slight adheſions may be ſeparated with the finger, or ſnipped with the ſciſſars. If the parts are ſo adherent as not to be capable of being returned, remove the ſtricture by dividing the ſac and ring, and leave the prolapſed parts in the ſcrotum as you find them; but this caſe cannot eaſily be ſuppoſed to happen. If the contained parts are quite mortified, death will be the iſſue; but if the mortification is not very extenſive, return them; if the inteſtine is mortified, make a ligature and fix it to the wound, thus the fæces will paſs out there, and the patient may live many years after.

In women this kind of rupture may be cured by a cauſtic, which cannot ſo well be admitted of in men, on account of the ſpermatic chord.

The portion of gut found in hernial ſwellings is very various, no part of the inteſtinal canal being entirely exempted from falling down. Hitherto the ileum has been commonly ſuppoſed to form the ſubſtance of the greateſt proportion of ſuch tumors; later and more accurate obſervation, however, renders it probable that the cœcum, appendix vermiformis, and part of the colon, are more frequently contained in the herniary ſacs than any other portion of the gut.

See Pott on Ruptures, Le Dran's Operations in Surgery, Sharpe's Operations of Surgery, Lond. Med. Obſ. & Inq. vol. iv. Bell's Surgery, vol. i.

BUCCA. The cheeks. They are the ſides of the face; they reach from the eyes and temples between the noſe and ears. The upper prominent parts of the cheeks are called mala.

BUCCACRATON. A buccea or bucella, that is, a morſel of bread ſopped in wine, which ſerved in old times for a breakfaſt.

Paracelſus calls by the name of buccella, the carneous excreſcence of a polypus in the noſe, becauſe he ſuppoſes it to be a portion of fleſh parting from the bucca, and inſinuating itſelf into the noſe.

BUCCALES GLANDULÆ. All the inſides of the cheeks, near the mouth, are full of ſmall glandulous bodies called by this name. They open by ſmall holes or orifices, through the inner membrane of the mouth. Winſlow.

BUCCELATON. A purging medicine made up in the form of a loaf, conſiſting of ſcammony, &c. put into fermented flour, and then baked in an oven.

BUCELLA, i. e. Buccacraton.

BUCCELLA PURGATORIA, i. e. Buccelaton.

BUCCELATUS PURGATORIA, i. e. Buccelaton.

BUCCINATOR MUSCULUS. The trumpeter's muſcle, from βυκανον, *a trumpet*. It is thus named becauſe of its uſe in forcing the breath to ſound the trumpet, by two diſtinct beginnings on each ſide, one tendinous and fleſhy from the lower jaw, between its laſt dens molaris, and the root of the fore part of its proceſſus coronae; the other is fleſhy from the upper jaw, between its laſt dens molaris and the proceſſus pterigoides, from whoſe extremity alſo it ariſes tendinous, being continued between theſe two originations to the pterigo-pharyngæus on one ſide, and the mylo-pharyngæus on the other; from thence proceeding with ſtraight fibres, and adhering to the membrane that covers the inſide of the mouth, but without touching the gums of either jaw. It is inſerted and loſt in the angle of the lips. By its ſubſtance on each ſide it conſtitutes the cheeks, and through its middle the ductus ſalivalis ſuperior paſſes. Its uſe is not only to move the cheeks with the lips, but alſo to contract the cavity of the mouth, by bringing them inwards, and ſo thruſt the meat between the teeth, for its better comminution.

BUCCINUM. The whelk. Whelks calcined have the ſame effect as the purple-fiſh, but are ſomewhat more cauſtic. Filled with ſalt, then burned in a crude earthen pot, they make a good dentrifice. It is a ſea ſhell-fiſh, of which there are many ſorts, but they all are alkalies and abſorbents.

BUCCULA. A diminutive of bucca, the cheek. The fleſhy part under the chin.

BUCELLATIO. A way of ſtopping the blood by applying lint upon the vein or artery.

BUCERAS, or Buceros. Fenugreek.

BUCHASIS, i. e. Albucaſis.

BUCRANION, from βους, *an ox*, and κρανιον, *a head*; ſo the antirrhinum is called, becauſe it reſembles an ox's head.

BUCTON. The hymen.

BUFFAL. See BUBALUS.

BUFFELI. A ring made of the horn of a buffalo, which is worn on the ring-finger to cure the cramp.

BUFFELUS. The buffalo.

BUFO. The toad; alſo called rubeta, rana rubeta. The *toad* is of the frog kind, and of the number of thoſe animals which have only one ventricle in the heart. It is much like the frog, but its belly is more inflated, and ſkin more full of tubercles; it is of an aſh-colour, with brown, blackiſh, and yellow ſpots. It does not croak like the frog, but makes an indiſtinct noiſe that is obſcure, and like the word *geu*, or rather *bu*, from which ſome ſuppoſe it is called *bufo*. It is ſaid to have its name rubeta from rubus, becauſe it is often found under bramble buſhes.

There is a very poiſonous ſpecies in America called cururu by the Braſilians, and capo by the Portugueſe.

The common *toad* was firſt introduced into medicine upon a cure being performed on an hydropic perſon, to whom powdered *toads* were given, in order to diſpatch him, but he voided a large quantity of urine after taking it, and ſoon recovered of his diſorder. Since this, *toads*, gently dried and powdered, have been uſed as a diuretic, but the preſent practice is quite unconcerned with them.

BUFONITIS. The ſea-wolf, or toad-ſtone; alſo called bufonius lapis, garatronius, batrachites, lapis rubetæ, and myoxolithus.

It is a little ſtone of a round or oval figure, flat on one ſide, and round on the other; of a brown colour, and with a natural poliſh. It is found in Malta and other places. It is the petrified grinder of a ſea-wolf.

BUGANTIÆ. Chilblains.

BUGLOSSUM. Bugloſs; called alſo bugloſſum anguſtifolium majus, bugloſſum vulgare majus, bugloſſum ſativum, garden-bugloſs.

The *garden-bugloſs* is a rough plant, reſembling borrage, and differing from it chiefly in the leaves being narrow, leſs prickly, not wrinkled, and of a bluiſh green colour, and in the ſegments of the flowers being obtuſe. It grows wild on waſte grounds in the ſouthern parts of Europe, is cultivated with us in gardens, flowers from June to the end of ſummer, and in winter it dies to the ground, but the roots continue.

As a medicine, it is nearly ſimilar to borrage, but its roots are leſs mucilaginous. The ſort uſed in medicine is the anchuſa officinalis, Linn.

BUGLOSSUM SYLVESTRE, is alſo called echium. *Echium*, *ſtone-bugloſs*, called alſo onoſma, ononis, aſmas, phlonitis, and lycopſis anglica.

Its leaves reſemble thoſe of alkanet, and it hath neither ſtalk, ſeed, nor flowers. The root is long, ſlender, and red. It is found in rugged ſtony places.

Botaniſts enumerate ſeventeen or eighteen ſpecies.

BUGLOSSUM, a name of the borrago.

BUGLOSSUM ANGUSTIFOLIUM SEMINE ECHINATO, i. e. Cynogloſſum minus.

BUGLOSSUS MARINUM INCANUM FLORE CŒRULEO, i. e. Cerinthoides.

BUGLOSSUS. The ſole-fiſh.

BUGONES, from βους, *an ox*, and γενομαι *to be bred*, or *generated of*. An epithet for bees, becauſe the ancients thought them to be bred from the putrefaction of an ox.

BUGULA. Bugle. Called alſo conſolida Media, prunella Germanis, ſymphitum medium, and middle-conſound. The ſort uſed in medicine is the ajuga reptans, Linn.

It is a low plant, with two kinds of ſtalks, round creeping ones, and upright ſquare ones. They bear looſe ſpikes of blue flowers; the leaves are ſomewhat oval, ſoft, and ſet in pairs about the joints of the ſtalks. It is perennial, found wild in woods and moiſt meadows, and flowers in May.

It is mildly aſtringent, the root is the moſt ſo.

There are ten ſpecies.

BUGULA ODORATA LUSITANICA. A ſpecies of baum.

BULAT-WÆLA, i. e. Betle.

BULAPATHUM. A ſpecies of dock.

BULBASPHODELUS. An aſphodel, with a bulbous root.

BULBINA. A diminutive of bulbus.

BULBOCASTANUM, called alſo nucula terreſtris, bulbocaſtanum majus & minus, earth-nut, hawk-nut, kipper-nut, and pig-nut.

This root is as large as a nutmeg, hard, tuberous, and whitiſh, ſending out fibres from the bottom and ſides; the lower leaves are winged, cut into ſeveral diviſions of leaves, finer and ſmaller than thoſe of ſaxifrage; the ſtalk is above a foot high, having one leaf about the middle, which is fine and ſlender as fennel, having the like leaves at every diviſion of the branches, on the tops of which grow thin umbels of ſmall white flowers. It grows in ſandy and gravelly places, and flowers in May.

The root only is uſed; it is eaten either raw or roaſted. It is ſweetiſh to the taſte, nouriſhing, and of uſe againſt the ſtrangury and bloody urine.

BULBOCASTANUM CONIOPHYLLON. A ſpecies of myrrhis.

BULBOCODIUM. See SISYRRHINCHIUM and NARCISSUS.

BULBONACH, called alſo viola lunaris, lunaria major, leucoium lunatum, ſattin, and honeſty.

The ſtalk is two or three feet, is as thick as a man's little-finger, hairy, and of a dark red, or an azure colour; the leaves reſemble thoſe of a nettle, but are much larger, and hairy; the branches and ſummit of the ſtalk are laden with flowers of a purpliſh, or carnation colour; the root is knotted, whence the name *bubonach*; the ſeeds are large, red, and acrid to the taſte. It grows ſpontaneouſly in Germany and Hungary, and is ſown in gardens in England.

This plant is a warming, diuretic medicine. Raii Hiſt.

BULBUS. *Bulbous* roots are ſuch as conſiſt of either ſeveral coats involving one another, or of the ſeveral ſcales lying one over the other. The firſt is called a tunicated root, of which kind is the onion, the tulip, &c. the latter is called ſquamous or ſcaley, ſuch is the lily and the martagon.

BULBUS ESCULENTUS. Such *bulbous* roots as are commonly eaten.

BULBUS VOMITORIOUS, called alſo muſcari, aſh-coloured-grape flower, muſcari obſoletiore flore, hyacinthus racemoſus moſchatus, ſibcadi, dipcadi, and muſk-grape flower.

It hath a leaf as flexible as leather, the root is covered with a black rind, but in other reſpects like the *bulbus* eſculentus. The root is emetic and diuretic. It grows in gardens about Conſtantinople, and in Aſia. Raii Hiſt.

BULBUS SYLVESTRIS. Wild daffodil.

BULIMIA, Bulimiaſis, & Bulimus, i. e. Boulimos. *Bulimia*, i. e. when the ſame inclination to eat exiſts as in the *bulimus*, without the power; and after the patient does eat he faints. Marryot's Art. of Healing.

BULITHOS, from βους, *an ox*, and λιθος, *a ſtone*. A ſtone found in the gall-bladder, kidnies, or urinary bladder of an ox.

BULITHUM. The hairy ball found in the ſtomach or bowels of oxen, cows, and calves. See BEZOAR.

BULLÆ. Puſtules ariſing in the eye, or from burning any part.

BULLION. Gold or ſilver in the ore, or imperfectly refined.

BULLOSSA. The veſicular fever. See PEMPHIGUS.

BUMELIA. The common aſh tree.

BUNA. Coffee.

BUNIAS. Navew. It is a plant of the turnip kind, with oblong roots, growing ſlender from the top to the extremity. Linnæus ſuppoſes two ſorts, viz. the wild and the ſweet *navew*, to be but varieties, and calls them by the name of braſſica radice cauleſcente fuſiformi. They are biennial.

BUNIAS SYLVESTRIS, napus ſylveſtris, rape and wild *navew*. It is the braſſica napus, Linn.

It grows on dry banks, and among corn, with leaves more like thoſe of cabbage, than of turnips, and of a peculiar unpleaſant taſte.

BUNIAS. Napus ſativa, napus dulcis, *navew* gentle, rape, French *navew*, ſweet *navew*, and French turnip. It is the braſſica napus of Linn.

It is cultivated in gardens for the kitchen. They are warmer, and more grateful, than the common turnip, and afford a good pectoral juice.

The ſeeds of both ſorts are warm and pungent, approaching to the virtues of muſtard, but much inferior in

in their efficacy. Water takes up all their virtues. They yield by expreſſion a large quantity of oil, which is ſold under the name of rape oil: the wild ſort is cultivated for this purpoſe. The cake remaining after the oil is expreſſed, retains the acrimony of the ſeed.

There is a ſpecies which Galen prefers to the above, it is called pſeudo-bunium, or napus ſylveſtris Cretica, or Candy wild *nauew*. Dale.

BUNITES VINUM. Wine of bunium. It was formerly made of *bunium*, two drams, and muſt, four pints.

BUNIUM. Wild parſley.

BUPEINA, i. e. Boulimos.

BUPHAGOS. The name of an antidote in Marcellus Empiricus.

BUPHTHALMUM. Ox-eyed.

BUPHTHALMUM. Ox-eye.

BUPHTHALMUM COTULÆ FOLIO, called alſo cotula flore luteo radiato, camomile like *ox-eye*.

BUPHTHALMUM GERMANICUM, called alſo buphthalmum tanaceti minoris folio, chamæmelum chryſanthemum, buph. vulg. & common *ox-eye*.

BUPHTHALMUM VERUM, called alſo buph. perigrinum, buph. tenuifolium folio mille folii fere, chryſanthemum, cotulæ folio, cotula flore luteo radicato, cachlan, and *ox-eye*.

Theſe plants have tender ſtalks, with leaves like thoſe of fennel, and yellow flowers reſembling an eye. They grow in fields about towns. All the ſpecies are commended in the jaundice.

Miller ſays, that which is ſold for *ox-eye* in the ſhops is the bellis major; and ſays there are five ſpecies. See Miller's Bot. Off.

BUPHTHALMUM CRETICUM, i. e. Pellitory of Spain.

BUPHTHALMUS. A diſtempered eye. From βους, *an ox*, οφθαλμος, *oculus*. From its vaſt largeneſs like an oxe's eye.

BUPLEURUM. Hare's ear. Alſo called auricula leporis, & hyſophyllon. It grows on hilly places in France, &c. flowers in July and Auguſt, is deterſive and diuretic. Dale.

BUPLEURUM. Thorow-wax.

BUPLEURUM ARBORESCENS SALICIS FOLIO. The ſhrub hart-wort.

BUPLEUROIDES. A plant which much reſembles the bupleurum. Miller's Dict.

BUPLEURON, i. e. Bupleurum.

BUPRESTIS. The burn cow. They are a kind of cantharides, and are poſſeſſed of a good degree of the ſame virtues.

Bupreſtis is alſo a name of an herb, which was in much eſteem among the Greeks as an eſculent one.

BURAC. All kinds of ſalt.

BURDUNCULUS. An herb mentioned by Marcellus Empiricus.

BURGUNDIÆ PIX. Burgundy pitch. It is the turpentine from the mountain pine, boiled to the conſiſtence we ſee it of.

BURHALAGA. A name of the ſea heath-ſpurge. See EMPETRUM.

BURINA. Pitch.

BURIS. So Avicenna calls a ſcirrhous hernia.

BURNEA. Pitch.

BURRHI SPIRITUS MATRICALIS. Burrhus's ſpirit for diſorders of the womb.

It is made with myrrh, olibanum, and amber, in ſpirit of wine.

BURSA. A purſe. Thus the ſcrotum is alſo called.

BURSÆ MUCOSÆ, called alſo burſæ tendinibus ſubjecta, & ſacculi mucoſi.

It is ſaid that Bellini firſt obſerved theſe bags, but Douglas firſt deſcribed them. Their office is to emit a lubricating mucus, to facilitate the motion of the tendons, where they play upon one another, or upon a bone.

Mr. Gooch, in his Obſervations, takes notice of a wound into one of theſe bags on the ſide of the knee, which from the diſcharge he concluded to have been in the burſal ligament, but it healed kindly, and gave him to ſuſpect that theſe bags may be the ſeat of diſorders not yet adverted to. He hath alſo given the following liſt of them:

1. DELTOIDES. A large one ſituated under this muſcle, upon the acromion ſcapula.

2. BICEPS BRACHII. A ſmall one inveſting the tubercle of the radius, both on the ſide where the tendon is fixed, and alſo on the other ſide where there is no tendon. It adheres ſtrongly to the whole tubercle, and looſely to part of the ſupinator brevis, under which it lies, as well as under the tendon of the biceps.

3. ILIACUS INTERNUS & PSOAS. A large thin and pliable one is found upon the iſchium, beneath the tendons of the iliacus internus and pſoas, as they paſs down to their inſertions in the os femoris. It is attached to theſe tendons, and to the anterior ſurface of the capſular ligament; and this ſacculus ſometimes communicates with the joint.

4. LATISSIMUS DORSI & TERES MAJOR. One is ſituated between the extremities of the tendons of theſe muſcles, adhering ſtrongly to them.

5. GLUTEUS MAXIMUS. A large thin one, firmly connected by a ſmall part of it to the back of the trochanter, immediately under the termination of the gluteus medius, and is looſely attached to the reſt of the trochanter, and the tendon of the gluteus maximus.

6. GLUTEUS MEDIUS. A ſmall one ſituated between the termination of its tendon and that of the pyriformis, adhering to both.

7. GLUTEUS MINIMUS. A ſmall thin one, attached to its tendon and the trochanter major.

8. GEMINI. A ſmall one between them and the termination of the obturator internus, connected to both, and to that part of the capſula of the joint which lies under the gemini.

9. BICEPS CRURIS. One is ſituated between the end of its tendon exteriorily, and the capſular ligament of the knee, adhering to both.

10. SEMIMEMBRANOSUS. A ſmall one, lies between its tendon, which runs between the inner condyle of the tibia, and the capſular ligament of the joint.

11. CRURALIS & VASTI. Behind the tendons of the cruralis & vaſti, there is a thin, but large one, connected to thoſe tendons before they join, and, after their junction it is fixed to the patella. It alſo adheres to the capſula of the joint that expands itſelf over the bone.

12. GRACILIS, SARTORIUS, & SEMITENDINOSUS. Under the extremities of the tendons of theſe muſcles, is a large one, adhering to them on one ſide, and on the other, to the capſular ligament of the knee, on the inſide where theſe tendons play.

13. GEMELLUS. A large one lies under its inner head, firmly attached to its tendinous origin, alſo to the extremity of the ſemitendinoſus, and the capſula of the knee near the anterior condyle.

14. SOLEUS. The tendon of the ſoleus paſſes over the upper part of the os calcis, between which and the bone lies a large ſacculus, and near that is found a glandular body which furniſhes a mucous fluid for the more effectual lubrication of theſe parts, that are in ſuch conſtant motion in walking.

15. TIBIALIS ANTICUS. A ſmall one, is fixed to the tendon a little before its termination, where it plays on the top of the foot.

16. PERONEUS LONGUS. One lies under the tendon of this muſcle, where it plays over the os cuneiforme, on the outſide of the foot.

BURSA PASTORIA FOLIIS PERFOLIATÆ. A ſpecies of thlaſpi.

BURSA PASTORIS. Shepherd's purſe. Called alſo thlaſpi fatuum, thlaſpis fatui, & thlapſi fatuum. The ſort uſed in medicine is the thlaſpi burſa paſtoris, Linnæus.

It is a plant with ſmall tetrapetalous whitiſh flowers, along the upper part of the branches, followed each by a triangular ſeed-veſſel reſembling a purſe, whence its name. The lower leaves are deeply jagged like thoſe of dandelion, thoſe on the ſtalks are entire. It is annual, common on waſte grounds, flowers in April, and ſo on to the end of ſummer.

An extract made with water from the dry leaves is ungratefully mucilaginous and ſub-alcaline. This plant is not in uſe. Miller's Bot. Off.

BURSA

BURSA TESTIUM, i. e. Scrotum.

BURSALIS MUSCULUS. So called from its reſemblance to *burſa, a purſe*. See MARSUPIALIS.

BUSELINUM. A ſpecies of apium. Alſo the common carrot.

BUSSII SPIRITUS BEZOARDICUS. The bezoardic ſpirit of Buſſius.

Take the ſpirit of ivory, ſaturated with ſubtil oil and ſalt, two ounces; crude ſal ammoniac, four ounces; pot-aſh, diſſolved in water, eleven ounces; amber, half a pound; oil of juniper, half an ounce; diſtil them in a retort. A ſalt riſes firſt, and then the ſpirit, which diſſolves this ſalt.

BUSSIUS was an eminent phyſician at Dreſden.

BUTEO. The buzzard. Called alſo accipiter and triorchis. This bird is of the hawk kind.

BUTIGA, i. e. Gutta roſacea.

BUTINO. Turpentine, or its balſam.

BUTOMON. Yellow water-flag.

BUTOMUS. The water gladiola.

BUTOR. The bird called a bittern.

BUTUA, i. e. Pareira brava.

BUTYRUM. Butter. See ADEPS.

BUXB. An abbreviation of J. C. Buxbaumi Enumeratio Plantarum, 1721, 8vo.

BUXTON WATER. *Buxton* is in the Peak of Derbyſhire. The *waters* there are the ſecond in degree of heat among thoſe of this iſle. The *water* of St. Anne's well contains calcareous earth, foſſil alcali, and ſea-ſalt; but of theſe their quantity is ſo ſmall, that when a gallon of the *water* was evaporated, the ſediment was only betwixt twenty-three and twenty-four grains. This *water* ſtrikes a light green with the ſyrup of violets, it ſuffers no change from galls, from fixed vegetable alcalies, or from mineral acids; it becomes milky with the volatile alcali. The ſpecific gravity of this *water* is preciſely equal to that of rain-water, when their temperatures are the ſame; but when firſt taken from the ſpring it is four grains in each pint lighter.

The temperature of the bath is about eighty-two degrees by Faren. therm. that of St. Anne's not quite ſo much.

Beſides the contents already mentioned, which the *water* of St. Anne's well poſſeſſes, it contains a conſiderable quantity of mephitic air, in which its ſtimulus, and indeed its efficacy reſides, and which is quickly diſſipated by expoſure to the atmoſpheric air.

This *water* is alterative, and not evacuant. Begin the uſe of it by taking about a pint in the forenoon, and gradually increaſe the quantity. The cooler the weather, the hotter and more medicinal is the *water*. It increaſes the vital heat, is uſeful in the gout, rheumatiſm, dry aſthma, convulſive diſorders, indigeſtion, loſs of appetite from intemperance, contractions of the tendons, defective catamenia, &c.

See Short's Hiſtory of Mineral Waters. Percival's Eſſays, Med. and Exp. vol. ii.

BUXUS. Buxus ſempervirens. The box-tree. The Hollanders call it palm-tree. It is an ever-green, is full of branches. Its leaves are gloſſy, and almoſt of an oval ſhape. The wood is yellowiſh, and more compact and ponderous than any other of the European woods. The flowers are imperfect; the fruit is a green berry, divided into three cells, containing ſix ſeeds. It is found wild in ſome parts of England.

An infuſion of the leaves in water hath a ſtrong, naufeous taſte, and is purgative, and deſtroys worms. The active matter of the wood is of the ſaline, and not of the reſinous kind, conſequently differs from the guaiacum wood with which ſome ſay it agrees.

The London college directs the following empyreumatic oil from *box-wood*.

Diſtil pieces of *box-wood* in a retort, with a fire gradually raiſed; the oil will come over with an acid ſpirit, from which the oil is to be ſeparated by a funnel.

Such an oil may be obtained from almoſt any wood, for it is on the action of the heat upon theſe empyreumatic oils, in making them, that their virtues depend.

In the ſame manner is obtained the oil of guaiacum, and other woods or dry leaves. They are uſed to cleanſe foul ulcers with, and to relieve old pains, by rubbing them on the part affected.

The leaves of the common *dwarf-box* dried and powdered deſtroy worms in children. As much as will lay on a ſhilling may be given at bed-time, every night.

BUXUS AFRICANA FOLIO OBLONGIORI. A ſpecies of vitis.

BUYO-BUYO. A ſort of pepper in the Philippine iſlands. Ray calls it piper longum monardi.

BYNE. Malt made of barley.

BYNG. A Chineſe name of green tea.

BYRETHRUM, i. e. Cucupha.

BYRSA. A ſkin of leather to ſpread plaſter on.

BYRSODEPSICON, from βυρσα, *a ſkin*, and δεψεω, *to curry leather*, i. e. ſumach.

BYSAUCHEN, from βυω, *to hide*, and αυχην, *the neck*. People are thus called who by elevating their ſhoulders hide their neck. Alſo one who hath a morbid ſtiffneſs of the neck.

BYSMA, from βυω, *to ſtop up, obſtruct, fill up, conſtipate, or ſtuff*. The covers, or ſtopples of any veſſels. Some take the *byſma* to be the ſame with the amurca.

BYSMA. See BIZEN.

BYSSUS. It is the loweſt, and a barren kind of moſs, conſiſting of a very thin, and, to the naked eye, an imperceptible ſort of wool, which is produced from various ſubſtances, appearing ſometimes like a very fine powder, ſometimes like down, and often laſts for a conſiderable time, in which reſpect it differs from the fungus, as it does alſo in having no head, or any other reſemblance to the reſt of the fungi. In Ray's Synopſis there are twelve ſpecies.

BYSSUS, is a name for the pudendum muliebre; alſo the name of a ſort of fine cloth worn by the ancients: and ſome think the fine cottons brought from the Eaſt is the *byſſus* of the ancients.

BYSTINI ANTIDOTUS. An antidote often mentioned by Actius, which ſeems to be much like Mithridate.

BYZEN. In a heap, croud, or a throng. It is derived from the word βυζω, or βυω, *to fill up by ſtuffing, to condenſe*, thus it expreſſes any thing that is ſufficiently denſe. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs the hurry in which the menſes flow away in an exceſſive diſcharge of them.

C.

C A A

C. In the chymical alphabet ſignifies ſalt-petre.

CAA-APIA. It is a ſmall low plant, with a root about two fingers breadth long, as thick as a ſwan's quill, and ſometimes as large as a man's little finger. This root is knotty, and covered with filaments that are three or four fingers breadth long. Outwardly it is of a yellowiſh grey colour, but inwardly it is white. After being chewed a little it is acrid, and hath nearly the ſame virtues with ipecacuhana, whence it hath alſo received that name.

The Braſilians cure the wounds from poiſoned darts with the juice of this root, which they pour into the wound. Piſo ſays it hath the ſame efficacy againſt the bite of ſerpents.

CAA-ATAYA BRASILIENSIBUS, or Euphraſiæ affinis Braſilienſis ſiliquoſa. It is a plant which grows in Braſil, of no ſmell, but bitter to the taſte. A decoction of it operates powerfully both upward and downward. It reſembles the euphraſia. Raii Hiſt.

CAACHIRA, i. e. Anil.

CAACICA BRASILIANIS. An herb growing in Braſil, whoſe leaves reſemble thoſe of the male ſpeedwell, ſomewhat hairy, green above, and white underneath. It is full of a milky juice. When freſh it is bruiſed, and applied againſt venomous bites. Raii Hiſt.

CAACO. The ſenſitive plant, alſo called æſchynomene ſpinoſa Braſilienſibus fecunda & herba viva.

It is a native of Braſil. If the leaves of this plant are touched by any thing, they immediately contract, but ſoon after return to their former ſtate. Dr. Shebbeare ſuppoſes, that this plant is diſtended by a portion of the general principle which animates all nature, and that the touch of any foreign body diſcharging a part of it, is the cauſe of its contraction, from which it recovers as the ſame is reſtored by its own power of attracting it. The tops of this plant are noxious, and the roots are their antidote. A decoction is made of a handful of that part of the root which is under ground, boiled in ſix pints of water for a few minutes, half a pint of which is to be drank every hour or two, until the patient is well. This root is an antidote to ſeveral poiſons which the Americans have amongſt them.

There is another ſpecies called *caaco*; herba viva tertia ſpecies; æſchynomene ſpinoſa tertia.

CAAETIMAY BRASILIENSIBUS, called alſo ſenecio Braſilienſis.

It is a tall plant which grows in Braſil, the leaves of which have a hot and acrid taſte. A decoction of them cures the itch, by waſhing the parts affected with it. Raii Hiſt.

CAAGHIYUYO BRASILIENSIBUS. A ſhrub growing in Braſil, its leaves are powdered, and then applied to ulcers as a deſiccative. Raii Hiſt.

CAAGUA-CUBA. A ſmall tree growing in Braſil, but of no known medical virtue. Raii Hiſt.

CAA-OPIA, called alſo arbuſcula gummifera Braſilienſis. It is a tree growing in Braſil, in the bark of which, if inciſions are made, a juice is emitted, which, when dry, reſembles the gutta gamba in all reſpects, only in being ſomewhat redder. Raii Hiſt.

CAAPEBA, i. e. Pareira brava.

CAAPOMONGA. A plant growing in Braſil, but of no known medical uſe. Raii Hiſt.

CAAPONGA. The Braſilian name of a ſort of ſamphire, alſo called trifolia ſpica crithmum maritimum non ſpinoſum. The leaves and young ſtalks are pickled for the uſe of the table, though they are gently diuretic.

There is another ſpecies, it is called perexyl Luſitanis; it reſembles purſlane, and is of the ſame nature as the above.

CAAPO-TIRAGUA BRASILIANIS, alſo called rubia Braſilienſis. It is a plant which grows in Braſil; it reſembles, in ſome reſpects, the rubia, but is not a genuine ſpecies thereof. Raii Hiſt.

CAAROBA. A tree which grows in Braſil; the leaves are bitter, a decoction of them promotes perſpiration, and is uſeful in the venereal diſeaſe. Raii Hiſt.

CABALA, Cabbala, Cabalia, Cabula, Caballa, Kabala, Kabbala, Cabaliſtica Ars. The cabaliſtic art. It is derived from the Hebrew word, ſignifying *to receive by tradition*. It is a ſcience which conſiſts in a myſterious explication of the Scriptures, however they were received. This is the Jewiſh cabala; but, from this original, the word is applied to any ſort of myſterious or magical explication of things.

CABALATOR. Nitre.

CABASSONUS MASSILIENSIUM. A fiſh found in the Mediterranean ſea; alſo called lavoronus.

CABALLICA ARS, from *καταβαλλω, to throw down.* A term in gymnaſtics, importing among wreſtlers the art of foiling, or throwing an antagoniſt down.

CABEB, or Cabebi. Scales of iron.

CABELIANUS. A fiſh of the cod, or of the pike kind.

CABELIAU. Cod-fiſh.

CABRITTA, i. e. Samoloides.

CABULATOR. Nitre.

CABUREIBA. Piſon. Ray thinks it is the tree which affords the balſam of Peru.

CABUREIBA. } The balſam of Peru
CABURIIBA. }

CACAGOGA. Ointments, that by being rubbed on the fundament procures ſtools. See P. Ægineta, lib. vii. ix.

CACAI ARBOR, i. e. Cacao.

CACALIA, alſo called leontice veterum, and ſtrange colt's foot.

It hath a floſculous flower, and downy ſeeds; the leaves are large and white; it grows in ſhady places. Its virtues are the ſame as thoſe of the common ſort. Miller enumerates ſeven ſpecies.

CACALIANTHEMUM, ſo called by Dr. Dillenius; it is alſo called the cabbage-tree, and the carnation-tree. Originally it was brought from the Canary iſlands. There is a ſpecies which was firſt brought into Europe from the Cape of Good Hope. See Miller's Dict.

CACAMOTICTLANOQUILONI. The purging potatoe. See BATTATAS.

CACANUM. A plant ſuppoſed to be the cacalia, as the ſame virtues are attributed to it. See P. Ægineta and Dioſcorides.

CACAO, called alſo amygdalis ſimilis Guatimalenſis, cacava, cacai, avellana Mexicana, cacavera, cacavata, cocao Americæ, the pear-bearing wholeſome almond-tree, cacoa, and chocolate. It is the theobroma *cacao* of Linn. The nut is the only part of this tree which is uſed; its ſhape is nearly like that of an almond, but of a ſomewhat larger ſize. The ſhell is dark-coloured, brittle, and thin; the kernel is throughout of a brown colour. It is produced by a ſmall American tree, which bears a large red

fruit

fruit like a cucumber; in this fruit is contained from thirty to a hundred of theſe nuts. A good tree produces a crop in June and another in December. The principal diſtinctions among theſe nuts are the ſize and place whence brought from: the larger kind from the province of Nicaragua, in Mexico, is moſt eſteemed. The chief of what we have in England are brought from Virginia and Jamaica.

Theſe nuts have a light agreeable ſmell, and an unctuous bitteriſh taſte, but not ungrateful. Thoſe from Nicaragua and Caracco are the moſt agreeable; thoſe from the French Antilles, and our American iſlands, are the moſt unctuous.

The principal uſe of this kind of nut is for making the liquor which is known by the name of *chocolate*; which is a mild, unctuous, nutritious fluid, and greatly demulcent. In hectic, ſcorbutic, and catarrhous diſorders, an atrophy, malignant itch, and hooping cough, *chocolate* made in the uſual way is ſaid to relieve after all other uſual methods have failed. In all diſorders from an acrid ſalt, whether acid or bilious, this liquor is highly uſeful. When *chocolate* is mixed with demulcent and aromatic ingredients, it is uſeful for the hypochondriac and melancholic. It is ſaid to make the teeth black.

All the ſorts of *chocolate* nuts afford by preſſure an oil of the ſame kind as thoſe that are obtained the ſame way from other kernels and ſeeds.

Oleum ſeu Butyrum e Nucl. Cacao. *The Oil or Butter of the* Chocolate *Nut.*

Roaſt the nuts ſlightly in an iron pan, then being cleared from the rind and germ, and levigated on a hot ſtone, dilute them with a proper quantity of hot water, and keep them in a water bath till the oil riſes to the top; which, when concreted, is of a brown colour, and by repeated liquefactions in hot weather becomes white.

This proceſs is from the Paris Diſpenſatory. Theſe nuts, thus managed, afford ſometimes more than half their quantity of this vegetable ſævum or ſebaceous matter. It is not liable to turn rancid by long keeping; hence it is a proper baſis for odoriferous unguents: but its indigeſtible property renders it unfit for internal uſe.

To ſeparate the huſks from the *chocolate* nuts, put two or three pounds of them into a pan over a gentle clear fire, ſtir them about until they are a little heated, and as ſoon as you find that the huſks will peel off, carefully free the kernels from them, for they are totally indigeſtible. The mucilaginous pulp contained in theſe huſks, if preſſed, yields a cream that is cordial and grateful to the taſte; as an emollient for external application, is of admirable efficacy.

To prepare the kernels of the *chocolate* nuts for uſe, bruiſe them, after having ſeparated their huſks; then place them before a clear fire or in an oven that is warm, but not very hot; and thus they are ſo diſſolved as to be fit for making into cakes or rolls for uſe.

The Mexicans mix with theſe nuts a portion of Indian corn, a few ſeeds of rocou, and a little vermilion. The Spaniards mix cloves and cinnamon with them. The French mix with their's a little cinnamon, vanilla ſeeds, and fine ſugar: in Paris they make up their *chocolate* for ſale as follows. Take of *chocolate* nuts freed from their huſks and fine ſugar, of each a pound; of cinnamon finely powdered two drams, and of vanilloes half a dram; beat them well together, and form them into cakes or rolls.

After drinking of *chocolate*, if it is uneaſy in the ſtomach, may find relief from drinking a tea-cup full of cold water.

An artificial *chocolate* is made of almonds thus: take of ſweet and bitter almonds of each an ounce, roaſt them in an iron pan until they are brown, then wipe them clean, and bruiſe them in a mortar, gradually mixing with them four meaſures of warm milk, two eggs that have been well mixed with a little cold milk, and as much cloves, cinnamon and ſugar as may be agreeable to the palate.

CACAOTETL. An Indian ſtone, called alſo lapis corrinus, which when heated is ſaid to give a crack like thunder.

CACAPHONIA. A depravity of the voice. See Paraphonia.

CACATORIA FEBRIS. A name given by Sylvius to a kind of intermittent fever attended with copious ſtools.

CACARI, CACAVIFERA, i. e. Cacao.

CACAVA QUAHVITL, i. e. Caçao.

CACAVATE, i. e. Cacao.

CACAVI. See Cassada.

CACAYATL. A ſpecies of French marigold.

CACCIONDE. A pill commended by Baglivi againſt the dyſentery: its baſis is the terra Japonica.

CACEDONIUS TARTARUM. The peccant matter in the human body, generated from ſeparations by the ſecretive faculty, which are not immediately ſucceeded by the operation of the expulſive.

CACHÆLOT. The ſperma cæti whale.

CACHEXIA, from κακος, *ill* or *bad*, and εξις *a habit*. A bad habit of body.

A *cachexy* is an univerſal bad habit of body, in which there is a defect of vital heat. Or, it is that diſpoſition in the body which depraves the nouriſhment thereof, and makes the ſkin of a diſagreeable colour. If difficult menſtruation is the cauſe, it is called a chloroſis. In Dr. Cullen's Noſology, it is the third claſs of diſeaſes. He defines it to be a depravity of the conſtitution of the whole, or of a great part of the body, without any febrile or nervous diſeaſe as the primary one.

They are the moſt diſpoſed hereto who are naturally of a lax and ſpongeous habit, which conſiſts in the ſoftneſs of the moving fibres, the ſmalineſs and number of the veſſels, and the ſlenderneſs of the tendons. Women are more ſubject to it than men, and men of a ſanguine, and of a phlegmatic habit, than thoſe of different ones; for ſuch perſons are apt to be plethoric, which occaſions the liver ſometimes to be obſtructed, whence the train of conſequences which form this diſorder.

The cauſes are various: as, whatever can leſſen the natural heat of the conſtitution; whatever produces repletion or depletion; a bad quality introduced into the circulating fluids; the nerves in the uterus and inteſtines have the ſame origin, whence the diſorders in the firſt diſturb the latter, when the chyle being crude and unfit for nature's wants, a *cachexy* is the conſequence; free eating and an inactive life, particularly when the ſtomach and digeſting powers are impaired, beget a crude chyle, irregular, and otherwiſe defective ſecretions, whence a general indiſpoſition of the juices and defect in the ſolids, and this Dr. James obſerves may produce any of the ſymptoms that the different writers ſay are proper to this ſtate of the body. In pubertine girls it is cauſed by difficult menſtruation: many aged people have this diſorder from a ceſſation or obſtruction of periodical diſcharges.

Its preſence is manifeſted by a pale white countenance, but oftener of a yelloviſh or greeniſh colour in the ſkin, a tumidneſs, coldneſs, and a ſoft flabbineſs of the body, with a general feebleneſs; a wearineſs is alſo complained of, a difficulty of breathing on the leaſt exerciſe, the feet are puffed, the mind is inactive, during ſleep an oppreſſion is perceived, the urine is white and turbid, the pulſe ſlow and ſoft, the eye-lids have an œdematous kind of ſwelling. When a difficult menſtruation in girls is the cauſe, beſides theſe ſymptoms, there is a pain in the head, a frequent palpitation of the heart, and a preternatural longing for things noxious and unfit for food; pain in the back and loins, a plethora either of the ſanguineous or phlegmatic kind, and a ſenſe of weight acroſs the eyes. See Chlorosis.

There are ſeveral chronical diſorders which may properly be called *cachexies*, but are diſtinguiſhed by differing in their cauſe, ſeat, or other circumſtance; the cacochymia, chloroſis, fluor albus, &c. are inſtances of this kind. But what is generally underſtood by *cachexy*, (which is a general bad habit of body, without any one remarkable ſymptom by which any particular diſorder is characterized), ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from a jaundice, leucophlegmacy, an atrophy, a ſcurvy, &c.

Old perſons are the moſt ſeverely afflicted with a *cachexy*, for old age itſelf is a ſpecies of this diſorder. That ſpecies which is ſuddenly produced by intemperance and a depraved digeſtion after chronical diſeaſes, is more eaſily removed than that which is from a fault in the viſcera. An ill colour in the ſkin, as it indicates a diſorder in the liver, is conſidered as a ſymptom of a diſorder very difficult

ficult to overcome. If fainting fits are frequent, the danger is great. If its cauſe is from an hæmorrhoidal diſcharge, the cure is generally effected with difficulty. If women are cachectic from defective menſtruation, they either become barren or bring forth weakly children: and of all diſorders, none more eaſily degenerate into an anaſarca, aſcites, atrophy, or a hectic fever, than does a *cachexy*.

The indications of a cure are, to correct the bad quality of the juices, to ſtrengthen the ſtomach, and to warm the whole conſtitution.

In order to the cure, the diet ſhould be nouriſhing, cordial, and ſuch as ſuffices in the leaſt quantities, ſhould be repeated often, to afford a plenteous nouriſhment, and of ſuch a nature as to oppoſe the cauſe and circumſtances of the diſorder. Exerciſe ſhould be conſtant and regular, but within the compaſs of the ſtrength. The primæ viæ being evacuated, adminiſter ſuch medicines as increaſe the vital heat, ſuch as warm bitters, aromatics, chalybeates, and antimonials. Stomach medicines ſhould be given juſt before and after meals. If the cauſe is a ſuppreſſion of any uſual evacuation, endeavour to promote the return of it. If laxity of the fibres, or defect of vital heat be the cauſe, aromatics and iron ſhould begin, and antimonials with exerciſe complete the cure.

CACHEXIA ICTERICA. The Jaundice.

See Dr. James's Dictionary, the Article CACHEXIA. Boerhaave on the *Cachexy*. Shrbbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic. Brooks's and the London Practice of Phyſic. Cullen's Firſt Lines. Lewis's Tranſlation of Hoffman's Practice of Medicine, vol. ii.

CACHEXIA UTERINA, i. e. Fluor Albus.

CACHIMIA, i. e. Cachymia.

CACHLAN. The herb buphthalmum.

CACHLEX. A little ſtone or pebble. Suidas makes it the name of an animal. Galen ſays that the *cachleces* heated in the fire and quenched in whey, endues it with an aſtringent virtue againſt a dyſentery.

CACHOS, or Solanum pomiferum folio rotundo tenui. It grows only on the mountains of Peru. It is a ſhrub of an extraordinary greenneſs: the leaves are thin and round: the fruit reſembles the mad-apple, is of an aſh colour and a grateful taſte. The Indians uſe it as a diuretic, and to expel concretions from the kidnies. Raii Hiſt.

CACHOU, i. e. Terra Japonica.

CACHRY. The ſeeds of the Libanotis.

CACHRYFERA, i. e. Libanotis.

CACHRYS, i. e. Libanotis. Galen ſays it ſometimes means parched barley.

CACHUNDE. A compound medicine much eſteemed by the Chineſe and Indians. Zacutus Luſitanus ſays it is made with amber, muſk, aloes wood, pearls, emeralds, granates, jacinths, galangals, cinnamon, aloes, &c.

CACHYMIA. Cachimia, or Kakimia. A term in Paracelſus, by which he intends an imperfect metallic body, or an immature metalline ore, which is neither a ſaline ſubſtance nor a metal, but yet almoſt metal.

CACHYMIÆ. It may be divided into ſulphureous, as marcaſites, biſmuths, and cobalts; or, 2dly, into mercuriæ, or arſenical, or orpimental, and ſuch like; or, 3dly, into ſaline, ſuch are all talcs.

CACOA, i. e. Cacao.

CACOALEXITERIUM, from κακος, *evil*, and αλεξιτηριον, a *remedy* or *medicine*, i. e. Alexiterium.

CACOCHOLIA. An indiſpoſition of the bile.

CACOCHROI, from κακος, *ill*, χρωα, *colour*. Such as have an ill colour in the face.

CACOCHYLIA. Indigeſtion or depraved chylification.

CACOCHYMIA, from κακος, *ill*, and χυμος, *humour*. A depraved ſtate of the humours.

CACOETHES, from κακος, *ill*, and ηθος, *a word*, which when applied to diſeaſes, ſignifies a quality or a diſpoſition. Hippocrates applies this word to malignant and difficult diſtempers. Le Dran explains it to be an evil ulcer, boil, or ſore. Galen and ſome others expreſs by it, an incurable ulcer, that is rendered ſo through the acrimony of the humours flowing to it. Linnæus and Vogel uſe this term much in the ſame ſenſe with Galen, and deſcribe the ulcer as ſuperficial, ſpreading, weeping, and with callous edges.

CACONIÆ. A corrupt word for canoniæ.

CACOPATHIA. An ill affection.

CACOPHONIA. A depravation of the voice, of which there are dumbneſs and difficulty of ſpeech. Vogel defines it to be a diſagreeable, ſharp kind of voice. Cullen uſes this word as ſynonymous with Paraphonia.

CACOPHRASTUS. A bye name given to Theophraſtus Paracelſus.

CACOPRAGIA, from κακος, *ill*, and πραγις, *to do* or *act*. A depravation in the viſcera by which nutrition is performed.

CACORRHEMOSYNE, i. e. Cacangelica.

CACORRYTHMUS, from κακος, *ill*, and ρυθμος, *order*. An epithet of a diſorderly pulſe.

CACOS. Evil, bad. Alſo the name of an Indian herb of a red colour: it is diuretic, and uſeful againſt calculous diſorders.

CACOSITIA, κακος, *ill*, and σιτιον, *food*. A loathing of food. Linnæus defines it to be a fixt averſion to food.

CACOSPHYXIA, from κακος, *ill*, and σφυξις from σφυζω, *to leap or beat like an artery*. A diſorder of the pulſe in general.

CACOSTOMACHUS. Literally, an ill or bad ſtomach; but is ſpoken of food that is bad for the ſtomach.

CACOTHYMIA, from κακος, *ill*, and θυμος, *the mind*. Any vicious diſpoſition of the mind.

CACOTROPHIA, from κακος, *ill*, and τροφη, *nutriment*. Any ſort of vicious nutrition in general.

CACTOS. The chardon.

CACUBALUM. The berry bearing chickweed.

CADA PALAVA, i. e. Macandon.

CADDIS. Soft Lint.

CADEL AVANACU, i. e. Moluccenſe lignum.

CADMIA, i. e. Calaminaris lapis.

CADMIA FACTITIA, i. e. Tutia.

CADMIA FORNACUM, i. e. Tutia.

CADMIA METALLICA AGRICOLÆ, i. e. Cobaltum.

CADUCASE. Vertigo.

CADUCUS. When put ſubſtantively, or as an adjective joined to morbus, it means an epilepſy.

CÆCILIA. The blind-worm or ſlow-worm, alſo called cæcilia typhlops, and cæcilia typhlinus Græcis. It is a ſpecies of ſerpent, whoſe bite is of much the ſame effect as that of the viper.

CÆCITAS MINORI. The ſame as Amauroſis. Aitken.

CÆCUM INTESTINUM. The blind gut: ſo called from its being perforated at one end only. What we now call the appendicula cæci, Rufus Epheſius called the cæcum. But modern anatomiſts divide the large inteſtines, which form one continued canal, into three portions. This canal begins by a kind of ſaeculus, or bag, which is the firſt of the three portions, and is called cæcum. Dr. Hunter ſays that it lies on the inſide of the os ilium upon the iliacus internus, and is only a round ſhort broad bag, whoſe bottom is turned downwards, and its mouth upwards. This inteſtine, which is about three fingers breadth long, is hid by the laſt convolution of the ilium. It hath the ſame bands as the colon, which bands take their origin from the appendicula cæci vermiformis. Winſlow obſerves that this bag lies under the right kidney, and that its diameter is more than double that of the ſmall inteſtines. Its arteries are from the meſenterica ſuperior. The veins are from the greater meſenteric, and one of the branches Riolan calls the vena cæcalis. The nerves from the poſterior and inferior meſenteric.

CŒMENTUM. Cement. It is any tenacious matter by which two bodies are made to adhere. What is uſed by chemiſts is uſually called lute. See LUTUM. Alſo thoſe powders and paſtes with which any body is ſurrounded in pots and crucibles, and which are capable, by the help of fire, of producing changes upon that body; as in making ſteel, braſs, &c. See CÆMENTUM.

The common cement which Schroder directs in his Pharmacopeia is the following: take half a pound of finely coloured brick-duſt, four ounces of common ſalt prepared, and of nitre and verdigriſe, each one ounce, mix.

The Royal Cement.

Take four parts of finely powdered brick-duſt, green vitriol

vitriol calcined to redneſs and finely powdered one part, and common ſalt one part, mix them well, and make them into a paſte with water. This is called royal *cement*, becauſe it is uſed in purifying gold, which is called the king of metals.

Cements are various, according to the different uſes to which they are to be applied; a variety of the beſt and moſt uſeful ſorts may be found in the Dictionary of Chemiſtry, in the article CEMENT; and in Neumann's Works.

CÆMENTUM CUPRUM. Cement copper, called alſo ziment copper. It is copper precipitated from vitriolic waters, by means of iron. The name is derived, as is ſaid, from a vitriolic water in Hungary called ziment.

CÆRULEUM. A name of the cyanus.

CÆSALPINA. A plant ſo named by Father Plumier, who diſcovered it in America, in honour of Andreas Cæſalpinus, an eminent botaniſt, and one of the firſt who attempted to claſs plants. It is called the many-leaved Cæſalpina, but is of no medical uſe. Miller's Dict.

CÆS. ET CÆS. ALP. An abbreviation of Andræas Cæſalpinus de Plantis.

CÆSAREA SECTIO. The Cæſarean ſection or operation, alſo called hyſterotomy, and hyſterotomatocia. It is the operation whereby the fœtus is extracted from the uterus through the teguments of the belly. It is called the Cæſarian operation from Julius Cæſar, who was brought into the world this way. Some ſay it was one Cæſo, who was the firſt who was thus taken from his mother's womb, and from whom the operation is named.

There are three cauſes wherein this operation is neceſſary. 1. When the mother dies and the fœtus is perceived to be alive, and this happening in labour, or in the laſt two months. 2. When the fœtus is dead, but ſo preternaturally ſituated as to be impoſſible to deliver it in the uſual way. 3. When both the mother and the child are living, but the ſame difficulty attends as in the ſecond caſe.

Many inſtances have occurred in which both the mother and the child have lived after this operation. Heiſter gives a very diſtinct account of this operation, in his Surgery; and of its ſucceſs in his Inſtitutes of Surgery, p. 2. § 5. cap. 113. See alſo Mem. de l'Acad. Roy. de Chirur. vol. i. p. 623, ii. p. 308. Edinb. Med. Eſſays, vol. v. art. 37 and 38.

It ſhould not be commended if the woman is living before ſhe falls into labour, and yet it muſt be attempted before ſhe hath ſuffered much by her ineffectual throes; for when ſhe is thereby reduced, the operation is almoſt ſure to kill her.

To perform this operation, lay the woman on her back, place a pillow under her right ſide, to turn the uterus as much as poſſible on the other; then the operator muſt make a longitudinal inciſion, beginning as high up as the navel, on the outſide of the linea alba, and carrying it down in an oblique direction towards the ilium, he muſt cut carefully through the muſcles of the belly, and alſo the peritoneum, and introduce a finger into the abdomen, which muſt be carried along before the point of the knife, in order to prevent the vagina from being wounded. The inciſion is uſually directed to be on the left ſide, for fear of wounding the liver, becauſe the large lobe lies on the right ſide; though there ſeems to be more danger of the omentum, or a flexure of the inteſtines; becauſe as the uterus riſes up, it carries the viſcera above it, and to each ſide; but the omentum is frequently found lying between it and the parietes of the belly. The inciſion into the uterus muſt be longitudinal, and as long as the external wound will permit, taking care not to wound the Fallopian tubes: the child muſt be taken out at the inciſion, and after it the placenta and membranes; the water and blood muſt be abſorbed with ſponges: the wound in the uterus muſt be left to nature, for by its contraction it will be brought into about an inch and a half in length. The external wound is to be ſutured with the interrupted ſtitch, and then to be dreſſed up, as in general. If any conſiderable veſſels are cut through, take them up.

In the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 261. &c. is an inſtance of this operation being performed, which, though unſucceſsful, yet merits attention. In this caſe the inciſion was made on the right ſide; and it was obſerved that the woman complained but little during the operation, except when the needles paſſed through the peritoneum when the ſutures were made; and that the uterus ſeemed very little ſenſible of any injury done to it. It is noticed in the remarks made on writers who have deſcribed this operation, that there is very little ſatisfaction to be obtained from them; that all they relate is very vague; and that it is indifferent on which ſide the inciſion is made, farther than as ſome preſent circumſtance may determine; that the hæmorrhage ſpoken of by Heiſter is not ſo much to be dreaded as he intimates; that the courſe of the linea ſemilunaris, as nigh to the outer edge of the rectus muſcle as poſſible, ſeems to be the moſt eligible place for the operation.

Paré, Guillimeau, Rolfincius, Hoorn, Mauriceau, Solingen, and ſome others, are ſaid to be violent oppoſers of this operation; but the truth is, they only object to it in certain caſes, where they thought others raſh in proceeding to it. As a ſubſtitute for this operation, the ſection of the ſymphyſis of the pubes is propoſed. See PUBIS Ossa. See alſo an Account of the Cæſarean Section by Dr. Vaughan of Leiceſter.

CÆSARES. Children who are brought into the world by the Cæſarian operation.

CÆSIUS, i. e. Glaucus.

CÆSONES, i. e. Cæſares.

CÆTCHU, i. e. Terra Japonica.

CAF, CAFA, CAFAR, i. e. Camphor.

CAGASTRUM. Paracelſus uſes this word to expreſs the morbific matter which generates diſeaſes, and that is not innate but adventitious. Diſeaſes ariſing from the *cagaſtrum* are pleuriſy, peſtilence, fever, &c.

CAGUACU-APARA, or CAGUACU-ETE. } The American bezoar deer.

CAINITO. An American name for the ſtar-apple. Miller mentions two ſpecies, but they are not of any note in medicine.

CAIPA TIJAMBOU. A ſpecies of wild jambos.

CAJAHABA. An Indian plant which adheres to trees like ivy; the natives bruiſe it, and bind it upon fractures. Raii Hiſt.

CAJAN. Phaſeolus arbor incana ſiliquis toroſis, cayan dicta thora parou, piſum arboreſcens. A ſhrubby plant with pods containing four reddiſh peas. A decoction of the leaves reſtrains the hæmorrhoides when exceſſive. Raii Hiſt.

CAJEPUTI OLEUM. It is thought to be obtained from the grains of paradiſe: it is commended as a nervous medicine, and as being uſeful in ſome cardialgias. The doſe is four or five drops in any convenient liquor.

CAJOU, CAJOUS, CAJUM, } i. e. Acajaiba.

CAKILE. A name of the eruca marina.

CALABA. Indian maſtich tree. It hath roſaceous flowers, which are followed by a fleſhy fruit that includes a nut. This tree is a native of the warm parts in America. From the trunk and branches a gum like the gum maſtich iſſues.

CALÆ, CALÆM, or CALÆMUM. A kind of Indian tin, which being ſubjected to the fire is changed into a kind of cerus, ſuch as is made of lead and European tin.

CALAMACORUS. Indian reed.

CALAMAGROSTIS. Reed-graſs. See GRAMEN.

CALAMARY. The cuttle-fiſh.

CALAMBAC, i. e. Agallochum.

CALAMBOUR, i. e. Agallochum.

CALAMEDON, from *καλαμος*, a reed. A ſpecies of fracture which runs along the bone in a right line, but is lunated in the extremity.

CALAMINA, i. e. Calamanaris lapis.

CALAMINARIS LAPIS. Calamine ſtone, alſo called cadmia lapidoſa, cadmia foſſilis, calamite, calamy, and calaminar ſtone.

It is a metallic mineral, of a grey, brown, yellow, or pale red colour, and ſometimes of all theſe colours variouſly mixed; it is heavy and hard, but not ſo as to ſtrike fire with ſteel. It is of a middle nature betwixt ſtone and earth, found in copper mines, and thoſe of lead and iron; it is found in England, Germany, and other countries, either in diſtinct mines, or intermixed with the ores of

lead or other metals. It is the ore of a metal known by the name of zinc, and contains a ſmall portion of iron. It is generally calcined before it is brought into the ſhops, in order to ſeparate ſome ſulphureous and arſenical particles of which it is ſuppoſed to be poſſeſſed, and alſo to render it more eaſily reducible into powder.

Calamine is ranked by Mr. Edwards, in his Elements of Foſſilogy, as a cryptometalline ſtone, and its varieties as ſo many ſpecies of the zinc-ſtone genus: ſome are varieties of the zinc floſſes; they are tranſparent or gloſſy.

The quantity of zinc is variable in different parcels of this ore. In the Berlin Memoirs Marggraf ſays, that from 2-16ths to 7-16ths of the weight of the ore is pure metal. The common ſort in our ſhops in England frequently affords 9-16ths.

If this ore is not already calcined, it muſt be heated to a ſtrong red heat, then quenched in water; and this proceſs muſt be repeated three times. Before calcination it is of a grey or of a red colour; but when calcined it is yellow.

It is an error of ſome writers who ſay that the *calamy* is a recrement of melted copper, and that tutty is a recrement of melted braſs; though it is true that the beſt *calamy* is what ſticks to the iron rods uſed in ſtirring the matter in the furnaces while braſs is making.

The name cadmia hath been applied to ſeveral different things. Dioſcorides meant by it the recrement which ariſes from braſs whilſt melting: Galen applied it to the recrement of braſs, and a ſtone found in ſome mines: the *calamine* ſtone is now called thus; and the Germans have given this name to cobalt; whence Agricola ſays that there are three ſorts, viz. one metallic, one foſſile, and one of the furnaces.

Though the *calamine* ſtone is an ore of zinc, it is not the only one; for zinc is found in the ore of lead, and of other metals. The principal uſe of this mineral is for changing copper into braſs, which it does by its metallic part mixing with the copper while it is in a ſtate of fuſion. See Æs.

For medicinal uſes the *calamine*, after being calcined, ſhould be levigated to an impalpable powder; it is then called lap. *calam.* ppt. See COMMINUTIO. When thus prepared it is uſeful in collyria as an aſtringent and corroborant, and againſt defluxions of thin acrid humours upon the eyes, and in ointments for cutaneous exulcerations, &c. if it is exquiſitely fine, it acts as an abſorbent or deſiccative, but if not, it is eſcharotic.

The London college directs the following cerate, in which this mineral is the principal ingredient.

Ceratum Eupoleticum. Cicatrizing Cerate.

Take of olive oil, a pound; yellow wax, prepared calamy, of each half a pound; melt the wax with the oil, and as ſoon as the mixture begins to congeal, ſprinkle in the calamy, and ſtir all well till the cerate is quite cold.

This hath been called ceratum Turneri. Dr. James ſays that he remembers to have met with a like cerate in a publication by an old Engliſh ſurgeon who preceded Dr. Turner. The Edinburgh college calls it ung. *lap. calaminar.*

Magiſterium Lapidis Calaminaris. *The Magiſtery of* Calamine.

Take of *calamine* ſubtilly powdered, four ounces; put it into a matraſs, and pour upon it a pound of the ſpirit of ſalt; let them digeſt upon warm ſand forty-eight hours; filtre the ſolution and precipitate the magiſtery with the ſpirit of urine, free it from the ſalts by ſeveral ablutions, and dry it for uſe. From three to ſeven grains it is emetic and cathartic. See Neumann's Chemical Works, Lewis's Materia Medica, and the Dictionary of Chemiſtry, 4to.

CALAMINTHA, from καλὰ μίνθη, *good mint.* Calamint.

It is a plant with ſquare ſtalks, the leaves ſet in pairs, the flowers on branched pedicles, whereof two iſſue from one joint in the boſoms of the leaves; the upper lip of the flower is divided into two ſegments, the lower into three. It is perennial, and flowers in July and Auguſt.

CALAM. MONTANA. The common *calamint*, called alſo cal. vulg. vel officinarum Germaniæ, and calam. flore magno vulg. It is the meliſſa calamintha, Linn.

The ſtalks are large and upright, the leaves are pointed and ſerrated. It is found on the ſides of the highways, but it is not ſo common as the field ſpecies, nor are its leaves ſo powerful in their medicinal qualities, not having the penny-royal ſmell.

CALAMINTHA ANGLICA. Field *calamint*, called alſo calam. pulegii odore nepeta agreſtis, calam. fol. ovatis, &c. and ſpotted *calamint*. Meliſſa nepeta, Linn. Its ſtalks are reclining; the leaves are ſmall, irregularly oval, ſlightly indented, without pedicles, the flower ſtalks larger than the leaves: it grows wild in dry grounds and by the ſides of fields, in hedges, highways, and ſandy ſoils. The leaves have much of the ſmell of penny-royal and ſpearmint, but hotter, and their virtues are ſimilar to a mixture of them; water by infuſion extracts all their virtue, and by evaporation it carries off all their flavour. By diſtillation with water, they give out a large portion of eſſential oil, that is pungent to the taſte and ſtrong of the herb: the decoction in the ſtill, after the oil is carried off, is rough, bitter, and aromatic. Rectified ſpirit of wine extracts the virtues of this herb the moſt completely.

CALAMINTHA PALUSTRIS. Water *Calamint*, called alſo calam. arvenſis verticillata, mentha arvenſis verticillata hirſuta, calamintha aquatica. Field mint with whorled coronets. It grows on the ſides of ditches: the whorles are placed at a diſtance in the boſoms of the leaves. It is ſeldom uſed.

Herba felis, alſo called cataria, mentha cataria, nepeta, cataria major vulgaris, nep. and cat-mint. It is called nep or cat-mint, from its being deſtroyed by cats; it is a hoary plant with ſquare ſtalks; the leaves are heart-ſhaped, accuminated, ſerrated, and ſet in pairs on oblong pedicles; the flowers are whitiſh, labiated, ſtanding on ſpikes on the tops of the branches; the upper lip is divided into two, and the lower into three ſections. It grows wild in hedges, and on dry banks, and flowers in June.

The leaves are moderately pungent and aromatic, ſmell ſtrong, and reſemble ſpear-mint and penny-royal, the virtues of which they partake. Water extracts all their active matter, but rectified ſpirit extract it more completely. Diſtilled with water they yield a yellow eſſential oil, not quite ſo agreeable as the herb, though ſmelling ſtrong of it; the remaining decoction is bitter and ſubaſtringent.

CALAMINTHA MAGNO FLORE. Mountain *Calamint* with a large flower; alſo called *calamintha* montana magno flore, mountain mint, the greateſt *calamint*, and the more excellent *calamint*. It hath large leaves and flowers, the leaves are deeply ſerrated, pointed, and ſet on pedicles. It is a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, and raiſed in our gardens.

It hath a moderately pungent taſte, and a more agreeable one than any of the other *calaminta*, and is a bitter ſtomachic.

CALAMINTHA HUMILIOR. Ground-ivy.

CALAMINTHA. A name of the ſaturcia.

CALAMITA. A name for the dry ſort of ſtorax, to diſtinguiſh it from the liquid.

CALAMITA ALBA. The white ſand-ſtone.

CALAMITA of Rhaſes. The common load-ſtone.

CALAMITIS. A name of that factitious cadmia which, by fixing to iron rods, acquires the figure of a reed; the word is applied to pompholyx, to calamine, and Agricola calls a marine ſtoney plant thus.

CALAMUS. The ſtalk of any plant. See CAUDEX. It is alſo a reed. See ARUNDO.

CALAMUS AROMATICUS. Sweet-ſcented flag; alſo called acorus verus, typha arom. clava rugoſa, & diringa. It is the acorus calamus vera of Linn.

The name of *calamus aromaticus* is given to the acorus, but they are very different things; the firſt is a ſtalk of an Eaſtern reed, which is ſlender, hollow, white, and of a fragrant ſmell; it is alſo called *calamus* odoratus, and arundo Syriaco.

The ſweet flag is a plant with long narrow-pointed leaves, like thoſe of the common iris, and of a bright green colour; they are divided by the longitudinal rib into two unequal proportions, one of which is ſmooth, the other

other tranſverſely wrinkled; the flowers are imperfect and ſtand thick together, forming an elegant ſpike: the root which ſpreads obliquely under the ſurface of the earth, is long, crooked, full of joints, about an inch thick, ſomewhat flatted, externally of a greeniſh white colour, which changes in drying into a browniſh yellow, internally white, and of a looſe fungous texture. It is found in rivulets and marſhy places in many parts of England, and in Holland. The ſtalk dies in winter, but the root is perennial.

The dried roots are brought from the Levant, but thoſe of our own growth are preferable. Dr. Alſton ſays, that this root is aromatic, ſtomachic, and carminative. As an *aromatic* it promotes the fluid ſecretions, is of uſe in gangrenes both internally and externally, agreeably ſtimulates, and produces a pleaſant ſenſation in the mind. Their aroma is fixed, and will keep many years. When freſh gathered the ſcent is not agreeable, but ſomewhat like that of leeks; by drying this kind of flavour goes off.

Chuſe that which is ſound, tough, and whitiſh within when broke.

Water beſt takes off the bitter part of this root, and ſpirit the *aromatic* part. In diſtillation with water, it ſends up a very ſmall portion of eſſential oil, leaving a naufeous bitter in the decoction.

More agreeable bitters ſupercede its uſe, but it is a tolerable ſubſtitute for gentian, and other gently warm bitters.

CALAMUS AROMATICUS ASIATICUS. Aſiatic ſweet-flag; called alſo acorus Aſiaticus, aurus Braſilienſis, and capicatinga. It grows in both the Indies. Its root agrees in virtues with that of our own growth.

CALAMUS TOXICUS. The walking-cane. See ARUNDO.

CALAMUS ODORATUS. See CALAMUS AROMATICUS.

CALAMUS SCRIPTORIUS. A dilatation of the brain, near, or in the fourth ventricle, is thus named, becauſe it reſembles a quill.

CALANDRA, or Chalandra. A large kind of lark is thus named.

CALATHIANA. Marſh gentian.

CALAZIA. A precious ſtone with ſpots like hail in it.

CALBIANUM. The name of a plaſter in Myrepſus.

CALCADINUM, Calcator, Colcotor. Vitriol.

CALCADIS. White vitriol; or, according to ſome, it is ſal alkali.

CALCANEUM, Calcar, Os Calcis. The heel bone. It is the largeſt bone in the foot, of which it is the poſterior part, and in ſome meaſure the baſis. The large tendon, called tendo Achillis, is inſerted into this bone.

If it is injured in its fore-part, it may ſafely be amputated.

CALCANTHOS, Calcanthum. See VITRIOLUM.

CALCANTUM. A kind of red drink.

CALCAR. See CALCANEUM. It is alſo the furnace in a glaſs-houſe.

CALCAR GALLI. A ſpecies of meſpilus.

CALCARIS FLOS. The larkſpur.

CALCARIUS LAPIS. Lime-ſtone. See CALX.

CALCATAR. Vitriol.

CALCATON. Troches of arſenic.

CALCATREPOLA, i. e. Calcitrapa.

CALCATRIPPA. Garden lark-heels. See DELPHINUM.

CALCEDONIUS, i. e. Chalcedonius.

CALCENA, Calcenon, Calcenonia, Calcinonia, Calcenonius, Calcenos, Calcetus. Paracelſus uſes theſe words to expreſs the tartarous matter in the blood; or that the blood is impregnated with tartarous principles.

CALC. MUS. An abbreviation of Muſeum calceolaralium Veronenſe.

CALCEOLUS D. MARIÆ SACERDOTIS. Our lady's, or prieſt's ſlipper. It is a ſpecies of aliſma, having in the middle of its flower, a hollow like a ſlipper.

CALCEUM EQUINUM, i. e. Tuſſilago.

CALCHITHIOS. Verdigriſe; alſo a marcaſite.

CALCHOIDES OSSICULA, i. e. Cuneiformis.

CALCIDICUM. The name of a medicine in which is arſenic.

CALCIFRAGA. Break-ſtone. An epithet given to the herb ſcolopendrum or ſpleen-wort, in Scribonius Largus.

CALCIGRADUS. Hippocrates means by it, one who in walking lays much ſtreſs upon the heels.

CALCINATIO. Calcination. The *calcination* of a body is, properly ſpeaking, to expoſe it to the action of the fire to produce ſome change in it; or it is the ſeparating, by means of fire, the more volatile from the more fixed parts of any compound body; or the deſtruction of the inflammable principle thereby, or both.

Bodies are deprived of their volatile parts by *calcination*, in the inſtances of burning ſtones, &c. to convert them into quick-lime, which is effected by the evaporation of the air and watery principle; in the expoſing gypſum, alum, borax, and ſeveral other ſalts to the fire, which deprives them of the water that is neceſſary for their cryſtallization; and in the roaſting of minerals, which carries off their ſulphur, arſenic, and other volatile contents.

The inflammable principle is ſeparated from imperfect metals by expoſing them to the fire: in an intenſe heat they are deprived of their form and metallic properties, and are changed into earthy matters, called metallic calces. Here it may be obſerved, that what are called calces of gold and of ſilver, are improperly ſo termed, being only theſe metals reduced into fine powders; no method is known by which theſe metals can be deprived of their phlogiſton or inflammable principle. The changes made by this ſecond kind of calcination, are different from the former; in this caſe the alteration is effected, not by evaporation, but by decompoſition and deſtruction of the phlogiſton; it is therefore a combuſtion, and not a volatilization of their inflammable principle.

There is an evaporation of volatile parts, and a deprivation of the inflammable principle, without any ſenſible combuſtion, in expoſing imperfect metals, combined with vitriolic and nitrous acids, to a due degree of heat; in this proceſs the acid riſes, and at the ſame time carries with it the inflammable principle; for inſtance, in calcining the vitriol of iron.

Acids, particularly the nitrous, extract the inflammable principle from imperfect metals, and reduces them by ſolution, without fire, to a ſtate ſimilar to that by calcination with it; whence ſuch acids are conſidered as capable of calcining them; and metallic ſubſtances, dephlogiſticated by their means, are called calces.

Calcination is ſaid to be actual, when effected immediately, and only by the action of fire; and potential, when aqua fortis, or other ſolvent, is uſed to corrode iron, or any other metal.

The *calcination*, which by means of fire reduces ſolid bodies into a powdered ſtate, alſo alters the qualities thereof, and in this it differs from comminution.

To this head belongs the burning of vegetable and animal matters; otherwiſe called uſtion, incineration, or concremation.

There are ſeveral ſpecies of *calcination*, by which different degrees of the ſame effect are produced, and thus *calcination* is perfect or imperfect: the firſt is where the utmoſt change, except vitrifaction, is brought about; the ſecond is where the circumſtances of the proceſs are limited in proportion to the change intended.

The *calcination* of metallic bodies (gold and ſilver excepted) are promoted by nitre. This ſalt expoſed to the fire in conjunction with any inflammable ſubſtances, extricates their inflammable matter, and burſts with it into flame, accompanied with a hiſſing noiſe; this proceſs is called deflagration, or detonation. To underſtand the principle of this operation, it muſt be obſerved, that the afflux of air, or a ſubſtitute for it, is neceſſary to the ſupport of fire; and that nitre, or any thing containing the acid thereof, is ſuch a ſubſtitute: that if nitre be added to any matter containing an inflammable principle, and a heat be imparted to the mixture, ſufficient to bring the nitre to fuſion, fire will be produced, and a *calcination* effected, even though all the air be excluded.

The manner of operation varies according to the nature of the matter to be *calcined*, and may, according to the principle on which it is performed, be diſtinguiſhed into three kinds, combuſtion, calefaction, and detonation.

Calci-

Calcination by combuſtion is where the body kindled ſupports, with the aſſiſtance of the air, the fire which *calcines* it, as in the inſtance of coals in the culinary fire. Vegetables are thus *calcined*, and when they are thus treated, ſome call the operation incineration.

Calcination by calefaction is, where the *calcining* heat is not generated in the body itſelf, but imparted to it from ſome external fire. The methods here are various, almoſt as the different kinds of matter thus treated; and in the management regard muſt be had to the ſubſtance of the containing veſſel, for ſome ſhould be made of iron, others of glaſs or clay, &c. the heat muſt be differently regulated, or elſe vitrifaction, inſtead of *calcination*, may enſue. *Calcinations* of this kind, are expedited by the increaſe of ſurface, which is given to the calcined matter, and the copious admiſſion of air through that part of the furnace where the matter is placed, by ſtirring it with a ſpatula, by previous pulverization, and by raking off the calx from the ſurface of the metal, as faſt as it appears thereon. It ſhould be farther obſerved, that if any coal, or other inflammable matter, that does not contain a mineral acid, be ſuffered to fall on the calcining matter, *calcination* will thereby be prevented, and part of what is *calcined* will be revive[illegible]r reduced, that is, it will return into its metallic form again.

Calcination by detonation differs from combuſtion only in this; in the latter the aſſiſtance of air is neceſſary, in the former this want is ſupplied by the nitre that is added to the matter, which producing a quicker and more intenſe fire, both ſhortens the operation, and in ſome inſtances, perfects it more fully. Detonation is thus performed: a proper quantity of nitre is mixed with the matter to be calcined, a crucible is heated red-hot, then the matter thus mixed is gradually thrown in, an explosive effervescence ſoon follows the injection of each quantity, the ceſſation of which effervescence each time, is the proper limit of the intervals of throwing in, till all is in, at which time it is finiſhed. The crocus antimonii, and ſome other medicines, are thus prepared. A portion of the alkaline baſis of this ſalt, ſometimes joins with the calcined matter; but the reſt is to be ſeparated by water, which is to be added warm, and after being well mixed, it is to be poured off, and the ſame to be repeated till the ſalt is extracted; this is called edulcoration.

The metals which melt before ignition, are calcined by keeping them in fuſion for ſome time. Thoſe metals which require a ſtrong fire to melt in, calcine with a much leſs heat than is ſufficient to make them flow; hence the ſcorification, or burning of ſuch iron or copper veſſels, as are long expoſed to a conſiderable fire without defence from the air.

In *calcination* the metals viſibly emit fumes; yet the weight of the calx proves greater than that of the metal employed. And all the metallic calces and ſcoriæ are revived into their metallic ſtate, by fuſion with any animal or vegetable inflammable matter.

Except the calces of lead and biſmuth, all the metallic calces require an addition to make them melt in the ſtrongeſt fire that can be made in common furnaces; and the additions, called fluxes, chiefly conſiſt of a mixture of fixed alkaline ſalt, with ſome inflammable matter. As theſe fluxes not only fuſe the calx, but alſo revive it into metal, they are ſometimes called reducing fluxes; of which the following is one of the chief, and is called the black flux.

Take of nitre one part, and ſalt of tartar two parts, grind them well together, then ſet the mixture on fire, by throwing in a bit of red hot coal; cover the veſſel, and ſuffer them to burn until the whole is changed into a black alkaline coaly maſs.

Metallic calces or ſcoriæ, mingle with twice their weight of this black flux, and expoſed to a proper fire in a cloſe-covered crucible, melt and reſume their metallic form. But though the calx was heavier than the metal of which it was formed, on reviving to its original metallic ſtate, its weight is leſs than at the firſt.

See Newman's Chem. Works, Lewis's Materia Medica, the Dictionary of Chemiſtry.

CALCINATUM MAJUS. It is whatſoever is dulcified by the chemical art, which was not ſo by nature; ſuch as dulcified mercury, lead, and the like ſubſtances, which are very ſpeedily conſolidated.

CALCINATUM MAJUS POTERII. It is mercury diſſolved in aqua fortis, and precipitated with ſalt water. Poterius uſed it in the cure of ulcers.

CALCINATUM MINUS. Any thing which is ſweet by nature, and ſpeedily cures, as ſugar, manna, tamarinds, &c.

CALCIS VIV. FLORES. The pinguious matter which floats on the top of new made lime-water is thus named.

CALCIS OS, i. e. Calcaneum.

CALCITARI, i. e. Sal alcali.

CALCITEA. Vitriol.

CALCITEOSA. Litharge.

CALCITHOS. Verdigriſe.

CALCITRAPA. Common ſtar-thiſtle; alſo called carduus ſtellatus, jacea ramoſiſſima, jacea ſtellata, and rupina.

The ſtalk of this plant is divided into numerous branches, ſpreading about, and riſing nearly two feet high, with a few leaves on them placed at the diviſions of the ſtalks; the flowers are of a reddiſh colour, grow thick upon the branches, and come out of heads, which are compoſed of ſeveral ſcales, each ending in a long, ſtraight, hard, and ſharp thorn; theſe flowers paſs away in down, containing white flattiſh oblong ſeeds; the root is ſingle, about a finger thick long, and running deep into the ground, of a whitiſh colour, having a thick bark on it. It grows near highways, on commons, and flowers in June.

The leaves are bitter; a dram of the ſeed, in a glaſs of wine, powerfully expels viſcid matter which obſtructs the urinary paſſages; the root is uſed againſt the gravel, and the ſtone in the bladder; and the bark of the root is extolled in the nephritic colic. It ſhould be gathered about the end of September, and when dried a dram is a doſe. Dale.

CALCITRAPA OFFIC. St. Barnaby's thiſtle; called alſo carduus ſtellatus lutæus, carduus ſolſtitialis, ſpina ſolſtitialis, jacea ſtellata, jacea lutea capite ſpinoſa minori, and leucacantha veterum.

It is commended as an anticteric, anti-cachectic, and lithontriptic. Dale.

CALCOIDEA OSSICULA, i. e. Officula cuneiformia.

CALCULIFRAGUS. Lithontriptic.

CALCULOSUS. Afflicted with the ſtone.

CALCULUS. The gravel and ſtone. The Greeks call this diſorder lithiaſis, the Latins name it *calculus*, and in Engliſh we underſtand by *gravel*, ſmall *ſtones* that paſs from the kidneys through the ureter, &c. in a few days; and by the *ſtone*, a calculous concretion in the kidneys, or in the urinary bladder, which is too large to paſs, or at leaſt without great difficulty. Some call it nephritis.

What is called a fit of the *gravel* or *ſtone* is, when from the ſtony concretions in the kidneys, &c. there is pain, with other ſymptoms which uſually attend, when nature endeavours at their diſcharge.

The concretions that form this diſeaſe, are very various in their properties; and when out of the body require very different ſolvents to deſtroy their coheſion. See Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 105, &c.

The human *calculi* contain about half their weight of fixed air, much volatile alkaline ſalt, ſome oil, a little earth and phlegm; and the different hardneſs obſerved in different ones, is owing to the variety in the proportion of theſe conſtituents. From the ſuppoſition that the *ſtones* in the kidneys, and the bladder, conſiſt of calcareous earth, they have been called *calculi*; but Sir Torbern Bergman aſſerts that the moſt exact analyſis cannot diſcover in it, upon an average, above one part in one hundred of this earth.

Stones are generated in any part of the body; but when we ſpeak of the *ſtone* as a diſeaſe, it is underſtood to be ſeated in the kidneys, ureters, or in the bladder. As to what is called a *ſtone* in the gall-bladder, it is only as it were a coagulation, or at moſt a concretion, of the bile, and not properly of the calculous kind.

Perſons of vigorous conſtitutions are more ſubject to this diſeaſe than thoſe of a more lax and cold habit.

If any ſmall indiſſoluble ſubſtance is fixed in any part of the body, a ſtony cruſt ſoon forms itſelf upon it, either more or leſs. Thus it may be formed in a kidney, and increaſing, may obſtruct it, and even prove its deſtruction by corrupting it; in this caſe a bloody fœtid and purulent

urine

urine is diſcharged: or if this concretion is removed from the kidney, obſtructing the ureter, it occaſions at firſt a ſpaſmodic, but ſometimes it produces an acute inflammatory pain there; or deſcending into the bladder, it is either expelled with the urine, and diſcharged through the urethra, or detained here, where it increaſes in bulk by an adheſion of the earthy parts of the urine, which form ſtrata of different colours; the nucleus which fell from the kidney always remaining red. As to the production of *ſtones* in the human body, a ſmall attention to the cauſes of the gouty matter, and to the affinity betwixt the gout and the *ſtone*; alſo on recollecting that a fit of one is often tranſmuted into a fit of the other, we ſhall be readily led to conclude, that the cauſes of both are, a defective ſolution of the earthy particles of our aliment by the powers of digeſtion; other peculiarities in the conſtitution conducing to the formation of one or the other diſorder, from the ſame leading cauſe. Wine is ranked among the occaſional cauſes, ſo is hard and *ſtony* water; but the tartar of wine agrees not with the human *calculus* in its conſtituents, except in poſſeſſing ſome fixed air and earth, and theſe in proportions very different too: and as to *ſtony* waters, they, at moſt, can only prove a negative cauſe; water is the only diluter, and in the performance of its office of diſſolving not only our food, but alſo the recrementitious parts of our juices, it promotes health, and counteracts diſeaſes and their cauſes: when pure water only is drank, the veſſels are permeable, the excretions duly performed, and every thing that is faulty carried out of the body; but water impregnated with indigeſtible particles, is already ſaturated with its own contents, therefore leſs capable of diſſolving and carrying off with it ſuch other particles as require its aſſiſtance in order to their diſcharge.

Hoffman obſerves, that the pain which is excited by *calculus* in the bladder, attended with a conſtant ſtrangury, is to be referred to ſpaſm as its cauſe. For on account of the ſpaſmodical ſtricture, which not only affects the muſcular coat of the bladder, but alſo its ſphincter and the urethra, all the diſtreſſing ſymptoms in the diſcharge of urine are induced. But while ſuch ſpaſmodic affections are ſometimes induced by *calculus*, it is alſo certain that they may ariſe from obſtruction and ſtagnation of blood in the veſſels of the bladder, as in caſes of ſuppreſſion either of the hæmorrhoidal or of the menſtrual flux; or from ſome acrid application to the bladder; and from various other cauſes.

In ſome inſtances, the difficulty of diſcovering whether or no there is a *ſtone* in the bladder is ſuch, as to elude the beſt ſkill in the ſymptoms thereof; the greateſt dexterity in uſing the catheter, and the beſt helps that experience hath given in the uſe of any other means. However, in general, if the patient handles his penis frequently, if he hath a motion to ſtool when he begins to diſcharge his urine, if he walks in the ſtreets with his legs ſtraddling, it is not doubted but that there is a *ſtone* in the bladder. Le Dran ſays, that when a ſmall *ſtone* is lodged in the neck of the bladder, the patient is only pained whilſt the firſt drops of urine paſs, each time that he attempts to diſcharge it; if the *ſtone* is large, the greateſt pain is whilſt the laſt drops are diſcharging; but if there is a difficulty in paſſing the urine all the time of its going off, the caſe is not a *ſtone*.

The ſigns of a *ſtone* in the kidneys are, an obtuſe pain in their region; a nauſea, ſickneſs, and frequently a vomiting; a titillation at the point of the penis; coſtiveneſs, and flatulency; the pain ſometimes extends to the groin, the hip, or to the neighbouring teſticle; there is a chilneſs, ſhivering, and difficulty of breathing; the leg, on the ſame ſide with the affected kidney, is ſometimes contracted, and at others benumbed; the urine is diſcharged frequently, but with difficulty and in ſmall quantities, or it is totally ſuppreſſed: but as a diſtinguiſhing ſign, the ſediment of the urine may be attended to, for it ſubſides directly; if then this, with the other named ſymptoms attend, the patient's caſe is manifeſtly this diſorder.

As to a *ſtone* in the urethra, it may be detained in various parts, but its ſituation may eaſily be known by the pain or by a catheter.

Pain in the loins from the *gravel* or *ſtone* in the kidneys, ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from that which is cauſed by ſpaſms, ſuch as frequently happen in nervous diſeaſes; from the cholic, which it much reſembles in the beginning of the fit; from the lumbago, and from pain in the pſoas muſcle; alſo from the gout in the parts, or a latent intermitting fever there. The *ſtone* in the bladder ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the gout, and from a latent intermitting fever affecting it; from ſpaſmodic ſymptoms; from the pain excited by ſharp urine, or other acrid matter deſcending from the kidneys, or otherwiſe introduced into it; an abſceſs in a part adjacent preſſing forcibly againſt it; an ulcer, or other diſorder in the uterus; and any complaint in the inteſtinum rectum.

A *ſtone* in the kidneys often brings on a tabes renalis. When the violent pain hath continued for ſeveral days and nights without intermiſſion, and hath exceedingly reduced the patient, if the extremities become cold, or if the urine continues to be totally ſuppreſſed, death is to be expected. If a *ſtone* continues long in the ureter, or in the urethra, the appetite begins to fail, a nauſea comes on, and a hectic heat approaches, the danger is great. An inflammation of any of the viſcera approaching is alſo fatal.

In adminiſtering remedies for the relief of theſe diſorders, it ſhould be remembered, that during the fit, the treatment muſt be very different from what it is in the abſence thereof. During the paroxyſm the inflammation is removed by bleeding, emollients, and terebinthine clyſters, in which is the oleum ricini; this oil ſhould alſo be given by the mouth as a purge; warm baths ſhould alſo be made uſe of; and when the inflammation is abated, opiates, with oily emollient decoctions, may be given. In general, plethoric habits are relieved by proper bleeding. While the violence of the pain continues, with difficulty in the diſcharge of urine, nothing affords greater relief than emollient oily clyſters, warm bathing, and the pediluvium. Fomentations made with the flor. chamæmil. &c. and applied to the part moſt pained, conſiderably allay the pains and ſpaſms.

After the fit is over, begin with a cautious uſe of diuretics and lithontriptics; and when there is no inflammation nor pain, the lixivium tartari may be given in ſmall quantities.

The diet ſhould be light, and of a laxative kind, exerciſe moderate, but as conſtantly as the ſtrength, &c. will admit of. The water that is drank, and all the liquors that are of a watery kind, muſt be, from ſuch ſupplies as are abſolutely free from all mineral impregnations.

Lithontriptics are to be uſed during the intervals of the fits; but as ſome *ſtones* are only ſoluble in alkaline, others only in acid, and others again in no known menſtruum, before any of this kind of medicines are uſed, the nature of the offending *calculi* ſhould be known: this diſcovery is eaſily made by an attention to the fragments, &c. that are caſt off, or to the contents of the urine.

Bleeding. During a fit, if the habit is plethoric and ſanguine, this evacuation both guards againſt and removes inflammation, and alſo tends to relax the rigid fibres. As to thoſe perſons who are ſubject to regular returns of the *gravel*, they ſhould loſe blood a little before the return is expected.

Diuretics. Theſe ſhould never be of the forcing kind; the emollient and oily are the moſt proper, and after them diluting ones, both by the mouth and by clyſters frequently repeated. In general, the more painful the fit, the gentler ſhould the diuretics be, and the leſs copiouſly given. The aged and weak ſhould be allowed the uſe of cordials with their diuretic medicines. A very free uſe of diuretics injure the kidneys; however, when the pain and ſpaſms are very violent, and yet there is hope that the *ſtone* will paſs the urinary ducts, gentle diuretics, mixed with mild anodynes, do moſt ſervice; for the latter relax the parts and eaſe the pain; and the former then more eaſily and ſafely propel the *ſtone*. When gravelly matter hath been ſeen to be diſcharged with the urine, and to ſubſide preſently after it is made, light ſteel waters, either of the purging or of the diuretic kind, very ſafely and effectually expel it, and ſtrengthen the kidneys; the water ſhould be continued ſome weeks, and repeated at proper intervals. But if a *ſtone* in the kidneys is ſo large, that there is no hope of its paſſing through the ureters, the ſteel waters ſhould not be uſed.

Purges. Of all the purging medicines, the oleum ricini is to be preferred in *calculous* diſorders; whether a

ſtone, or other cauſe of inflammation, produce gravelly ſymptoms, after bleeding, emollient and lubricating medicines will be neceſſary. To theſe ends, and to relax the paſſage for the calculus to paſs from the kidnies to the bladder, this oil conduces in a particular manner, even beyond any other known medicine: it ſhould be given both by the mouth and clyſter-wiſe. In want of this oil, manna with nitre, or ſal cath. amar. mixed with the oil of almonds, muſt be uſed; for they both empty the inteſtines, and take off all preſſure upon the ureters, they alſo moderate the heat of the body, and leſſen the inflammation; thus they relax the ſpaſm too, which the pain occaſions. If the ol. ricini is taken in the fit, ſo as to keep the belly lax, and the lixiv. ſapon. is taken at proper intervals, mixed in any ſuitable vehicle, their efficacy in calculous diſorders will equal that of the moſt boaſted noſtrums uſed in theſe caſes. In ſlighter caſes, where gravel is to be carried off, give a mixture of ſoap four parts, and rhubarb one part, twice a day, in doſes ſufficient for keeping the bowels eaſy.

Clyſters. Their uſe is ſingularly beneficial. The colon forms a kind of arch over both the kidnies, is ſometimes joined to the left, and conſequently, if a warm emollient decoction to be thrown up into it, it may, by its heat and moiſt vapour, relax and ſoften the kidney like a fomentation. Hence we ſee why wind in the firſt paſſages, and much hard dry excrement, uſually occaſion ſuch grievous diſorders, as to bring on a freſh fit; alſo why the left kidney is more ſubject to complaints than the right. The ol. ricini is peculiarly uſeful in emollient clyſters; and turpentine diſſolved with the yolk of an egg ſhould be a part of their compoſition: or ℞ Decoct. com. pro clyſt. ℔ ſs. balſ. cap. vitel. ovi admixt. ʒ ii. ol. ricini ℥ ii. m. f. enema. To this clyſter thirty drops of the thebaic tincture may be added, when the pain is great.

Opiates. When the vomiting abates, the ſtomach and bowels are freed from their foul contents, and the belly is rendered ſoluble; then, and not before, it is proper to give opiates, which, by eaſing the pain, and relaxing the ſpaſmodic tenſion of the fibres, moſt effectually open a paſſage. As to their repetition, it can only be determined by the attending phyſician. When the pain is of very long continuance, and attended with great proſtration of ſtrength, eſpecially if theſe occur in advanced age, and with a weak ſtate of the pulſe, Hoffman forbids the uſe of opiates, as of a poiſon; and ſays that in ſuch caſes, gentle cordial waters, as thoſe of mint, balm, and cinnamon, with the addition of a few grains of ſaffron, and the moderate uſe of wine, are the beſt means for ſupporting nature. Yet, if the loſs of ſtrength is cauſed by the violence of the pain alone, opiates will be neceſſary.

Lime-water. It ſeems to be uſeful by depriving the calculus of its oily particles, and volatilizing the ſalts, and ſo deſtroying the cement of its parts.

The ſemicupium is a neceſſary aſſiſtant when the pain is violent, for it powerfully relieves the ſtricture of the part. After ſitting a ſufficient time in it, let the patient take from gr. ten to twenty of the ſoap pill, and go to bed.

Vomiting is ſometimes a troubleſome ſymptom, but if not very ſevere, it is rather uſeful, ſo not to be ſuddenly checked. Whilſt moderate, it rather prevents the coheſion of the gravel, and promotes its expulſion. When it is neceſſary to remedy this complaint, let the patient drink freely of ſome warm aqueous liquor to free the ſtomach from its contents: and if need be, give the ſaline draught in the act of fermentation, and in a few minutes after it give the following: ℞ Balſ. truamat. gr. xxx. tinct. thebaic. gr. xx. aq. menth. ℥ i. m,

If a ſtone ſticks in the kidney, or the ureter, medicines are unſafe that expel, by their ſtimulating effects, and a plentiful uſe of diluents are thrown up without producing any advantage to the patient; but when the anodynes, oily medicines, &c. have conſiderably abated the ſpaſms, when the pulſe is grown calm and ſoft, and the whole body is of a moiſt and equable heat, then the expulſion of the ſtone or gravel may be attempted, by giving very gentle expellents now and then.

Bloody urine is ſometimes a ſymptom attending the gravel, in which caſe a doſe of manna may be taken as a purge, in a quart of milk whey; this may be taken at ſeveral draughts. To quicken its operation, and render it eaſier in the ſtomach, a ſlice of lemon may now and then be ſucked. This may be repeated twice in a week, for it both eaſes the pain, and moderates the diſcharge of blood. After its operation, let a doſe of opium be taken at bedtime. If the bloody urine is from the bladder, and is attended with ſpaſms there, or an ulcer, warm external applications are uſeful, ſuch as bladders of warm water laid juſt above the pubes.

Spaſms in the bladder are often very troubleſome. Whilſt they are actually preſent, and are attended with pain and difficulty of urine, emollient oily clyſters, baths, and half-baths ſhould be uſed, and internally give almond emulſions, with nitre, caſtor, ſaffron, and Hoffman's mineral anodyne liquor. If a tranſlation of rheumatic matter cauſed the ſpaſms, iſſues may be uſed, and perſpirative anti-rheumatics.

When calculous complaints attend during pregnancy, if the pain is violent, bleed moderately, give oily medicines by the mouth, and clyſters, ſuch as are directed above, may he repeated as oft as the ſtate of the caſe may ſeem to require; and if theſe fail, give opiates ſo as to procure reſt. If a ſtone is perceived in the bladder, it ſhould be extracted before pregnancy; but if the woman is already pregnant, wait until her delivery, for fear of inflammation. During the time of labour, the ſtone ſhould be puſhed and kept up above the child's head, if poſſible; if this cannot be done, the aſſiſtant muſt paſs up his hand as ſoon as the os internum is ſufficiently dilated, and, breaking the membranes, turn the child, and bring it away footling, then there will be room for the ſtone to be raiſed by the catheter, to prevent the child's head from preſſing it againſt the urethra, which would give the woman great pain, and perhaps lacerate the parts.

As a preventive of the *gravel*, &c. Dr. Hales propoſes for the patients, at all times, to lie with the head and upper parts of the body conſiderably higher than the lower: for thus the urine is not detained ſo long in the kidnies as to allow its tartarous parts to attack each other.

The uva urſi in powder, and given from ℈ i. to ʒ ſs. twice a day with the common emulſion, in which ſhould be double the quantity of gum arabic, is often productive of every deſirable advantage. An infuſion of the ſeeds of wild carrot is deemed almoſt a ſpecific. Acids are as powerful ſolvents of ſome calculous concretions, as the cauſtic lixivium is of others, and of this kind the ſp. ſal. marin. Glaub. may be preferred.

See Boerhaave, who ſpeaks well on this ſubject, and Aretæus is alſo admirable on it; Alexander Trallian and Lommius deſerve to be conſulted; Hoffman hath many excellent remarks on this diſeaſe in his Med. Rat. Syſt. Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham's works, p. 536—539, and note 164 at the end. Lobb on the *Stone* and Gout. Medical Muſeum, vol. i. & iii.

A ſtone is ſometimes forced from the bladder into the urethra, and ſometimes it is generated in this paſſage. Dr. Boerhaave obſerves, that if recent urine be placed in a heat no greater than that of a healthy man, it ſoon throws off a ſtony matter to the ſides of the veſſels; whence we learn, that calculous matter, by too long a detention of this fluid in the bladder, may both ſoon and eaſily be formed; and a little of it may in its paſſage with the urine be ſo entangled in the urethra as not eaſily to be extricated, and ſo become the baſis of a larger ſtone, which time produces. Mr. Warner obſerves, that the urethra, in caſes of this kind, becomes a cyſt, which cyſt acquires a great degree of hardneſs, remaining compact and whole till an inflammation is produced by its incapacity of admitting any farther diſtenſion: this inflammation is ſoon after communicated to the teguments, by which means they become painfully tender, and are eaſily lacerated.

If a ſtone is obſtructed in its paſſage through the urethra, and the urine requires to be drawn off, though this is difficultly effected, yet if poſſible it muſt be done; after which, a little warm oil ſhould be injected up the urethra, and repeated every hour; then bleed the patient, give him an emollient clyſter; after its operation an anodyne draught will be proper, plenty of the common emulſion ſhould be drank, and the patient being placed in a warm bath preſently after the clyſter is adminiſtered, and the oil injected, often facilitates the exit of the ſtone.

If the ſtone ſticks in the neck of the bladder, and requires an operation for its extraction, introduce two fingers into the anus, to detain the ſtone until the inciſion

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is made through the perinæum upon it. After the operation, as well as for ſome days before, Heiſter adviſes the patient to drink as ſparingly as poſſible, that the wound may not be hurt by the urine; to guard againſt which, a canula may be introduced beyond the wound, and kept in the urethra until it is healed. In whatever part the ſtone is lodged, make the inciſion in the courſe of the urethra, and cut ſo upon the ſtone as that the wound in the ſkin may be parallel to that in the urethra. When the ſtone is extracted, cloſe the wound, and keep its lips together, by firſt laying on it a pledget of lint, ſpread with ſome digeſtive ointment, then ſecured with ſlips of plaſter, as directed for the dry ſuture. See Heiſter's Surgery, Warner's Caſes in Surgery, Gooch's Treatiſe on Wounds, and the Med. Muſ. vol. i. & ii.

The *ſtone* in the gall-bladder is not of the nature of calculous concretions above noticed, being only the bile thickened into hardiſh lumps. Theſe ſtones are found for the moſt part in the gall-bladder, though they are often met with alſo in the duct. com. choled.

The gall-ſtones often lay quiet in the gall-bladder, and until diſſection after death, were never known to exiſt; but when they are obſtructed in their paſſage through the gall-ducts, they generally obſtruct the paſſage of the gall into the inteſtines, and produce alſo many other afflictive ſymptoms.

The diagnoſtics of this diſorder are ſometimes very obſcure, and in ſhort very uncertain; for other cauſes produce the ſame kind of ſymptoms, as thoſe which attend in this diſeaſe. Of this ſee an inſtance in Mr. White's Treatiſe on the Diſorders of the Bile: however, the uſual ſymptoms are a loſs of appetite, a ſenſe of fulneſs in the ſtomach, ſickneſs, vomiting, languor, inactivity, ſleepleſſneſs, and, if the obſtruction continues a few days, a waſting of the fleſh; a yellowneſs of the eyes, ſkin, and urine; whitiſh ſtools; a pain in the pit of the ſtomach, and the pulſe in its natural ſtate. The pain excited by obſtructions of the gall-ducts, from the gall-ſtones paſſing through them, does not affect the pulſe, which is a pathognomonic ſymptom. This pain, which in ſome is extremely acute, in others is a ſlight uneaſineſs, is felt about the region of the liver, and its particular ſeat is in the gall-duct, juſt where it enters the duodenum. In ſome patients the yellowneſs does not appear, in others it is attendant for ſeveral months. There is no diſeaſe more painful than this in ſome inſtances; it is as frequent as any diſorder of the liver; it receives much relief from art, and is not dangerous.

In the cure, pain is the firſt object of attention, and when it is conſiderable, opium is the only reſource; a doſe may be taken as ſoon as the patient perceives its approach, and repeated every hour or two until a remiſſion is procured. The vomiting, which generally attends, is nature's effort to diſlodge the gall-ſtones; and, whether it is preſent, or abſent, as ſoon as the pain begins to abate, let an emetic be adminiſtered, and repeated if required; and after its operation let an opiate be given. Purging medicines may alſo contribute to the ſame ends as vomits; and of theſe, ſuch as act with the moſt eaſe, and may be continued with the greateſt ſafety, ſuch as the ſea water, the waters of purging ſprings, neutral ſalts, &c. Theſe may be repeated every other day for ſeveral months without palling the appetite, or leſſening the ſtrength. A little rhubarb may alſo be taken now and then.

The juice of graſs in the ſpring is a powerful ſolvent. Mr. White ſays, that he hath given alcohol ſaturated with the ol. tereb. æther. and advantageous effects have been ſoon manifeſted.

See Dr. Coe on bilious Diſeaſes. Gooch's Caſes and Remarks, p. 163—169. Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 123, &c. Mr. White's Treatiſe on the Diſeaſes of the Bile. Lewis's Tranſlation of Hoffman's Practice of Medicine.

CALDAR. Tin.

CALDARIUM. A veſſel in the baths of the ancients to hold hot water. It is alſo the ſame as Laconicum.

CALDERIÆ ITALICÆ. Hot baths near Ferrara, in Italy. Uſeful in difficulty of urine.

CALDUS, for calidus, is frequently uſed by Scribonius Largus.

CALEFACIENTIA. Warming medicines. See VITAL HEAT. *Calefacient* is ſynonymous with ſtimulant.

CALEFACIO. See CALCINATIO.

CALENDULA. Garden marigold, called alſo caltha; calendula ſativa, chryſanthemum, ſponſa ſolis, ſolſequia, and ſingle *marigold*.

Of the many ſorts of marigold, this is the only one that is generally received in medicine. It is ſo common in our gardens, that a particular deſcription is needleſs. It is annual, propagates itſelf by ſeeds, and flowers from May to the end of Autumn.

The leaves have more virtue than the flowers, their expreſſed juice contains moſt of their pungent matter; it is aperient, and promotes the ſecretions in general. The flowers are a light cordial.

CALENDULA ARVENSIS. Wild Marigold. Alſo called caltha arvenſis, calendula minima, & caltha minima. The leaves are ſtinking and bitter, and if burnt in the candle they crackle like nitre.

Some prefer it to the garden ſort. Its juice is given from one to four ounces in the jaundice and cachexia; and the leaves are commended as a ſallad for children that have ſcrophulous tumours.

CALENDULA PALUSTRIS. Common ſingle marſh *marigold*. Alſo called populago, caltha paluſtris, pſeudo helleborus, ranunculoides pratenſis, &c.

It grows in marſhes, and is very acrid. It it ſo cauſtic that cattle avoid it, for it excites an inflammation if they chance to ſwallow it.

CALENDULA ALPINA. German leopard's bane.

CALENTURE. It is a violent ardent fever, in which a delirium comes on both early and ſuddenly. It happens to ſeamen when ſailing into very hot countries. Dr. Oliver gives the hiſtory of a caſe, in the Philoſ. Tranſ. Abr. vol. iv. in which he obſerves, that when the delirium came on, the patient imagined that he was in green fields; that after a free bleeding he ſlept, and waked without any other complaint than weakneſs from the loſs of blood, and ſoreneſs from ſtruggling during his delirium. He farther adds, that this fever attacks in the night, whence the patient, under the notion of green fields, runs into the ſea before any one is aware, ſo that few of theſe caſes occur to their obſervation. Dr. Shaw adviſes, that the patients indulge in reſt, alſo to bleed freely, give plenty of barley water; an emetic a few hours after bleeding, and then bliſter.

CALESIAM. A tall tree, which bears cluſters of berries like grapes or currants. Theſe berries contain a flat ſtone with a kernel in it. It grows in Malabar. Of the wood is made ſheaths for knives and ſwords. The bark made into an ointment with butter, cures convulſions from wounds, and heals ulcers. The juice of the bark cures the aphthæ, and, taken inwardly, cures the dyſentery. Raii Hiſt.

CALI, i. e. Kali, or pot-aſh.

CALICHAPA. The true white thorn.

CALIDARIUM. That part of the hot bath which the Greeks called hypocauſtum.

CALIDRIS BELIONII. The French call it chevalier. It is a water-fowl, of the bigneſs of a pigeon; its legs are long, and becauſe its body is high mounted, and its motion is ſwift, it is called chevalier. It is met with in meadows where there are pools and rivulets. There are ſeveral ſpecies, and their fleſh is a nouriſhing food.

CALIDUM INNATUM. The animal heat, or vital heat. See VIS VITÆ.

The particles of air are but little attractive of one another; fire is the power that keeps them in their conſtantly moving ſtate, or is the ſpring of their action, or of the elaſtic principle that is found in air.

Fire is repelled by ſulphureous fumes, or all mineral gaſſes, the vapour that aſcends from putrifying animal ſubſtances, and many other natural and artificial ſubjects. The air is rarified by *heat*, and condenſed by cold. Humid vapours cool the air, becauſe water is a conductor of fire or heat.

Some ſubſtances attract and retain a larger portion of *heat* than many other natural bodies; and in the human body, the red globules in the blood attract and retain *heat* in the largeſt proportion of any other part, as is evident from the *heat* and diſorders that attend the rigid fibre, which is always proportioned to the quantity of red blood. Experiments made with the different parts of the blood, after its being taken from the body, contribute much to the proof of this aſſertion.

The immediate cauſe of *animal heat*, is the craſſamentum of the blood, attracting and retaining the fire which is diſperſed through the earth.

The nerves are the conductors of the fire attracted from the earth, through the whole human frame, as the various operations in the animal œconomy, and actions that depend on our wills require.

Every fibre in the human body is elaſtic, and covered with the cellular membrane, which is formed of the continuations of the nerves or their coats. Thus

From the red blood attracting and retaining, and the nerves conveying, *animal heat* is excited and preſerved.

All our fluids are vehicles and conductors of fire.

Concomitant with the exceſs or defect of red blood, is the exceſs or defect of *animal heat*. The exceſs of red blood is attended with the rigid fibre, and its conſequents. The defect of red blood is attended with the lax fibre, and its conſequents. Life, health, diſeaſe, and death, depend on the fire received by our blood from the earth, and our firſt regard in our curative conſiderations ſhould be thereto.

The common *heat* of the human body, in health, is about ninety-eight degrees of Faren. therm. but ſome conſtitutions are healthy at eighty-three; and this *heat* continues the ſame, whether the atmoſphere, or other ſurrounding bodies, exceed, or ſink, below ninety-eight, unleſs when a diſeaſe is produced thereby; the conſequence of which is, an increaſe or diminution of the *heat* of the body. The body reſiſts different degrees of external *heat* or cold, according to the habit it hath acquired. There are inſtances of its bearing twenty degrees below 0 of Faren. therm. with moderate clothing; and 144 above, without alteration.

The *heat* of the body rarely decreaſes lower than 94, nor riſes to more than 110 of Faren. therm.

See Dr. Mageniſe's Doctrine of Inflammations, p. 31—52. Dr. Berdoe's Enquiry, and his Remarks on Voltaire's Diſcoveries in Natural Hiſtory. Dr. Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic. Dr. Haller's Phyſiology, the Lecture on Muſcular Motion. Dr. Kirkland's Diſſertation on the Brain and Nerves. Drs. Crawford and Elliot on *Animal Heat*.

CALIETA, or Caliette. The young fungi on the juniper-tree.

CALIGO. A growing darkneſs of the eye, or dimneſs of ſight from a manifeſt cauſe; as in caſes of the cataract, &c. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſæſtheſia. He defines it to be, ſight diminiſhed, or wholly aboliſhed; from a dark barrier between the object and the retina, in the eye itſelf, or in the eye-lid. He alſo enumerates five ſpecies, viz. 1. *Caligo* lentis; this he denominates the cataract, and Sauvage calls it the true cataract; it is cauſed by an opake ſpot behind the pupil. See CATARACTA. 2. *Caligo* cornea, from an opacity of the cornea. 3. *Caligo* papillæ, from obſtruction in the pupil. 4. *Caligo* humorum, from a fault in the humours of the eye. 5. *Caligo* palpebrarum, from a diſorder in the eye-lids. See Cullen's NOSOLOGY, edit. 3.

CALIGO. An ulcer in the eye. See ENCAUMA.

CALIHACHA. The Malabar cinnamon, or caſſia lignea tree.

CALIN. It is a kind of metal that is met with in China, Cochin-china, Japan, Siam, &c. it reſembles lead and tin; finer than the firſt, and inferior to the latter. It is uſed in the Eaſt Indies for covering the roofs of houſes with. They make of it in China various utenſils, as coffee-pots, tea-boxes, &c.

CALIX, ſee CALYX, and PERIANTHIUM.

CALLÆON. The gills of a cock, which Galen ſays is a food neither to be praiſed nor condemned.

CALLAF. A ſhrubby tree reſembling a cherry-tree. The flowers appear before the leaves, they are yellow, of a fine ſmell, and from them an odoriferous water is drawn. See Proſper Albinus Rerum Ægypt. lib. iii. cap. xv.

CALLARIAS. A kind of ſea fiſh, which Aldrovandus takes for the whiting. Others differ from him, but they do not deſcribe it.

CALLECAMENON. Burnt copper.

CALLENA. A kind of ſalt petre.

CALLIA. A name in Dioſcorides for the anthemis.

CALLIBLEPHARON, from καλλος, *beauty*, and βλεφαρον, *an eye-lid*. Medicines appropriated to the eye-lids.

CALLICREAS, i. e. Pancreas.

CALLIETTE. See CALIETA.

CALLIGONUM, from καλλος, *beauty*, and γονυ, *a joint*, or *knot*, i. e. Polygonum.

CALLIOMARCUS. The Gauliſh name in Marcellus Empiricus for the herb colt's-foot.

CALLIONYMUS, from καλλος, *beauty*, and ονομα, *a name*. It is called alſo URANOSCOPUS, which ſee.

CALLIPHYLLUM, from καλλος, *beauty*, and φυλλον, *a leaf*, i. e. Trichomanes.

CALLITRICHUM, from καλλος *beauty*, and θριξ, *a hair*, i. e. Adianthum.

CALLOSITAS. Callofity, from *callus*. See CALLUS.

CALLOSUM CORPUS. A part of the brain is thus called. See CORPUS CALLOSUM.

CALLUS. It is a cutaneous, carneous, or oſſeous hardneſs, either natural, or preternatural. But generally it means the *callus* generated about the edges of a fracture. Sometimes it means a corn on the toes, or the hardneſs in the hands produced by labour; alſo the hard edges of ulcers.

CALLI, τοφοι. Galen uſes this word to expreſs the nodes in the gout.

CALLOSITA, & Callus, are in a ſpecial ſenſe ſpoken of the eye-lids, both by Galen and Scribonius Largus. For the *callus* in the hands, and on the ſoles of the feet, ſee CLAVUS.

Callus has a particular ſignification, in which it means the calloſum corpus of the brain. Paracelſus gives the name of *callus* to an abſceſs, or ulcer, cauſed by an acrid and arſenical nutritious juice, which excites a vehement itching.

The contraction of the wounded part is a common ſymptom in wounds; and the ſtronger the contractile force, the greater the retraction of the ſides of the wound from each other. The ſkin of the head is thick and ſtrong, and equally tenſe on all parts of the ſkull, and under it lays a cellular membrane. For theſe reaſons when the ſkin of the cranium is divided, the lips of the wounds are ſpeedily far retracted from each other, and for which reaſon wounds of the forehead generally leave large ſcars behind them.

As the growing veſſels in wounds of the ſoft parts are highly tender and pulpous, in conſequence of their not being covered with the ſkin, they may eaſily be too much diſtended, and degenerate into fungous fleſh. The ſame holds true in the *callus* of the bones, which may become luxuriant when the veſſels, which conſtitute the ſubſtance of the growing bone, are diſtended, either by a redundance, or too ſtrong impetus of the fluids.

Dr. Niſbet and Dr. Hunter imagine a *callus* of the bone is not formed by the inſpiſſation of any fluid, but from a regeneration (or as it were) granulation from the fibres of the bone.

CALMET. Antimony.

CALMUS. The ſtalk of any plant. See CAUDEX.

CALOCATANOS. A name of the wild poppy.

CALOCHIERNI; called alſo carduus Cretenſibus, atractylidi, & cnico ſylveſtris ſimpl.

It is a larger ſpecies of atractylis, common in Greece and Candy. The name atractylidi is from αξρακτος, *a ſpindle*, becauſe their ſtalks were uſed for ſpindles; and even yet, in Greece, and ſome parts of Turkey, they are uſed for ſpindles. Raii Hiſt.

CALOMEL. See CALOMELAS.

CALOMELANOS TURQUETI. So Riverius calls a certain purgative medicine which he often uſed. It is thus prepared:

℞ Merc. dulc. ℥j. gum. ſcammon. cum. ſulph. impregn. vel rez. jalap. ℥ſs. mucilag. e. gum. trag. q. ſ. f. pil. mediocr.

CALOMELAS, from καλος, *good*, and μελας, *black*. It is what we now call Ethiops mineral. But *calomelas*, or *calomelanos*, is in common acceptation, the merc. dulc. 6ties ſublim. which, if ground with volatile ſpirits, becomes black, and perhaps is the true *calomel*.

CALOMOCHANUS, or Calomochnus, i. e. Adarces.

CALONIA. Calonian myrrh. Hippocrates often preſcribes it.

CALTCACOTL. See YZTACTFX.
CALTHA, or Calthula. Marygold.
CALTROPS. See TRIBULUS.
CALUSA. Cryſtal.
CALVA. The cranium. Alſo the bird called a coot.
CALVARIA. The cranium.
CALVATA, i. e. Phalacra.
CALVITIES, Calvitium. Calvity or baldneſs, particularly on the ſinciput. Galen ſays that the cauſe of this is, a defect of humour.

CALX. This word is applied to whatever is ſubjected to calcination, or chemical corroſion. See CALCINATIO. It alſo comprehends many different ſtones, in this one character, that they burn to lime.

CALCARIUS LAPIS. Lime-ſtone; alſo called ſaxum calcarium. *Lime-ſtone* is a general name for all thoſe ſtones from which quick-lime is commonly prepared. They contain a portion of ſulphureous matter, and the marine acid; but though the limes prepared from different ſtones, anſwer many general purpoſes equally well, they differ greatly in their efficacy in many chemical and other kind of experiments.

All ſtones have for their baſis either cryſtal or ſpar; thoſe that have cryſtal run into glaſs by burning; but thoſe that have ſpar burn into lime. All ſea-ſhells, and any ſtone or earth that effervesces with an acid, will burn to lime. The harder the ſtone the ſtronger is the lime it produces. It may here be obſerved, that both earths and ſtones are termed earths by the chemiſt, but they are divided into two claſſes by the foſſiliſt; calcareous earths and ſtones are thus characterized, conſidered as the objects of foſſilogy. Calcareous earth is an earth which effervesces with acids. Calcareous ſtone is a ſtone effervescing with acids, burning into quick-lime, and not ſtriking fire with ſteel. See Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy. N. B. amongſt earths, the calcareous is a genus; amongſt ſtones the calcareous is an order.

When ſtones of the ſparry kind have been calcined by the fire, they are converted into quick-lime; and while they continue unpoſſeſſed of aqueous moiſture, they retain this character. When calcareous ſtone is either figured or tranſparent, it takes the name of ſpar.

Quick-lime diſſolves in the nitrous marine and vegetable acids, unites with the vitriolic acid into an indiſſoluble and inſipid concrete, produces heat on mixing it with water, and gives thereto a medicinal quality. If quick-lime is expoſed to the atmoſphere, it falls into a powder, and loſes all the diſtinguiſhing properties of quick-lime, except that it retains its acrimony longer in a moiſt than in a dry ſtate.

The ſtones from which quick-lime is produced, contain a large quantity of air, which in calcination is expelled: hence ſtrong quick-lime raiſes no effervescence, or emits no air bubbles during its diſſolution in either acids or alkalies.

Lime is diſtinguiſhed into calx viva, calx extincta, and calx lota. The firſt is lime in its fiery ſtate, as brought from the kiln; the ſecond is that which, having been long expoſed to the air, is fallen to powder; the laſt is that which hath been deprived of its ſalts by repeated affuſions of water.

Sir Torbern Bergman obſerves, that calcareous earth is commonly found ſaturated with aerial acid, which exhibits the appearance of effervescence, upon being driven from its baſis by a ſtronger acid. Calcareous earth, he ſays, is found diſſolved in moſt waters, by means of a redundant portion of the aerial acid. That by burning it loſes that acid, together with a proportion of water which it was combined with, and enters into a chemical combination with a certain quantity of the matter of heat, in which ſtate it is called quick-lime. Farther, that, its attraction for water being greater than for the matter of heat, is the reaſon, that when the quick-lime meets with the former, its lets go the latter; by which means a great quantity of ſenſible heat is produced, converting a part of the water which it hath abſorbed into vapours; which, if the calcareous earth were in the form of a ſtone, would break it down into a fine powder.

Quick-lime is employed for increaſing the activity of alcaline ſalts, for making the milder kind of cauſtics, and for deſtroying the hair on places where it is thought to be unſeemly; it diſſolves ſulphurs and vegetable reſins, and produces many effects ſimilar to thoſe of the fixed alcaline ſalt.

The London College directs the following waters, whoſe baſis is what they receive from quick-lime:

Aqua Calcis *Simplex. Simple* Lime-*Water.*

Take of quick-lime one pound; of water, one gallon and a half; pour the water on gradually, and after the ebullition is over, let the lime ſubſide, and the liquor be filtered through paper. The quantity of lime diſſoluble in water, is much greater than is generally ſuſpected. Dr. Alſton obſerves, that one third of the quick-lime is ſoluble in water; ſee his Diſſertation on Quick-lime. The above method of making lime-water, limits the quantity of water too much, for the lime requires ſeveral hundred times its weight of water to diſſolve it.

Aqua Calcis *minus Compoſita. The leſs compound* Lime-*Water.*

Take of liquorice, one ounce, of ſaſſafras bark, half an ounce; of ſimple lime-water, three quarts. Infuſe two days without heat, then ſtrain off the liquor.

Aqua Calcis *Magis Compoſita. The more compound* Lime-*Water.*

Take of the raſpings of lignum vitæ, half a pound; of liquorice, one ounce; of coriander-ſeed, three drams; of ſimple lime-water three quarts. Infuſe without heat, and ſtrain off the liquor for uſe.

The ſimple lime-water is a ſolution of the quick-lime in water, and receives no improvement from the ingredients added in the compound ſorts, for they precipitate much of the lime which the water ſuſpended. When the ſimple lime-water loſes its taſte, it loſes its virtues too. It hath a ſtrong ſtyptic taſte, which is followed by a ſweetiſh one; it changes the juices of blue flowers to a green; it precipitates metallic bodies that are diſſolved in acids; it tinges ſilver of a coppery hue; it turns red wine to a dark colour; and by thoſe properties its ſtrength may be eſtimated.

The ſpecific gravity of water is increaſed by the lime more than the weight of the calcareous matter taken up, on account, perhaps, of the water being deprived of its air.

If lime-water is cloſe kept, it may be preſerved many months; but in open veſſels, the calcareous matter ſoon ſeparates from the water, and concretes on the ſurface thereof.

Lime-water diſſolves thick phlegm, or mucous matter, and the curd of milk. The ſtone lime is beſt for building with, but that which is made of the ſhells of cockles or oyſters is to be preferred, when it is uſed in medicine as a ſolvent of calculous matter, &c. When the ſhell lime-water hath been drank to the quantity of three pints in a day for ſome weeks, it hath been uſeful in ſcrophulas, fluxes, and other complaints from an acrimonious ſalt. It promotes expectoration in thoſe who abound with phlegm. It generally induces a coſtiveneſs, but this is prevented by mixing a little milk in each draught. In cold phlegmatic conſtitutions it is peculiarly uſeful, but in hot bilious habits, and during either critical or periodical evacuations, it ſhould be foreborn. It ſtrengthens the appetite, and aſſiſts digeſtion; it is a good antiſeptic, and greatly helps the concoction of matter in abſceſſes, that do not ſuppurate kindly. It corrects acidity in the primæ viæ. In the diabetes and hectic fever, it is of ſingular efficacy, if drank when freſh made, and before the heat excited by mixing the lime with the water is vaniſhed.

The ſofter the water is, that is uſed for making lime-water with, the more effectual it is as a medicine, and the leſs diſagreeable to the palate. Diſtilled water is the beſt; and boiling water diſſolves the lime better than cold. It is better to pour the water gradually on the lime, for otherwiſe much of the calcareous matter is unaffected by it.

The aq. cal. mag. comp. hath been uſed under the name of aqua liberans. Bates calls it aqua Benedicta comp.

The properties, uſes, and medicinal virtues of lime, and its preparations, deſerve to be more extenſively known,

than the limits of this means of information will admit; but much ſatisfaction will be obtained by conſulting the Dictionary of Chemiſtry; Newmann's works; Experiments, &c. on Quick-lime, by Mr. Henry; Macbride's Eſſay on the diſſolving Power of Quick-lime; Percival's Eſſays, Med. and Exp. edit. 2. p. 328. Lewis's Mat. Med. and the Edingb. Eſſ. Phyſ. and Lit. vol. i. art. 13. and vol. ii. art. 8.

CALX PREPARATA, i. e. Calx lota. See CALX.

CALYCHIRICHIBOU CARAIB, i. e. Agnanthus.

CALYPTER, from *καλυπτω, to hide.* A carnous excreſcence covering the hæmorrhoidal vein.

CALYPTRA. In botany it is the thin involucrum, or cover of ſome ſeeds. Alſo a thin cup which covers the heaumes of ſome of the moſſes.

CALYX, or empalement. It is generally underſtood to mean the chives which ſupport the apices. See PERIANTHIUM.

CAM. An abbreviation of Joach. Camerarius de Plantis Epitome.

CAMANHAYA A capillary herb, which grows upon the higheſt trees, ſo as quite to cover them; it is of a grey colour, like a ſort of down, and is adorned, at certain diſtances, with ſix, five, three, two, or perhaps one leaf, like that of roſemary. It ſeems to be a dodder. Raii Hiſt. Index.

CAMARA. The fornix of the brain. Alſo the vaulted part of the auricle, leading to the external foramen.

CAMARA. A ſpecies of lychnis is thus named.

CAMARA, or Camara Tinga, i. e. Viburnum.

CAMARA-JAPO. It is a ſpecies of horſe-mint; it is bitter and aromatic. Raii Hiſt. Index.

CAMARA-MIRA. It is a ſlender plant, whoſe flower opens at all times of the year, about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and continues until two in the afternoon. It grows in Braſil. Raii Hiſt.

CAMARA-TINGA. A ſpecies of dwarf honey-ſuckle which is met with in Braſil. Raii Hiſt.

CAMARA CUBA BRASILIANIS. It is a herb which grows in Braſil; all its parts feel glutinous. Raii Hiſt.

CAMARAN-BAJA. A ſpecies of Lyſimachia.

CAMARIN-BAS; alſo called umari. It bears a ſmall greeniſh fruit inclined to yellow, it is the ſize of a plum; to the taſte it reſembles a peach; and grows in the fields about Rio Grande. Raii Hiſt.

CAMARIUM, i. e. Camara.

CAMAROMA, i. e. Camaroſis.

CAMAROSIS, from *καμαρα, a tortoiſe.* Alſo an arched roof. A fracture of the ſkull, which appears like an arch of a vault.

CAMARU BRASILIENSIBUS. A ſpecies of ſolanum.

CAMARUM. A ſpecies of ſhrimp of the crab kind; alſo the herb aconite: and, according to ſome, it is hemlock.

CAMBOGIUM. The Indian yellow orange of Malabar, from whence the gamboge.

CAMBRO BRITANNICA. Cloud berries.

CAMBUCA, or Cambuca membrata. A bubo, an ulcer, or abſceſs on the pudenda; alſo a boil in the groin.

CAMBUI. The wild American myrtle of Piſo and Marcgrave. There are two ſpecies. Their fruit, flowers, and leaves, are fragrant and aſtringent. One ſpecies is low and buſhy, the other very tall. Ray ſays there is a third ſpecies which is white, but it is very rare.

CAMEHNIA. The onyx ſtone.

CAMEL. See CAMELUS.

CAMEL. SYLLAB. An abbreviation of G. J. Camellus ſtirpium Inſulæ Luzonis, &c. Syllabus.

CAMELINA. A ſpecies of turritis.

CAMELINA, Cameline, i. e. Eryſimum.

CAMELOPARDALIS. A beaſt ſo called becauſe it is ſhaped like a camel, and ſpotted like a leopard. It is a ſort of camel, with two ſhort horns, and a hard knob on its forehead. It is found in Ethiopia, and other parts of Africa.

CAMELOPARDALUS, i. e. Camelopardalis.

CAMELUS. The camel or dromedary; alſo called *camelus* capſinus, and *camelus* dromos.

It is found in Aſia and Africa. Some ſay that the *camel* hath but one lump on its back, and the dromedary two; others ſay that the dromedary hath but one, and the *camel* two; but the moſt probable account is, that of the *camel* having but one.

CAMERA FLORE ALBO BRASILIENSIS. It is a ſpecies of lychnis.

CAMERATIO, i. e. Camaroſis.

CAMES, or Camet. Silver.

CAMINGA, i. e. Canella alba.

CAMINUS. It ſignifieth the furnace and its chimney. In Rulandus it ſignifies a bell.

CAMIRI INDIS. CLUS. The fruit reſembles a walnut when ſtripped of its outer green ſhell; its ſhell is thick, containing a white kernel like an almond. Raii Hiſt.

CAMISIA FŒTUS. The ſhirt of the *fœtus.* It is put for the CHORION, which ſee.

CAMMARUM, i. e. Camarum.

CAMMARUS, and Cammarus Aſtracus. The crawfiſh.

CAMMORON. A ſpecies of aconite.

CAMMORUM, i. e. Camarum.

CAMOTES INDICA. Potatoes.

CAMOMILLA. A corrupt word for chamæmelum.

CAMPANA. A bell. In chemiſtry it is a receptacle for the gas of ſulphur, where it is concentrated, and collected together into a thin aqueous matter, in order for the preparation of the acid ſpirit of ſulphur.

CAMPANIFORM FLOWERS. Such flowers as in ſhape reſemble a bell.

CAMPANULA. The bell-flower. See CERVICARIA.

CAMPANULA BRASILIANA. See CAAPOMONGA.

CAMPANULA EXOTICA. The Portugal bind-weed with blue flowers. Its ſtalk is not ſcandent.

CAMPANULA FLORE PURPUREO. Canterbury bells. See VIOLA.

CAMPANULA INDICA. It is a ſpecies of convolvulus with a ſcandent ſtalk.

CAMPANULA MINOR. A ſpecies of rapuntium.

CAMPE, from *καμπτω, to bend.* A flexure or bending. It is alſo uſed for the ham, becauſe it is the part uſually bended: alſo a joint, or an articulation.

CAMPECHENSE LIGNUM. Logwood; alſo called *lignum* Campeſcanum, *lignum* [illegible]an, tſiam pangam, *lignum* Campechianum, *lignum* Indicum montanum, *lignum* tinctile Campech. Campeachy wood, Braſiletto, and Jamaica wood. It is the hæmatoxylon Campechianum, Linn.

It is the *wood* of a prickly pod-bearing tree, a native of Campeachy iſland. It is brought into Europe in large compact logs of a red colour. Its fruit reſembles cloves in their quality.

This *wood* is chiefly brought for the uſe of dyers, but it is alſo found to be a very uſeful medicine in a dyſentery; it powerfully reſtrains this kind of flux, yet it does not contract the fibres, as is the caſe with aſtringents; it obtunds acrimony, and hath more of a balſamic taſte than of an aſtringent one. It ſtrengthens the bowels, and indeed the general habit. It is an agreeable medicine for its being free from any thing diſguſtful to the taſte, and almoſt void of ſmell.

The London College directs an extract from this *wood*, as follows:

Extractum Ligni Campechenſis. *The Extract of* Logwood.

Take of *logwood*, in fine powder, one pound; boil it four times, or oftener, in a gallon, to half; then boil all the liquors, mixed together and ſtrained, to a juſt conſiſtence.

Rectified ſpirit of wine takes up more from this *wood* than water does; therefore it is better to digeſt its powder in as much ſpirit as will cover it three or four fingers breadth above its ſurface, then boil the reſiduum in water as directed above; after which, the watery menſtrua are firſt evaporated to the conſiſtence of honey, then the ſpirituous one is mixed therewith, and the whole reduced to a proper conſiſtence.

The Decoction of Logwood.

Boil three ounces of powdered *logwood* in four pints of water to two, at the end of which add two drams of cinnamon, boil them together a few minutes, and when cool ſtrain off the liquor for uſe.

This extract and decoction are either of them agreeable, mild, and safe, when stronger astringents are not so; and this advantage attends the *logwood* (which cannot be said of astringents) it may be used with equal safety, whether a fever attends or not. These preparations make the stools and urine appear like blood. The extract may be taken in doses from gr. x. to ʒ ss. the decoction to three or four ounces, three or four times a day.

When flatulencies attend in diarrhœas and dysenteries, a few grains of the cortex clutheria is a proper addition to each dose of the above extract or decoction. See Lewis's Mat. Med. and Newmann's Chemical Works.

CAMPECHIANUM LIGNUM, or CAMPESCANUM LIGNUM, } i. e. Campechense lignum.

CAMPHORA. Camphor; called also caphura and camphire. It is a solid concrete, chiefly obtained from the woody part of some trees, which are met with in the island of Borneo, in the East Indies, and in Japan; it is only from the latter that it is brought into Europe. *Camphor* is obtained chiefly from the laurus *camphora*, or the laurus fol. triplinervis lanceolato-ovatis nitidis, petiolis laxis, floribus parvis albis of Linn. The *camphor* tree. In smaller quantities it is obtained from some cinnamon trees, and in very small quantities from several other vegetables. That in Japan is extracted from a large tree of the bay kind, called lauro camphorifera, and by Linnæus, laurus foliis trinervis lanceolato-ovatis; nervis supra basin unitis.

As first sublimed or distilled from the wood, it is of a brownish colour, and composed of semi-pellucid grains, mixed with some impure matter; in this state it is imported by the Dutch, and purified by a second sublimation, &c. but after a manner only known to themselves, except the Venetians, who formerly were the only refiners of it: the last process in the management is so contrived, that the head of the subliming glass is kept warm enough to make the *camphor* run together into a mass of its own figure, in which form it is brought into the shops. Dr. Lewis says, that it may be purified in sp. vin. R. by solution, and recovered from the spirit by distillation, the spirit all rising before the *camphor*; and after this it may be formed into loaves by fusion, with a gentle heat in a close vessel.

The ancient Greeks do not mention *camphor*; it was first used in medicine by the Arabians.

Camphor is a vegetable concrete, unctuous to the touch, with a fragrant smell somewhat like that of rosemary, and a bitter aromatic pungent taste, accompanied with a sense of coolness on the tongue; it is volatile like essential oils, but without their acrimony, it also differs both from them and from the sebaceous oils, in suffering no sensible alteration from long keeping, in being totally exhaleable in a warm air, without any change or separation of its parts, and subliming unaltered in the heat of boiling water, &c. it burns in water, it receives no empyreumatic impressions, nor does it suffer any resolution from any degree of fire, to which it can be exposed in close vessels, though readily combustible in the open air. It dissolves in concentrated mineral acids, rectified spirit of wine, oils, &c. but not in water, in vegetable acids, nor alcaline liquors. It melts into an oily appearance, with a less degree of heat than that of boiling water; laid on a red-hot iron it totally evaporates in a bright white flame and copious fumes, which condensing form a soot.

Camphor is known to be good, if when it is put upon hot bread, it turns moist; if it becomes dry it is bad: it should be kept close in a bottle or a bladder, not to prevent it from losing its quality, but to preserve the whole of it from exhaling away.

An imprudent dose of *camphor* produces coldness of the extremities, vertigo, a small weak pulse, drowsiness, uneasiness about the precordia, &c. but these effects are relieved by an emetic, followed with small doses of vinegar, or other vegetable acids.

As to the virtues it is not easy to say whether it heats or cools; Hoffman hath observed and commended its sedative quality more than any other writer; inwardly used it hath a narcotic effect, and remarkably diminishes the irritability of the system; it lessens irritability by an external use of it also, particularly the spasmodic kind; and in the inflammatory sort, a moderate use of it is advantageous; it is a powerful diaphoretic and antiseptic; it is so subtil and penetrating, that it almost instantly diffuses itself through the whole body in a sensible manner. In acute diseases of the ardent kind, Hoffman commends from one-fourth to two grs. of *camphor*, to be given at a dose with nitre, and repeated at proper intervals: he farther adds, that it should be used with caution in the increase, and is best administered at or about the crisis; but though he does well in joining it with nitre, later experiences manifest an earlier use of it to be most advantageous. See Dr. Lyson's Essay on *Camphor* and Calomel. When *camphor* is used freely, diluting liquors should be proportionably drank. In putrid fevers it may be joined with dulcified acid spirits. It is the best nervous opiate that we have, and in malignant fevers it procures rest better than opium itself; but should be cautiously given when the fever runs high, and the patient's stomach is very weak. In chronical diseases, from a redundance of serum, a faulty quality of the humours, as an assistant to mercurial alteratives, &c. it may be more freely used.

In some cases opium is joined, which prevents the uneasiness occasionally produced by the *camphor*, and when thus combined, it passes off more powerfully by sweat. In maniac disorders, *camphor* hath been given to advantage, in doses of half a dram, night and morning. Joined with mercury it determines it through the skin, and prevents the bowels from being too much affected thereby. In suppressions of the lochia it is singularly useful; in hypochondriac and hysteric flatulencies, and in many cases where the tone of the stomach and intestines are injured. Though *camphor*, by its antispasmodic efficacy, in some instances removes a strangury, it will produce this disorder if given in an increased dose: but much larger doses of *camphor* may be given when nitre is joined with it, than can be alone; with any dose of *camphor* half its quantity of nitre may be added, and thus a scruple may be given three times a day. Generally the best form for administering *camphor*, is that of an emulsion; it may be mixed with water by means of sugar or almonds, but most perfectly with a mucilage of gum arabic.

Emulsio Camphorata. *The* camphorated *Emulsion.*

Add a dram of *camphor* to a pint of the almond emulsion: to mix the *camphor*, it will be necessary to use an additional quantity of the mucilage of gum arabic. A large spoonful, or more, may be given every two hours. Nitre, or acids, may be added, as the occasion may require.

The London College directs the following preparation, called

Julepum e Camphorâ. *The* camphorated *Julep.*

Take of *camphor* one dram, of double refined sugar half an ounce, of boiling water a pint. First grind the *camphor* with a little rectified spirit of wine, till it is softened, then with the sugar till they are perfectly united; lastly, add the water by degrees, and when the mixture has stood in a covered vessel till it is cold, strain it off. This is better made by mixing the *camphor* with double its quantity of gum arabic, for thus it is less apt to vellicate the stomach, and cause anxiety; a large spoonful contains about two grains of *camphor*, by this method vinegar may be added instead of water; vinegar renders the *camphor* more easy on the stomach, and improves its antiseptic power.

The emulsion, or the julep of *camphor*, are excellent in low and putrid disorders, being, in these cases, the lightest and best of cordials, especially for women or feeble men, with spasmodic symptoms.

The London College also orders the following for external uses:

Spiritus Vinosus Camphoratus. Camphorated *Spirit of Wine.*

Take of *camphor* two ounces, of rectified spirit of wine a quart. This is often successful in removing pains, inflammations, numbness, palsy, &c. by rubbing the part affected with it. An ounce of *camphor* will dissolve in less than an ounce and a half of spirit, and in these solutions it does not exhale, for the spirit must all be evaporated before the *camphor* will depart.

The Spiritus Camphoræ *Tartarizatus is thus made.*

Mix equal parts of *camphor* and salt of tartar, in a proper quantity of proof spirit, and draw off one half. But this

this preparation does not poſſeſs any advantages above the ſp. vinoſ. camph.

The College of London adds ʒ j. of camphor to ℔ j. of the white ointment, and then it is called ungt. alb. *camphorat.* Thus the white ointment, which is cooling and emollient, is rendered alſo diſcutient, and is eſteemed as uſeful againſt cutaneous heats, tetterous or ſerpiginous eruptions.

Different preparations are called oils of *camphor*, ſeveral of which may be ſeen in Newmann's Chemical Works, and other writers, but they do not appear to poſſeſs any peculiar advantages above the crude *camphor.*

A mixture of olive oil, two parts with one of camphor, is called oleum *camphoratum*; and is of uſe in inflammatory ſwellings of the throat, if mixed with a proper cataplaſm and applied thereto.

See Neuman's Chemical Works, Lewis's Mat. Med. Alexander's Exper. Eſſays, Rieger and Hoffman on *Camphor.*

CAMPHORA RUDIS. It is *camphor* juſt as it is extracted from the roots of the camphor-tree.

CAMPHORÆ (ELIX. HARTMANNI), i. e. Spt. Vin. Camph cum pauculo croc. Ang.

CAMPHORÆ FLORES. The ſubtil ſubſtance is thus called which firſt aſcends in the ſubliming of *camphor.*

CAMPHORÆ FLORES COMP. The compound flowers of *camphor.*

Sublime eight parts of *camphor* with one of the flowers of Benjamin.

CAMPHORATA. Stinking ground-pine, called alſo chamæpeuce, and camphorata hirſuta. It is a low plant, a native of the warmer parts of Europe: it ſmells like camphor, but hath ſomething diſagreeable beſide. It is much eſteemed in fomentations againſt pain. It is warming and commended in gouty complaints. Miller's Bot. Off.

CAMPHORATA AFRICANA UMBELLATA FRUTESCENS. A ſpecies of ſantolina.

CAMPHORATA ELABORATA. The unpurified camphor.

CAMPHORASMA. The balm of Gilead.

CAMPSIN. The Egyptian name for the ſouth wind.

CAMPULUM, from καμπτω, *to twiſt about.* A diſtortion of the eyelids.

CANABIL. A ſort of medicinal earth. See ERETRIA.

CANADELLA, i. e. Channa.

CANADENSE BALSAMUM. See CAPIVI BALSAM.

CANALICULUS ARTERIOSUS. A blood veſſel between the pulmonary artery and the aorta, in a fœtus, which is obliterated in the adult. It conveys the blood, which in a fœtus hath no paſſage through the lungs from the pulmonary artery to the aorta. See ARTERIOSUS DUCTUS.

CANAIS. A canal. It is alſo a round hollow inſtrument for embracing and holding a broken limb. Hippocrates ſpeaks of its uſe, and Scultetus repreſents different ſorts of them in his Armamentarium, part. i. tab. 23.

According to Gorræus, canalis ſignifies the hollow in the ſpine where the medulla oblongata deſcends.

CANALIS ARTERIOSUS, i. e. Canaliculus arterioſus.

CANALES SEMICIRCULARES. The ſemicircular canals.

They are three in number, one ſuperior and perpendicular, one poſterior and perpendicular, and one horizontal; their ſize is nearly the ſame, but generally the ſuperior perpendicular is the greateſt. They begin in the veſtibulum, wind round the bone, and terminate in the veſtibulum again; each at their origin have a ſeparate orifice, but the two perpendicular meet and return into the veſtibulum by one common orifice. That theſe ducts contribute to hearing, appear from their being found in birds and fiſhes, though the cochlea is not found in either.

CANALIS SEMIS. PETROS. The bony half canal. See TYMPANUM.

CANALIS VENOSUS. The vein of the funis umbilicalis proceeds from the placenta to the navel of the child, and thence to the vena porta, with which it communicates by its main trunk, where there is a canal, which goes to the vena cava hepatica, that is called thus, and alſo ductus venoſus; it runs between the lobulus Spigelii and the left or ſmall lobe of the liver. This ductus venoſus enters the vena cava hepatica of the left ſide, juſt where that is piercing the great trunk of the vena cava inferiora.

CANANGÆ OLEUM. Hoffman mentions this oil as being ſcarce and brought from India, alſo that it is diſtilled from the flowers of the lime-tree. See Hoffman's Obſ. Phyſico-Chym. and in his Med. Rat. Syſt. vol. i. § ii. cap. 6.

CANCAMUM, καγκαμον. A tear from an Arabian tree, but it is not eaſy to ſay what. Different authors aſſert it to be different things; the gum anime is ſubſtituted generally for it. See Dioſcorides, Lemery and Ray.

CANCAMUM GRÆCORUM, i. e. Courbaril.

CANCELLUS. The wrong heir, alſo called aſtaci marini ſpecies, Bernhardus eremita, cancer in teſtis degens.

It is a ſmall ſpecies of cray-fiſh, which the French call Bernard the hermit, becauſe it ſhuns others, and retires into the firſt ſhell it meets with. It is found in the ſlime near the rocks, but commonly in a ſhell of a conic figure, and as large as a nut. There is a larger ſpecies in the American iſlands; it is three or four inches long: they call it the ſoldier, becauſe it fortifies itſelf in a ſhell which is not its own. Father Du Tertres ſays, half its body is like a graſs-hopper.

Hang them in the ſun, and they diſſolve into a kind of oil, which is very ſpeedy in curing the rheumatiſm, if rubbed on the part.

CANCER. The Crab. Cancer in Latin correſponds with the καρκινος, the καραβος, or the καμμαρος of the Greeks, and to the crab in Engliſh.

CANCER MARINUS. The ſea-crab, called alſo pagurus, and cancer mæus.

CANCER FLUVIATILIS. The river crab, or cray-fiſh: it is alſo called cammarus and gammarus.

The *crab* is an exanguious fiſh, of the oviparous kind, and is amphibious. *Crabs*, lobſters, and craw-fiſh, are greedy of fleſh; they eat frogs, and if they meet a careaſe, though it lays out of the water, they never leave it until the whole is conſumed.

Their fleſh is the beſt in ſummer; and, in common with all ſhell fiſh, it is peculiarly uſeful to thoſe whoſe primæ viæ abounds with acid.

The black tips of the claw of ſea *crabs* are levigated and uſed as an abſorbent under the name of pulv. e. chel. c. ppt. The London college directs a compound powder, made with *crabs* claws, red coral, and pearl; but any one of them is as good as them all together or ſingly: they all conſiſt of the ſame calcereous animal earth.

Pulvis e Chelis Cancrorum *compoſitus. Compound Powder of* Crabs Claws.

Take of the tips of *crabs* claws prepared, one pound; prepared pearls, and red coral prepared, of each three ounces; mix them all together.

The *crabs* claws and *crabs* eyes receive no improvement by any additions to them as abſorbents. The college of Edinburgh directs the following preparation called

Pulvis Teſtaceus Compoſitus. The Compound Teſtaceus Powder.

Take of oyſter ſhells prepared, one pound; and of white chalk prepared, half a pound. Mix them together.

The uſe of all the abſorbent earths, and preparations of ſhells, is to abſorb acidities in the primæ viæ, and this preſcription from the Edinburgh Diſpenſatory, is equally valuable as a medicine with any other preparation of the kind, however attended with pompous epithets. If they meet with no acid to diſſolve them, they ſhould be accompanied with gentle purges. They ſtrongly promote putrefaction, whence their uſe ſeems to be forbid in putrid diſeaſes. In ardent fevers their uſe is ſomewhat important, oyſter ſhells are diſſolved with a very weak acid into a mucilage, like that which lines the inner ſurface of the ſtomach, bladder, blood veſſels, &c. which is abraded when there is inflammation in them; and this jelly, formed of teſtaceous powders, ſeems to ſupply, in ſome meaſure, the want of the natural.

See Haller's Noſology, Lewis's Materia Medica, and Neumann's Chemical Works.

CANCER.

CANCER. καρκινος, a *crab*. By the term cancer, the Roman writers underſtood what the Greeks called gangrene and ſphacelus; but the diſeaſe which is now called cancer, is what the Greeks and Romans meant by carcinoma. See Celſus, lib. v. ch. xxviii.

Galen ſays, that as the crab is furniſhed with claws on both ſides of its body, ſo in the carcinoma, or carcinos, the veins, which are extended from the tumor, repreſent with it a figure much like a crab. And Boerhaave ſays, that if the ſtagnating matter of a ſcirrhus is put in motion, ſo as to inflame the veſſels ſituated in its margin, it becomes malignant, and then is called a *cancer*.

With Hippocrates we may, perhaps, moſt properly conſider all the ſpecies as compriſed in the occult and open *cancer*. A *cancer* then is, as P. Ægineta deſcribes it, an unequal tumor, with or without an ulcer. Hippocrates calls that an occult *cancer*, that is yet unburſt, or without an ulcer; and that an open, or an ulcerated one that is burſt or ulcerated. The degree of malignity is in proportion to the acrimony of the matter of the tumor, the putreſcence of which is known by the ſmell, the ſharpneſs of the ſanies, and the ſpeedy corroſion of the parts about the ulcer. The degree of malignity in the occult *cancer* is judged of by the degree of itching, heat, ſhooting pain, and ſudden increaſe of the tumor.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales and order tumores. He defines it to be a painful ſcirrhous tumor, terminating in a fatal ulcer.

Any part of the body may be the ſeat of this diſorder, though a gland is generally its immediate ſituation. The obſtruction is in the minute lymphatic veſſels, and the adjacent parts are affected as a conſequence. In men a *cancer* moſt frequently ſeizes the tongue, mouth, or penis; in women, the breaſts and the uterus, particularly about the ceſſation of their periodical diſcharges; and in children, the eyes.

Celibacy, as well as the ceſſation of the menſes, conduces to the production of *cancers* in women, whence antiquated maids are the moſt ſubject to them: next to theſe are thoſe mothers who have not ſuckled their children; then thoſe women who are paſt child-bearing; and the leaſt ſo are men, and thoſe women who have bore children, and nurſed them with their own milk. Hollerius obſerves, that girls are ſubject to glandulous tumors whoſe menſtrual diſcharges are ſcanty.

The matter of cancers is inſpiſſated lymph, obſtructing the glands, whence pus is never well formed in them. Lymph ſtagnating in the ſcirrhous body is rarifiable by heat; when heated it expands, and the tumor is enlarged; on the increaſe of the ſwelling, a part of the ſcirrhus forms an apex; then the ſkin burſts, the morbid matter obtains liberty, and ſpreading more and more, it turns out the lips of the ulcer all round. Hence the preternatural heat excited in a ſcirrhous tumor is a proximate cauſe of its becoming a *cancer*; and whatever can excite heat in a ſcirrhus, may be a remote, or procatarctic cauſe of this diſeaſe. The cauſes of a ſcirrhus are the remote cauſes of moſt *cancers*, and are whatever can coagulate, or dry the juices, prepared in, or received by the glands. The matter thus obſtructed, deſtitute of the means of being reſolved, or changed into pus, may lodge many years without moleſting; but when by any cauſe the motion of the humours is increaſed, though the adjacent pervious veſſels, an inflammation is produced, pain and heat comes on: thus the ſcirrhus, which hitherto was inert, now acquires an acrimony, by which the containing parts are irritated and corroded. Sorrow, and other diſturbance in the mind, eaſily converts a ſcirrhus into a *cancer*. The veſſels of diſtended glands become preternaturally ſenſible, whence it becomes more eaſy for any cauſe of local inflammation to cauſe a *cancer*. When a ſcirrhus ſo enlarges as to be affected by the heat, or preſſure of the adjacent parts, it ſoon becomes cancerous. Sparing, or obſtructed periodical excretions, as already obſerved, are the frequent cauſes of this diſorder. Gooch and Turner give inſtances of cancerous ulcers being produced by touching cancerous matter with the tongue.

A hard unequal tumor that is indolent, and without any diſcolouration in the ſkin, is called a ſcirrhus; but when an itching is perceived in it, which is followed by a pricking, ſhooting, or lancinating pain, and a change of colour in the ſkin, it is known to be a *cancer*. It generally is ſmall in the beginning, and increaſes gradually; but though the colour of the ſkin changes to a red or livid appearance, as well as from an indolent ſtate a painful one is induced, it is ſometimes very difficult to ſay, when the tranſition out of the ſcirrhus into the cancerous ſtate happened; the progreſs being quick or ſlow, according to concurring cauſes. Gooch very well obſerves, that when the tumor is attended with a peculiar kind of burning, ſhooting pains, and the ſkin hath acquired the duſky purple, or livid hue, it may then be deemed the malignant ſcirrhus, or confirmed *cancer*. He farther adds, when thus far advanced in women's breaſts, the tumor ſometimes increaſes ſpeedily to a great ſize, having a knotty unequal ſurface, more glands becoming obſtructed; the nipple ſinks in, turgid veins are conſpicuous, ramifying far about, and reſembling a crab's claws. Theſe are the characteriſtics of an occult *cancer* on the external parts, and we may ſuſpect the exiſtence of one internally, when ſuch pain and heat as hath been deſcribed, ſucceed in parts where the patient hath before been ſenſible of a weight and preſſure, attended with obtuſe pain. A cancerous tumor never melts down in ſuppuration, as an inflammatory one does, becauſe the obſtruction is in the minute lymphatic veſſels; but when it is ready to break open, eſpecially in the breaſt, it generally becomes prominent in ſome point, attended with an increaſe of the peculiar kind of burning, ſhooting pain, commonly felt before, at intervals, in a leſs degree, and deeper in the body of the gland, or glands. In the prominent part of the tumor, in this ſtate, a corroding ichor ſometimes tranſudes through the ſkin, ſoon forming an ulcer; at other times a conſiderable quantity of a thin lymphatic fluid, tinged with blood from eroded veſſels, is found on it. Ulcers of the cancerous nature diſcharge a thin, fœtid, acrid ſanies, which corrodes the parts, having thick dark-coloured retorted lips; and fungous excreſcences frequently vegetate from theſe ulcers, notwithſtanding the corroſiveneſs of the humour. In this ſtate they are often attended with excruciating, pungent, lancinating, burning pains, and ſometimes with bleeding.

Though a ſcirrhus may truly be deemed a *cancer* as ſoon as pain is perceived in it, yet every painful tumor is not a cancer; nor is it always eaſy to ſay whether a *cancer* is the diſorder or not: irregular hard lumps may be perceived in the breaſt, but on examining the other breaſt where no uneaſineſs is perceived, the ſame kind of tumors are ſometimes found, which renders the diagnoſtics uncertain.

The itching, increaſing tumor, and pain, are owing to heat rarifying the obſtructed humour, diſtending the veſſels, and producing a preternatural ſenſibility in them. As any part of the tumor is more enlarged than another, there an apex will be formed, the top of which will be covered with a tenſe, ſmooth, ſhining, thin ſkin, of a darkiſh red colour, becauſe the blood meets with difficulty in paſſing through its veſſels, which are too much diſtended. The ſkin rendered thin by violent ſtraining, is at laſt burſt by the contained matter; hence the ulcer, which by the continuance of the ſame cauſes that produced it, increaſes. While the blood-veſſels remain unhurt, a ſerous ichor only appears in the ulcer; but when they are corroded, blood alſo iſſues forth, and as the fungous fleſh diſſolves, ſome pus is generated. The ſtinking ſanies is from the heat of the part, and the acceſs of the air putrifying it.

A cure is never made but with the knife or cautery; when theſe methods of relief are not uſed, the treatment is only palliative. If the tumor firmly adheres to the ſubjacent part, it can neither be extirpated nor waſted away by a cauſtic: if it is moveable, it may generally be taken away if at a due diſtance from ſuch blood-veſſels as would endanger life by being wounded. In general, the larger are more dangerous than the leſſer, the painful than the indolent, and the ulcerated than the occult. When a breaſt is once ſcirrhous, it ſeldom continues long in a ſtate that threatens a *cancer*, without affecting the axillary glands, the other breaſt, or the uterus. Any kind of acrimony in the habit diſpoſes a ſcirrhus to a ſpeedy change into a *cancer*. When a *cancer* in any part is attended with a hardneſs of the adjacent glands, ſucceſs hath rarely followed an attempt to cure. In habits not otherwiſe diſordered,

an ocult *cancer* ſhould not be exaſperated by emollients, ſtimulating applications, or intemperance, for then it may remain a long time without inconvenience; though at the ceſſation of the menſes in women they will be exaſperated, whence, if it can conveniently be done, it may be moſt proper to extirpate early.

The indications of cure are, 1ſt, to extirpate the tumor, and prevent a return of the diſeaſe: or, 2dly, to palliate when extirpation cannot be admitted.

The diet ſhould be cool, moiſt, and light; the mind ſhould be tranquil; and the body as free from violent action as poſſible.

If the cure is to be effected by extirpating the tumor (ſee AMPUTATIO) and if this method of relief is attempted, care muſt be had to remove all other *cancerous* tumors, the whole of each muſt be cleared away, and the habit of body muſt be corrected as much as poſſible; and when the wound is nearly healed, it may be kept open in the manner of an iſſue.

Cathæretics are propoſed for deſtroying the tumor, when the knife cannot be ſubmitted to from the patient's dread of it. The moſt famed of theſe have arſenic in their compoſition. Mr. Plunket's application is, on good authority, ſaid to be as follows:

"Take of crow's-foot, ſuch as grows in low moiſt grounds, one handful; dog-fennel, three ſprigs; pound them well: add to them three middling thimbles full of crude brimſtone, and the ſame quantity of white arſenic in fine powder. Make theſe into ſmall balls, and dry them in the ſun. Theſe balls muſt be powdered and mixed with the yolk of an egg, then laid over the ſore or *cancer* upon a piece of pig's bladder, which muſt be cut to the ſize of the ſore, and ſmeared with the yolk of an egg. This muſt not be applied on a piece of bladder larger than a half crown, if the *cancer* to be extirpated is on the face; the ſame caution is required if it is near the heart; but elſewhere it may ſpread the ſize of the ſore. The plaſter muſt not be ſtirred until it drops off of itſelf, which will be in about a week. Clean bandages are often to be put on."

This arſenical preparation will anſwer beſt in recent caſes, but it ſhould never be uſed except the whole tumor can be removed. The crow-foot is added to deſtroy the ſkin, but this end will, perhaps, be better anſwered, by rubbing the part immediately over the tumor with cauſt. lun. the day before the arſenical medicine is applied: this makes way for the action of the arſenic. Inſtead of the ſimple mixture of brimſtone and arſenic as above, the preparation of arſenic, called magnes arſenicales, ſhould be uſed. This cauſtic does not deſtroy the gland, but only the ſubſtances all around it, ſo the tumor comes out as if it had been dexterouſly diſſected out. N. B. A patient ſhould never go into a warm bath whilſt arſenic is applied.

Several eminent practitioners have formerly encouraged this method, as Fallopius, Zaber, Sennertus, &c. but though on ſmall cutaneous glands it may do, in the larger and deep ſeated it is unſafe; for by the irritation of theſe medicines an inflammation, and, perhaps, fever are brought on, which are dangerous ſymptoms; and by the ſubtil penetrating quality of arſenic, the life of the patient is alſo greatly hazarded, whatever be its mode of application and correction.

Mr. Pott obſerves, that, if a cauſtic is uſed, it ſhould be ſuch a one as will penetrate quite through the tumor and effectually eradicate it at two or three times at the moſt; this the common ones will not do, for they only reach as far as into the cellular membrane, hence their frequent repetition will be neceſſary. On every repetition of the cauſtic, the tumor reinflames, hardens, and enlarges; conſequently, it becomes, by ſuch treatment, more and more untractable. Cauſtics harden the ſurrounding parts, and produce other ill effects, and this gave origin to that ridiculous idea of the ſcirrhus or *cancer* having claws or roots, &c. If cauſtics are uſed, the moſt active ones are to be preferred.

If the *cancer* is ulcerated, frequent dreſſing with dry lint, or ſuch other things as experience manifeſts to be the leaſt uneaſy.

In general the palliative method will be

To avoid all external means while the diſorder is in its ocult ſtate; to prevent its being handled, or preſſed by the cloaths, that it may be kept eaſy and cool.

To correct the habit of body, if any way diſordered; and with the alteratives may be given ſmall doſes of merc. cor. a. but with great caution.

To moderate pain.

To keep the belly ſoluble with cooling medicines, ſuch as manna, ſal. Glaub. &c.

To bleed as often as the ſtrength will admit of.

To avoid cordials, exerciſe, or whatever can excite a greater heat than is proper to health in a ſtate of reſt.

A ſlight inflammation in the neighbourhood of the tumor which yet is in its ſcirrhous ſtate, may be relieved by means of Goulard's ſaturnine water, and thus is hindered from degenerating into a *cancer*; but if the inflammation is conſiderable, a *cancer* cannot be prevented.

Bleeding is neceſſary, at leaſt as often as pain and feveriſhneſs require it.

Purging ſhould not only be uſed to prevent a coſtive habit, but alſo immediately after every bleeding, to increaſe its cooling effect.

Pain, when urgent, requires bleeding, cooling purges, a ſpare diet that is thin and cooling, and anodynes inwardly. This ſymptom is alſo much relieved by deſtroying the ſenſibility of the parts by preparations of lead.

Fever. This requires the ſame means for its relief as are commended againſt pain; to which may be added any other febrifuge that the ſtate of the conſtitution may ſeem to admit of. Milk and water, or a decoction of ſarſaparilla, are convenient for common drink.

The beſt external medicine in the ocult ſtate is a well dreſſed hare's or rabbit's ſkin; for now all emollients, ſtimulants, and unctuous preparations are to be avoided.

When the *cancerous* tumor becomes ulcerated, the edges of the ulcer are hard, ragged, and unequal, very painful, and reverſed in different ways, being ſometimes turned upwards and backwards, and on other occaſions inwards. The whole ſurface of the ſore is commonly very unequal; in ſome parts there being conſiderable riſings, and in others deep excavations. The diſcharge, for the moſt part, is a thin dark-coloured fetid ichor, and is often poſſeſſed of ſuch a degree of acrimony as to excoriate, and even deſtroy the neighbouring parts. In the more advanced ſtages of the diſeaſe too, by the eroſion of blood-veſſels which occurs, conſiderable quantities of pure blood are ſometimes diſcharged. There is generally a burning heat complained of, all over the ſurface of the ulcer, and an increaſe of the ſhooting lancinating pains, which were much complained of before the ulcer was formed. The appearances of theſe ulcers are ſo various, that it is, perhaps, impoſſible for any deſcription to take them all in. Some have fungous excreſcences about their edges reſembling cauliflowers, or ſtrawberries; others have none. When the *cancer* is ulcerated, the following have been extolled.

℞ Ungu. ſaturn. cum duplice quantitate cereæ albæ paratum. f. ceratum.

℞ Pulv. e cruſ. C. mucilag. gumarab. āā ʒij. fac. ſaturn. ℈i. probe contritis in mortario marmoreo adde ſenſim aq. calcis & roſar. ad ℥vj. f. lotio.

After gently cleanſing the ulcer, waſh it with the lotion juſt warmed, then covering it with dry lint, or lint moiſtened in the lotion; lay over the whole a plaſter ſpread with the cerate, which may extend ſomewhat over the edges of the ſore.

In general, that which is the eaſieſt is the beſt, and often a cerate of oil and wax is preferred.

A mixture of vinegar, with twenty times its quantity of water, is ſometimes of excellent uſe.

Goulard commends his ſaturnine preparations.

Tar-water, both inwardly and outwardly, hath been attended with conſiderable advantage, and particularly when the diſorder appeared at or about the ceſſation of the menſtrual diſcharge.

Narcotic herbs, ſuch as the ſolanum and cicuta, have been uſed with ſucceſs. See the articles reſpectively.

Carrot poultices renewed twice a day removes the nauſeous ſmell which attends *cancerous* ulcers. See DAUCUS. Fixed air applied to the ulcer hath the ſame effect, if it ſhould be uſed every ſix, eight, or twelve hours, and after it, rags may be laid on the ſore, after dipping them in

in lavender, or other odoriferous water mixed with vinegar.

The merc. cor. alb. gr. ſs. given night and morning, as in venereal diſorders, with the decoct. ſarſaparil. keeping the body lax, but not to purge, hath been manifeſtly uſeful, though it is owned that its efficacy is leſs in caſes where the ulcer is very conſiderable. It hath often ſucceeded in *cancers* of the face and noſe. The bark may accompany it when the habit is lax.

The bark and hemlock may very advantageouſly accompany the uſe of this mercurial medicine, and may, in general, be thus adminiſtered.

℞ Extract. cicut. g. v. vel plus bis in die.
℞ Infuſ. cort. Peru. ℥iij. bis terve in die.
℞ Merc. corroſ. alb. gr. 1-16th, ad ſs. bis in die.

If the mercury is not eaſy in the ſtomach, a few drops of the tinct. theb. may accompany each doſe.

In recent caſes the hemlock is ſometimes uſeful. Mr. Juſtamond intimates, in his Lectures on the Operations of Surgery, that the beſt way of uſing hemlock is to make a bath with it; when this bath is uſed, it muſt be tepid, and the patient may ſtay in it during fifteen or twenty minutes, and repeat it two or three times a week. He farther recommends as a powerful efficacious medicine, the flor. martial. internally; it may be given three times a day, beginning with ten grains made into two pills, and increaſe the doſe as far as the ſtomach will bear it.

In the fourth volume of the Edinburgh Medical Commentaries, is an extract from a publication by Dr. Le Febure (a French phyſician), by which it appears, that the internal uſe of arſenic is frequently effectual in curing *cancers*. He ſays, that in ſome inſtances the cancerous virus is alkaleſcent, and in others it is aceſcent. His general method of adminiſtering this medicine is as follows:

℞ Arſen. alb. gr. iv. f. ſolutio in aq. font. Diſtil. hujus ſolutio detur cochl. magn. cum lact. vaccin. cochl. magn. & ſyr. e mecon. ℥ſs. mane jejuno.

The arſenic is directed to be of a clear, white, ſhining, appearance, and in ſmall cryſtals; and every morning that the doſe is taken, the patient muſt not take any thing after it during one hour. This courſe muſt be continued eight days, after which, a doſe is to be taken in the ſame manner, twice every day; the firſt in the morning, the laſt about eight at night. At the end of a fortnight, three doſes are to be given in a day; the third being taken about mid-day. Thus, women of weakly conſtitutions, may continue until a cure is completed. But with an adult of a good conſtitution, the doſe may be augmented, by degrees, every eight days, till he takes ſix table ſpoonfuls of the ſolution every day; two table ſpoonfuls being taken for each doſe, with as much milk, and half an ounce of the ſyrup of poppies. For children, tea-ſpoons muſt be uſed, and the doſe ſhould, on no account, exceed three of theſe, with a proportional quantity of the ſyrup. But, beſides that, the ſolution of the arſenic is thus to be increaſed to a certain height, in point of quantity, the ſtrength is alſo to be augmented. Six grains of arſenic may be diſſolved in the ſecond bottle of the ſolution, and eight in the third. But, beſides this, Dr. Le Febure thinks it unadviſeable to proceed. In general, he ſays, ſix bottles of the ſolution is ſufficient for the cure of an open *cancer*; in one caſe, however, eight were neceſſary. He aſſerts, that this method is never attended with any ill accidents; and adds, that the arſenic does not act in any certain manner upon the ſecretions. A purgative, compounded of manna, rhubarb, and ſal ſeignette, is to be given every eight or twelve days. Whey, with twelve grains of nitre to the bottle, or a weak decoction of the roots of marſhmallows, with the ſame quantity of nitre, may be given for common drink. The belly is to be kept open by injections of whey, bran-water, or pure water, with the addition of emollient herbs, if neceſſary, or a little honey. With reſpect to regimen, it is directed to abſtain from wine, and fermented liquors. Broth, made with a little beef, veal, or chicken, are proper. Broiled, roaſted, or boiled meat, ought to be taken in ſmall quantity. Spinnage, lettuce, ſuccory, or ſorrel, may be given with advantage. Ripe fruit is not to be diſcharged. Rice cream, and milk in different forms, are a very proper part of diet. The doctor has ſometimes been obliged to give the bark, and to open an iſſue, when the humours were either very alkaleſcent, or in very great quantity. He conſiders an iſſue as uſeful in every caſe. When the ulcer is cicatrized, he recommends cold or warm mineral waters, according to the circumſtances of the patient, with a view of completing the cure, or where theſe cannot be had, he gives artificial ones. Beſides this treatment by internal medicines, the method of dreſſing the ulcer becomes alſo an object of attention. If the tumor be not ulcerated, he directs it to be waſhed with a ſolution of arſenic, having eight grains in a pint of water. After waſhing with this ſolution, apply the following cataplaſm: take of carrot juice, one pound; of ſugar of lead, half an ounce; of arſenic diſſolved in diſtilled vinegar, half an ounce; of liquid laudanum, a dram and a half; form the whole into a maſs of a proper conſiſtence with as much powdered hemlock as is neceſſary. With part of this cataplaſm the tumor is to be covered to a tolerable thickneſs, and the whole kept up with the common plaſter. If the *cancer* be ulcerated, it is adviſed that the ichorous ſeroſity be taken away at each dreſſing, by means of dry lint. The ulcer is then to be fomented with the arſenical ſolution, having the chill taken off it, and having about one third of red wine added to it. If the ſore be of a very bad kind, it is adviſed that the arſenic be diſſolved in a decoction of bark, for fomenting the ulcer. After this the cataplaſm mentioned above, and the plaſter are to be applied. This treatment muſt be renewed every twelve hours.

CANCERS on the Face. Theſe are generally ſeated on the lips, noſe, or eye-lid. When they ulcerate, they are always attended with a hardneſs, which extends in proportion as that which formed the firſt tumor is deſtroyed by eroſion, and is always preceded by a change in the colour of the ſkin, which, before it indurates, turns red; and in extirpating, all that is thus florid muſt be cut away, as well as the part that is manifeſtly cancerous. See Le Dran's Obſ. When a cancer on the lip becomes ulcerous, it appears at firſt like a crack, and then gradually widens. Mr. Shelden obſerves that *cancer* in the cheek, which no operation can cure, proceeds from a polypus.

CANCER, in the Inteſtines. In this caſe the patient is continually afflicted with an highly acrid and obſtinate dyſentery, which corrodes all the parts it touches, and is attended with frequent convulſions, and fixed pains.

CANCER in the Teſticle. The moſt powerful means may be tried; great advantage hath followed the internal and external uſe of hemlock, but caſtration is generally the ſad but ſafeſt reſource.

CANCER in the Womb. This diſeaſe happens generally about the time of the menſes diſappearing, but may approach at any other period of life. Women, who have been accuſtomed to a large diſcharge by their menſes, are more liable to *cancers* in this part than in any other, and the diſeaſe commonly begins when that diſcharge goes off, or when it diſappears. It is known by pains in the pelvis and womb, of the ſtretching, tearing kind, mixed with ſhooting ſtinging ones; indurations in the part, ſenſible to the touch, a preceding immoderate diſcharge of the whites, reds, or both. Aetius deſcribes this caſe very well, and ſays that "there is a violent pain in the groins, upper part of the belly and loins, whilſt the parts originally affected can hardly bear to be touched: but if the *cancer* is ulcerated, beſides the pain, hardneſs about the neck of the womb, there are ulcers with tumid, ſordid, and whitiſh lips, and from them a fœtid ſanies flows, &c." The diſcharge from theſe ulcers are very various, being ſometimes bloody or ſanious, or accompanied with ſloughs, &c. If the indurations are not ulcerated the diſcharge is ſanious and acrid. In time the labia ſwell, and are œdematous, and if, as ſometimes happens, the inguinal gland is obſtructed, the œdema extends along the thigh.

In this unhappy caſe, beſides the general methods, a cloſe adherence to the extract. cicut. muſt be inſiſted on; begin with a ſmall doſe and increaſe it gradually, gr. x. ter die vel ſæpius. This moderates the pains better than opium.

Mr. Juſtamond is very ſanguine in his expectations of a cure from the uſe of the hemlock bath, and the flor. mart. as above directed. See CANCER. Dr. Le Febure recom-

ecommends, that in caſe of *cancerous* ulcers in the womb, hat injections be frequently thrown up, of a decoction of carrots and hemlock, having four grains of opium, and as much arſenic, diſſolved in every pint of it: ſee his general method of cure with arſenic above, in the article CANCER. When in the bone or bones of a limb, a *cancer* takes place, the amputation of that limb will be neceſſary.

See Le Dran's Operations, Boerhaave's Aphoriſms; Obſ. on *Cancers*, &c. by Mr. Guy, Med. Muſ. vol. i. p. 81, &c. and 338, &c. Mem. de l' Acad. Roy. de Chirurg. tom. i. iii. & iv. Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. i. Gooch's Med. Obſ. vol. iii. Hill.

CANCER OSSIS. See SPINA VENTOSA.

CANCHRY, or Canchrys, i. e. Cachrys.

CANCINPERICON. Hot horſe dung.

CANCRENA. Paracelſus uſes this word inſtead of of gangræna.

CANCRORUM LAPIDES, i. e. Oculi cancrorum.

CANDELA. A candle. If the flame is unſteady it hurts the eyes, and this fault is owing to the wick not being duly twiſted, or dry enough when it received the tallow, or from bad tallow; alſo from improper ſort of mixtures in the wick.

Exhalations from candles, are ſalutary or hurtful according to the materials they are formed off. Old tallow often ſends off bad fumes; wax, though white, creates the head-ach, and often hurts weak lungs; hogs fat is very offenſive; beef tallow alone is not good; ſheep and weathers afford the beſt tallow.

CANDELA FUMALIS, or candela profuſſitu odorata, called alſo tæda, and avicula Cypria. Theſe are made of odoriferous powders, mixed with one third or more of the charcoal of willows or lime-tree, and reduced to a conſiſtence with turpentine, laudanum, &c. Reſinous ſubſtances alone, mixed up with balſamics, will do, they give out a grateful odour, purify the air, and excite the ſpirits. They are alſo, from their form, called bacilli, and maſſæ ad fornacem, becauſe they are uſually applied to a hot grate or chimney, to diffuſe their ſmell without lighting them.

See Chomel's Dict. Œconomique.

CANDELA ARBOR, i. e. Karel-Kandel.

CANDELA INDICA. A ſpecies of Kandel.

CANDELA REGIA, i. e. Mullein.

CANDELARIA, i. e. Verbaſcum; alſo mullein.

CANDIDA TERRA. Tobacco-pipe clay.

CANDIDUS. See ALBEDO.

CANDOU PURCHASH, Arbor Maldivenſis.

A tree that much reſembles the cork-tree, as to its wood, and of the height of the walnut-tree. The trunk is fungous, lighter than cork, the bark whitiſh, it bears no fruit. Raii Hiſt.

CANDUM, or Canthum. Sugar-candy.

CANELA. A word uſed by the ancients for cinnamon, or rather caſſia.

CANELLA. See CINNAMOMUM.

CANELLA ALBA, called alſo cinnamomum five canella tubis minoribus albus, caſſia lignea Jamaicenſis, canella cubana, arbor jucadice, and wild cinnamon-tree.

Dr. Brown, in his Natural Hiſtory of Jamaica, calls the tree laurus fol. enerviis, and adds to this Lin. ſp. pl. Weſton, in his Univerſal Botaniſt, copies it from another edition of Linnæus, and ſays, Winterana canella, or Winterana Jamaicenſis, foliis enerviis obovatis obtuſis nitidis, racemis terminalibus, cortice piperis modo acri, fructu viridi calyſculato racemoſo.

The bark of this tree is commonly, but falſly, called cortex Winteranus. It is a large tree, whoſe bark conſiſts of two parts, an outward and an inward; the outer is as thin as a milled ſhilling, of an aſh grey colour, with whiter ſpots here and there, and ſeveral ſhallow furrows of a darker colour, running variouſly through it; the taſte is aromatic. The inner bark is thicker than that of cinnamon, being as thick as a milled crown piece, ſmooth, of a whiter colour than the outward, and of a more biting and aromatic taſte, reſembling that of cloves, and not glutinous when chewed, but dry, and crumbling between the teeth. Some call it cort. aromaticus, caminga, and Weſt Indian cinnamon tree.

It grows in Jamaica, Antigua, and other of the Caribbee Iſlands. The bark is the chief part in uſe, the poor natives uſe it in the place of all other ſpices. It is ſold in England for the cort. Winter. for its virtues are the ſame. It yields a heavy oil, which when mixed with a little oil of cloves, is ſold for it; and Dr. Brown adds, the adulteration is no prejudice to the oil of cloves. See Miller's Bott. Off. and Dr. Brown's Natural Hiſtory of Jamaica.

CANELLA CUBANA, i. e. Canella alba.

CANELLA CUURDO. True cinnamon tree.

CANELLA JAVANENSIS. See FOLIUM.

CANELLA MALAVARICA. See FOLIUM.

CANELLA MALABARICA, i. e. Canella alba.

CANELLA SYLVESTRIS MALABARICA, i. e. Katou-karva.

CANELLA SYLVESTRIS MALABARICA, i. e. Folium.

CANELLA ZEYLANICA. The true cinnamon tree.

CANELLIFERA MALABARICA. The caſſia lignea tree.

CANELLIFERA ZEYLANICA. The true cinnamon tree.

CANICÆ. Coarſe meal was anciently thus called, from *canis*, *a dog*, becauſe it was food for dogs. Hence panis canicaceus, very coarſe bread.

CANICIDA, Cynoctonum, i. e. Aconitum.

CANICIDIUM. A diſſection of living dogs.

CANICULARIS. Dog-days. This is the time when the canicula, or dog-ſtar riſes and ſets with the ſun; they begin about the middle of July, or ſomewhat later, and end about the latter end of Auguſt, or beginning of September. In ſome countries they ſtill maintain the opinion, that bleeding, purging, and other means of relief, are not efficacious in this ſeaſon, becauſe of the great heat and unuſual languor of the patient; but if they conſidered that the heat rariſies the blood, and occaſions a ſort of plethora which oppreſſes, and that taking away blood leſſens this plethora, and takes off this languor which was cauſed by oppreſſion or diſtenſion, ſurely their notions would be diſcarded.

CANINA APPETENTIA, i. e. Boulimos.

CANINA BRASSICA. See MERCURIALIS.

CANINI DENTES. The teeth betwixt the inciſores and the grinders, of which there are one in each ſide, both in the upper and lower jaw. See DENS.

Mr. John Hunter, in his Natural Hiſtory of the Human Teeth, names theſe cuſpidati, becauſe though made ſomewhat like the inciſores, they have the two ſides of the edge ſloped off to a point, and this point is very ſharp. Their fangs are longer than thoſe of the inciſores, and therefore, from their fangs being ſuppoſed to extend the greateſt part of the way to the eye, they have been called the eye-teeth. The cuſpidatus on each ſide of each jaw, ſtand next to the inciſores. Their uſe ſeems to be to hold what is caught or taken.

CANINA LINGUA, i. e. Cynogloſſum.

CANINA MALUS, i. e. Mandragora.

CANINI MINORES. The muſc. inciſorii laterales, ſometimes ſend a few fibres to the muſculi canini, which Winſlow gives the above name to.

CANINI MUSC. Winſlow ſays that each of the two muſc. canini are fixed above the ſocket of the dens canini, and terminate in the arch of the orbicularis labiorum.

CANINA RABIES, i. e. Hydrophobia.

CANINUS SENTIS. See CYNOSBATON.

CANINANA. A ſerpent in America is thus called: it is about two feet long, with a green back and a yellow belly. It hath its name from its creeping after men, and permitting itſelf to be handled by them like as a dog does.

CANIRAM, called alſo malus Malabarica. It is a large tree, bearing a ſmooth gold-coloured apple, whoſe pulp is white and mucilaginous: this fruit is remarkably bitter, and ſo is its ſeeds, and indeed the whole tree. The root is cathartic, the bark reſtringent. Raii Hiſt.

CANIRAM. A name of the nux vomica.

CANIRUBUS, i. e. Cynoſbatos.

CANIS. A dog. The Latins call the whelp catulus and catellus. Gloves made of *dogs* ſkins are worn in ſummer to keep the ſkin ſmooth and cool. The external ſurface of theſe ſkins is ſmooth, ſo, as is common with po-

liſhed bodies, they reflect the heat back again. The white dung of this animal was formerly in eſteem under the name of album Græcum, but is not now uſed.

CANIS. A name of the frænum, by which the prepuce is tied to the glans.

CANIS ARISTOTELI, i. e. Canis carcharias.

CANIS CARCHARIAS. The white ſhark; called alſo lamia, *canis Ariſtoteli*, and *canis* Galeus. It is found in the Mediterranean ſea, and in the main ocean. Its teeth are the gloſſopetræ.

CANIS GALEUS, i. e. Canis carcharias.

CANIS INTERFECTOR, i. e. Cevadilla.

CANIS MARINUS. The hound-fiſh. See GALEUS.

CANIS PONTICUS. A beaver.

CANITIES. Greyneſs of the hairs, or grey-headed.

CANKER. An eroding ulcer, formed without a previous tumor, is called a cancer; and when this happens on the gums, and other parts of the mouth, it is called *canker* by ſome, by which they imply that the ulcers are the effect of a corroſive humour. Except it be in caſes that have the tongue and mouth very dry, a ſolution of borax, or of white vitriol, are ſpeedily curative of this diſorder.

CANNA, i. e. Arundo.

CANNA DOMESTICA MAJOR CRURIS. A name of the tibia. This name was given it from its reſemblance to an old muſical inſtrument.

CANNA FISTULA, i. e. Caſſia fiſtula.

CANNA INDICA. See ARUNDO.

CANNA INDICA RADICE ALBA. See SAGITTARIA ALEXIPHARMACA.

CANNA MINOR CRURIS. A name of the fibula.

CANNA SEPIARIA, i. e. Arundo vulgaris.

CANNABINA, i. e. Acmella.

CANNABINA. Baſtard hemp.

It is a genus of plant whoſe flowers have no petals, but conſiſts of a number of threads, and are barren; for the ſeeds are produced on female plants, which have no viſible flower, but have membranaceous ſeed veſſels that incloſe triangular ſeeds, which are, for the moſt part oblong.

There are two ſpecies. Boerhaave mentions three more under the name of *cannabina*.

CANNABINA AQUATICA, i. e. Bidens.

CANNABIS. Hemp, or ſeed-bearing hemp. It is the *cannabis* ſativa, Linn. It is a tall annual herb with digitated leaves, cultivated in fields, on account of the mechanic uſes of its tough rind. Some of the plants called male, produce flowers compoſed of a yellowiſh ſtamina ſet in five-leaved cups; others, called female, produce ſeeds, moderately large, covered with a ſhining dark grey-coloured ſhell, under which is lodged a white kernel.

This plant hath a rank ſmell of the narcotic kind, which is ſuppoſed to injure the health; the effluvia of the freſh herb is ſaid to weaken the eyes and affect the head, and the water in which the herb hath been ſteeped for facilitating the ſeparation of the tough rind, is thought to be a violent and ſudden poiſon; but perhaps the deleterious quality of this water may be chiefly from the putrefaction of ſome part of the *hemp* which remains in it. The leaves of an Oriental *hemp*, called bang or bangue, and by the Egyptians aſſis, are ſaid to be uſed in the eaſtern countries as a narcotic and aphrodiſiac.

The faint ſmell of the ſeeds goes off in keeping; their taſte is unctuous and ſweetiſh, accompanied with a ſlight warmth. On expreſſion they yield much inſipid oil, which unites with water by trituration, into an emulſion. Decoctions of them in milk are commended in coughs, heat of urine, &c. in which caſes their uſe depends on their emollient and demulcent qualities. Miller's Bot. Off.

CANNABIS INDICA, i. e. Bangue.

CANNABIS PEREGRINA, i. e. Bangue.

CANNACORUS. The Indian reed; alſo called arundo Indica florida; arundo Indica latifolia; harundo floridacalamacorus, & canna Indica.

It ſends forth ſeveral ſtalks about four feet high, as thick as a finger, and jointed at intervals; the leaves are broad, large, fibrous, pointed at the extremities, and of a pale green colour. The flower is of a red colour, and grows on the top; it is ſhaped like that of the gladiolus; before it is perfectly open it reſembles a crab, whence ſome have named it the crab-flower. It grows only in warm places. Its leaves are wrapped about the gum elemi.

Miller takes notice of five ſpecies.

CANNADELLA. See CHANNA.

CANNULA. A diminutive of canna; alſo a name for ſeveral inſtruments in ſurgery: they are tubes of different ſhapes and ſizes; they are introduced into openings for the conveyance of a fluid from the part.

CANNUTUM. A reed or cane.

CANONIAI. Hippocrates, in his book de Aer. &c. calls thoſe perſons thus, who have ſtraight and not prominent bellies. He would intimate that they are diſpoſed as it were by a ſtraight rule.

CANOPICON. A name in Dioſcorides for ptyuſa, a ſort of ſpurge.

CANOPITE. The name of a collyrium mentioned by Celſus.

CANOPUM. In P. Ægineta it is both the flower and the bark of the elder-tree.

CANSCHENA-POU. A ſpecies of mandaru.

CANSJAVA. See BANGUE.

CANT. An abbreviation of Cantabrigiam.

CANTABRICA. Pliny ſays it is an herb that was diſcovered in the time of Auguſtus, in the country of the Cantabri, in Spain, whence its name. It is a ſpecies of CONVOLVULUS (which ſee) and is called lavender-leaved bind-weed.

CANTABRUM. In Cœl. Aurelianus it ſignifies bran.

CANTACON. Garden ſaffron.

CANTARA. The plant that bears the St. Ignatius's bean.

CANTARELLI. May worms. They are reckoned a ſpecies of beetles of the unctuous ſort, becauſe when touched, they emit an unctuous, acrid, ſtrong ſcented liquor.

CANTERBURY WATERS. At Canterbury there are five wells, not far from each other; they are ſtrongly impregnated with iron, ſulphur, and fixed air. Their taſte is ſomewhat harſh and auſtere, their ſmell is ferruginous and ſtrong of the ſulphur. They are inferior to no mineral *waters* in England, in moſt diſorders of the ſtomach, in aſthmas, catarrhs, rheumatiſms, gouty complains, the ſcurvy, jaundice, ſkin diſeaſes, chlorоſis, agues, &c.

CANTHARI FIGULINI. An earthen cucurbit. See CUCURBITA.

CANTHARIDES, alſo called French flies, Spaniſh flies, cantharis major. Meloe (veſicatorius) alatus viridiſſimus nitens, antennis nigris. Linn. They were formerly brought only from Spain, whence they were called *Spaniſh flies*; but they are met with in France, Italy, ſome parts of Germany, and other countries. Newmann ſays that they are found chiefly in the ſpring ſeaſon, and on poplar and aſh-trees.

They are an inſect of the beetle-kind, known by their ſhining golden green colour, which is alſo of a bluiſh caſt. They have a ſtrong and ſickly ſmell; when taſted they make no impreſſion on the tongue at firſt, but preſently an acrimony and pitchy flavour is perceived.

The largeſt and beſt are brought from Italy; they ſhould be choſen freſh-coloured, entire, and free from duſt. Newmann ſays, that after long keeping they fall into a grey brown powder, and in this ſtate are unfit for uſe, their intrinſic qualities periſhing with their external form.

They peculiarly affect the kidneys and urinary paſſages: internally they are diuretic, externally they are cauſtic, and are uſed to raiſe bliſters, for which end Aretæus firſt rubbed them on the head. When they are applied to the ſkin, the heat and motion of what perſpires, ſet them in action, whereby they penetrate it, and ſo ſtimulate the fibres as to bring on a flux of fluid that raiſes up the cuticula (through which it cannot paſs) into a bliſter. They produce a more plentiful diſcharge of ſerum than any of the vegetable acrids. They alſo deſtroy fungous fleſh. Internally their efficacy is truly valuable, when ſkilfully managed; they provoke urine by ſtimulating. The caſe where their internal uſe is moſt neceſſary, and moſt ſafe is, when they are wanted to ſcour the urinary paſſages, and this is when they are obſtructed with ſloughs, and ſuch viſcidities as are apt to be waſhed off from the ulcer-

ated parts; this happens moſt in women. In venereal caſes, where much filth hath fallen on the genitals, the tincture is very uſeful. They are commended in dropſies, gravel, leproſies, and virulent gonorrhœas, the fluor albus, ulcers in the bladder, uterus and kidneys. The phlegmatic may take them without much caution, but the hot and bilious require them mixt with proper correctors. Their uſe in cutaneous diſorders is from their diuretic quality, and the conſent of the ſkin with the kidneys, for obſtructions in either are relieved by evacuations increaſed in the other.

In caſes of ſtone in the kidneys, fits of gravel, ſtone in the bladder, ſome œdomatous caſes, and ſometimes in pregnant women, their uſe is not to be admitted of.

However uſed, they are apt to produce a ſtrangury, and inflammation of the urinary paſſages; to prevent which, when bliſters are applied, ſome rub ℈ i. or ℈ ij. of camphor, in fine powder, on the ſurface of the plaſter; but this requires alſo the aſſiſtance of nitre, oily drinks, ſoap pills, &c. Waſhing the bliſtered part when dreſſed, with warm milk, greatly relieves theſe ſymptoms. When imprudently taken into the ſtomach, they cauſe great heat, inflammation, bloody urine, a dribbling heat thereof, a priapiſm, thirſt, and a cadaverous breath, &c. in which caſes, give nitre, camphor, mucilage of gum arabic, and acids; ſimple oxymel is of excellent uſe as an antidote. Sometimes bliſters laid to the thighs, or calves of the legs, have produced a gangrene, becauſe a flux of humours is very eaſily invited to theſe parts; therefore ſhould not be applied to them when they are œdematous, but rather to the inſide of the arms, wriſts, nape of the neck or head.

A doſe of the powder may be from half a grain to ſix grains; and of the tincture from five to fifty drops, twice a day.

The powdered *flies*, the ſpirituous extract, or the watery one, applied to the ſkin, all bliſter it equally; but the beſt preparation for internal uſe is the tincture. Newmann ſays, that milk and oil are the beſt correctors.

Their active part is a reſinous matter, ſimilar to vegetable reſin. Some ſay that their efficacy is from an acrid ſalt; but as Newmann well obſerves, their practice contradicts their theory, for they uſe ſpirit for making the tincture, and water is the proper menſtruum for ſalts.

Water, proof ſpirit, and rectified ſpirit, all take up the active parts of *cantharides* equally; but it does not riſe with any of them in diſtillation. The reſiduum, after digeſting the *flies* in water or ſpirit, does not in the leaſt bliſter or inflame the ſkin.

The London college directs the following tincture, epithems, ointments, and plaſters.

Tinctura Cantharidum. *Tincture of* Cantharides.

Take of *cantharides* bruiſed, two drams; of cochineal, half a dram; of proof ſpirit, a pint and a half. After digeſtion filter the ſpirit through paper.

This tincture may ſtand a week to digeſt, without heat, and then be uſed: it contains all the virtue of the *flies*. The doſe may be from x. to l. drops twice a day. Two or three drops may be added to each doſe, according as the patient can bear them. Some add balſams, &c. in making this tincture, and then commend it as more uſeful when the kidneys, womb, or bladder are ulcerated, or the urethra is corroded; but whatever additions may be thought of, they are beſt joined extemporaneouſly, or interpoſed by themſelves at proper intervals. The diuretic power of the *flies* is much improved by the addition of ſp. nitri D. and they may be thus adminiſtered.

℞ Tinct. *canthar.* ʒ ii. ſpt. nitri D. ʒ iii. tinct. thebaic. ʒ i. m. cap. gut. 40 bis die.

Epithema Veſicatorium. Bliſtering Epithem.

Take of *cantharides* finely powdered, and of wheat flour, of each equal parts; with a ſufficient quantity of vinegar make them into a paſte.

In ſome caſes, as in the ſmall pox, this compoſition being ſofter than plaſter is preferred; but if the plaſter is no harder than juſt not to run by the uſual heat of the body, this epithem will be unneceſſary; and the waſte of *flies*, as well as their effects from ſo large a quantity, ſhould not be unnoticed; beſides, the ſinapiſms and cataplaſms of garlic are preferable to this compoſition in ſome of the caſes in which it is uſed, and the plaſter as directed below ſupercedes it in the reſt.

Unguentum ad Veſicatoria. Ointment for Bliſters.

Take of tried hog's lard, and of the bliſtering plaſter, of each equal quantities: melt them together with a very gentle heat, and ſtir them well, till fully cold.

Hoffman's mild bliſter is the ſame as the ungt. epiſpaſtic. Ph. Edinb. it is valued on account of its cauſing very little pain. The following may be made as a proper ſubſtitute for both the above, being as efficacious as the former, and as free from producing pain, ſtrangury, &c. as the other. The uſe of theſe ointments are to dreſs bliſters with, that muſt be kept conſtantly open, for thus they are prevented from healing.

Unguentum Veſicatorium Mitius. The milder Ointment for Bliſters.

℞ *Cantharid.* cont. ʒ i. coque in aq. font. ℔ ſs. ad ʒ iv. colaturæ adde ungt. baſil. flav. ʒ iv. coq. lento igne ad liquoris conſumptionem.

Emplaſtrum Veſicatorium. Bliſtering Plaſter.

Take of the drawing plaſter, two pounds; of *cantharides*, one pound; of vinegar, half a pint. The plaſter being melted, a little before it hardens, ſprinkle in and mix the *cantharides*, reduced to a very fine powder, then add the vinegar, and beat all well together.

The vinegar in this plaſter ſoon exhales; and was not this the caſe, its efficacy will hardly juſtify its waſte. Moſt ſkins are ſoftened by bathing them with warm vinegar, and if a bliſtering plaſter is applied immediately after, in ſome inſtances it produces a ſpeedier effect.

In caſes where the common bliſtering plaſters are thought to be too active, Dr. Percival commends the following compoſition and manner of application. It may be called

Empl. Veſicator. Mitius.

℞ Empl. Veſicat. Ph. Lond. p. i. vel. ij. Empl. ſtomach. p. i. vel ij. Camphor in ſpt. vin. ſolut. ʒ i. vel ij. m.

If a plaſter of this compoſition is moderately warmed before the fire, then covered with a fine ſoft piece of muſlin, it will occaſion much leſs irritation than the uſual ones, produce no ſtrangury, or but in a ſlight degree, and when to be removed will ſeparate from the ſkin with great facility. Nor will this covering prevent its veſicating effects. Hence bliſters may thus be applied when the ſkin is diſpoſed to eryſipelatous inflammation from its great ſenſibility, or when the evacuating power is wanted without the ſtimulus.

Cantharides are principally uſed for bliſtering: this article will then be moſt properly concluded by a few obſervations on the effects and uſes of bliſters.

Whether *cantharides* are applied externally or adminiſtered internally, ſimilar effects are produced; but yet it is not agreed, with reſpect to bliſters, whether their action and mode of operation is directly on the ſkin, or by the abſorption of their ſtimulating particles. However, experience hath eſtabliſhed the uſe of bliſters in the following caſes, viz.

In low nervous fevers, when the pulſe is languid, and ſpirits ſunk, the præcordia is oppreſſed, the breathing difficult, or a delirium comes on.

Ardent and inflammatory fevers, when, in their advanced ſtate, the patient becomes languid, and poſſeſſed of ſymptoms that indicate the approach of an oppoſite diſorder, viz. the low or putrid kind: the vis vitæ muſt be ſupported, and the ſinking powers roufed by bliſters. In ſhort, in any fever, when a langour, a coma, or a violent ſpaſmodic pain in the head approaches, they muſt be immediately uſed.

Putrid fevers. The mild bliſtering plaſter above mentioned, may be applied as there directed, or, where no particular reaſons demand ſuch caution, that of the Lond. Col. may be uſed, as a ſtimulus to the ſolid, to quicken the circulation, and promote the ſecretions.

Small-pox. When the patient's habit is lax, the pulſe depreſſed, and the heat not ſufficient, either during the expulſion or the ſuppuration of the puſtules: when they are

are of a bloody kind, and a delirium threatens or attends; alſo when the ſwelling of the face is not likely to be duly ſucceeded by the ſame in the hands and feet.

Apoplexy. Bliſters may be applied to the head, &c. particularly in thoſe perſons in whom the vis vitæ is below what health requires.

Carus and lethargy. Here bliſters are peculiarly indicated.

Palſy, whether general or particular, though in the latter their application is moſt efficacious.

Incontinence of urine, if applied on the region of the os ſacrum.

Gutta ſerena, if laid on the forehead.

Tympanites, in which caſe, if the bowels are not already inflamed, bliſters may be applied on the belly.

Scirrhous tumors of the conglobate glands of the neck, are relieved by the bliſters applied to the head.

Scirrhous tumors of the glands in the groin are diſperſed by bliſters on the thighs.

White ſwellings. Thoſe tumors ſo called, that ſo frequently deſtroy the joints, and in the end the patient, are in ſome inſtances cured by an early application of bliſters upon them.

Convulſions and ſpaſms. Bliſters aſſiſt in relieving them almoſt univerſally by their ſtimulus, when applied on a part free from the diſorder.

Epilepſies, both idiophatic and ſympathetic, are often much relieved by bliſters.

Aſthma, both the humoural and nervous kinds are moderated by bliſters, and particularly by perpetual ones.

Spaſmodic pains in the bowels are relieved by applying bliſters on the part affected.

Pains from inflammation, when the inflammatory diatheſis prevails ſtrongly and uniformly through the ſyſtem, and no one part is more affected than another, bliſters are hurtful; but when the head, lungs, or any particular part is affected more than the reſt of the body, they are remarkably uſeful.

Deliriums, attended with a pulſe that does not admit of bleeding, are removed by bliſters.

Ophthalmia. This diſorder is as much benefited as moſt, by bliſters behind the ears, or on the fore-part of the head; Hoffman adviſes to lay them on the ſoles of the feet.

Quinſey. After bleeding and purging, a bliſter between the ſhoulders is a neceſſary application, and another acroſs the throat is often of eminent ſervice.

Malignant Quinſy. In the firſt ſtage of this diſorder a bliſter to the nape of the neck, and on each ſide of the throat, produces ſalutary effects; in this caſe, the milder bliſtering plaſter above noticed is to be preferred.

Pleuriſy. The pain felt in the ſide is beſt relieved by a bliſter laid over where it is ſeated; though in pulmonic diſorders Huxham adviſes that the legs be bliſtered.

Coughs, both the hooping and other kinds, have their violence abated and cure promoted by a proper uſe of bliſters.

Inflammation of the liver. One of its principal remedies is a bliſter laid over the part affected. The ſame advantage follows this practice when inflammatory pains are fixed in the ſtomach, inteſtines, &c. or when pain in theſe parts have flatulency for their cauſe.

Diarrhœa. When this diſorder attends the meaſles, no remedy is equal to the application of a bliſter.

Dyſentery. When the pain attendant on this diſorder yields not to fomentations, a bliſter over the pained part is the only reſource.

Sciatica, Gout, and Rheumatiſm. The moſt eminent practitioners extol the uſe of bliſters if applied to the parts affected at a proper time.

Pregnant women require ſome caution, when bliſters are propoſed; but the milder plaſter above noticed, if applied as there directed, may be ſafely uſed when circumſtances require it.

Anaſarcous Dropſies. The ſcarifying the legs may be preferable; yet, when the patient will not comply therewith, the mild bliſter plaſter juſt mentioned may be ſafely uſed, and with conſiderable advantage.

See Lewis's Mat. Med. Baglivi's Diſſert. on the Uſe and Abuſe of Bliſters, Percival's Eſſays Med. and Exp. edit. 2. p. 183, 248.

CANTHARIS, i. e. Cantharides.

CANTHARUS. The beetle. See SCARABÆUS. Alſo the name of a fiſh.

CANTHI, CANTHUS. Κανθὸς, a primitive in the Greek. An angle of the eye. The cavities at the extremities of the eye-lids, called the corners of the eyes; the greater *canthus* is next to the noſe; the leſſer *canthus* lies toward the temples.

CANTHUM. Sugar-candy.

CANTIANUS PULVIS. The Counteſs of Kent's powder. It is made with the rad. contrayerv. coral. alb. cryſtal. terr. Lemn. ceruſ. ant. moſch. ambergriſ. & croc. Anglic.

If cochineal be added it is called *pulv. cant.* rub.

If calcined toads be added, it is called *pulv. cant.* nigr.

CANTION. An epithet for ſugar; but in conjunction with it is ſugar-candy.

CANTIUM, or Cantum. A word uſed by the Greeks to ſignify angulous, and is applied to cryſtallized ſugars.

CANUM CERASA. Dog-cherries. A ſpecies of periclymenum.

CANUTUM, or Cannutum. The reed or cane.

CAOPOIBA BRASILIENSIBUS. A large tree growing in Braſil, but of no known uſe in medicine. Raii Hiſt.

CAOVA. The drink called coffee.

CAOUP. A tree in the iſland of Maragnan, in America, with leaves like thoſe of the apple-tree, but larger. The flowers are red mixed with yellow, and the fruit is like an orange. Raii Hiſt.

CAPASSONUS GENUENSIUM. The fiſh called lavaronus.

CAPELINA, or Capeline de la Tête.

A reflex bandage. It is a double-headed roller, about twenty-four feet long, and the breadth of two fingers; the middle is fixed to the occiput, and after two or three circular rounds the rollers interſect each other upon the forehead and occiput; then one roller being reflected over the vertex, or ſagittal ſuture to the forehead, the other is continued in a circular tract; they croſs each other upon the forehead, after which croſſing, the firſt head is carried back obliquely towards the occiput, and reflected by the ſide of the other; the laſt is continued in a circular direction, but the firſt is brought again over the ſagittal ſuture backward and forward, and ſo continued till the whole head is covered. It is uſed in the hydrocephalus, but is not of any advantage.

CAPELLA. A cupel or teſt. See CUPELLA. Alſo the alembic.

CAPELLA. The baſtard plover.

CAPER. The goat. Or, Capra Domeſtica.

Goat's whey is aperient, abſtergent, attenuating, and laxative; it is generally prefered before all other wheys.

CAPHORA. Camphor.

CAPHURA BAROS INDORUM. A ſpecies of *camphor* which ſeparates from the ol. caphuræ on re-diſtilling it. This *camphor* ſometimes ouſes from the bark of the root of the cinnamon tree, in the form of oleous drops, which inſenſibly concrete into white grains.

CAPHURA. Camphor.

CAPHURÆ OL. An aromatic eſſential oil diſtilled from the root of the cinnamon tree.

CAPICAGTINGA. A ſpecies of acorns which grows in the Weſt Indies, larger and more uſeful than ours in Europe, of the ſame qualities, but it poſſeſſes them in a greater degree.

CAPICATINGA. Aſiatic Sweet Flag. See CALAM. AROM.

CAPILACTEUM. See APHROGALA.

CAPILLAMENTA, from *capillus, a hair.* Capillaments in flowers are generally underſtood to mean the chives which ſupport the apices.

They are thoſe ſlender filaments that ſpring up within the leaves of a flower, and are more uſually called the ſtamina; whence a capillaceous flower is alſo a ſtamineous one. Again, by *capillaments* are meant thoſe ſlender parts which reſemble hairs, and are produced from vegetables; as, for inſtance, from ſeeds, roots, &c.

CAPILLAMENTUM. The hairy or villous integument belonging to animals.

CAPILLARIA VASA, from *capillus, a hair.* Capillary veſſels. The ſmalleſt veſſels in our bodies are ſo called, becauſe they appear as ſmall as hairs.

CAPIL-

CAPILLARES VERMICULI. Thoſe ſmall worms in infants which ſome call crines, crinedones, and dracunculi. See CRINOUES.

CAPILLARIS. Any thing that reſembles hairs, whether ſmall veſſels in our bodies, thread-like parts of plants, &c. Ray calls thoſe vegetables *capillares* which have no main ſtalks, but whoſe ſeed is on the back of their leaves, for they grow cloſe to the ground, as the hair grows to the head.

CAPILLATIO. A capillary fracture of the cranium. See TRICHISMOS.

CAPILLITIUM, i. e. Capillamentum. It is alſo uſed for trichiaſis.

CAPILLORUM DEFLUVIUM, i. e. Alopecia.

CAPILLUS. The hair. *Capillus* is properly the *hair* of the head, but is uſed alſo for *hair* in general. The *hairs* are hollow and furniſhed with veſſels; are knotted at certain diſtances, like ſome ſorts of graſs, and ſend out branches at their joints. The diſorder called plica Polonica proves them to be hollow. As to the branching of the *hair*, it is viſible enough at the extremities with a microſcope, and it is apt to ſplit if worn long and kept dry. Each of theſe *hairs* hath a bulbous root, of an oval ſhape, which is lodged in the ſkin. As long as any moiſture remains about the roots of the *hair* it continues to grow, though the body be dead and mouldered to duſt. Drake's Anat.

Dr. Cheyne, in his Engliſh Malady, obſerves that as the *hair* is for ſtrength, ſo is the general habit.

The principal diſorders in the *hair*, ſee in the article ALOPECIA.

CAPILLUS CANADENSIS, i. e. Adianthum Canadenſis.

CAPILLUS VENERIS, i. e. Adianthum.

CAPIPLENIUM. A catarrh. It is a barbarous word, but Baglivi uſes it to ſignify that continual heavineſs or diſorder in the head which the Greeks call carebaria.

CAPISTRATIO, i. e. Phimoſis.

CAPISTRUM. A bridle, or rather a horſe's headſtall. Alſo the name of ſome chirurgical bandages about the head. In Vogel's Syſtem of Noſology, it is the ſame as TRISMUS, which ſee.

CAPISTRUM AURI. The bridle of gold, or rather the ſoldering of gold: it is a name given to borax, becauſe of its uſe in ſoldering this metal.

CAPISTRY. A ſingle-headed roller uſed for ſupporting the under jaw when fractured or luxated: it is applied under the chin and over the head.

CAPITA. Heads in plants are either thoſe receptacles of the ſeeds, which by their globous figure repreſent a head, as the heads of poppies, &c. or they are the ſame as bulbs.

CAPITALIA, i. e. Cephalica.

CAPITALIS REFLEXA. The bandage called the CAPELINE, which ſee.

CAPITATÆ PLANTÆ. Are plants whoſe ſeeds with their down, being included within a ſquamous calyx, are conglobated into a roundiſh figure reſembling a head. Raii Hiſt.

CAPITELLUM. The head or ſeed veſſels, frequently applied to moſſes, &c. as in capitulum. Some ſay it ſignifies ſoapy water, others ſay it is a lixivium.

CAPITILUVIUM. A bath or lotion for the head.

CAPITIS OBLIQUUS INFERIOR, i. e. Obliquus inferior.

CAPITIS OBLIQUUS SUPERIOR, i. e. Obliquus ſuperior.

CAPITIS PAR TERTIUM. FALLOPII, i. e. Complexus minor.

CAPITIS POSTICUS, i. e. Rectus major.

CAPITIS RECTUS, i. e. Rectus minor.

CAPITIS VENA, i. e. Vena Cephalica.

CAPITO. The ſurname of Artemidorus the phyſician, who publiſhed the works of Hippocrates. He is often mentioned by Galen.

CAPITO ANDROMACHUS. Thus Geſner calls a fiſh, which is alſo named zerta, becauſe it paſſes out of the ſea into the river Elb. It lives both in the ſea and in rivers, and is reckoned to be of a good kind for food.

CAPITO LACUSTRIS. See ALBUS.

CAPITULUM. In botany, is the head or top of any plant. In chemiſtry it is an alembic. See ALEMBICUS. In anatomy it is a ſmaller proceſs or protuberance of a bone received by another bone.

CAPIVARD. A Portugueſe name for a water-dog. Lemery deſcribes an animal under this name that is met with in Braſil, which ſtays in the water all day, and at night goes on the land to ravage the gardens and tear up trees. Its body is like a hog's, and its head reſembles a hare's. Its fleſh is good for food.

CAPIVI BALSAMUM. Balſam capivi, called alſo copaiba, copaiva, capivus album. The tree which affords it is called arbor balſamifera Braſilienſis, and arbor copaiba Braſilienſibus. It is the copaifera officinalis, or copaifera fol. pennatis ſubrotundis, flore rubro. The *balſam capivi* tree of Linn. The tree grows ſpontaneouſly in the woods of Braſil, St. Vincent, and other of the Britiſh American iſlands. Deep inciſions are made into the trunk of this tree, during the hotter ſummer months; one tree ſometimes is met with that affords five or ſix gallons of *balſam*, but the ſame tree never yields it twice.

This *balſam* is at firſt limpid and colourleſs, and ſmells like calambour wood: as brought into Europe it is generally yellowiſh, and ſomewhat thicker than olive oil; by long keeping it becomes ſtill thicker, but does not dry. In all ſtates of its conſiſtency, it continues clear and tranſparent. To the ſmell it is grateful, to the taſte bitteriſh and biting, not intenſely ſo, but durable.

To prove its genuineneſs, drop it on paper, if it ſpreads not, as oil, nor runs through, it is good; on the contrary, if it ſpreads or ſinks through it is adulterated. It is alſo eſteemed genuine when a drop falling from the point of a needle into cold water, ſinks to the bottom, or is ſuſpended in the middle; but if it is ſuſpended at the top, or ſpreads, it is ſpurious. If genuine it is ſaid that it does not give the violent ſmell to the urine of thoſe who take it.

We rarely have it genuine; the *balſamum* Canadenſe is generally ſold for it. The Canada *balſam* is the product of the pinus *(balſamea)* foliis ſolitariis ſubemarginatis; ſubtus linea duplici punctata, Linn. The turpentines and their productions, frankincenſe, and the Canada *balſam*, all poſſeſs nearly the ſame qualities as the *balſam capivi* does.

Diſtilled with water it yields half it weight, or nearly ſo, of eſſential oil; the remaining reſin is tenaceous and inodorous. If it is diſtilled in a retort, without any addition, by a fire gradually raiſed, it ſends over firſt a light yellow oil, which ſmells ſtrongly of the juice; then a dark coloured oil, and after it a fine blue oil, both which are pungent to the taſte, having alſo an empyreumatic flavour, but not an ungrateful one.

The *balſam capivi* is uſed in gleets, the fluor albus, coughs, ulceration in the lungs and urinary paſſages; is purgative in doſes of two or three drams; it is detergent, heating, and irritating; but though it heats it agrees in hectic fevers. Rieger ſays that it ſhould not be given in fevers, nor where there is an acrimony in the juices. When joined with the lixiv. tart. it powerfully provokes urine in dropſies.

The uſual doſes are from x. to xl. drops. The leaſt offenſive method is to take it in a glaſs of cold water, or in milk.

Divided by the white of egg, ſugar, honey, or the powder of gum arabic, it mixes with water into an uniform milky fluid. The beſt of theſe mediums is the gum, which ſhould be uſed in the proportion of one part to three parts of the *balſam*. It eaſily mixes with diſtilled oils; but difficultly with expreſſed ones. If a ſmall quantity of alkaline ſalt is added to rectified ſpirit of wine, it perfectly diſſolves this *balſam* into a fragrant liquor, more agreeable than the *balſam* alone.

The London college orders the following empyreumatic oil.

Oleum Copaiva *Compoſitum. Compound Oil of* Balſam Copaiva.

Take of *balſam* of *copaiva* two pounds, of gum guaiacum four ounces; diſtil them together in a retort till a pint is drawn off.

This mixture undiſtilled is good in rheumatiſms; but in diſtillation the guaiacum gives little or nothing over, ſo that this compound differs very little from the oils obtained

by diſtilling the balſam alone. See Neumann's Chemical Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

CAPNELÆUM. In Galen's works, it is ſaid to be a reſin that flows ſpontaneouſly from ſome tree in Lacedæmon. In Cilicia it is called capnelaion, from καπνος, *ſmoak*, and ελαιον, *oil*, *ſmoaky oil*; but in Lacedæmon and ſome other places it is called πρωτοφυτος, the firſt product. Fæſius ſays it ſeems to be called *capnelaion* becauſe of the ſmoak it gives when placed near the fire.

CAPNIAS, from καπνος, *ſmoak*. A jaſper of a ſmoaky colour. Alſo a kind of vine which bears part white and part black grapes. See Theophraſtrus de Cauſis Plant. lib. v. cap. 3.

CAPNICIUM CHELIDONIUM, i. e. Fumaria bulboſa.

CAPNISTON. An epithet of a ſort of ſoil prepared of ſeveral kinds of ſpices and oil, by kindling the ſpices, and ſuffumigating the oil.

CAPNITIS. Tutty.

CAPNOIDES, from καπνος, *fumitory*, and ειδος, *likeneſs*. Podded fumitory. The whole appearance of this plant reſembles fumitory; but the ſtyle of the flower becomes a long taper pod, which contains many round ſhining ſeeds. It is of no note in medicine. Miller's Dict.

CAPNORCHIS. Indian bulbous-rooted fumitory. It hath the whole appearance of fumitory. The root is ſometimes tuberous, ſometimes ſcaly, and at others bulbous. The pods are like thoſe of the ſhepherd's pouch. It is of no medical virtue. Miller's Dict.

CAPNORCHIS AMERICANA. American bulbous rooted fumitory. The flowers are ſomewhat like thoſe of fumitory. It is not uſed in medicine. Miller's Dict.

CAPNOS. Fumitory.

CAPNOS LATIFOLIA, i. e. Fumaria bulboſa.

CAPNOS PHRAGMITES, i. e. Fumaria bulboſa.

CAPO. A name of the American toad.

CAPO. A capon. The deſign of caſtrating a cock is to render him a fit leader for the other poultry, and alſo more fleſhy.

CAPO MOLAGO. Guinea pepper.

CAPOLIN MEXICANORUM HERNANDEZ. Sweet Indian cherries. The bark is reſtringent. There are three ſpecies, the xitoma capollin, the helocapolin, and the tolacapolin. Raii. Hiſt.

CAPOTE. See ZICCARA.

CAPOTES, i. e. Cydonia exotica. C. B.

CAPPARIS. The caper buſh. It is a low prickly buſh, grows wild in Italy, Spain, and the ſouthern parts of France. The bark of the root is bitteriſh and acrid to the taſte, and is ranked among aperients and diuretics. The green buds of the flowers are pickled in vinegar and ſalt, and are uſed at the table to help the appetite. In Holland and Germany they ſubſtitute the buds of the flowers of the cytiſogeniſta ſcoparia vulgaris flore luteo for the *capers*, and pickle them in the ſame manner.

CAPPARIS PORTULACÆ C. B. and capparis Fabago. See FABAGO.

CAPRA ALPINA. The chamois or gems, called alſo rubicapra, rupicapra, and dorcas. It is met with on the Alps belonging to Switzerland: it is a ſpecies of wild goat, in ſhape and ſize reſembling the tame one, with ſhort horns, the ends of which are hooked. The ſtones found in their ſtomachs are called ægagropila and bezoar Germanicum.

CAPRA DOMESTICA, i. e. Caper.

CAPRA MOSCHUS. See MOSCHUS.

CAPRA STREPSICEROS, i. e. Antilopus.

CAPREA PLINII. See CAPREOLUS.

CAPREOLARIS, i. e. Aqueductus.

CAPREOLARIA, i. e. Vaſa ſpermatica, vel præparantia, from *capreolus*, a tendril of a vine.

CAPREOLATA. A ſpecies of black briony growing in Braſil. Raii Hiſt.

CAPREOLUS. In botany it is the long ſmooth production in plants, which is like a ſtring, and grows out of the ſtalk. It conſiſts of rough veſicles and bundles of ſmall fibres, of an elegant orderly contexture, and is the inſtrument with which ſome plants of weak ſtalks are furniſhed, that they may not creep on the ground, but uſe it to lay hold of, and ſo twine themſelves about the neighbouring plants. In the ivy, the *capreolus* is not only aſſiſtant to the plant in climbing, but it ſerves inſtead of a root, whence ſuch plants are called ſcandent. See CLAVICULUS.

CAPREOLUS. In anatomy is the helix of the ear. See alſo CLAVICULUS.

CAPREOLUS. In zoology is the roe-buck, which is alſo called caprea Plinii, caprea, and dorcas. It is found in Scotland and other parts.

CAPREOLUS MOSCHI. See MOSCHUS.

CAPRICALCA. A kind of wild bird, which ſeems to be of the gooſe kind Lemery takes notice of it.

CAPRICERVA OCCIDENTALIS. The deer which affords the Weſt Indian bezoar.

CAPRICERVA ORIENTALIS. The deer which affords the Eaſt Indian bezoar.

CAPRICORNUS. Lead.

CAPRIFICUS. The wild fig-tree. See CARICÆ.

CAPRIFOLIUM. Honey-ſuckle or wood-bind, alſo called matriſylva, periclymenum. It is the lonicera periclymenum, Linn. It is a climbing ſhrub, common in ſhady places: for the beauty and ſweetneſs of its flowers it is cultivated in gardens: its medical properties do not recommend it in practice, though ſome attribute extraordinary efficacy to it.

CAPRIMULGA. A large kind of viper, which is not poiſonous.

CAPSELLA. A name in Marcellus Empiricus for vipers buglos.

CAPSICUM. A ſpecies of pepper. See PIPER.

CAPSULA. A diminutive, from *capſa*, a little bag or caſe, or cheſt. In ſurgery it is a bag made of the broken or diſtended membrana cellularis, or other membrane, formed by nature to encloſe or lodge ſome extravaſated juice, or other matter contained in thoſe tumors called encyſted. Thus it is the ſame with cyſtis.

CAPSULA, in botany, is the ſhort pod, or huſk of a plant, containing the ſeed. According to the number of cells for ſeed, the pod is called unicapſular, bicapſular, &c.

CAPSULÆ ATRABILARIÆ, alſo called glandulæ ſupra-renales; renes ſuccenturiati, capſulæ renales, and glandulæ renales.

They are glandulous bodies, lying on the upper part of the kidnies; or they are two little, oblong, flat, triangular bodies, lying at the upper end and inſide of the extremity of each kidney; the right behind the vena cava, and the left behind the ſpleen and pancreas, being attached by veſſels to thoſe of the kidnies. When they are cut into, there ſeems to be a ſmall cavity, containing a deep green juice; and if viewed when freſh, there ſeems to be a white ſubſtance where the veſſels ramify, and the inner part is a tender ſubſtance like the liver, ſo that it readily breaks down. Both the external and internal parts are vaſcular, and one may obſerve two or three large veſſels in the middle, which give it the appearance of a juice as above mentioned. Euſtachius was the firſt who deſcribed theſe glands. They are larger in the fœtus than in the adult. Their uſe is not certainly known.

CAPSULA COMMUNIS GLISSONII. It is a production of the peritoneum, including the vena porta, and biliary duct in the liver. It is alſo called *capſulæ* venæ portæ. Gliſſon firſt deſcribed it particularly.

CAPSULA CORDIS, i. e. Pericardium.

CAPSULÆ SEMINALES. The extreme parts of the vaſa deferentia, which have their cavities dilated in the manner of *capſules*. Their uſe is to tranſmit the ſemen from the teſtes to the veſiculæ ſeminales.

CAPSULA VENÆ PORTÆ, i. e. *Capſula* communis Gliſſonii.

CAPSULARES ARTERIÆ. The arteries of the renal glands are thus called, and ariſe from the aorta, above the arteria renalis, and give out the arteriæ adipoſæ, which go to the fat of the kidnies. Sometimes they come from the trunk of the cœliaca. The right *capſular artery* comes, moſt commonly, from the arteriæ renalis, of the ſame ſide, near its origin; the left from the aorta above the renalis.

CAPSULARE LIGAMENTUM. The *capſular ligament*, alſo called the mucilaginous *ligament*, as they contain many glands to ſeparate the ſynovia. Every articulating bone is furniſhed with a *capſular ligament*, which *ligament* is compoſed of two layers; the external layer is the ſtronger, being made by the perioſteum, the inner is thin and uniform.

The uſe of the capſular *ligament* is, 1ſt, to connect the bones, which is performed by the outer lamella. 2dly, to confine the ſynovia, which is the office of the inner layer.

They are long and large in thoſe bones that are deſigned for rotation, to give room for motion; and tendons are frequently inſerted into them, that by their action they may draw them outward, and prevent their being pinched.

They are generally of an equal thickneſs all round, in the enarthroſis and arthrodia; but in the ginglymus they are thick on the ſides, and thin on the fore and hind parts, as there its thickneſs would have been inconvenient, by hindering the due flexion and extenſion of the joint; but the tendons ſtrengthen the joint in that part, and partly compenſate for the weakneſs of the *ligament*.

In complete luxations, the *capſular ligament* is generally, if not always ruptured.

The *capſular ligament* of the os femoris, is extended from below the neck of the bone, to admit of a more extenſive rotation.

The *capſular ligament* of the head of the humerus proceeds from the edge of the glenoid cavity in the ſcapula, and is continued over the hemiſphere of the head of the os humeri, and is fixed near its edges towards the muſcular ſurfaces of the great and ſmall tuberoſities, and run down on the neck of the bone, below the loweſt part of the cartilaginous hemiſphere. In all this courſe, the capſula is cloſely fixed in the bone, except a ſmall portion, where it runs over the inner articular tendon of the biceps muſcle.

The *capſular ligament* always includes the whole joint.

CAPSULARES VENÆ. Theſe are branches from the emulgents, and go into the renal glands.

CAPSULATE PODS, from *capſa*, a cheſt. They are the little ſhort ſeed-veſſels of plants. Miller's Dict.

CAPSULATED. That is, incloſed in any thing, as a walnut is in its huſk. Miller's Dict.

CAPULUM, from *καμπτω, to bend.* A contortion of the eye-lids, or other parts.

CAPUR. Camphor.

CAPUS. A capon.

CAPUT. The head. The parts in the lower cavities are the ſeat of the vital faculty, and the *head* is the ſeat of the animal faculty; it being the ſeat from whence all ſenſation is derived.

Beſides the external integuments of the *head*, there is an apaneurotic expanſion which covers it like a cap. It is alſo ſpread round the neck, and on the ſhoulders, like a riding-hood, for which reaſon Winſlow calls it coif, and calls the ſuperior portion of it, the aponeurotic cap. It is very ſtong, and appears to be made of two ſtrata of fibres croſſing each other; as it ſpreads to the neck, it becomes thinner, and is loſt inſenſibly on the clavicles. It ſends out a production on each ſide from above downward, and from without inward, which having paſſed over the ſuperior extremity of the muſculous maſtoideus, it runs behind that muſcle toward the tranſverſe apophyſes of the vertebræ of the neck, where it communicates with the ligamenta intertranſverſalia See PERICRANIUM.

The *head* comprehends the cranium and the face; the cranium is diſtinguiſhed into the upper and the lower parts. The baſis of the ſkull (i. e. its lower part) externally is very uneven, internally it is divided into three pairs of cavities, and one azygous cavity. The firſt pair are above the orbit, in which the anterior lobes of the cerebrum are placed; and the next pair contains the middle lobes; the poſterior pair are placed behind the foramen magnum occipitalis, where the poſterior lobes of the cerebellum are lodged. The azygous cavity is ſituated upon that part of the ſphenoid-bone, called the ephippium, or ſella turcica, where the glandula pituitaria lies.

The bones of the upper part of the cranium are nearly of the ſame thickneſs. Where the bone is thick there is a larger ſpace occupied by the meditullium; where they are very thin, there is no meditullium, whence in the latter caſe the cranium is diaphaneous, in the former opake. The cranium is laterally depreſſed, which ſerves to enlarge the ſphere of viſion, and to increaſe the ſtrength of the ſkull on its fore and hind parts, by making them more convex, which is a neceſſary contrivance to prevent injuries by falls, we generally pitching on theſe parts, ſeldom on the ſides. See FACIES and CRANIUM.

The beſt way of forming a perfect idea of the bones of the *head*, is to have a ſkull, the bones of which are artfully ſeparated, and another, in which they are connected in their proper articulations.

The nerves from the fifth pair, and the hard portion of the ſeventh, are diſtributed through the external parts of the *head*.

Through the ſmall foramina of the os ethmoides, the filaments of the firſt pair of nerves paſs to the noſe, and are called olfactory nerves.

In the os ſphenoides is the foramen opticum, through which the ſecond pair of nerves, called the optic, paſs. This hole, which is ſeated below the anterior clinoid proceſs, likewiſe admits the branch of the carotid artery that goes to the eye.

The foramen lacerum ſuperius lies between the tranſverſe ſpinous, and orbiter proceſſes of the os ſphenoides: through this hole the three pair of nerves, called motores oculi; the fourth pair, or pathetic; the firſt branch of the fifth pair; the whole ſixth pair, except one reflected branch; and an artery from the internal carotids, paſs to the orbit.

Behind the laſt mentioned hole, in the ſame bone, is the foramen rotundum, through which the ſecond branch of the fifth pair of nerves, called the ſuperior maxillary nerves, paſs to the bottom of the orbit.

Between the pars petroſa of the os temporis, and the proceſs of the os ſphenoides, is an oblong ſlit, through which the carotid artery paſſes, running inwards and upwards to the ſella turcica, and ſo to the clinoid proceſſes, where it paſſes through the dura mater.

The portio mollis of the ſeventh pair of nerves, called the auditory nerve, is diſtributed to the meatus auditorius internus; the portio dura comes out by the aquæduct.

The eighth pair of nerves, called the par vagum, paſs out by that common hole, between the temporal and occipital bones; where likewiſe the internal jugular vein, (which is a continuation of the tranſverſe ſinus) goes out of the cranium.

The ninth pair of nerves paſs through the holes of the occiput above the condyls.

The tenth pair of nerves paſs through the foramen magnum, where likewiſe the vertebral arteries enter.

The external eminences are, the two maſtoid proceſſes, the two ſtyloid proceſſes, the two condyloide proceſſes, the two pterygoid, the two arches called zygomata, the external ſpine of the occiput, the condyloide and coronoide apophyſes of the lower jaw.

The principal uſes of the bones of the *head* are, to contain the brain, to be the ſeat of the organs of ſenſation, to ſerve for maſtication, reſpiration, and the formation of the voice.

Lancifi's tables of the bones of the *head* are good ones. See Winſlow's Anatomy, or Monro's Oſteology.

CAPUT, in botany, is the *head* of a plant. See CAPITA.

CAPUT. See PROCESSUS.

CAPUT CONCUTIENS. This muſcle is the firſt of the intertranſverſales colli, to which ſome have given this name.

CAPUT GALLINACEUM, i. e. Onobrychis.

CAPUT MONACHI, i. e. Taraxicum.

CAPUT MORTUUM. A dead head. In chymiſtry it imports the dry fæces left in a veſſel after the moiſture hath been diſtilled from it. It is alſo called terra damnata, and terra mortua.

CAPUT MORTUUM. The earthy part of moiſt bodies ſerves as a baſis to the other principles; it is that which brings them together, which unites them, and which gives to them their ſolidity. When the active principles are extracted, it is called *caput mortuum*. It hath the name of *caput*, before the ſeparation, becauſe it contains the ſpirituous and eſſential parts of the mixed, even as the head of an animal contains its ſubtle parts; and afterwards it receives the epithets of *mortuum* and *damnata*, to ſhew that being deprived of theſe active principles, it is not capable of producing any effect. But we ought to be more charitable to the poor *earth*, and not to damn it ſo readily; for without doubt, the riſe of the denomination was ſome peeviſh alchymiſt, who not finding what he ſought for in the earth of mixtures, loaded it with this malediction. Lemery Chym.

CAPUT OBSTIPUM, ſo Tulpius calls the *wry neck*. See CERVIX. It is a kind of contractura.

CAPUT-PURGIA. A barbarous word uſed by ſome

to ſignify ſuch external remedies as purge the head. Theſe are either errhines or maſticatories.

CAPUT VITULI, i. e. Antirrhinum.

CAPUPEBA BRASILIENSIBUS. A ſort of graſs growing in Braſil, two or three feet high, with reddiſh ſtalks. Raii Hiſt.

CARA BRASILIENSIBUS. A ſpecies of convolvulus. Ray mentions three kinds of it.

CARAB, a pod.

CARABACCIUM LIGNUM. The wood taſtes like cloves, but very mild, and quite grateful, of a cinnamon colour. It is brought from India, but not much known in practice. Baglivi ſays, it corrects acrimony, and a ſcorbutic diſſolution of the lymph.

CARABE, i. e. Succinum.

CARABE FUNERUM, i. e. Bitumen.

CARABE, (TROCHISCI) i. e. Pulv. e ſuccino comp.

CARABUS. This word is variouſly underſtood; with ſome it ſignifies an inſect of the beetle kind; with others. the cray-fiſh; and ſometimes it is uſed for the locuſta marina.

CARACALLA. The name of a ſpecies of American phaſeolus.

CARACOSMOS. A name of the four mare's milk which the Tartars ſo much admire.

CARAGNA. See CARANNA.

CARAGUATA. The common aloe of Braſil. Some ſpecies of it grows among the rocks; one ſpecies of it affords better cloth than flax does. If the root, or freſh leaves are bruiſed, and thrown on the ſurface of the water, fiſhes are ſo infatuated by it, as to be eaſily taken by the hand. There are ſeveral ſpecies, as the carag. guacu, carag. acanga, &c. Raii Hiſt.

CARAINAMBI. A ſpecies of cara.

CARAMBOLAS. This tree bears fruit three times in a year. It grows in the Eaſt Indies. To its different parts are attributed as many medical virtues. Raii Hiſt.

CARAMBU. A ſpecies of lyſimachia growing in Malabar.

CARANAIBA. A ſpecies of palm or date tree.

CARANDAS. A ſhrub growing in the Indies, with leaves like the arbutus; its fruit is blackiſh, and ſhaped like an apple. Raii Hiſt.

CARANNA, alſo called Caragna. It is a concrete reſinous juice brought from New Spain, and other parts of America, in little maſſes, rolled up in the leaves of flags, outwardly of a dark brown colour, inwardly brown, with a caſt of red, variegated with irregular white ſtreaks, ſomewhat ſoft and tenacious as it firſt comes over, but in length of time growing dry and friable. The whiter the gum, the better it is, eſpecially if of the conſiſtence of a plaſter. Its virtues are the ſame as thoſe of tacamahaca, but more efficacious. It hath an agreeable ſmell, with a bitter and ſlightly pungent taſte. Rectified ſpirit diſſolves three-fourths of it, and water diſſolves all the reſt, except the impurities. By diſtillation it affords much eſſential oil, of an orange-colour. It is fragrant, and, to the taſte, moderately pungent. If the ſpirituous tincture is inſpiſſated, it yields a tenacious reſin, and an oily matter, which ſeparates and floats on the ſurface: it is conſiderably aromatic, and moderately bitter. Etmuller ſays, that this gum is uſeful againſt pains in the ſtomach, and in the joints, if ſpread plaſter-wiſe, and applied thereto. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

CARA NOSI, i. e. Vitex. Alſo an Indian ſhrub called negundo.

CARANTIA. See SILIQUA DULCIS.

CARAPATINA, i. e. Bufonitis.

CARARU BRASILIENSIBUS. A ſpecies of blite which grows in Braſil. Raii Hiſt.

CARA-SCHULLI. An Indian ſhrub like the caperbuſh. A decoction of the root provokes urine. Raii Hiſt.

CARATA. A weight called a carat or karat; gold, ſilver, and all plate, is weighed by *carats*. The pound weight is divided into twenty-four parts called *carats*; and the ounce is divided into twenty-four parts, which are alſo called *carats*.

CARAUCIA, i. e. Caraburea.

CARAVATA, i. e. Cacao.

CARBASUS. Scribonius Largus uſes this word to ſignify the thin linen, or ſoft threads, on which the ſurgeons ſpread their ointments, &c. i. e. Lint.

CARBO. A coal. The charcoal is generally underſtood by this word, when foſſilis is not joined with it. It is alſo a name of the carbuncle.

CARBO FOSSILIS. Pit-coal, or Scotch-coal. Hoffman ſays, that when it is analyſed by diſtilling in a retort, over an open fire, it firſt yields a phlegm, then an acrid ſulphureous ſpirit, then a ſubtil oil, then a groſſer oil, which falls to the bottom of the receiver; then, by a briſker fire, an acidulated ſalt like that of amber; in the retort there is left a black earth that is light, and which, on the application of fire, emits neither flame nor ſmoke. The groſs empyreumatic oil contains a quantity of mineral ſulphur: thus coal, as all bitumens are, is an oleous ſulphureous acid, with fine alcaline parts.

Theſe *coals* are only uſed for the advantage of their heat, by burning them in ſtoves; but for ſome purpoſes they undergo a proceſs previous to their being uſed, that is, they are charred, or reduced to coaks: this is effected by a method ſimilar to that of making charcoal of wood: by this operation they are deprived of their phlegm, their acid liquor, and much of their fluid oil.

Charcoal, or vegetable *coal*; that is the *coal* into which wood is converted by the following proceſs:

Pieces of wood are ſo diſpoſed as to form a pile, generally conical, this pile is covered with turf, to prevent the too free draught of air, by which the wood would be reduced to aſhes, and not to *coal*. The pile is then kindled, and the fire continued till the watery and the more volatile parts of the wood are diſſipated, that is, till no more ſmoke ariſes, at which time the wood is thoroughly red hot. The external air is then to be totally excluded by covering the pile with earth, and thus the fire is extinguiſhed.

In chemiſtry, by the word *coal* is underſtood any ſubſtance containing oil, which hath been expoſed to fire in a cloſe veſſel, ſo that all its volatile principles are expelled, and that it can ſuſtain a red heat without farther decompoſition. This *coal* is an unalterable compound, in every inſtance except of burning in open air, and of communicating its phlogiſton to other bodies. There is ſome difference in the different *coals* obtained from various ſubſtances, but they all conſiſt of an earth, which is not perfectly refractory, of a ſaline matter, which is fuſible, and aſſiſts the fuſion of other ſubſtances, and of phlogiſton.

The vapours that ariſe from both foſſil and vegetable *coals*, are extremely pernicious, producing a ſpecies of apoplexy in thoſe perſons who are expoſed to them. They produce at firſt a ſenſe of uneaſineſs, then a chillneſs, ſickiſhneſs, and kind of head-ach, which uſher in a loſs of ſenſe, a fixedneſs of the eyes, a rigidity of the whole body, a ghaſtly countenance, a ſmall frequent and irregular pulſe, feveriſhneſs, &c.

In this caſe the noxious vapours act on the brain and nerves, and not, as hath been generally ſaid, on the lungs; theſe vapours, and thoſe from fermenting vegetables, putrifying animal ſubſtances, or from caverns, operate in the ſame manner; and as accumulated and confined, their effect is more or leſs inſtantaneous. They attack the vital principle, and extinguiſh it if they are copious; and a leſſer quantity produces the ſymptoms of a debility in the nervous ſyſtem. To prevent ſuffering from this cauſe, avoid cloſe rooms where theſe ſubſtances are burning, and never enter their repoſitories but when a candle will continue to burn there. In order to the cure,

Expoſe the patient to the open air; if the patient can ſwallow give him acidulated liquors; if he is inſenſible throw cold water on his face; ſtrong vinegar may be rubbed about his noſtrils, and held under them; blood may be taken from the arm; as ſoon as poſſible make him ſwallow cold water, with vinegar in it; ſtimulating clyſters are uſeful: to remove the ſpaſms, the anodyne mineral liquor of Hoffman, with ſmall doſes of opium, will be proper. If theſe fail, let a ſtrong healthy perſon breathe forcibly into the mouth of the patient, ſo as to diſtend his lungs.

See the Chemical Dictionary, Newmann's Chemical Works, Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic, and Percival's Eſſays, Med. and Exp. vol. ii.

CARBO. See ZIBETA OCCIDENTALIS, & CARBUNCULUS.

CARBOS. Cannal coal. See AMPELITES.

CARBUNCULUS. The ſtone called a carbuncle, from *carbo, a burning coal*, its colour reſembling it. It is alſo called *carbunculus* rubinus, rubinus verus, and the ruby.

It is a glittering diaphanous gem, of a fiery red colour, and proof againſt the file. The moſt beautiful are from the iſle of Ceylon. See GRANATUS.

CARBUNCULUS. A carbuncle, from *carbo, a burning coal*. It is alſo called carbo, anthrax, and pruna. Paulus Ægineta ſays it is a cruſty ulcer, beginning for the moſt part with a puſtule like a burn, and ſometimes without it; at firſt the patient ſcratches the part, whence ariſes one or more puſtules, ſmall as a grain of millet, which breaking becomes a cruſty ulcer, as if it was produced by an actual cautery; the cruſt is rather of an aſh colour or blackiſh, it adheres, and is fixed on its baſe to the part, and ſpreads by its phagædenic property; the fleſh all around is inflamed and black, and ſhines like bitumen. Heiſter ſays, a *carbuncle* is an inflammation, which, in peſtilential times, riſes with ſuch veſicles as are the uſual effects of a burn; this inflammation, for the moſt part, ſuddenly degenerates into a ſphacelus, and corrupts the ſubjacent parts to the very bones, rendering them as black as a coal; and this ſeems to be the reaſon why the Latins call them *carbunculi*, and the Greeks *anthraces*. Dr. Cullen places it as a variety of phlogoſis erythema. *Carbuncles* generally break out ſuddenly and unexpectedly, in an hour or two at the moſt, and are attended with pain and heat. As ſoon as it is opened, it diſcharges a livid ſanies, or ſometimes limpid water. It is black within, which is a ſign that the ſphacelus hath ſeized the ſubjacent fleſh, and is making its progreſs. In thoſe that recover, a ſeparation is made betwixt the ſound and the diſordered fleſh, by means of a ſuppuration. There is no part of the body but what may be the ſeat of them; and they are generally attended with buboes. The proximate cauſe is the inflammation from the peſtilential contagion. Danger is great when the colour is livid; the milder ſort are firſt red and then yellow. When they are ſeated on the face, neck, breaſt, and arm-pits, they are generally fatal.

Heiſter alſo obſerves, that the cure by internal medicines will be beſt effected by ſuch medicines as free the habit from the peſtilential diſeaſe which cauſes theſe ulcers. Heiſter's Surgery.

As to the external means, let one object only engage your attention reſpecting them, viz. to appeaſe pain all in your power; none therefore but the ſofteſt, moſt lenient, and anodyne or relaxing can be proper.

Van Swieten deſcribes another ſort of *carbuncle* in his Comment on Boerhaave's Aph. and ſays, it is an ulcer, which, when after a violent and commonly very painful inflammation, there happens a rupture of the ſkin in ſeveral places, and fragments of the corrupted paniculus adipoſus are diſcharged at its orifices.

CARCAPULI FRUCTU MALO AUREO ÆMULO CODDAMPULLI. The Indian yellow orange of Malabar.

It is a tall large tree, with yellow flowers, and large round fruit, that is ribbed and whitiſh when ripe, of an agreeable acid and ſweetiſh taſte, and with ſeeds of an azure blue colour. This fruit recovers loſt appetite, and is reſtringent. It is alſo called ghoraka.

CARCAPULI LINSCOTANI. This differs from the above in its flower and fruit. The fruit of this ſpecies is ſweet, round, and of the ſize of a cherry. It is alſo called kanna ghoraka. They both afford the gamboge, but this latter the beſt. But this is not the common gamboge which is from a plant of the eſſula Indica kind. See GAMBOGIA.

CARCAROS. A ſort of fever. See QUERQUERA.

CARCAS. The Barbadoes nut-tree. See CATAPUTIA.

CARCAX. A ſpecies of poppy, with a very large head.

CARCER. Paracelſus means by it a remedy proper for reſtraining the diſorder by motions of body and mind, as in curing the chorea ſancti Viti.

CARCHARIAS, from καρχαρ, *ſharp*. The ſhark is thus called becauſe of its ſharp teeth. See CARIS.

CARCHEDONIAS. i. e. Chalcedonius.

CARCHEDONICUS. See GRANATUS.

CARCEDONIUS. See CHALCEDONIUS.

CARCHESIUS. The name of ſome bandages noticed by Galen, and deſcribed by Oribaſius. Properly it is a top of a ſhip's maſt.

CARCHICHEC TURCARUM. The blue primroſe, *carchichec*, ſignifies in the Turkiſh language *ſnow-flower*, and this flower is ſo called becauſe it raiſes itſelf above the ſnow in winter. It is of various colours, ſome are blue, others white, purple, carnation, &c. Raii Hiſt.

CARCHICHEC POLYANTHUS. A primroſe of Conſtantinople, which bears upon one ſtem a multitude of flowers, diffuſed in the manner of an umbrella, leſs than the preceding, but as various in its colours. Raii Hiſt.

CARCINETHRON. A name in Oribaſius for the common knot-graſs.

CARCINODES. A tumor reſembling a cancer.

CARCINODES CHOIRADES. Strumous ſwellings of a malignant quality, painful to the touch, and exaſperated by medicines.

CARCINOMA, & Carcinos. See CANCER. It ſometimes ſignifies the cancer only in its ulcerated ſtate; or a cancerous ulcer, however produced.

CARDAMANTICA. A ſpecies of ſciatica creſſes. See LEPIDIUM.

CARDAMANTICE, i. e. Cardamine.

CARDAMELEUM. The name of a medicine mentioned by Galen.

CARDAMINDUM. Indian creſſes. See NASTURTIUM.

CARDAMINE, alſo called naſturtium pratenſe, flos cuculi, iberis, herba veteribus ignota, meadow-creſſes, ladies-ſmock, and cuckow-flower. The *cardamine* pratenſis, or *cardamine* foliis pinnatis foliolis radicalibus ſubrotundis: caulinis lanceolatis. Linn.

This plant grows about a foot high, its lower leaves are pinnated; each leaf conſiſts of four or five pair of ſmall, roundiſh pinnæ, not always ſet directly oppoſite, having one ſingle, that at the end larger than the reſt; the ſtalk is ſmooth and round, bearing leaves which are leſs, and have narrower pinnæ. The flowers grow ſeveral together at the top, each conſiſting of four roundiſh leaves of a white colour, or, in ſome plants, having a daſh of purple, with darker veins running through them. The ſeeds are ſmall and reddiſh, growing in long ſlender pods. The root is ſmall and fibrous. It grows in meadows, and flowers in April.

Dr. Baker confirms its ancient character of being antiſpaſmodic and anti-epileptic, ſee Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. i. p. 442, &c. where he relates the caſe of a ſpaſmodic aſthma, that reſiſted all other means, being cured by taking the flowers of this plant, at firſt ℈j. twice a-day, by which relief was had; and afterwards ʒ ſs. twice a-day, by which the cure was perfected. The chorea ſancti Viti was cured by ʒſs. twice a-day. The caſe was obſtinate while other means were uſed, but ſoon gave way to theſe flowers. To theſe he adds a caſe in which the palſy, a difficulty of ſwallowing, and convulſions were complicated; and though theſe diſorders had been of long ſtanding, relief was obtained by ʒſs. of theſe flowers taken twice a-day. He farther obſerves, that theſe flowers improve the appetite, that ʒj. hath ſucceeded as an antiſpaſmodic, where opium, camphor, and valerian failed; and that they have been given to ʒ i. ſs. three times a-day.

Linnæus obſerves, that theſe flowers are pungent to the taſte. Dioſcorides ſays, they are warm and diuretic. Galen ſays, they reſemble water-creſſes in taſte and virtues. Dale ſays, they are anti-ſpaſmodic. Dr. T. Robinſon tells us, that they are powerfully anti-epileptic.

CARDAMINE. Water-creſſes. See NASTURTIUM.

CARDAMINE. See SOPHIA.

CARDAMINE PUGILLA SAXATILIS MONTANA. A ſpecies of naſturtium.

CARDAMOMUM. The common or leſſer cardamoms, called alſo elettari, *cardam.* minus, and *cardam.* ſimpliciter. The leſſer *cardamom* ſeeds are the produce of the amomum *cardamomum*, or amomum ſcapo ſimpliciſſimo breviſſimo, bracteis alternis laxis, Linn.

Cardamoms are a dried pod, with ſeeds, brought from Malabar in the Eaſt Indies; the beſt comes from Comagene, Armenia, and the Boſphorus. They grow alſo in Arabia. Theſe pods are divided internally into three cells, in each of which are two rows of triangular ſeeds, of a browniſh colour on the outſide, and white within. The plant grows in the form of our reeds.

Sem. *cardam.* min. The leſſer *cardamoms* have ſhort triangular huſks, ſcarce half an inch long. The ſeeds freed from their huſks are a grateful aromatic, warm but not fiery, and not ſubject, like the peppers, to create immoderate heat. The huſks ſhould only be ſeparated at the time of uſe, for the ſeeds loſe much of their flavour if taken out thereof. They give out all their virtue to ſpirit, and nearly ſo to water. In diſtillation with water a large quantity of eſſential oil riſes; it is pungent to the taſte, and ſmelling ſtrong of the ſeeds; the remaining decoction is bitter and mucilaginous, but void of the flavour and warmth of the ſeeds. A ſpirituous tincture, when evaporated, leaves the virtues of the ſeeds almoſt all in the extract, which is more grateful than the ſeeds themſelves. All the ſpirituous preparations are more agreeable than the watery. The college of London directs the following water and tincture.

Aqua Semimum Cardamomi. *Water of* Cardamom *Seeds.*

Take of the leſſer *cardamom* ſeeds huſked, four ounces; of proof ſpirit, a gallon; of water as much as is ſufficient to prevent burning; diſtil off a gallon.

A glaſs of this, drank after eating flatulent food, is uſeful, to take off the nauſea and ructus which uſually ſucceed.

Tinctura Cardamomi. *Tincture of* Cardamoms.

Take of the leſſer *cardamom* ſeeds, freed from their huſks, half a pound; of proof ſpirit, a quart; digeſt without heat, and ſtrain off the ſpirit. This tincture poſſeſſeth all the virtues of the ſeeds; and among all the aromatics there are none that anſwer ſo well, in general, as this tincture, for rendering mineral waters, and other ſaline liquors, eaſy and agreeable in the ſtomach.

CARDAM. MAJUS. The greater *cardamoms.* The amomum grana paradiſi, Linn. Their pods are about an inch long, triangular, and with two rows of ſeeds in each. The huſks are tough, and thicker than thoſe of the leſſer kind. They grow in Java and the Eaſt Indies. They are not in uſe, being much weaker (though of the ſame nature) than the leſſer ſort.

CARDAM. MEDIUM. Theſe grow in pods of a round figure; but being much weaker than the leſſer ſpecies, are not in uſe.

See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chym. Works. Miller's Bot. Off. Dale.

CARDAMOMUM PIPERATUM. See PARADIS. GRANA.

CARDAMOMUM SIBERIENSE, i. e. Indian, or ſtellated aniſe.

CARDEGI INDI, i. e. Indian leaf. See FOLIUM.

CARDIA. So the Greeks call the heart; but now the word is generally uſed for the left orifice of the ſtomach. Sometimes it means the pith of a tree. The ancients called a ſyncope alſo by this name, when it was cauſed by anger.

CARDIACA. Motherwort. It is alſo called agripalma gallis, marrubium, and cardiaca lycopus, Ruellii. It is the leonurus cardiaca. Linn.

It is called *cardiaca*, becauſe it relieves in faintings and diſorders of the ſtomach, particularly in children, and in hypochondriacs. It is a large plant, with ſquare branched ſtalks, the leaves ſet in pairs on long pedicles at the joints, and the flowers in cluſters round the upper joints. The leaf is dark-coloured, cut deep into three ſharp-pointed, indented ſegments, of which the middle one is the longeſt, and the two lateral ones commonly again deeply cut. The flower is purpliſh, labiated, with the upper lip long and arched, the lower ſhort, and cut into three ſections. It is biennial, grows waſte in wild grounds, and flowers in July.

It hath been famed in diſorders of the ſtomach, proceeding from thick phlegm. It looſens the belly, promotes perſpiration and urine, alſo the uterine purgations. Its ſenſible qualities are ſuch as give us to expect theſe effects from it. The leaves and tops have a ſtrong, rather a diſagreeable ſmell, and a bitter taſte. By keeping, or by boiling, the diſagreeable ſmell is diſſipated. An extract of a pungent bitter, ſubſaline quality is obtained by evaporating the watery decoction. But an infuſion of the tops before it flowers, is the beſt preparation. See Dale, Miller's Bot. Off. Lewis's Mat. Med.

CARDIACA. In pharmacy it ſignifies cordial, and is alſo named cordialia, analeptica, confortantia, confortativa, refectiva, and reſumptiva.

The word *cordial* is of a large extent. Things of very oppoſite natures may prove cordials, by relieving the ſame ſymptoms, when oppoſite cauſes produced them. To underſtand their operation on the body, it is neceſſary to conſider, that a languor or faintneſs muſt be the conſequence either of what oppreſſes, or elſe of what exhauſts the vital powers; that which retards the progreſs of the vital principle in our frame, or is an impediment to its influence, produces the ſame ſenſation as a diminution of it does. In both theſe caſes, medicines of oppoſite natures produce the ſame effect, that is, they add force to the fibres: thus, under an oppreſſion of ſpirits from heat, when no extraordinary action, or indiſpoſition of body, hath exhauſted them, a glaſs of cold water is a *cordial*; for it ſtimulates the fibres, and rouſes them to their wonted action: and when from violent exerciſe, or a tedious diſeaſe, a perſon faints, warm medicines, or aromatic and ſpirituous liquors, are alſo *cordial*, by producing in us the ſame effect. But in general by *cordials* is underſtood, thoſe preparations, whoſe warm and active parts immediately, on being received into the ſtomach, produce a chearfulneſs in us, with increaſed ſtrength. Valcarengus ſays, that a *cordial* is whatever deſtroys, or at leaſt blunts, the force of the morbific cauſe, reſtores the loſt tone of the ſolids, and gives due motion to the fluids, and by that means procures a juſt equilibrium, which is the only and laſting principle of all the motions in our body. It ſhould be obſerved, that weakneſs ariſes from a redundance, as well as a deficience, in the conſtituents of health: whence from this definition of *cordials*, oppoſite means aſſume the ſame character, for thus they both are *cordials*, by oppoſing the cauſe of languor.

CARDIACA ARTERIA, i. e. Coronaria cordis arteria.

CARDIACUS MORBUS. So the ancients called the nervous fever.

CARDIACA PASSIO. The Cardiac Paſſion. It is a diſorder that is frequently mentioned by the ancients; but by the moderns, it is moſtly treated of under the name of ſyncope: and, indeed, from the deſcription which the ancients give of a *cardiac paſſion*, it may well be referred to that article. The name *cardioca paſſio* is from the part ſuppoſed to be affected. Cœlius Aurelianus ſays, "that this diſorder, according to ſome, derived its name from the part affected; for they imagine that the heart is the principal ſeat of it." Soranus declines the giving a definition, and ſays, "that there is no perceptible ſign of any tumor about the heart," (which ſome ſuppoſe) and he aſſerts, "that it is a quick and inſtantaneous ſolution, or relaxation." Hippocrates mentions this diſorder in his firſt and ſecond book of Epidemics. Eraſiſtratus alſo ſpeaks of it in his books concerning the belly. Artimedorus Sidenſis ſays, it is a tumor about the heart; but by the account which Cœlius Aurelianus gives of it in his Acut. Morb. lib. ii. he ſeems to deſcribe the ſyncope very clearly and accurately.

CARDIALGIA. The heart-burn, from καρδία, *the heart*, or rather the left orifice of the ſtomach, and ἀλγέω, *to be pained*; ſo more properly, pain or uneaſineſs about the upper orifice of the ſtomach. It is ſometimes the ſame as cardiogmos. It is an *inſtance* of dyſpepſia.

This diſorder is called ſoda, *heart-burn*, or ſpurious *cardialgia*; and pain in the ſtomach, or the true *cardialgia*. In the ſpurious kind the pain is not ſo great, nor does the ſtrength fail, nor is there any toſſing, or remarkable inquietude. In the true, there is pain in the ſtomach, or about its orifices, but generally felt about the part called the pit of the ſtomach; it is attended with great anxiety, difficulty of breathing, want of ſtrength, inquietude, reaching to vomit, coldneſs, and trembling

of the extremities. Sometimes the uneaſy ſenſation extends the whole length of the œſophagus, with a preſſure or conſtriction, and uſually attacks by fits.

Some ſay that the upper orifice is the ſeat of this diſorder, others that it is in the lower; and this latter is very probable, for the uneaſineſs is generally perceived in the ſcrobiculum cordis, where the lower orifice of the ſtomach is placed; the reſt of the ſtomach may be affected from the pain in its orifice. In thoſe who have died of this diſorder, on diſſection the right orifice only hath appeared to be in an unnatural ſtate.

Thoſe whoſe ſtomachs abound with acid, or with bilious diſorders, are the moſt ſubject to theſe complaints.

The cauſes are various, as flatus, acid, and other acrimonious humours in the ſtomach, or a loſs of its mucus, ſpicy and pungent aliment, worms, a tranſition of rheumatic, or of gouty, &c. humours to the ſtomach, or an ulcer in any part of it; fat aliment, eſpecially if cold ſmall liquors are drank too ſoon after eating it; bilious matter, which is known by bitter and nauſeous eructations, as well as by a yellow or greeniſh diſcharge by vomiting; congeſtions of blood about the region of the ſtomach from a plethora, or from ſpaſms. Dr. Hunter thinks this diſorder is generally cauſed by fumes ariſing from acrid humours, rather than from the humours themſelves: his reaſon is, becauſe if the patient puts himſelf into a poſture to prevent the fumes riſing to the part affected, immediate relief is generally found. A ſpaſm in the orifices of the ſtomach, by which the vapours are impeded in their paſſage from this viſcus, and by the heat of the part rariſying, produce a diſtenſion, anxiety, &c. anger, particularly after meals; corroſive poiſons; ſtones in the gall ducts, or in the ureters, by ſympathy produce this diſeaſe in the ſtomach.

Thoſe who labour under this complaint, have an uneaſy ſenſation in the ſtomach, anxiety; heat which extends ſometimes up the œſophagus; oppreſſion, faintneſs, inclination to vomit, a diſcharge of clear lymph from the ſtomach, the mind ſeems diſturbed; there is a difficulty of breathing, loſs of ſtrength, coldneſs of the extremities, frequent eructations, which, while diſcharging, alleviate the pain; head-ach, vertigo, trembling, a weak pulſe that is intermitting and unequal; the face is pale, yellow, or livid, &c. More or leſs of theſe ſymptoms are the attendants of the *cardialgia*, which approaches generally with yawning and liſtleſſneſs, and at its height the extremities are cold. It does not quit the patient till heat returns into the feet, and it often totally vaniſhes with a copious perſpiration.

The *cardialgia* muſt be diſtinguiſhed from that oppreſſion and uneaſineſs in the ſtomach, which is only the effect of overcharging it with food, the colic, and a ſwooning.

If this diſorder ſucceeds a fever, with petechial or purple ſpots, it is generally a fatal ſign; following a ceſſation of pain in gouty limbs, manifeſts the turn of the diſorder inwards, which is dangerous. If it ſucceeds foul exulceration in the ſkin, there is much danger. Coming on upon a ſudden check of a dyſentery, it is a bad ſign; but, except it is attended with inflammation, or the conſequent of ſome other diſeaſe, it is rarely dangerous.

In order to the cure, it ſhould be conſidered, whether or no the diſorder is ſymptomatical; if it is ſymptomatical, regard muſt chiefly be had to the primary diſorder; if it is an original complaint, its various cauſes muſt be adverted to, that the remedies may be adapted to the particular one in the preſent caſe.

The diet ſhould be light, generally of the animal kind; what is drank ſhould not be apt to ferment; brandy and water, or water in which toaſted bread is ſteeped, will generally agree; or camomile tea, which ſooths the ſpaſmodic motions of the ſtomach. Lime-water, the mineral alkaline waters, and diſtilled water, are proper for common drink.

If acid juices in the primæ viæ are the cauſe, abſorbents and mild alkalines will be the remedies, and of theſe the julepum e Creta, magneſia alb. with ſmall doſes of the ſal. alk. mineral, are elegant and efficacious.

If with acidity the digeſtion is weak; beſides the magneſia at proper intervals, bitter infuſions mixed with mild aromatics will be proper.

Acrimony of any kind is relieved for the preſent by cold water, in which gum arabic is diſſolved. If the acrimony is of the acid kind, it produces a gnawing darting pain; if of the alkaline, a burning pain.

When an alkaline acrimony, or an acrid hot bile, thrown into commotions by an exceſs of anger, is the cauſe, the faulty matter ſhould firſt be evacuated by ſtool: nitre in ſmall doſes, frequently repeated, will be neceſſary; a draught of cold water may now and then be given, and ſtupes, wrung out of a warm fomentation, may be applied to the ſtomach, until a general perſpiration comes on; this will be uſeful when a *cardialgia* accompanies a cholera morbus; when this diſorder from this cauſe follows a tertian fever, the cure ſhould commence with an emetic; when a vomiting attends a bilious *cardialgia*, avoid hot carminatives, but ſupply the patient with Hoffman's anodyne mineral ſpirit, in due doſes, and as frequently as the urgency of the ſymptoms require.

In general, in any of the caſes of alkaline acrimony, after an emetic, a gentle cathartic, or both; acids, ſuch as the ſpt. nitri Di elix. vitriol. ſpt. febrifug. Di. Clutton, liquor. miner. anod. Hoffman, diluted with water or other ſmall liquors, are indicated.

If from ſalt aliments, warm water ſhould be drank, and after it a little of any ſpirituous liquor.

If aromatics or high-ſeaſoned food is the cauſe, frequent draughts of warm water gives the ſpeedieſt and moſt effectual relief.

When an undue uſe of ſpirituous liquors gives riſe to this diſorder, the bark and vitriolic acids, before and after meals, moderate exerciſe, and the mineral alkaline waters, are the beſt means of recovery.

When flatulence with a weak ſtomach are the chief cauſes, carminatives, ſuch as flor. cham. vel cort. aurant. ʒ ſs. ad ʒ j. gives much relief, but mild opiates are often to be preferred.

The ſedentary and ſtudious are ſubject to this diſeaſe from a laxity in the ſtomach, when the habit in general is robuſt, in this inſtance the cort. Peruv. pulv. ʒ ſs. vel ſem. ſinap. non contuſ. cochl. mediocr. bis terve in die; vel ʒ j. bis terve in die; or if theſe fail, warm bitters, and the fetid gums joined with light chalybeates generally ſucceed.

When worms produce it, avoid all the acrid anthelmintics; give warm milk, mint, penny-royal, or any other ſimple diſtilled water.

In hyſteric or hypochondriac *cardialgiæ*, light infuſions of the bark, with rhubarb, and ſmall doſes of fixt alkaline ſalt, the chalybeate waters, and exerciſe on horſeback ſhould alſo, if poſſible, be uſed. In hypochondriac caſes nitre is often uſeful.

When a congeſtion of blood, from impeded or ſuppreſſed periodical evacuations, gives riſe to this complaint, bleed, give antiſpaſmodics, and endeavour to promote their due diſcharge.

Surfeits are ſometimes the cauſe, in which caſe, after a vomit, give camomile or carduus tea; and if the diet was putrid, let vinegar and other vegetable acids be taken.

Violent vomits, draſtic purges, and cauſtic poiſons, produce this diſorder, and when theſe are its cauſe, give plenty of warm water to promote two or three diſcharges upwards, then milk and oily mixtures, with ſmall doſes of ſome warm opiate.

Clyſters are uſeful auxiliaries in all the caſes of this kind.

Gouty, &c. matter in the ſtomach, cauſing this complaint, is to be removed by warm cordials, taken in moderate quantities, until the ſtomach itſelf becomes warm: how much will do this the feelings of the patient alone can determine.

External applications for abating pain in the ſtomach: if this diſorder ſeems to be in the upper orifice thereof, they are beſt applied to the left ſide of the eighth or ninth vertebra; and in other diſorders in this part, as nauſea, vomiting, &c. they are moſt effectual when laid on the left ſide, towards the back, and on the ſpurious ribs.

CARDIALGIA INFLAMMATORIA. Inflammation in the ſtomach.

CARDIALGIA SPUTATORIA. The ſame as Pyroſis.

CARDIMELECH. A fictitious term in Dolæus's Encyclopedia, by which he would expreſs a particular active prin-

principle reſiding in the heart, appointed to what we call the vital functions.

CARDIMONA, i. e. Cardialgia.

CARDINALIS FLOS. The cardinal flower. It is called alſo trachelium Americanum, American throat-wort: it is thus called from the intenſe redneſs of its flower, which vies with the *cardinal's* ſcarlet robe. See RAPUNTIUM.

CARDINAMENTUM, from *cardo, a hinge*. An *hinge*-like articulation.

CARDIOGMUS, from *καρδιωσσω, to have a gnawing pain at the mouth of the ſtomach*. The ſame as cardialgia. Alſo an aneuriſm in the aorta near the heart, which occaſions pain in the præcordia.

CARDIONCHUS. Aneuriſm in the heart, or in the aorta near the heart.

CARDIOTROTUS. One who hath a wound in his heart.

CARDITIS. Inflammation of the heart. Dr. Cullen includes this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexia and order febres. He defines it to be a fever, with pain in the region of the heart, anxiety, difficulty of breathing, cough, unequal pulſe, palpitation of the heart, and fainting. See INFLAMMATION.

CARDO. The articulation called ginglymus is ſometimes thus named, becauſe of its ſimilitude to an hinge.

CARDONES. The name of an Indian herb.

CARDONET. A wild artichoke. See CINARA.

CARDONIUM. In the phraſe of Paracelſus, it is wine medicated with herbs.

CARDOPATIUM. The low carline thiſtle.

CARDUO-CNICUS. See ATTRACTYLIS.

CARDUUS. The thiſtle. The general characters of which are as follow: the leaves are ſet alternately on the branches, and are prickly; the heads are moſtly ſquamous and prickly; prickles are on moſt or all parts of the plant, and they are moſtly lacteſcent.

But the modern botaniſts ſo vary in their arrangement, that each reject ſome which others rank in this claſs. Boerhaave hath thirty ſpecies in his catalogue.

CARDUUS BENEDICTUS. The bleſſed or holy thiſtle, alſo called *carduus*, cnicus ſylveſtris hirſutior, *cardui* lutei procumbentis ſudorifici & ameri. It is the centaurea benedicta, or the centaurea calycibus duplicato-ſpinoſis lanatis involucratis, foliis ſemidecurrentibus denticulato-ſpinoſis, Linn. It is a plant with rough, narrow, jagged leaves, ſituated alternately, terminating in ſoft prickles, and large hairy branched ſtalks, leaning to the ground; on the tops of which grow large ſcaly prickly heads, including a number of yellow floſculi, which are followed by oblong ſtriated ſeeds incloſed in down. It is a native of Spain and ſome of the Archipelago iſlands, and is annually ſown with us in gardens.

The leaves have a penetrating bitter taſte, not very ſtrong or durable in the mouth; when freſh they are more ungrateful than when dry. It ſhould be hung up looſely in an airy place after it is well dried, for if preſſed cloſe it rots. The beſt time for gathering it is when in flower.

When this herb is uſed to excite vomiting, a decoction of it in water is the beſt, for thus its more nauſeous parts are extracted: cold water in an hour or two extracts the light grateful bitter; but if the infuſion is continued much longer, the nauſeous part is alſo extracted; rectified ſpirit extracts only the agreeable bitter, but though heated, it does not eaſily take up the offenſive parts.

The ſlight infuſion with cold water helps the appetite, and is uſeful when the digeſtive powers are weak; it ſits eaſy on the ſtomach, and no bitter is leſs heating. An ounce of the dried leaves may be infuſed two hours in a pint of ſoft water; it may be flavoured at pleaſure with any aromatic. It may be made ſtronger by returning the liquor on freſh parcels of the leaves or tops. It affords nothing valuable by diſtillation. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Miller's Bot. Off. Dale.

CARD. FULLONUM, called alſo dipſacus, ſativus. Manured teaſil, or fuller's thiſtle.

It hath a ſtem that is four or five feet high, branched, and furniſhed with a few prickles; the leaves are long, armed with prickles, and ſet in couples along the ſtem, they encircle the ſtem ſo as to form a kind of baſon; the ſtems are terminated by large prickly heads in the form of an egg. Their chief uſe is among the manufacturers of woollen cloths; their prickly heads are uſed.

CARDUUS FULLONUM SYLVESTRIS, called alſo dipſacus ſylveſtris, labrum Veneris, virga paſtoris major. wild teaſil, or Venus's baſon.

They grow on the ſides of ditches and near the highways, are of the ſame kind as the manured, but not ſo ſtrong.

CARDUUS HÆMORRHOIDALIS, alſo called carduus vinearum repens, carduus vulgariſſimus viarum, cirſium arvenſe, carduus ceanothos. The common creeping way-thiſtle.

Its roots are whitiſh, but now and then incline to black, and have a ſtrongiſh ſmell: it ſends forth fibres that creep on the ground, and propagates itſelf to a great diſtance: it is common in tillage ground and highways: it flowers in July and Auguſt. It is called hæmorrhoidalis becauſe it relieves the pain of the hæmorrhoids if beat into a poultice and applied.

CARDUUS LACTEUS, alſo called carduus Mariæ, carduus leucographus, carduus Marianus, carduus albis maculis notatus vulgaris, ſilybum. Common milk thiſtle, or lady's thiſtle. It is diſtinguiſhed from all other thiſtles in England, by having its leaves cut in ſeveral laciniæ full of hard ſharp prickles, having all the upper part ſpotted with long and broad white ſpots. It grows on banks and flowers in June. The leaves and ſeeds have ſimilar virtues to thoſe of the *carduus* benedictus, but in an inferior degree. It is ſaid to be efficacious againſt pungent pains. Miller's Bot. Off.

CARDUUS LACTEUS SYRIACUS, alſo called carduus albis maculis notatus exoticus, Bedeguar Arabum Rauwolfii, cnicus albis. The Spaniſh milk-thiſtle.

Carlina, alſo called cardopatium, chamæleon albus, carline acaulos magno flore, carlina humilis, the low carline thiſtle.

The characters of this and the next ſpecies are, it is perennial, hath long, narrow, deeply jagged leaves, that are prickly and laying on the ground; in the middle of which grows a large roundiſh head, without any ſtalk, encompaſſed with ſmaller leaves, which may be eat as artichokes are: the flower iſſues from the middle of the head.

Boerhaave enumerates ſeven ſpecies.

The *carline thiſtle*, with the flower compoſed of a number of white petals ſet round a middle diſk. It is a native of the mountainous parts of Italy and Germany. The roots have a ſtrongiſh diſagreeable ſmell, a weak bitteriſh ſub-acrid aromatic taſte: they are diaphoretic, anti-hyſteric, and anthelminthic. The doſe from ℈ i. to ʒ i.

CARDUUS PINEA, alſo called carlina gummifera, ixine, carlina acaulos gummifera, chamæleo albus Dioſcoridis, columnæ, and *pine-thiſtle*. Its flowers are compoſed of purpliſh floſculi, like thoſe of the common thiſtle. It is a native of Italy and of Candy. Its roots are larger than thoſe of the carline thiſtle, and ſmell ſtronger; if wounded when freſh, they yield a viſcous milky juice, which concretes into tenacious maſſes, at firſt whitiſh, and reſembling wax, when much handled growing black, ſuppoſed to be the ixion, ixia, and acanthina maſtiche of the ancients: this gum was formerly chewed for the ſame purpoſes as the maſtich gum: the root hath the ſame virtues as the carline thiſtle roots.

CARDUUS TOMENTOSUS, alſo called acanthium vulg. vel alb. ſpina alba ſylv. Fuchſio, *carduus* leucanthemus, and the *cotton thiſtle*.

CARDUUS ACANTHUS. See ACANTHUS.

CARDUUS ALTILIS. The artichoke.

CARDUUS BRASILIANUS FOLIIS ALOE, i. e. Ananas.

CARDUUS CŒRULEUS ERECTUS TINGITANUS, &c. The Tangier perennial blue diſtaff thiſtle.

CARDUUS CHRYSANTHEMUS. See SCOLYMUS.

CARDUUS DOMESTICUS. The artichoke.

CARDUUS ESCULENTUS. The chardon. A ſpecies of artichoke.

CARDUUS FEROX. Fiſh-thiſtle.

CARDUUS GLOBOSUS. The Globe-thiſtle.

CARDUUS GLOBOSUS MINOR. See RITRO.

CARDUUS HUMILIS GUMMIFERA, &c. i. e. Carduus Pinea.

CARDUUS LUTÆUS, i. e. Attractylis.

CARDUUS SATIVUS. Baſtard Saffron. Alſo the artichoke.

CARDUUS SATIVUS NON SPINOSUS. The artichoke.

CARDUUS SOLSTITIALIS. See CALCITRAPA.

CARDUUS SPHÆROCEPHALUS LATIFOLIUS VULG. The globe thiſtle.

CARDUUS SPINOSISSIMUS ELATIOR. The chardon. A ſpecies of artichoke.

CARDUUS SPINOSISSIMUS SPHÆROCEPHALUS RIGIDIS ACULEIS ARMATA C. B. Cardui Arabici Park. Theat. Spina Arabica Offic. Arabian thiſtle. It ſeems to be of the like qualities with the ſpina alba.

CARDUUS STELLATUS. See CALCITRAPA.

CARDUUS STELLATUS LUTÆUS. See CALCITRAPA, alſo JACEA STELLATA.

CARDUUS VENERIS. The teaſil.

CARDUUS XERANTHEMUS. An epithet of ſome ſpecies of carlina.

CAREALIA. See PARIS.

CAREBARIA, from καρη, the *head*, and βαρος, *heavineſs*. An uneaſy and ſomewhat painful heavineſs of the head.

CARENA. The twenty-fourth part of a drop.

CARETTI, i. e. Bonduch.

CAREUM, i. e. Carum.

CARI, i. e. Carum.

CARICA. A dry fig. The tree is the ficus (Carica) foliis palmatis, Linn.

CARICUM. The name of a medicine for deterging ulcers.

It is prepared of the black hellebore, cantharides, and ſeveral other things mixed together.

It is alſo the name of an oil mentioned in Athenæus, lib. ii.

CARIES. Mr. Sharp ſays it is a partial mortification of the bone, which ſeparates from the ſound part ſooner or later. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſes in the claſs locales and order dialyſes.

This corrupted ſtate of the bone is called caries, ſphacelus, teredon, or tredon.

This diſorder happens when the bone is deprived of its perioſteum, and having loſt its natural colour becomes pinguious, yellow, brown, and at laſt black. This ſtate, which is the firſt degree of this diſorder, was called by the ancients os vitiatum, os nigrities; but the greateſt degree is when the bone is corroded, diſcharging a ſanies which conſumes the adjacent fleſh. Of the many names given to the *caries*, as ſpinoſa ventoſa, ſpinoſa ventoſitas, gangrene, or cancer of the bones, as Celſus calls it, or teredo and pædarthrocaces, there ſeems to be only the following needful: firſt, when the cauſe is internal it is the ſpina ventoſa, or, with Severinus, when it happens to children, it may be called pædarthrocaces; and ſecondly, when the cauſe is external, it may be called *caries*.

That an inflammation of the perioſteum is tending to a gangrene, and ſo a *caries* of the bone, is known, firſt, from the ſigns of inflammation preceding; ſecondly, a freedom from pain in the affected part, without a manifeſt cauſe, and from a denſe, ſlow, increaſing, and not very painful tumor of the incumbent parts. But among the ſigns of a beginning gangrene, the ſudden removal of pain is fallacious, for this happens in inflammations of the perioſteum, when the perioſteum is corroded ſo as to admit the matter to eſcape betwixt the muſcles, though in general, when pain is relieved by a reſolution of inflammation, it goes off gradually only; but a good reſolution hardly if ever happens after a violent inflammation. Again, when a gangrene is threatened, the taint is propagated through the cellular membrane, which, by ſlight cauſes, is often raiſed into a large tumor; but, as all the ſymptoms of an inflammation ceaſe when a gangrene is preſent, the tumor will not have the hardneſs and reſiſtance obſervable in a phlegmon, but will be flaccid, and hardly ſenſible of pain. If the incumbent part changes to a livid colour, the bone is then without doubt in a mortifying ſtate.

Celſus, who treats on this diſorder the beſt of all the ancients, at leaſt as to its cure, ſays, lib. viii. cap. 3. "We may ſoon, by means of a probe, diſcover a *caries* of the bone; ſince the probe will penetrate leſs or more, according as the *caries* is ſuperficial or deep." When the probe comes to the ſound part of the bone, it is reſiſted. Wiſeman, vol. i. p. 296. edit. 5. ſays, "If the bone be bare, its corruption is eaſily diſcerned, though ſometimes it be covered with a grumous or viſcous matter, which rubbed off, the bone appeareth white, brown, or black. If the white be porey, the *caries* may be deeper and more dangerous than if it were black and hard. If the bone lie ſo hid as that you cannot feel it with your probe, yet you may judge it carious from the quantity or quality of the matter. If the bone lies near, and the fleſh is lax and white, it is ſhrewdly ſuſpicious that the bone is carious: but if the matter ſtink or be oily, it is a more certain ſign of rottenneſs. Ulcers of long continuance near a bone do alſo foreſhew a *caries*, according to Hippocrates. Alſo the difficulty in cicatrizing them, and the frequent and ſudden eruption of them after they are cured, giveth a ſuſpicion of a foul bone. But if the bone is much corrupted, the matter is fetid, and the probe will penetrate into it."

In living perſons the bones are of a reddiſh or bluiſh colour: the firſt ſign of a vitiated bone, is a change from this colour to a white, yellow, dark, and at laſt a black one: a white denotes a beginning mortification: hence, when ſmall perforations are made in a cranium thus affected, the firſt ſign that a cure ſucceeds is, when the white ſurface of the bone begins to aſſume a reddiſh colour.

The friability of carious bones is much augmented by the acrimony of their humours, and chiefly of their corrupted medullary oil; for the cohefion of the bones depend much on the interpoſition of it between the terreſtrial parts.

The peculiarly diſagreeable fetid ſmell which ariſes from carious bones is from the corrupted medullary oil.

When a *caries* is under an ulcer, the fleſh over the *caries* is ſoft, flaccid, fungous, inflated, and tumid; the lips of the ulcer inverted, the ſanies clear, ſubtil, fetid, and full of ſmall black ſcales, nor can the ulcer be healed, at leaſt only ſuperficially, and it ſoon breaks out again. See ULCER with a *caries*.

In the Edinb. Med. Eſſays, Dr. Monro gives a particular account of ſeveral ſpecies of this diſorder, viz. The dry or gangrenous *caries*, which is, where the bone is ſmooth and firm, and throws out little matter; its ſurface at firſt is not of a very dark colour, but before exfoliation it turns very brown or black. This kind exfoliates with leſs difficulty than any other. The worm-eaten *caries* or ulcer of the bones; this ſpecies hath not ſuch a dark colour as the former, it diſcharges more matter; the cavernous, or ſpongy texture of the bone is evident. The carneous *caries* or ulcer of the bones with hyperſarcoſis; this ſort differs from the worm-eaten *caries* only in the addition of ſpongy fleſh growing in the cells of the bone; this ſpongy fleſh often bleeds if touched with the greateſt care. The phagedenic *caries* with hyperſarcoſis; in this caſe the perioſteum is thickened, the bone ſoftened, and its ſurface is eroded, a yellow red ſpongy ſubſtance ſprouts out: the difference betwixt this and the carnous *caries* is, that in the latter the ſpongy fleſh grows out of the caverns while the grey or brown coloured ſpongy bony ſides of them ſtill remain; but in the former, the bony fibres diſappear wherever the ſpongy fleſh comes, ſo that one can ſcarce determine by the probe whether or no the bone is carious: upon ſcraping away this bone-conſuming fleſh, the ſurface of the bone appears rough indeed, but not much eroded, nor greatly altered in its colour. The ſcrophulous *caries*: this is ſometimes obſerved when an abſceſs is opened; the bone at the bottom of it appears white and ſmooth, without its perioſteum or connection to any of the neighbouring parts, except by its ligaments at the extremities; and this way of bones mortifying moſt commonly happens in ſcrophulous habits. The ſcirrho-cancrous *caries*: in one ſpecies of exoſtis the tumefied bone is ſofter in one part than in another, and is not compoſed of regular fibres, nor cavernous, but as if the oſſifying juice had been thrown out irregularly; over which a cartilaginous or tendinous ſubſtance is ſpread, and from this a firm ſhining ſmooth fleſh grows out, which, after the teguments are moved, ſends forth a thin ſtinking acrid ſanies; the patient complains often of throbbing pains in it, and ſometimes conſiderable hæmorrhages are made from imperceptible veſſels in its ſurface. The ſpreading cancrous *caries*: in the ſpreading eating cancers, the bones are waſted, as well as the ſoft parts

parts, and the appearances are the ſame in both, unleſs that the bones do not conſume quite ſo faſt.

In conſidering a *caries* of the bones we ſhould remember, that the bones have their veſſels and circulating fluids, and the ſame general texture which the ſoft parts have; ſo that ſolidity, and a ſtronger coheſion of parts, are the only evident diſtinguiſhing characters of the compoſition of bones.

Heiſter obſerves that the cure of a *caries* depends on removing eaſily and ſpeedily all the corrupted parts of the bone, and that in the gentleſt caſes this is done by rectified ſpirit of wine being applied by means of lint dipped in it; in more violent caſes a ſolution of mercury in aqua fortis is required, and in the moſt malignant the actual cautery will be neceſſary; but theſe hinder ſuppuration, and retard the operation intended.

An exfoliation of the carious laminæ of the bone, are ſometimes ſeparated in two or three weeks, and in other inſtances they are not removed in a year.

It is neceſſary to examine ſtrictly all circumſtances, and to diſcover, if poſſible, what cauſe either general or topical may have made the corruption of the bone, that endeavours may be uſed to remove it, if it ſtill ſubſiſts: the lues venerea, ſcrophula, ſcurvy, gangrene, abſceſs, wounds, contuſions, and many other diſeaſes, may be the cauſe.

When the bone is perceived to ſeparate, if the pus which flows from under it is mild and in a due quantity, it will be the beſt ſuppurant and incarner, and nothing is to be done but to remove the pieces of bone as often as they are perceived to be looſe. If the quantity of pus is too ſmall, dreſs it with baſilicon or other ſuch digeſtive. If the opening in the integuments is ſo ſmall that the matter detained is either abſorbed into the circulation, or forms ſinuous ulcers, the aperture muſt be enlarged by means of ſponge tents, and kept ſo by doſſils of lint. Indeed, if the exfoliation is likely to be tedious, in ſome caſes it may be haſtened by the uſe of a cauſtic or actual cautery, though in general the ſuppuration which contributes to throw off the diſeaſed part is thereby retarded, or the raſp may be uſed; if inſtead of the actual cautery a potential one is preferred, the common cauſtic is the beſt.

In the worm-eaten *caries* it is neceſſary to deſtroy all the affected part of the bone as ſoon as conveniently can be done, by raſping, chiſſeling, trepanning, &c. according as each of them can be applied; after which the method is as above. When the ulcer is deep, let honey diſſolved in vinegar and water be injected into it every day.

In the carnous *caries* the fungous and corrupted parts are beſt deſtroyed by a cauſtic; though Gouch, in his Caſes and Remarks, vol. ii. p. 359, gives an inſtance of the inefficacy of cauſtics in this caſe, and of the neceſſity of uſing the actual cautery, which he in general prefers.

The phagedenic *caries:* one or two applications of the potential cautery are ſufficient to reduce it to the moſt ſimple kind of *caries*; but ſometimes great difficulties attend it.

The ſcrophulous *caries:* Deſtroy fully the teguments which cover the abſceſs formed on the bone with a cauſtic, cut the eſchar through the middle to evacuate the matter; and to ſave the eſchar as long as poſſible, let mild applications only be laid on the ſore; and to aſſiſt the diſcharge of the matter, waſh it with water; but if it is fetid, mix vinegar with the water.

In general a mild treatment is to be preferred. In the ſlighter caſes endeavour to excite a degree of inflammation in the adjoining ſound part of the diſeaſed bone, and continue ſo as that it may be the means of ſeparating the mortified part. This is done by making a number of ſmall perforations all over the ſurface of the *carious* bone, to ſuch a depth as to give the patient a very little pain, and no farther: this operation may be renewed in different parts every third day, or thereabout; thus ſuppuration will take place, and a conſequent ſeparation of the *carious* part. But when the diſeaſe is extenſive, and goes deeper than the ſecond lamella of the bone, inſtead of little perforations made by the pin which fixes the trepan, it will be adviſeable to uſe a ſmall head of a trepan: this inſtrument applied at proper diſtances over the ſurface of the *caries*, and carried juſt ſo deep as to produce a little uneaſineſs will produce the needful inflammation and ſuppuration. As ſoon as any of the parts looſen at the edges, their final ſeparation may be always greatly haſtened by daily inſinuating below them the end of a common ſpatula, ſo as to preſs their edges a very little upwards. After the uſe of theſe inſtruments, apply to the ulcer the ſame dreſſings as in caſes of a ſimple ulcer; and, to moderate the fœtor of the *caries*, the dreſſings may be covered with lint, moiſtened with a ſtrong decoction of the cort. Peruv. & fol. jugland. The *caries* ſeparated, dreſs, as in caſes of ſimple ulcers in fleſhy parts. If the *caries* penetrates very deep into the ſubſtance of a bone, ſo that a conſiderable portion of its whole ſubſtance is affected, or, as frequently happens, the diſeaſe extends even round the bone, the ſhorteſt method then is to take out at once, all the diſeaſed parts, either with the head of a trepan frequently applied, or by means of a ſmall ſpring ſaw. This may be performed on the ſkull, hands, feet, legs, or arms. See the article TIBIA for the proceſs.

In the ſcirrho-cancrous *caries*, in this caſe, as in cancers of the glands, extirpation is the only remedy; but here alſo the diſorder is apt to return in another part.

The ſpreading cancrous *caries* ſeldom heals: it may be dreſſed with lint, or a cautery may be applied; but it generally breaks out again after a ſeeming cure.

Some aſſert that ſea-water is more efficacious in *caries* of the bones than in glandular ſwellings.

A *caries* of the whole bone or bones, forming a limb, is ſometimes productive of the neceſſity of amputation; particularly when the internal ſurface of ſuch bones are affected as well as the external, and that through the whole extent or near it. In ſuch inſtances, if the whole bone is not removed by amputation, the patient will periſh. It too often happens that in young ſubjects, with the beſt health, the whole habit will be ſo injured by the *carious* bone, that a hectic fever of the putrid kind, with all its horrid train of ſymptoms, will quickly deſtroy the patient.

See Almeloveen's edition of Celſus de Morbis Oſſium, p. 539. Petit's Diſeaſes of the Bones. Heiſter's Surgery. Le Dran's Obſervations. Wiſeman's Surgery. Monro's Account of the Caries, in the 5th vol. of the Ed. Med. Eſſays. Bell's Treatiſe on Ulcers, and his Syſtem of Surgery. Pott's Works.

CARIM-CURINI. An Indian ſhrub, the bark of which is uſed in a decoction againſt the gout; and a decoction of the leaves againſt a diſury. Raii Hiſt.

CARIMPANA. A ſpecies of palm-tree.

CARINA. In botany it is the concave petal or ſegment of the butterfly-flower, or any cavity which reſembles the keel or lower part of the boat. With the ancient botaniſts it was the hard ſhell of walnuts.

In graſſes, *carina* expreſſes the furrow-like cavity which runs through the whole length of the leaves of the cyperoides and cyperus graſſes, or graminifolious plants, and end in acute angles. Sometimes by *carina* is underſtood the prominence of this furrow, which jets out on the backſide of the leaf, and runs like a nerve through the middle of it.

CARINA, in zoology, is applied to the firſt rudiments of the ſpine of a chicken during incubation.

CARIOSSE. See ADY.

CARIUM TERRA. Lime.

CARIVILLANDI, i. e. Sarſaparilla.

CARLINA. Carline thiſtle. The ſpecies uſed in medicine is the *carlina* acauloſi, Linn.

CARLINA ACAULOS GUMMIFERA, i. e. Carduus pinea.

CARLO SANCTO (RADIX. St. Charles's root.

It is found in Mechoacan, a province of America: its bark is eaſily ſeparated from it, and hath an aromatic flavour, with a bitter acrid taſte. The root itſelf conſiſts of ſlender fibrils. The bark is ſudorific, and ſtrengthens the gums and ſtomach: the Spaniards call it St. Charles, on account of its great virtues.

CARMEN. It ſignifies a verſe, alſo an inchantment See AMULETUM.

CARMES [EAU DE]. Carmelite water, called alſo magiſterial water of baum. It hath its name from being invented by the Carmelites at Paris.

Take of freſh baum, ſix ounces; freſh lemon peel (the yellow part), two ounces; nutmegs and coriander ſeeds, of each half an ounce; bruiſe them and put them into rectified ſpirit of wine and pure water, of each a pint and a

half; let them ſtand in a moderate heat for three days, then draw off two pints and a half in a vapour bath. Rectify the diſtilled liquor by a ſecond diſtillation in a water bath, drawing off only two pints.

Mr. Beaume obſerves that all aromatic ſpirits ought to be prepared in the ſame manner; that in this rectification only the more volatile ſubtil aromatic parts ariſe, there remaining behind a white liquor, acrid, bitter, and loaded with only the groſſer oil, deprived of all the ſpecific flavour of the ingredients. He farther obſerves that aromatic ſpirituous *waters* have leſs ſcent when newly diſtilled than after they have been kept about ſix months; and he found that the good effects of age was produced in a ſhort time by means of cold, and that by plunging quart bottles of the liquor into a mixture of pounded ice and ſea-ſalt, the ſpirit, after having ſuffered for ſix or eight hours the cold hence reſulting, proves as grateful as that which hath been kept many years. Simple waters alſo, after having been frozen, prove far more agreeable than they were before. Geoffroy takes notice of this melioration by froſt. See Hiſt. Acad. 1713.

CARMIN. Carmine. It is a paint uſed for miniature pictures, &c it ſhould be deep coloured, and exquiſitely well powdered. It is a preparation from cochineal.

CARMINA. See Amuleta.

CARMINANTIA, or Carminativa. Carminatives. In general by theſe words are meant ſuch medicines as diſpel wind; the ancients had much of myſtery in their practice, and celebrated theſe medicines by ſinging of verſes when they adminiſtered them, as they by their frequent ſpeedy relief ſeemed to act as by a charm; ſo from *carmen*, the Latin word for a *verſe*, the word *carminative* is derived. Some derive it from *carmino, to card wool*, or *cleanſe it from foulneſs*; and ſay that the phyſicians by a metaphor, uſed to ſignify the expulſion of, or cleanſing from the wind. Others from *carmina, charms*, which were formerly ſuperſtitiouſly uſed for ſeveral cures. Others, becauſe they produce *carmen, muſic*.

The action of *carminatives* may be ſomewhat underſtood by conſidering that all the parts of the body are perſpirable. Sanctorius determines all that we call wind, to be ſuch perſpirable matter as makes its eſcape through the coats of the ſtomach and inteſtines; between the ſeveral membranes of the muſcles alſo may be ſuch perſpirable matter: now, whatever rarifies and renders collections of theſe vapours thinner, conduces to their diſcharge, and as all thoſe things in medicine of this denomination are warm, attenuant, and conſiſt of light ſubtil parts, it is eaſy to underſtand how a mixture of them with the flatus may agitate and rarefy it, eſpecially as they alſo create ſuch agreeable ſenſations on the fibres, which help by invigorating their tone alſo to expel it.

Boerhaave places the following draught amongſt the firſt of this tribe of medicines: ℞ Spt. nitri D. ʒj. aq. menth. & cinnam. āā ʒvj. m.

CARNEÆ COLUMNÆ. See Cor.

CARNELIA LAPIS. The cornelian ſtone.

CARNEOLUS. The cornelian ſtone.

CARNICULA. Fallopius uſeth this word inſtead of caruncula, to ſignify in particular the fleſh which ſurrounds the gums.

CARNIFORMIS ABSCESSUS. An abſceſs with a hardened orifice, and of a firm ſubſtance, or hard conſiſtence like a ſhell, not much elevated into a tumor, but broad and expanded, with membranes, fibres, and capillaries, uſually interſperſed. It generally riſes where the muſcles inſert themſelves into the joints. Severinus.

CARNIVOROUS. Fleſh-devouring. An epithet of the aſſius lapis. Animals are alſo thus called whoſe food is fleſh.

CARNOSA CUTIS, i. e. Paniculus carnoſus.

CARNOSA MUSCULOSA (Membrana). So Riolan calls the frontal muſcles.

CAR. STEPH. PRÆD. RUST. An abbreviation of Caroli Stephani Prædium Ruſt. Paris, 1629.

CARO. Fleſh. In anatomy it is only the red part or belly of a muſcle. In botany it is the purple of a fruit.

CARO MUSCULOSA QUADRATA, i. e. Palmaris brevis.

CAROBA. The carob-tree. See Siliqua Dulcis.

CARŒNUM. It is muſt boiled until one third is conſumed.

CAROLI, i. e. Chanores.

CAROPI. The true amomum.

CARORA. The name of a veſſel that reſembles an urinal.

CAROS, i. e. Carum.

CAROS, κάρος. It riſes on a coma, and is a ſlight degree of apoplexy, in which you get ſome broken incoherent anſwers from the patient; when called, he ſcarce opens his eyes: yet, if he be pricked, he hath feeling enough to manifeſt his ſenſe of it. This diſeaſe is ſuppoſed to take its name from *carion, the walnut-tree*, or elſe the tree is named from this diſeaſe. See Caryon.

The coma, lethargy, coma vigil, coma ſomnolentum, cataphora, and *carus*, are diſeaſes that reſpect ſleeping chiefly, and they riſe on each other; the coma is the loweſt degree, the lethargy the higheſt, and is itſelf a ſpecies of apoplexy, which is the higheſt degree of theſe diſeaſes. Galen ſays, that if the *carus* oppreſſes reſpiration, as in thoſe who ſnore in their ſleep, it is an apoplexy. Boerhaave ſays, that a *carus* is a ſlight apoplexy from a hot cauſe, and is attended with a fever; and a lethargy is a ſlight apoplexy from a cold cauſe.

Hippocrates ſometimes calls this diſorder aphonia. Galen, in his Method. Med. lib. xiii. calls it catoche. Cœlius Aurelianus calls it gravatio; and Pliny calls it gravedo.

Dr. Cullen conſiders the *carus*, cataphora, coma, hæmorrhagia cerebri, catalepſis, eccataſis, and affectus cerebri ſpaſmodico-eccataticus, as apoplexies, and the typhomania and lethargus as ſymptomatic apoplexies. In a *carus* there is inſenſibility and ſleepineſs, with quiet reſpiration. It ſometimes ſignifies a loſs of ſenſe and voluntary motion, reſpiration remaining uninjured.

The immediate cauſe of ſleepy affections ſeems to be a defect of, or an impediment to the paſſage of the vital principle. The remote cauſes are, whatever diminiſhes the vis vitæ, or that can obſtruct its influence, as tumors preſſing on the brain, a turgeſcency of the veſſels from obſtructed menſes and hæmorrhoids, &c. a too free uſe of ſpirituous liquors, expoſure to offenſive vapours, blows on the head, and ſuch like circumſtances.

A coma vigil is known by a burning and extenſive pain in the head, attended with a ſenſe of ebullition therein. There is a ſtrong inclination to ſleep, and the patient either does not ſleep at all, or if he does, he awakes immediately with little or no relief, but there is no delirium. This diſorder is always ſymptomatic, and often attends acute fevers, and uſhers in a phrenſy. It ſometimes attends an hemiplegia.

Coma ſomnolentum. In this diſorder the patient is languid, and his chief complaint is a conſtant drowſineſs. He often falls aſleep at meals, in converſation, and in the midſt of buſineſs; and, when awaked, he ſoon falls aſleep again. Luxurious old men are moſt ſubject to it. It is a primary diſorder, and unattended with fever.

The *carus*. This is a profound ſleep, out of which great difficulty attends the rouſing a patient; though he ſeems ſenſible of pinching, or pricking him with pins, he either does not ſpeak, or he immediately relapſes into the ſame degree of ſleep. This diſorder is either idiopathic, or ſymptomatic, and often attended with a fever. When it is ſymptomatic, it is ſaid to be of three kinds, but is only the ſame diſeaſe in the different periods of that complaint, of which it is a ſymptom. The firſt happens in acute fevers in their beginning or increaſe; and if convulſions and hiccoughing comes on it is ſoon fatal. The ſecond comes after acute fevers, and when the patient is exceeding weak, the ſleep will continue for ſeveral days; if it happens in acute fevers, on critical days, with a ſweat, it is a good omen. The third happens a day or two before death, when the patient's ſtrength being exhauſted, he lies deprived of ſenſe and motion, as it were in a profound ſleep, and under it expires.

A lethargy is a heavy perpetual ſleep, with ſcarce any intervals of waking; it is attended with ſuch a ſtupidity and forgetfulneſs, that when the patient yawns he forgets to ſhut his mouth; or whatever he begins to do, he forgets to proceed in it, and falls aſleep. It is attended with

with a fever, which is a ſymptom thereof, and is chiefly diſcovered by the frequency of the pulſe; and does not invade ſo ſuddenly as an apoplexy, nor does it kill ſo ſoon.

Bonetus, in his Sepulchretum Anatomicum, obſerves, that thoſe who died of ſleepy diſorders, on being opened, in their brain was found a copious ſerum diffuſed through its ſubſtance, yet ſo, that the cortical part thereof, with its meninges, were principally overflowed with water; in ſome he found the ventricles replete with ſerum, and the cortical part unaffected by it, and theſe, he ſays, were never troubled with ſleepy diſeaſes. But he obſerves, that the more this watery fluid penetrated into the medullary part of the brain, the more obſtinate was the ſleepineſs during the life of the patient. In ſome who died of drowſineſſes, he found abſceſſes, tumors, and ſcirrhoſities of the brain; but theſe were only on the anterior and cortical region of it. In ſome he found the veſſels of the pia mater very much diſtended with blood.

The coma vigil ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the pervigilium; and each of theſe diſorders from one another; alſo all of them from an apoplexy, an hyſteric fit, and a ſyncope.

A coma vigil often preſages a phrenſy, and convulſions; and in malignant fevers is often fatal. When pains attend a *carus*, they portend convulſions; and, in proportion to the violence of the fever, a *carus* is more or leſs dangerous. A lethargy is always dangerous, but the moſt ſo when the limbs are affected with a tremor, and a cold ſweat is perceived on the face.

In order to the cure it ſhould be conſidered, that an exceſs, as well as a deficiency of the vis vitæ, may be the cauſe: and that in the beginning of fevers, an exceſs is the cauſe for the moſt part.

When the cauſe is an exceſs of the vis vitæ, and a fever attends, an inflammation of the membranes of the brain may be expected, therefore a free bleeding will be the firſt ſtep towards relief. But, as moſtly happens, the vital powers are below the requirement of health; in which caſe, if there is any plethora, it is of the ſerous kind, which does not admit of bleeding, but muſt be relieved by purges, and ſuch other evacuations as promote only the thinner excretions.

The general indications are, 1ſt, To rouſe from ſleep. 2d. To remove the difficulty of the circulation, the ſtagnation, or extravaſation of the blood, or ſerum in the head. 3d. To reſtore the loſs of ſtrength.

To ſhake off the drowſineſs. After due attention to the degree of heat and ſtrength, by which bleeding will be required or forbid, uſe ſuch medicines as while they raiſe or depreſs the vital force, may alſo produce a tremulous motion in the whole nervous ſyſtem. When the ſleepineſs is from a great defect in the animal powers, volatile ſalts may be held to the noſe, but, in general, the pungent acid ſpirits are greatly to be preferred; vinegar may be blown up, the noſtrils, or if it can be had, the ſpirit of verdigriſe will be the beſt.

Due evacuations being made, cold water may be poured on the head; for this purpoſe the head ſhould be ſhaved juſt before. This both tends to remove the ſleepineſs, and to ſtrengthen the membranes of the brain.

Cataplaſms of ſtrong vinegar, muſtard ſeed, camphor, and caſtor, with any other ſuch like ſtimulants, may be applied to the temples, and the head after ſhaving it.

Bliſters may be applied to the neck and feet.

If there is no conſiderable plethora, ſternutatories may aſſiſt in deriving the redundant moiſture from the head. Some caution is neceſſary in admitting them, leſt an apoplexy ſhould be the conſequence, by inviting a glut of humours upwards; but if admitted, one of the beſt is white vitriol diſſolved in water, gr. x. to ℥ ſs. will be a good proportion.

Strong frictions may be uſed on the lower parts.

Strong clyſters, in which are the ſal gem.

To remove the difficulty of the circulation, &c. If an extravaſation of blood, or ſerum, is the effect of external violence, bleeding may be freely uſed, and ſuch other methods as are propoſed to relieve when contuſion happen in this part, but generally trepanning is found neceſſary. A red face, eyes turgid with blood, tumid veins, a ſtrong pulſation of the arteries, indicate bleeding in any ſleepy affection; though it may be proper to conſider, whether the turgeſcence in the veſſels is from a plethora, or from rarefaction, before taking away the blood; and alſo whether the plethora is of the ſanguine, or the ſerous kind.

The belly ſhould be kept ſoluble, and nervous diaphoretics, ſuch as the vin. ant. ſal ſuccin, &c. may be given to remove ſpaſms in the inteſtines, if they ſeem affected therewith.

When the patient recovers, a relapſe muſt be guarded againſt, by diminiſhing or removing the cauſe; by a well regulated diet, and due attention to all the non-naturals; by moderate exerciſe, and chearful converſe.

See Galen, Cœlius Aurelianus, Moor's Pathologia Celebri, Hoffman, and Boerhaave.

CAROTA. The carrot. See DAUCUS.

CAROTIDÆ ARTERIÆ. The carotid arteries. In making experiments, by tying the nerves to prove the compreſſion on them, ſo as to intercept their communication with the brain, the parts to which they belonged were deprived of ſenſe and motion. The firſt makers of theſe experiments, thought the animals turned comatous; and aſcribing this effect to the intercepting any paſſage of vital blood from the heart to the brain by the way of *arteries*, they gave theſe blood veſſels the name of *carotides*, or ſoporarias, from κάρα, *the head*, or κάρος, *ſound ſleep*.

From the fore part of the curvature, juſt before the trachea, the right ſubclavian and the *carotid*, moſtly ariſe in one common trunk, which run upwards a little way, and then divide. The left *carotid* riſes ſingle, and runs upwards on the ſide of the trachea. Both theſe *carotids* run up as high as the ſide of the larynx, even to the upper part of the thyroid cartilage, before they give off one branch, and there they divide into the external and internal; the latter goes to the inſide of the cranium, the pia mater, &c. the former, which is the largeſt, gives branches to all the external parts of the head.

The external *carotid* is anterior, the internal is poſterior, the external ſituated more inward and nearer the larynx. It is the ſmalleſt, it runs inſenſibly outward between the external angle of the lower jaw, and the parotid gland, which it ſupplies as it paſſes, afterwards it aſcends on the fore-ſide of the ear, and ends in the temples. It ſends off the gutturalis ſuperior, ſublinguales, maxillaria inferior, maxillaria externa, &c. The internal *carotid* leaving the general trunk, is, at firſt, a little incurvated. It is ſituated a little more backward than the external, and generally runs up, without any ramification, as high as the lower orifice of the great canal of the apophyſis petroſa of the os temporis; it enters this orifice, and enters the cranium through a notch in the ſphenoidal bone; and, except one branch, which goes to the eye, it is wholly ſpent upon the brain. See Winſlow's Anatomy.

CAROUM. The caraway.

CARPA, i. e. Carpio.

CARPASUS. An herb, the juice of which was formerly called opocarpaſon, or opocarpathon, and is eſteemed poiſonous, but it is not certainly known what it is.

CARPATA, i. e. Curcas.

CARPATHICUM. From the freſh cones of the trees which yield the common turpentine, is diſtilled a fine eſſential oil, ſaid to be *carpathicum*, or oleum Germanis.

CARPENTARIA. It is the name of an herb, but ſo variouſly ſpoken of, that it is impoſſible to ſay what herb it is.

CARPESIUM. This is an aromatic vegetable; it is often mentioned by the ancients, but it is not known what it is.

CARPHOS, i. e. Bouceras.

CARPINUS. See OSTRYS.

CARPHUS. In Hippocrates it ſignifies a ſtraw, or mote, or any ſmall ſubſtance. It alſo ſignifies a ſmall puſtule, for the cure of which Actius, Tetrab. i. recommends rubbing them with the dried ſeeds of mercury.

CARPIA. Lint.

CARPINUS. The horn-beam tree.

CARPIO, vel Carpa, vel Cyprinus. The carp. Fiſhes of this kind that are fed in rivers, are far better than thoſe that are fed in ponds; and of theſe the largeſt and beſt fed are the beſt. They feed on herbs, mud, ſlime, and other

other ſmaller fiſhes. They are nouriſhing and eaſily digeſted. The head is the fineſt part of the fiſh; and of the head, the tongue is the moſt delicate.

CARPOBALSAMUM, from καρπος, *fruit*, and βαλσαμον, *balſam*. It is the fruit of the tree that yields the balm of Gilead, i. e. amyris opobalſamum vel amyris Gileadenſis, Linn. It is about the ſize of a ſmall pea, with a ſhort pedicle. It is of a roundiſh or oval figure, pointed at the top; compoſed of a dark brown, or reddiſh black, wrinkled bark, marked with four ribs from top to bottom, and a whitiſh or yelloviſh, medullary ſubſtance. This fruit, when in perfection, is ſaid to have a pleaſant, warm, bitteriſh taſte, and a fragrant ſmell, reſembling that of the balſam itſelf. But ſuch as is now met with in the ſhops, is almoſt without ſmell or taſte. It is only ordered in the theriaca and mithridate; but the London college ſubſtitute cubebs for it: often the Jamaica pepper is ſold for it.

CARPOLOGIA. A delirious fumbling; as when a patient ſeems to be gathering ſomething from off the bedcloaths, which yet is difficultly performed, becauſe of the trembling which affects his hands. It is uſually a fatal ſymptom in fevers.

CARPOS. A ſeed, or fruit.

CARPUS. Καρπος, a Greek primitive, *a wriſt*. It conſiſts of eight bones, viz. the os ſcaphoides, lunare, cuneiforme, piſiforme, trapezium, trapezoides, magnum, and unciforme. The three firſt make an oblong head, by which they are articulated to the lower extremity of the bones of the fore arm by arthrodia. The articulation of theſe three bones, with the bones of the inferior row, is ſuch as allows of motion, eſpecially backward and forward, to which the arthrodia of the os magnum with the ſcaphoides and lunare greatly contribute. The trapezium on the one ſide, the piſiforme, and cuneiforme on the other, being raiſed above the reſt of the bones of the *carpus*, make a ſort of arch for the ſecure paſſage of the flexors of the fingers, and the tranſverſe ligament being extended from one ſide of the arch to the other, binds them down in their proper place. Lyſerus gave the eight bones of the *wriſt* their reſpectives names. The four bones of the ſecond row are all in a line, the firſt being articulated with the thumb, and the reſt with the metacarpus. Theſe bones are very ſpongy. See Winſlow's Anatomy.

CARATA. A carat or caratt. A *carat* of pearls or of diamonds, is four grains. A *carat* of gold, is twenty-four grains.

CARSIA. Johnſon explains this by aqua ſalis panis.

CARTHAMUS. Baſtard ſaffron. Called alſo cnicus, carthamus tinctorius, Linn. Carthamum officinarum cnecus. carduus ſativus, and ſafflower. It agrees with the thiſtle in moſt of its characters, but its ſeeds are deſtitute of down. The leaves are oval and pointed; on the tops grow ſcaly heads, with *ſaffron*-coloured fiſtular flowers; theſe are followed by ſmooth, white ſeeds, of an oblong roundiſh ſhape, yet with four ſenſible corners, remarkably heavy, ſo as to ſink in water. This plant is annual, a native of Egypt, and it is cultivated in other parts on account of its flowers, which are uſed in dying. It does not come to much perfection in England.

The ſeeds have an unctuous ſweetiſh taſte, which on chewing, are acrid and diſagreeable. With water they form an emulſion by trituration; and to ſpirit they give out a little nauſeous acrid matter. They are cathartic in doſes of ʒ j. or ij. The flowers are difficultly diſtinguiſhed by the eye from true *ſaffron*, when they are well cured, but they have neither its ſmell nor taſte. They give to ſpirit of wine a deep *ſaffron* tincture, and to water a paler yellow. After the yellow matter is extracted by water, the flowers appear of a red colour, and communicate to ſpirit of wine a deep red.

Some have the art of preparing the ſeeds of melons and of cucumbers, ſo as to reſemble the excoriated ſeeds of *baſtard ſaffron*, for which they ſell them; but the genuine ſeeds are not ſo white as the artificial.

Botaniſts enumerate three ſpecies. Miller's Dict.

CARTHAMUS ACULEATUS. The black chamæleon thiſtle.

CARTHUSIANUS PULVIS, i. e. Kermes mineral.

CARTILAGINOSUM, i. e. Patella.

CARTILAGO. A cartilage or griſtle. Dr. Hunter defines it to be a ſmooth, ſolid, diaphanous, elaſtic, inſenſible, inorganic ſubſtance. He obſerves, that in the freſh ſubject it appears uniform, and without any viſible fibres; when cut in any direction, its ſurface appears ſmooth like wax or glue. On a *cartilage* there is no perioſteum, but its place is ſupplied by the perichondrium. *Cartilage* is the leaſt affected by preſſure, of all animal ſubſtances, while the body is living; their ſubſtance is firm and denſe, and their texture ſo fine, that when cut, they appear only like a ſtiff jelly.

Cartilages are diſtinguiſhed into three kinds:

Firſt, ſuch as ſupply the place of a bone in an adult, as the trachea; ſecondly, ſuch as ſupply the place of bones in young ſubjects, as epiphyſes; and, thirdly, ſuch as are common to the fetus and adult, and are expanded on the extremities of articulating joints.

The articulating *cartilages* cannot be injected to their middle ſolid part, though the external veſſels are eaſily filled. The *cartilages* are ſuppoſed to be ſupplied with nerves, but they are too minute to be autoptically demonſtrated.

The uſes of the articulating *cartilages* are, firſt, to prevent abraſion, as without them the continual detrition of the bones againſt each other's ſurface, muſt have produced a true anchyloſis; ſecondly, by their elaſticity, they break the force of colliſion; thirdly, they ſerve as indolent bodies, to admit of motion and friction without pain.

A diſeaſe never affects the *cartilages* primarily. They are incapable of exfoliation, but when diſeaſed from ſome preceding diſorder of the bone, the whole is generally affected, and the coheſion between the *cartilage* and the bone in the joint being leſs than between the parts of the *cartilage* itſelf, cauſes it to ſeparate from the bone. If a part of the *cartilage* is deſtroyed it is never reſtored.

CARUI. See Carum.

CARUI FOLIA C. B. i. e. Carum Pratenſe of Parkinſon.

CARUM. Caraway; alſo called carvi, cuminum pratenſe, caros, careum, carui, cari, carawaies, and carvi. It is the carum carvior carum pratenſe, foliis pinnati fidis planis, floribus albis, umbellatis inæqualibus confertis. Linn.

Botaniſts enumerate three ſpecies. It is an umbelliferous plant, with ſtriated branched ſtalks, two or three feet high, and finely divided; the leaves are ſet in pairs along a channelled rib, every two of which ribs croſs one another at their origin on the ſtalk: the ſeeds are ſmall, of a browniſh or blackiſh colour, ſomewhat bent, ſtriated, flat on one ſide, and convex on the other. It is a native of the northern climes. It is cultivated in gardens with us, but by chance it is found wild. It is a biennial plant.

The ſeeds only are in uſe, they are warm and carminative; they have an agreeable ſmell, are given in powder from ϑ j. to ʒ j.

An extract made from a tincture, with rectified ſpirit, retains all the virtue of the ſeeds. After infuſion in water, ſpirit extracts a ſtrong tincture; watery infuſions are ſtrongeſt to the ſmell, and ſpirituous ones are ſtrongeſt to the taſte.

Diſtilled in water all their aroma riſes.

The London College directs the following:

Aqua Seminum Carui. *Water of* Caraway *Seeds.*

Take of *caraway* ſeeds, half a pound; of proof ſpirit, a gallon; of water as much as is ſufficient to prevent burning: diſtil off a gallon.

In diſtilling with water an eſſential oil riſes to the quantity of an ounce, from about ℥xxx. of the ſeeds: this oil is given as a carminative from one to five drops. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

CARUNCULA. A caruncle. This word is a diminutive from *caro*, *fleſh*. A *caruncle* is a ſmall piece of fleſh, or an exreſcence that hath the appearance of fleſh. Thus there are the *caruncuiæ* lacrymales in the corners of the eyes; the *caruncuiæ* myrtyformes, which are at the entrance into the vagina, and ſaid to be formed by the rupture of the hymen; the *caruncuiæ* papillares of the kidneys; and a *caruncle* of the urethra at the orifice, which opens from the veſiculæ ſeminales, beſides many others, all which are according to nature.

The

The uvula is ſometimes called *caruncula*.

Morbid excreſcencies of fleſh are called *caruncles*, and ſmall portions of a fleſhy ſubſtance, which are ſometimes diſcharged in a dyſentery by ſtool, or in diſeaſes of the drinary paſſages by urine.

Excreſcences in the urethra ariſe from its corroded or excoriated ſides, by ſharp corroding matter paſſing through and lodging there: theſe are ſaid to happen after the cure is completed, which makes them miſtaken for the ſtone, or nephritic ſymptoms. A ſtricture in the urethra is generally, if not always, the caſe; when theſe morbid *caruncles* are ſuſpected, and a bougie paſſed a little above the obſtruction, and kept in three or four hours, more or leſs, every day, cures it: the ſigns are, when the urine is diſcharged it paſſes from the urethra, divided into two or more ſtreams, ſometimes only with pain, and in drops; but the only certain ſign is, to paſs a probe or bougie, up the urethra, until the obſtruction is met with, and if any is found on this ſide the valve, at the entrance of the bladder, you have reaſon to ſuſpect this diſorder.

CARUNCULA LACHRYMALIS. It is ſituated between the internal angle of the eye-lids and the ball of the eye; it is a ſmall reddiſh oblong ſubſtance, and hath the appearance of being fleſhy, though it is thought to be glandular. The ancients called it glandula *lachrymalis*. It ſerves to prevent the internal edges of the lids at that part, from ever coming into contact with one another; and thereby the orifices of the *lachrymal* points being to a certain degree kept open, the tears paſs freely through theſe points into the ſac.

CARUNCULÆ MYRTIFORMES. They are ſeveral ſmall knots or protuberances, at the entrance of the vagina; they are the remains of the ruptured hymen, and when large, have been taken for cancers.

CARUNCULOSA (ISCHURIA.) A ſuppreſſion of urine, from caruncles in the urethra.

CARUS A FRIGORE, i. e. Apoplexia ſanguinea.

CARUS A HYDROCEPHALO, i. e. Apoplexia ſeroſa.

CARUS AB INSOLATIONE, i. e. Apoplexia venenata.

CARUS A PATHEMATE, i. e. Apoplexia mentalis. See ICTUS SOLARIS.

CARUS SPONTANEUS, i. e. Apoplexia ſanguinea.

CARUS. See CAROS.

CARVA. The caſſia lignea tree. See FOLIUM.

CARVI. Carraway.

CARYA. The walnut tree. Alſo walnuts rendered black by boiling.

CARYCE, or Carycia. Galen ſays it is a coſtly ſort of food prepared by the Lydians. Varinus ſuppoſes it to be thus called becauſe it was black like the boiled walnuts.

CARYCUM, i. e. Caricum.

CARYEDON CATAGMA. See ALPHITEDON.

CARYITES. A name of the female tithymalus.

CARYL. A confect made with the flowers of the corallodendrum.

CARYOCES. A Portugueſe name for the fruit of the the Guinea palm tree. See alſo ADY.

CARYOCOSTINUM, i. e. Elect. e ſcamonio.

CARYON. A nut. This word is applied to all ſuch fruit as incloſe ſomewhat eatable within an hard ſhell. Plutarch ſays that the ancients called the walnut caryon, becauſe it induces a heavineſs and ſtupidity of ſpirits.

CARYON BASILICON. The walnut.

CARYON HERACLEOTICON. A ſmall nut, as a hazle nut, or filbert, ſo called, becauſe it was brought from Heraclea, in Pontus, into Greece.

CARYON LEPTON. A ſmall nut, as filberts, or hazle nuts, from λεπτος, *ſmall*.

CARYOPHYLLATA; alſo called herba Benedicta, caryoph. vulgaris, janamunda, avens, and herb bennet. It is called *caryophyllata* becauſe its ſmell reſembles that of clove July flowers. It is the geum urbanum, Linn.

Boerhaave enumerates eight ſpecies.

It is a rough plant with dark-coloured winged leaves, and pentapetalous yellow flowers, ſtanding in ten-leaved cups, on the tops of the branches; the ſeeds are hairy, the roots are ſlender, full of fibres, of a dark browniſh colour on the outſide, and reddiſh within. It is perennial, grows wild in woods and hedges, and is found in flower the greateſt part of the ſummer.

The root is a gentle ſtyptic, corroborant, and ſtomachic; it hath a middle auſtere aromatic taſte, a pleaſant ſmell, eſpecially in the ſpring, and when produced on dry warm ſoils. It gives its aroma moſt to ſpirits, and its aſtringent matter to water or to ſpirit. In diſtillation with water it affords a ſmall quantity of an agreeable concrete oily matter, and the remaining decoction, if inſpiſſated, by evaporation, is moderately aſtringent. Lewis's Mat. Med.

CARYOPHYLLI AROMATICI. The aromatic cloves; called alſo garyophyllus, caryophyllus Indicus, is hinka, and clous.

The unripe fruit, or perhaps the cups of the unopened flowers of a bay-like tree, which grows in the Molucca Iſlands. In ſhape it reſembles a ſhort thick ſquare nail; of a ruſty colour inclining to black: in the middle of each clove are found a ſtylus or ſtamina, with their apices; at the larger end ſhoot out from the four angles four little points, like a ſtar, in the middle of which is a round ball of a lighter colour than the reſt, compoſed of four ſmall ſcales or leaves, which ſeem to be the unexpanded petala of the flower. The tree is the caryophyllus aromaticus, or caryophyllus orientalis aromaticus, fructu elevato monopyreno, fol. ovato-lanceolatis oppoſitis flor. terminalibus, ſtaminibus corolla longioribus. Linn. The clove-tree is one of thoſe whoſe flower is produced above the rudiments of the fruit: the ripe fruit ſometimes brought to England under the name of anthophyllus, is maked on the top with the remains of the flower; it is about the ſize and ſhape of an olive, and contains under a thin blackiſh ſhell, a hard kernel of the ſame colour, which hath a deep longitudinal ſeam on the ſide. The cloves are ſaid to be cured by expoſing them to ſmoke, aud afterwards drying them in the ſun.

The largeſt and darkeſt coloured are the beſt, and thoſe which feel oily when preſſed. Another mark of their goodneſs is, when on piercing them with a needle, a little liquid matter like oil oozes out. Thoſe that are of a light brown colour have had their oil extracted from them.

Cloves have a ſtrong but agreeable ſmell, a bitteriſh hot pungent taſte; they are one of the hotteſt, and moſt pungent and acrid of the aromatic claſs. They are remarkably diſpoſed to imbibe humidity, and when robbed of their active parts, and afterwards mixed with freſh cloves, they regain from them a conſiderable ſhare both of taſte and ſmell. The Dutch extract the oil from them and then mix them with others, from which it hath not been ſeparated; but their dryneſs, leſs pungent odour, and pale colour, diſcover the fraud.

Rectified ſpirit of wine takes up all the virtue of cloves: an extract from this ſpirituous tincture, amounts to nearly one-third of the cloves uſed in preparing it, and retains nearly their whole virtue. Infuſed in water they give out to it more of their ſmell than to ſpirit, but not ſo much of their taſte.

Diſtilled with water they give over very ſlowly about one-ſixth of their weight of eſſential oil, at firſt yellow and afterwards a reddiſh brown, but if the fire is very moderate its colour is pale; it ſinks in water, is mild, and not very pungent; but the only way to have it genuine, is to diſtil it ourſelves. What we have from the Dutch is very acrid, and contains near half its weight of an inſipid expreſſed oil. It is probable, that from an admixture of the reſinous part of cloves, this ſophiſticated oil receives both its acrimony and high colour: or, as freſh cloves are ſaid to yield a high coloured fragrant thick oil upon expreſſion, it may be that the common oil of cloves, brought from the ſpice iſlands, is no other than this oil diluted with inſipid ones.

If the oil of cloves is adulterated with an inſipid expreſſed oil, it is diſcovered by dropping a little into alcohol, and on ſhaking them the genuine oil mixes with the ſpirit, and the inſipid oil ſeparating is diſcovered.

The oil of cloves is made into an agreeable draught by mixing it with an equal quantity of gum arabic, and then with water. See Newmann's Chem. Works. Lewis's Mat. Med.

CARYOPHYLLI. A name of ſome ſpecies of African marigold.

CARYOPHYLLI INDICI, i. e. Anthelmia.

CARYOPHYLLI SUAVEM ODOREM, &c. i. e. Canella alba.

CARYOPHYLLOIDES CORT. i. e. Caſſia caryophyllata.

CARYOPHYLLUS. A ſpecies of myoſotis.

CARYOPHYLLUS AROMATICUS AMERICANUS. The Jamaica pepper tree.

CARYOPH. AROMAT. CUM FRUCTU ROTUND, i. e. Caſſia caryoph.

CARYOPHYLLUS ARVENSIS GLABER FLORE MAJORE C. B. A ſpecies of chick-weed.

CARYOPHYLLUS BARBATUS. Broad-leaved ſweet William.

CARYOPHYLLUS HOLOSTEUS ARVENSIS GLAB. FLORE MAJ. A ſpecies of chick-weed.

CARYOPHYLLUS INDICUS. African marigold; alſo the anthelmia.

CARYOPHYLLUS MEXICANUS. African marigold.

CARYOPHYLLUS MONTANUS MAJOR FLORE GLOBOSO, C. B. A name of ſome ſpecies of ſtatice.

CARYOPHYLLUS PRATENSIS LACINIATO FLORE SIMPLICI, i. e. Armeria.

CARYOPHYLLUS RAMOSUS, ET CARYOPH. REGIUS; both are the names of the tſhinka.

CARYOPHYLLUS RUBER. Gilly flower; alſo called tunica, vetonica, betonica coronaria, caryoph. hortenſis, and clove July flower. It is the dianthus caryophyllus, or dianthus floribus ſolitariis, ſquamis calycinis ſubovatis breviſſimis, corollis crenatis. Linn.

It is well known in our gardens; it is perennial, and ſaid to be a native of Italy. There are many varieties of them, but thoſe employed for medicinal uſe are of a deep crimſon colour, and an agreeable aromatic ſmell, ſomewhat akin to that of the clove ſpice; and this odour is not very ſoon diſſipated.

Theſe flowers are eſteemed as moderately cardiac, diuretic, and perſpirative; but they are chiefly uſed in the form of a ſyrup, for the beauty of their colour and flavour.

The London College directs the following ſyrup:

Syrupus Caryophyllorum rubrorum. *Syrup of* Clove July Flowers.

Take of clove July flowers, freſh gathered, and with their heels cut off, three pounds; of boiling water five pints; ſteep the flowers in the water for a night, in a veſſel of glaſs, or of earth glazed; and in the liquor poured off, diſſolve as much double refined ſugar as is required to make a ſyrup.

N. B. As the beauty of the colour is a great object in this *ſyrup*, to preſerve it, neither much heat, nor any preſſure of the flowers, is to be admitted of.

In St. Thomas's hoſpital, a ſubſtitute for this *ſyrup* is made by uſing the aromatic clove, and for the colour a little cochineal is added. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

CARYOPHYLLUS FLORE SIMPLICI. Single pinks.

CARYOSSE. A Portugueſe name for the fruit of the Guinea palm tree.

CARYOTI. A name in Galen for the beſt dates in Syria, &c.

CASABONÆ. Fiſh thiſtle.

CASAMUM. A name in Myrepſus for the cyclamen.

CASCARILLA. A diminutive from caſcara, the Spaniſh word for a bark or ſhell. See THURIS CORTEX. The Spaniards apply the word *caſcarilla* to the Peruvian bark, as we apply the word bark to ſignify that ſort of bark alone. The *caſcarilla* is the croton caſcarilla, Lin.

CASCHU, i. e. Catechu.

CASEUS. Cheeſe. Ariſtæus, a pupil of Chiron, is ſaid to have firſt diſcovered the art of making it. It is a common opinion that old *cheeſe* digeſts every thing, yet is left undigeſted itſelf, but this is without proper foundation. New *cheeſe* digeſts difficultly, and when old it is acrid and hot. *Cheeſe* made from the milk of ſheep digeſts ſooner than that from cows, but it is leſs nouriſhing; and that from the milk of goats digeſts ſooner than either, but is alſo the leaſt nouriſhing. The acrimony in *cheeſe* is from the rennet, which is increaſed by age. As to the goodneſs of this article, that is beſt taſted which diſcovers no particular quality to exceſs, and which is the ſooneſt digeſted. In general, it is a kind of food fit only for the laborious, or thoſe whoſe organs of digeſtion are ſtrong. See Galen de Alim. Facult.

CASIA, i. e. Caſſia.

CASIBO. A ſpecies of privet is thus named.

CASMINARIS, i. e. Caſſummuniar.

C. B. An abbreviation for Caſpar Bauhine.

C. B. PIN. i. e. Caſpar Bauhine's Pinax.

C. B. CAT. BASIL. i. e. Catalogus Plantarum circa Baſilean ſponte naſcentium, Caſpari Bauhini.

C. B. MATTH. i. e. Caſp. Bau. in Matthiolo.

C. B. PHYT. i. e. Caſpari Bauhini Phytopinax.

C. B. PROD. i. e. Caſp. Bauh. Prodromus Theatri botanici.

CASSA. A barbarous word in Fallopius de Affib. for the thorax.

CASSADA, called alſo cacavi, cazabi, caſſave, caſſavi, pain de Madagaſcar, ricinus minor, manihot, yucca, maniiba, mandiiba Braſilienſibus, &c. This plant grows in the warmer parts of the weſtern world. Its root is the part in uſe, and is poiſonous; this root is called yuca, the Mexicans call it quanticamotli, and when it is prepared into a flour, they call it caſſavi.

Though this root is a ſtrong poiſon, it is made into a wholeſome bread; by boiling its volatile parts are diſſipated, and therewith the poiſonous part.

There are many ſpecies of this plant, which may be ſeen in Maregrave, but the ſtalks and roots of them all paſs under the common name of mandihoca.

This bread is uſed in Hiſpaniola, and other Weſt India iſlands, in Mexico, and even from Florida to the Straits of Magellan.

The liquor that is preſſed from this plant is called manipuera; the root macerated in water until it is ſoft is called mandiopiba; of the ſediment of this is made a finer flour called vipeba by the Braſilians, and by the Portugueſe farinha freſca.

Some of the ſpecies cannot be deprived of their poiſonous quality.

The ſoft mandihoca is called puba; when dried over the fire or in the ſun it is called carima, and of this good bread is made, which is called muſam, or angu, or enfronde. Of the carima and the tipioca are made emulſions, ptiſans, &c. which are uſed in conſumptions, dyſenteries, fevers, faintings, againſt poiſons, and hæmorrhages, both internal and external.

The juice of roucou is an antidote to the poiſon of this plant. Raii Hiſt.

CASSAVE, i. e. Caſſada.

CASSALE VULNUS. A term ſignifying a wound in the breaſt: from the Arabian word *caſi, a breaſt.*

CASSAMUM. The fruit of the balſam tree.

CASSATUM. Weak ſpiritleſs blood that is grumous and hinders the paſſage of the circulating blood. It is a word of Paracelſus.

CASSE (EAU DE), or Eau de Caſſe-Lunette. It is ſnow-water diſtilled from the flowers of the cyanus.

CASSIA. A name of ſenna.

CASSIA CANELLA, i. e. Caſſia lignea.

CASSIA CARYOPHYLLATA, called alſo caryophillus aromaticus fructu rotundo, Caryophyllon Plinii, amomum, clove berry-tree, ſweet-ſcented Jamaica pepper tree. The bark is called cortex caryophylloides, clove bark, and caſſia bark. Miller mentions nine ſpecies of caſſia.

The bark is in uſe; it is brought from Jamaica, Cuba, and other of the Weſt India Iſlands. It is rolled like cinnamon, but is rather thinner, rougher on the outſide, and of a dark brown colour. It is warm and aromatic, reſembles the ſmell of cloves, but is weaker and mixt with a cinnamon flavour. It agrees with cloves in the ſolubility and volatility of its active principles. Spirit of wine takes up all its aroma, but carries very little of it in diſtilling. Water takes up its ſmell, but not much of its taſte, and diſtilled with water, a ſmall portion of an eſſential oil ariſes, which reſembles that of cloves, but is more pungent.

A ſimilar bark is brought from the Eaſt Indies under the name of culitlawan or culilawan, a compound Malabarian word, which is tranſlated into the Latin by cortex caryophylloides, or clove bark. That diſtinguiſhed in Europe by the name of culilawan is thicker than the other, and is more of a cinnamon colour, but ſcarcely differs from it in ſmell or taſte. The ſame with this ſeems to be the carabaccium of Baglivi. Rumphius obſerves that the outer and inner barks of different parts of the tree differ in colour and taſte from one another; whence probably ſuch differences as may have been obſerved in thoſe brought under different names into Europe.

The unripe fruit is the Jamaica pepper See PIPER.

CASSIA CINNAMOMEA. The true cinnamon tree.

CASSIA CRASSIOR. See FOLIUM.

CASSIA CRIBATRA. The pulp of the caſſia fiſtularis.

CASSIA FISTULA. A name of the true cinnamon tree.

CASSIA FISTULA BRASIL, i. e. Tapyra-coaynana.

CASSIA FISTULARIS, called alſo caſſia nigra, caſſia ſolutiva, caſſia purgatrix. Purging caſſia. It is the caſſia fiſtula, or caſſia fol. quinque jugis ovatis acuminatis glabris, petiolis eglandulatis, Linn. The Alexandrian purging caſſia.

The *caſſia fiſtula* is the hard woody cylindrical pod of a tree called pudding-pipe tree, which reſembles the walnut: in grows ſpontaneouſly in Egypt, and the warmer part of the Eaſt Indies, and hath been thence introduced into the Weſt, and is brought to us from the Braſils. The pods are about an inch in diameter, and a foot or more in length; externally of a dark brown colour, ſomewhat wrinkled, with a large ſeam running the whole length upon one ſide, and another leſs viſible on the oppoſite ſide, internally of a pale yellowiſh colour, divided by thin tranſverſe woody plates, in a number of little cells, containing each a flattiſh oval ſeed, with a ſoft black pulp.

The pulp is called by ſome wild honey, becauſe of its ſweet taſte, which is followed by an ungrateful kind of acrimony: that from the Eaſt Indies hath a more agreeable ſweetneſs and leſs acrimony than the Weſt Indian kind.

The oriental pods are ſmaller, ſmoother, and thinner rinded than the occidental, and its pulp is of a deeper ſhining black colour. Thoſe pods that are dry, and in which the ſeeds rattle, are generally rejected; but Neumann thinks that they are very little, if any, worſe than the other, as it is only their humidity that is waſted, and by this loſs it is ſecured from being mouldy or ſour. The beſt ſort, if gathered before it is full ripe, is mouldy and ſour or harſh.

The pulp of *caſſia* diſſolves very readily in water, whether it is moiſt or dry, but not ſo readily in ſpirit of wine. It is uſually extracted by boiling the bruiſed pods in water, and evaporating the ſtrained ſolution to a proper conſiſtence, the exhaling vapour carries nothing off. The pulp ſoon turns ſour, ſo ſhould be extracted only in ſmall quantities.

Caſſia was unknown to the ancient Greeks, and was firſt uſed by the Arabians. Where irritating purges would do harm, this may be ſafely uſed: in doſes of a few drams it is generally laxative; is particularly uſeful in coſtive habits and inflammatory caſes; and, according to Geoffroy, it is peculiarly beneficial in thoſe tenſions of the belly which attend an imprudent uſe of antimonials: as a cathartic, two ounces is required, and ſo is ſeldom uſed for this end.

It is ſometimes quickened by ſtronger purgatives, or with the antimonial emetics, of which laſt it diminiſhes the activity ſo far, that four grains or more of emetic tartar may be taken in a decoction of *caſſia* by thoſe who without it can bear but one grain or a little more: it is joined with manna, and is ſuppoſed to enhance its purgative virtue; a mixture of half an ounce of *caſſia* with two drams of manna, is ſaid to purge more than three times the quantity of *caſſia* alone, or than a yet greater quantity of manna when alone.

Caſſia, if repeatedly taken, tinges the urine of a yellow, green, or brown colour, according to the quantity of it that is taken.

The London college directs the following preparation:

Electarium e Caſſia. *Electury of* Caſſia.

Take the ſolutive ſyrup of roſes, the pulp of *caſſia*, freſh extracted, of each half a pound; of manna, two ounces; of the pulp of tamarinds, one ounce. Rub the manna in a mortar, and with a ſmall heat diſſolve it in the ſyrup, then add the pulps, and the heat being continued, reduce the whole to a proper conſiſtence.

This electury was formerly called dia *caſſia*: the tamarinds render the taſte of it very agreeable, and does not ſubject it to turn ſour. Two or three drams is a doſe as a ſolutive. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Newmann's Chem. Works.

CASSIA LIGNEA, called alſo canella Malabarica, xylo-caſſia, cinnamomum, ſive canella Malabarica, & Javanenſis, karva, canella Cubana, arbor jucadice, wild cinnamon tree, Malabar cinnamon tree, or *caſſia lignea* tree.

The leaves of this tree are, by way of eminence, called FOLIUM, which ſee. The bark is called *caſſia lignea*, and is brought from the Eaſt Indies. This tree is of the *cinnamon* kind. It is the laurus caſſia, or laurus Malabarica perpetuo florens, fol. triplinerviis lanceolatis, Linn. The *caſſia* or wild *cinnamon tree*. Curtis, in his Catalogue of Medicinal, &c. Plants, in the London Botanic Garden, calls it laurus Malabathrum. This bark reſembles *cinnamon* in appearance, but is diſtinguiſhable by its breaking ſhort or ſmooth, whilſt *cinnamon* breaks fibrous and ſhivery; alſo by chewing, after which the *caſſia* becomes mucilaginous, but the *cinnamon* auſtere and dry. It reſembles *cinnamon* in flavour, but is weaker; it contains a mucilage, of which *cinnamon* does not ſenſibly partake: if powdered and boiled in water, the water becomes glutinous, ſo as to concrete on cooling into a jelly.

Spirit of wine extracts the aroma, and water extracts the mucilage. By diſtillation in water it yields a ſmall porton of oil, which differs not from that of *cinnamon*; and if care is taken in diſtilling it with water, no difference can be diſcovered from what it produces and that which is drawn from true *cinnamon*; but if too much heat is continued at the end of the operation, it produces an empyreumatic flavour, becauſe of the mucilage, which is very apt to be changed by the fire. As a cordial, it is equally good as *cinnamon*, if twice the quantity is allowed for a doſe; but as to an aſtringent it hath no pretenſions. See Newmann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

CASSIA POETICA LOBELII, caſſia Latinorum, caſſia lignea Monſpelienſium, & caſſia Monſpelienſium. See OSTRIS.

CASSIA LIGNEA JAMAICENSIS. See CANELLA ALBA.

CASSIA MALABARICA, i. e. Caſſia lignea.

CASSIA NIGRA, i. e. Caſſia fiſtularis.

CASSIA PURGATRIX, i. e. Caſſia fiſtularis.

CASSIA SOLUTIVA, i. e. Caſſia fiſtularis.

CASSIÆ ATRAMENTUM. The pulp of the caſſia fiſtularis.

CASSIÆ CORTEX, i. e, Caſſia caryophyllata.

CASSIA EXTRACTA. The pulp of the caſſia fiſtularis.

CASSIÆ FLOS. The pulp of the caſſia fiſtul.

CASSIANA. i. e. Caſſine.

CASSIBOR. Coriander.

CASSIDA, alſo called ſcutellaria, tertianaria, Lyſimachia galericulata. Hooded looſe-ſtriſe.

Lyſimachia cœruleo galericulata, or gratiola cœrulea; hooded willow herb.

Dr. Turner ſays it was called *tertianaria*, from its uſe in intermitting fevers: it is bitter, ſtinks like garlic; but is of very little uſe in medicine.

CASSIDBOTT. Coriander.

CASSINE. Caſſiny, alſo called alaternoides Africana lauri ſerratæ folio, apalachine gallis, caſſina herba, herba caſſiana. It grows in Carolina; the leaves are about the ſhape and ſize of ſena leaves, blackiſh when dried, ſhining in the upper part, green underneath, and have no taſte, but an aromatic ſmell. Dale calls it a ſpecies of alaternus. There are two ſorts, and they are the third and fourth ſpecies of alaternus. Miller calls the *caſſine* vera Floridanorum, the South Sea tea tree; and the perigua, the caſſio berry buſh. Some call the Paragua or South-Sea tea, by the name of Bartholomew's herb. It grows near the ſea, and is not known to grow far inland. The trade for this tea is chiefly at Santa Fé, whither it is brought by the river of Plate: there are two ſorts, the yerba de palos, and a finer and a better ſort called yerba de camini. It is moſt probable that the yerba de camini is the Paraguay or South Sea tea, and the yerba de palos is our caſſio berry buſh. Miller's Dict.

CASSIUS. A phyſician in Celſus's time. He is the author of the problems that bear his name, which, according to Le Clerc, are ingenious as well as their anſwers.

CASSOB. Alkaline ſalt.

CASSOLETA. A kind of humid ſuffumigation deſcribed by Marcellus.

CASSONADA. See SACCHARUM.

CASSOUVARIUS. The name of an exotic bird, which Dr. Grew, in his Comparative Anatomy, affirms to be without a craw.

CASSUMMUNIAR, called alſo caſſumunar, bingalle, riſagon, bengalle Indorum, caſmunar, caſumunar, ryſagon, and caſminar. The root is brought from the Eaſt Indies, is tuberous, an inch or more thick, marked on the ſurface with circles or joints like the galangal, a ſpecies of which it is reckoned by ſome: it is brown on the outſide, and of a duſky yellow within. We have no certain account of the plant from which this root is taken; it is brought over in irregular ſlices.

This root was introduced by Marloe as a medicine of uncommon efficacy in nervous diſeaſes: at preſent it is uſed as a ſtomachic, but its uſe is not ſo general as it ſeems to deſerve. It is warm and aromatic, ſlightly bitter, in ſmell reſembling ginger, or zedoary, from which it differs in being milder. Spirit of wine extracts all its virtue completely, and if the tincture is evaporated it all remains in the extract. Lewis's Mat. Med.

CASSUTHA. Dodder. See CUSCUTA.

CASTALTICUM. A barbarous term for cataſtalticum.

CASTANA. Cheſnuts.

CASTANEA. The cheſnut-tree, called alſo lopima, caſt. ſativa, mota, Jupiter's acorns, and Sardinian acorns. The coat between the kernel and ſhell is aſtringent; the kernels windy and ſomewhat binding, but if roaſted and mixed with honey, it is commended for coughs and ſpitting of blood.

CASTANEA SYLVESTRIS. The wood cheſnut-tree.

Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies.

See Obſervations on *Cheſnut-trees* in the Phil. Tranſ. vol. lxi.

CASTANEA EQUINA. Horſe-cheſnut. See HIPPOCASTANUM.

CASTANEA MALABAR. i. e. Angelina Zanoni Acoſtæ.

CASTLE-LEOD WATERS. This mineral water is of the ſulphureous kind. See Dr. Monro's account of it in Phil. Tranſ. vol. lxii.

CASTOR. The beaver. It is alſo called fiber, and canis Ponticus. The caſtor fiber, or caſtor cauda ovata plana, Linn. It is an amphibious quadruped, inhabiting ſome parts of Pruſſia, Poland, Ruſſia, and Germany; but the greateſt quantities are met with in Canada. In the inguinal region of this animal is found four bags, of an oval ſhape, a large and a ſmall one on each ſide; in the two large ones is contained a ſoftiſh, greyiſh yellow, or light brown ſubſtance, which in a warm dry air grows by degrees hard and brittle, and of a darker and browner colour: this is alſo called *caſtor*, and is what is uſed in medicine. The two ſmaller bags have a ſmell much like that of the larger, but contain a ſofter and more unctuous kind of matter, which is not of much value.

On cutting one of theſe bags (commonly called cods) when dry, and as brought into the ſhops, they are found full of a brittle friable ſubſtance, of a browniſh red colour, interſperſed with fine membranes and fibres, exquiſitely interwoven. Neumann ſays that the beſt comes from Pruſſia; but moſt, if not all other writers, ſay from Ruſſia. The Ruſſian is in hard round bags: an inferior ſort comes from Dantzig; it is ſmaller and moiſter. The worſt is from New England; it is in thin long bags.

The Ruſſian *caſtor* hath a ſtrong, but not agreeable, ſmell; the other ſorts are weaker and more ungrateful.

Caſtor is ranked among anti-ſpaſmodics: in ſlow nervous fevers it takes off the oppreſſion of the precordia, which is often a very troubleſome ſymptom. It is of a ſaponaceous nature, ſo does not act by its ſtimulus alone, but is reſolvent and detergent: in ſome caſes it is anodyne.

Rondeletius ſeems to have been the firſt who made the diſtinction between theſe bags or glands of the beaver and his teſticles, which latter they were generally ſaid to be. Alb. Seba ſays that the Siberian *caſtor* is the beſt, then the Norwegian, then the Swediſh, then the Poliſh, and the worſt is from Canada. But from whatever country it comes, chuſe that which is from a full grown beaver, hath a fetid and diſagreeable ſmell, an acrid biting taſte, a browniſh colour, and a friable texture.

It is adulterated with dried blood, gum ammoniacum, galbanum, &c. mixed with a little of the powder of *caſtor* and ſome quantity of the axungia caſtorei. But to detect the fraud, obſerve that the genuine follicules ariſe both from one common ſource; that the matter contained in them is of a firm conſiſtence, and too bulky to be forced therein in their natural ſtate; the ſmell is not ſo ſtrong as the genuine; it is true, that ſometimes the difficulty to diſtinguiſh the falſe from the genuine is very great, but the ſophiſtication is undoubted, when the membranes, pellicles, and fibres, appear intermixed with the *caſtor*.

This drug does not keep well in powder. Rectified ſpirit, proof ſpirit and water, by the help of a little heat, extracts the whole virtue of the *caſtor*. Rectified ſpirit takes up the leſs ungrateful parts, and water the more nauſeous. Proof ſpirit acts equally, though with ſome difficulty, on both; the ſp. vol. arom. is an excellent menſtruum for it, and in many caſes improves its virtues.

The London college directs a tincture and a water from this drug.

Tinctura Caſtorei. *Tincture of* Caſtor.

Take of Ruſſia *caſtor*, two ounces; of proof ſpirit, a quart; digeſt for ten days without heat, and then ſtrain. Heat only extracts the groſſer parts more plentifully than a cold maceration does, and proof ſpirit does this more than a rectified one.

A Compound Tincture of Caſtor *is thus made:*

Take of Ruſſia *caſtor*, one ounce; of aſſa fœtida, half an ounce; of the volatile aromatic ſpirit, a pint; mix.

When the tincture of *caſtor* is added in a julep to other medicines, it turns milky; but this is prevented by adding about a dram of æther to a half pint.

In diſtillation, the *caſtor* gives over to the water its whole ſmell and flavour, but does not keep.

Aqua Caſtorei. *Water of* Caſtor.

Take of Ruſſia *caſtor*, an ounce; of water, as much as is ſufficient to prevent burning; draw off a quart.

When a large quantity of *caſtor* is diſtilled at once, an eſſential oil is obtained: Dr. Cartheuſer obſerves that this oil is ſo ſubtle, that a ſingle drop reſolved into vapour is capable of filling a large extent of air with the ſpecific ſmell of the *caſtor*. See Neumann's Chemical Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

CASTOR. A name of the cataputia major.

CASTOR OIL, i. e. Ricini (ol.)

CAST. DUR. An abbreviation of caſtore durante.

CASTRATIO. Caſtration. This operation is performed when the teſticle is ſcirrhous or cancerous. When the teſticle ſuppurates, it is only treated as a common abſceſs. Mr. Barnard ſays that out of a hundred patients that he caſtrated, only three were living three years after: and that when after the operation, the wound heals nearly, and not completely, it commonly proves mortal. Some of the moſt eminent this day in practice obſerve, that when a ſcirrhus is extirpated, it is as apt to return as a cancer is in the breaſt; if it is of the virulent kind it is ſure to return; and the patient will probably live as well and as long if the operation is not performed, as when it is; therefore, in general, there is no inducement to proceed to it.

But if the teſticle muſt be extracted, firſt examine whether or not the ſpermatic cord is free, which muſt be laid bare, tied, and cut; after which proceed to diſſecting all the diſeaſed part of the ſcrotum, though perhaps it may be beſt to diſſect the tumor out firſt, as it leads you up to the chord before you tie it. If the tumor is large, or if it adheres to the ſkin, make an oval inciſion to take it out; the inciſion is begun a little above the tumor, for the better convenience of tying the veſſel.

Mr. Gooch (ſee his 2d vol. of Caſes) firſt ſlits the ſheath of the cord with the point of a knife, then opens it farther with a ſmall pair of crooked ſciſſars, by which method the veſſel is fairly diſcovered, and eaſily taken up with a crooked

crooked needle and ligature. And he farther obſerves that if the whole ſpermatic cord is tied, the conſequences are diſagreeable, or perhaps fatal; he therefore, after diſſecting the ſheathe, ſecures only the artery, and thus an hæmorrhage is prevented, and the uſual conſequences of tying the whole cord avoided. Dr. Hunter long ſince adviſed to ſecure the artery, and leave the reſt to the cord; nay, he ſuggeſts a ſufficient ſecurity though the artery ſhould be left untied; though if it is to be cut cloſe to the ring, he adviſes to tie it before cutting, that it may not retract too ſuddenly, and ſo prove troubleſome by its diſcharge. See Sharpe's Operations, Le Dran's Operations, and his 74th Obſ. Heiſter's Surgery.

CASTRENSIS. An epithet given to the dyſentery in camps, becauſe there the ſoldiers are more expoſed to the air of the night, which aggravates the diſeaſe.

CASUS. This word ſignifies the ſame as ſymptoma; ſometimes it is uſed for any thing fortuitous or ſpontaneous, or fall from an eminence. In Paracelſus it ſignifies a preſent diſtemper, and alſo an entire hiſtory of a diſeaſe.

CAT. An abbreviation of Catalogus.

CATABLEMA. According to Galen, Hippocrates means by it the outermoſt fillet which ſecures the reſt of the bandage.

CATACHLOOS, from χλοη, *graſs*, or *green herb*; Galen expounds it "a very green colour." It is applied to ſtools, and then many read for this word catachola, i. e. very bilious.

CATACHRISTON. A medicine applied by way of unction.

CATACHYSIS. To pour upon; an affuſion.

CATACLASIS, from κατακλαω, *to break*, or *diſtort*. Galen explains it to be an affection of the eye, as when the eye-lids are diſtorted. Vogel defines it to be a ſpaſtic occluſion of the eye.

CATACLEIS (Subclaviclf.) According to Galen it is the firſt ſmall rib of the thorax, from κατα, *below*, κλειϛ, *clavis*, *the clavicle*.

CATACLINES, from κατακλινω, *to lie down*. It is the ſame as clinicus.

CATACLYSMA, from κατακλυζω, *to waſh*. A clyſter.

CATACLYSMI. Embrocations. Cœlius Aurelianus expounds this by illiſiones aquarum, i. e. daſhings of water.

CATACORES. Full, abundant; and when applied to ſtools, it means that they are purely or intenſely bilious. Hippocrates uſes it in both theſe ſenſes.

CATACONESIS, from κατακονω, *to irrigate*. Irrigation by a plentiful affuſion of liquor on ſome part of the body.

CATAGLYPHE, from γλυφω, *to cut in wood or metal*. An excavation, hole, or pit. Hippocrates uſes this word in his De Art. & de Morb.

CATAGMA, a fracture. See Fractura. Galen ſays, "A ſolution of the bone is called *catagma*, and elcos is a ſolution of the continuity of the fleſh; that when it happens to a cartilage it hath no name, though Hippocrates calls it *catagma*."

CATAGMATICA, from καταγω, *deduce*. Remedies proper for cementing broken bones, or to promote a callus. from κατεαγνυμι, *to break*.

CATAGOGE. In Hippocrates's Epid. lib. vii. it means a region, and its circumjacent part.

CATALENTIA. Paracelſus coined this word to expreſs an epilepſy.

CATALEPSIS, from καταλαμβανειν, *to occupy, detain, ſeize*, or *interrupt*. It is alſo called catoche, catochus, congelatio; and by Hippocrates, aphonia; by Antigenes it is called anaudia; by Cœlius Aurelianus it is called apprehenſio and oppreſſio.

The word *catalepſis* hath many ſignifications, as perception, or the knowledge of a thing; the retention of the breath, as when a perſon ſtrains at ſtool; a retention of any humour which ought to be evacuated; an interception of the blood in the veſſels by a bandage, as in bleeding; and the diſeaſe which is the ſubject of this article.

Some ſuppoſe the catoche to be the coma vigil; but moſt writers mean by it the *catalepſy*.

This diſorder is reckoned by ſome under the liſt of acute ones; and indeed with the carus, it may be ranked among the ſpecies of apoplexy. See Caros. Dr. Cullen ranks it as a ſpecies of apoplexy, viz. apoplexia cataleptica. Its ſeat ſeems to be in the back part of the brain, from the ſymptoms of the diſeaſe, and the obſervations made on diſſecting thoſe who die of it.

Women, thoſe with a melancholic habit, and a very active imagination, are moſt ſubject to it, eſpecially if they uſe a cold regimen, are expoſed to bad weather, and cold climes.

The immediate cauſe ſeems to be an impediment to the influx of the vital fire into the nerves ſubſervient to ſenſation, and involuntary motion, whilſt it is carried on in its natural, and in ſome meaſure a more impetuous manner in the nerves ſubſervient to the vital actions. This retarded influx of vital principle, is from a ſpaſmodic conſtriction of the parts where the ſeat of the diſeaſe is; and hence ariſes all the ſymptoms of this diſorder.

The remote cauſes are the ſame as thoſe that produce melancholy, and other nervous affections; the ſecondary cauſes are alſo the ſame that produce other diſorders in the nervous ſyſtem, ſuch as poor diet, cold and moiſt countries, fear, anger, anxiety, intenſe thought, exceſſes of any kind, worms, &c.

This diſorder rarely occurs: when it does, the fits ſeize the patient at invervals, and laſt generally a few minutes, though now and then it continues for ſome hours or days. It is rarely preceded by any ſigns that indicate its approach; in a few inſtances a ſtiffneſs in the neck, a dull pain in the head, &c. have uſhered in the fit. In the diſorder the patient is ſenſeleſs and motionleſs, continuing in the poſture that the fit attacked him in, until a recovery from it; the limbs are moveable by another perſon, but, however, they are diſpoſed, the patient never alters their poſition, until the paroxyſm is at an end. He neither ſees, hears, nor feels, whatever methods may be uſed to excite the ſenſations. He ſwallows greedily all that is given him; the countenance becomes florid; the eyes are open, ſeem fixed upon ſome object; at the cloſe of the fit he fetches a deep ſigh, and then recovers. Other ſymptoms alſo attend different patients, or the ſame at different times, ſuch as tears dropping from the eyes, grinding of the teeth, &c. but the above are the moſt generally attendant.

Care muſt be taken not to confound a *catalepſy* with a tetanus.

If this diſeaſe proceeds from paſſions, the danger is not ſo great as when a thick blood, or ſuppreſſed accuſtomed evacuations, are the cauſe; in the latter it is moſtly fatal.

In general the cure will be ſimilar to that of the apoplexy. The indication in the fit, is to relax the ſpaſmodic ſtricture; and, out of the fit, the indication is to remove the material, or ſecondary cauſes, which contribute to the production of the conſtriction.

In the fit apply pungent acid ſpirits, ſuch as the ſpirit of verdegriſe to the noſe, or the ſtrongeſt wine vinegar. Foreſtus ſtrongly recommends anti-ſpaſmodic oils to be rubbed on the nape of the neck, and on the back part of the head, after ſhaving it.

Strong ſtimulating clyſters may be injected, if the anus is not too much conſtricted to admit them.

Bleeding is commended, if the face is very red and turgid; but the heat and ſtrength of the patient will beſt determine the propriety of this operation.

Bliſters, though recommended, ſeem not ſo eligible an application as ſinapiſms to the feet.

Two or three ſpoonfuls of the following mixture may be given, at proper intervals, either during the fit, or in its abſence.

℞ Gum. aſſ. fœtid. ʒ ij. aq. puleg. ℥ iv. ſp. vol. fœtid. & tinct. valer. vol. ää ʒ ſs. m.

In the abſence of the fit, endeavour to remove the mediate cauſes. According as theſe are, the remedies will be formed; remembering that if fears, apprehenſions, and paſſions of the mind are the cauſes, medicines cannot be expected to be uſeful, at leaſt not effectual; but, in ſuch like caſes, a change of air, journeying, diverting company, &c. are to be inſiſted on.

The *catalepſy* ſometimes ends in a melancholy, epilepſy, or fatal apoplexy.

See Cœlius Aurelianus, Acut. lib. ii. cap. x. and Hoffman, Brooks's, and the London Practice of Phyfic.

CATALONGAY. The plant that bears the St. Ignatius's bean.

CATALOTICA. This word is by miſtake put for catulotica.

CATALYSIS, from καταλυω, *to diſſolve*, or *deſtroy*. It ſignifies a palſy, or ſuch a reſolution as happens before the death of the patient; alſo that diſſolution which conſtitutes death.

CATAMENIA, from κατα, *infra*, or rather *ſecundum*, *according to*, and μην, *menſis*, *the month*. The ſame as menſes.

CATANANCE. See CICHORIUM.

CATANANCE LEGUMINOSA. See NISSOLIA.

CATANTLEMA, from αντλεω, *to draw*, or *pour water*. A kind of lotion by infuſion of water. Moſchion de Morbis Mulierum.

CATANTLESIS. A lotion with hot water, expreſſed out of ſponges, recommended by Marcellus Empiricus againſt hot running ulcers of the head.

CATAPASMA, from σπασω, *to ſprinkle*. The ancient Greek phyſicians meant by this, any dry medicine reduced to powder, to be ſprinkled on the body. Their various uſes may be ſeen in Paulus, lib. vii. cap. xiii. Catapaſms are of various kinds, according to the intention of the phyſician. Powders put in the drink were called diapaſms: though Pliny ſays, that ſuch powders as were valued for their grateful ſmell were called diapaſms. Oribaſius ſhews from Antyllus, that empaſmata was uſed in order to reſtrain ſweat, or any other evacuation by the pores; or for exciting an itching. *Catapaſms* were ſprinkled on ulcers, but diapaſms were prepared for the ſake of their ſcent, and were applied to the armpits, and the inſide of the thighs, to remove their ſcent. Cœl. Aurel. in Morb. Acut. lib. ii. cap. xxxviii. ſays, that ſympaſmata were ſuch powders, as, being endowed with an acrid quality, were ſprinkled on the body to procure heat.

CATAPASMUS. A term uſed by Cœl. Aurelianus, probably by miſtake, for ſome other word. It implies, according to him, a rubbing of the poſterior part of the ſhoulders and neck downwards.

CATAPASTUM. See CATAPASMA.

CATAPHORA, from καταφερω, which, among other ſignifications, implies, *to render ſleepy*. A preternatural propenſity to ſleep. See CAROS. Galen calls a coma by this name.

CATAPHORA COMA, i. e. Apoplexia Sanguinea.

CATAPHORA HYDROCEPHALICA, i. e. Apoplexia Seroſa.

CATAPHRACTA, i. e. Quadriga, from καταφρασσω, *to fortify*.

CATAPHISMA. A kind of thick poultice of meal and herbs

CATAPLASMA. A poultice, from καταπλασσω, *illino*, *to ſpread like a plaſter*. *Cataplaſms* take their name ſometimes from the part to which they are applied, or effects they produce, ſo are called anacollema, frontale, epicarpium, epiſpaſticum, veſicato ium, and, when muſtard is an ingredient they are called ſinapiſms.

Theſe kind of applications are ſofter, and more eaſy, than plaſters, or ointments. They are formed of ſome vegetable ſubſtances, and applied of ſuch a conſiſtence, as neither to adhere nor run: they are alſo more uſeful when the intention is effected by the perpetuity of the heat or cold, which they contain, for they retain them longer than any other kind of compoſition.

When deſigned to relax, or to promote ſuppuration, they ſhould be applied warm. Their warmth, moiſture, and the obſtruction they give to perſpiration, is the method of their anſwering that end. The proper heat, when applied warm, is no more than to promote a kindly pleaſant ſenſation; for great heat prevents the deſign for which they are uſed. They ſhould be renewed as often as they cool. For relaxing and ſuppurating, none excel the white bread *poultice*, made with the crumb of an old loaf, a ſufficient quantity of milk to boil the bread in until it is ſoft, and a little oil; which laſt ingredient, beſides preventing the *poultice* from drying and ſticking to the ſkin, alſo retains the heat longer than the bread and milk alone would do. To preſerve the heat longer, the *poultice*, when applied, may be covered with a ſtrong ox's bladder.

When deſigned to repel, they ſhould be applied cold, and ought to be renewed as oft as they become warm. A proper compoſition for this end, is a mixture of oatmeal and vinegar.

Epithems are alſo a kind of *cataplaſms*.

Cataplaſma *Emolliens*. *An Emollient* Poultice.

Boil half a pound of the crumb of bread, and one ounce of white ſoap, in a ſufficient quantity of cow's milk, to reduce the whole to a proper conſiſtence. When poverty is more to be regarded than neatneſs, the bran from wheat may be uſed inſtead of bread, adding a ſmall quantity of oil or lard to it.

Cataplaſma *Diſcutiens*. *A Diſcutient* Poultice.

Take of barley meal, ſix ounces; the leaves of hemlock freſh gathered and bruiſed, two ounces; crude ſal ammoniac half an ounce; vinegar enough to give the whole a proper conſiſtence. Mix them without uſing heat, and apply it cold.

Cataplaſmi *Saturni Goulardi*. *Goulard's Saturnine* Poultice.

Take a ſufficient quantity of Goulard's vegeto-mineral water, put it in a pipkin, with a ſufficient quantity of bread-crumb. Let them juſt boil gently, and apply it in the common method, renewing it every five or ſix hours. Every time it is renewed waſh the part with the vegeto-mineral water, and particularly the edges of the *poultice*.

It is commended in cancerous and ſcrophulous caſes, alſo on milk tumors of the breaſt.

CATAPLEXIS, from πλησσω, *to ſtrike*. Any ſudden ſtupefaction, or deprivation of ſenſation in any of the members or organs.

CATAPOSIS, from καταπινω, *to ſwallow down*. According to Aretæus, it ſignifies the inſtruments of deglutition. Hence alſo

CATAPOTIUM. A pill.

CATAPSYXIS, from ψυχω, *to refrigerate*. A refrigeration without ſhivering, either univerſal, or of ſome particular part. A chilneſs, or as Vogel defines it, an uneaſy ſenſe of cold in a muſcular, or cutaneous part.

CATAPTOSIS, from καταπιπτω, *to fall down*. It implies ſuch a falling down as happens in apoplexies; or the ſpontaneous falling down of a paralytic limb.

CATAPULTARIUM (AQUA). See ARQUEBUSADE.

CATAPUTIA. Spurge. Under this name are ranked the

Cataputia major; called alſo palma Chriſti, ricinus vulgaris, ricinus Americanus, nhambu guacu of Piſo, cherva major, common palma Chriſti, great ſpurge, Mexico ſeed, caſtor; and by the Italians it is called cataputia maggiore. It is the Ricinus Americanus, Linn. the American palma Chriſti; or, Ricinus communis foliis peltatis ſubpalmatis ſerratis, Linn.

This plant is as tall as a little tree, and is ſpread into many branches; the leaves ſpread like one's hand, with the fingers a little ſeparated: the flowers are ſmall and in bunches. On the body of the plant there are bunches of rough triangular huſks, each containing three ſpeckled ſeeds, about the ſize of ſmall kidney-beans, which in their ſhells contain white kernels, of a ſweet, oily, and ſometimes of a nauſeous taſte.

Theſe ſeeds were uſed by Hippocrates, and perhaps before him. If they are uſed in ſubſtance they are acrid, and purge roughly; but the oil expreſſed from them purges gently, though very efficaciouſly.

The leaves when beat and boiled in milk to the conſiſtence of a poultice, are powerful ſuppurants, are uſed for dreſſing bliſters with, and children's heads that are ſcabbed, &c.

The ſeeds are externally variegated with black and whitiſh ſtreaks, reſembling both in ſhape and colour the inſect called ricinus, i. e. the tick, whence the name ricinus is given to the plant. The oil which theſe ſeeds afford is what the plant is moſt valued for. This oil is obtained both by expreſſion and decoction; but the former method is the beſt for medical uſes.

This

This oil is known by the names of ol. ricini, ol. palmæ Chriſti, oil of kik, oil of agnus caſtus, and caſtor oil.

This oil is, beſides its eaſily operating as a purge, of peculiar uſe in hot, bilious conſtitutions, in febrile diſorders of the ardent kind, and, by joining it with proper cordials, may be uſed in the low and putrid fevers. Its efficacy exceeds all other kind of purging medicines in the colic, in calculous diſorders, and all ſuch caſes as require the bowels to be moved, and yet forbid the uſe of powerful ſtimulants.

To children it may be given in the manner of an oleo ſaccharum. Gooch, in his Medical Obſervations, commends the following method of adminiſtering it to adults, and aſſures us, that two or three ſpoonfuls taken occaſionally at bed-time, keeps the bowels ſoluble, even when the bleeding piles attend. A larger doſe, or the ſame, more frequently repeated, ſuffices for a purge on any occaſion.

℞ Ol. ricini ℥ j. ſs vitel. ovi parum, probe contritis in mort. marm. adde ſenſim aq. menth. pip. ſimp. & aq. cinnam. ſimp. ää ℥ ij. ſyr. roſar. ſolut. ℥ ſs. m.

He obſerves that it acts by lubricating, rather than by ſtimulating.

In the colic, a table ſpoonful of this oil may be mixed with a little pepper-mint water, and repeated every half hour, or every hour, until it promotes the deſired evacuation. If the ſtomach rejects it, a gentle puke may be excited by a few grains of ipecacuhana, and then the oil will be more eaſily retained.

In fevers it both opens and cools; and in the lower kind of fevers it cools too much, if not guarded by ſome proper aromatic. In the yellow fever of the Weſt Indies it is almoſt a ſpecific. When the belly is already too lax from acrid bile, this oil obtunds the acrimony, and thus reſtrains the exceſſive diſcharge; in dyſenteries it relieves too by its obtunding acrimony. The intentions of cure in nephritic complaints, and the properties of this oil, being conſidered, will readily point out its uſe in thoſe afflictive complaints, for it purges briſkly, in ſmall quantities, without irritation; it is cooling, and ſo allays all febrile heats; it corrects acrimony, and prevents the coheſion of calculous concretions, if it does not diſſolve them. In gonorrhœas, the fluor albus, the conſtipation peculiar to ſtudious and ſedentary perſons, &c. this oil is of ſingular efficacy.

Chuſe it of a pale colour, limpid, and rather inclining to a greeniſh caſt, almoſt inſipid to the taſte, with but little ſmell, and of a thickiſh conſiſtence; this ſort is obtained by expreſſion. That which is ſeparated from the ſeeds by decoction, is of a browniſh colour, of a rancid and diſagreeable ſmell and taſte; it ſhould never be uſed internally. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. ii. Canvane's Diſſ. on the Ol. Palmæ Chriſti. Med. Muſ. vol. iii.

CATAPUTIA MINOR. Garden ſpurge. Alſo called lathyris major, and tithymalus latifolius.

All the *ſpurges* are acrid; the milky juice, in which their virtue lies, is cauſtic and cathartic; the root, or bark, prepared by infuſion in vinegar, hath been given to a dram; three or four of the leaves purge ſtongly: the milky juice is ſaid to deſtroy warts: but none of this tribe are now uſed, becauſe of their exceſſive acrimony.

Under this article may be ranked the three following viz.

Ricinoides. The Barbadoes nut; alſo called pineus purgans, pinhones Indici, carcas, nux Barbadenſis, faba purgatrix, jatropha, curcas, ricinus Americanus major ſemine nigro, munduy-guacu, nux cathartica Americana, and avellana cathartica. The fruit is oval ſhaped like a wall-nut, and contains oblong black ſeeds. The tree is a native of America, and alſo of the Eaſt Indies; it grows to a conſiderable ſize. The ſeeds are extremely acrid, and afford an oil that purges, but is rarely uſed on account of its activity.

Avellana purgatrix. The purging nut. Alſo called nuces purgantes, jatropha, and ricinoides. The tree is a native of America and the Weſt-Indies; grows to a conſiderable ſize. Its fruit is oval-ſhaped, containing roundiſh, and ſomewhat triangular, and browniſh ſeeds, which have but little acrimony, and taſte like almonds, but yet operate briſkly by vomit and ſtool.

Grana Tiglia. The Molucca-grains, ſo called becauſe they were firſt brought from the Molucca iſlands. They are alſo called tiglium, croton, and pinus Indica nucleo purgante. The tree is a native of America and the Eaſt Indies; the fruit is roundiſh, containing dark greyiſh ſeeds, ſhaped nearly like thoſe of the palma Chriſti. They are intenſely hot and acrid, operate with a degree of virulence both upward and downward; and of the four ſorts abovementioned, this is the moſt active. One dram of the oil is a ſtrong doſe.

The wood and leaves of the above five trees and plants are ſtrong cathartics. Hermann ſays, that the wood of the tiglia, called panava, or pavana, operates violently when freſh, but when long kept it is ſudorific.

CATARACTA. A cataract, from καταρασσω, *to mingle together*, or *put out of order*. Dr. Cullen places it as a ſpecies of caligo.

A *cataract* is an opacity of the cryſtalline humour of the eye, which prevents the rays of light paſſing to the retina, and ſo preventing viſion. Dr. Hunter ſays, it is when an inflammation in the coat of the cryſtalline humour hath rendered it opake: but Mr. St. Yves ſeems to intimate, that the cryſtalline humour ſwells.

The ancient Greeks called this diſorder ὑπόχυμα, or ὑπόχυσις, which Celſus renders by the word *ſuffuſio*; and γλαύκωσις, or γλαυκόωμα, which Galen, and moſt of the ancients, ſay, is a dryneſs, or concretion of the cryſtalline humour. Aetius ſays, it is a change of the cryſtalline humour to a ſky colour, with a dryneſs and concretion. And ſome in our day obſerve, that the principal difference betwixt a *cataract* and a glaucoma is, that, in the latter, the cryſtalline humour becomes hard, and of a ſky colour, (glauci coloris); and in the former it is ſoft.

Mr. de St. Yves divides the *cataract* into the true, doubtful, and falſe.

The True, is when the cryſtalline humour hath loſt its tranſparency: and this he ſubdivides into three ſorts; 1ſt, When the cryſtalline humour is ſoft: 2dly, When it is hard: and, 3dly, When it is purulent.

The Doubtful, are thoſe in which the ſucceſs of the operation is as uncertain as the uſe of topical remedies. Theſe are of four ſorts, 1ſt, A membranous *cataract*: 2dly, A filamentous *cataract*: 3dly, *Cataracts* from blows or other external injuries: and, 4thly, From a defect of the membrane, which covers the bottom of the ſocket in the vitreous humour. The firſt and third of theſe he ſubdivides again, each into three kinds, as he endeavours to be minute, as well as full, in his deſcription of this diſorder.

The Falſe, are thoſe in which the remedies afford no relief farther than to palliate pains, or to remove deformity; and theſe he divides into the glaucoma, and the ſhaking *cataract*.

All this diviſion, and ſubdiviſion, ſeems little regarded in preſent practice; but yet ſome uſeful hints will be derived by a peruſal of this author.

When a *cataract* begins, the patient at firſt complains of a diminution of his ſight; and on a careful examination of the eye, a whiteneſs is perceived very deep in it: on examining the eye at diſtant periods of time, its opacity becomes more and more manifeſt to the obſerver, and the patient very ſenſibly loſes the advantage of ſight. The progreſs of a *cataract* is uſually very ſlow.

No medicines are known, that are capable of removing this diſorder of the eye; but methods of operating on the cryſtalline humour are uſed to recover the ſight thus obſtructed. The firſt is by depreſſing, the ſecond by abſtracting this humour. In a recent caſe it may not be amiſs to try ſuch medicines as relieve the gutta ſerena. Sometimes ſucceſs ſeemed to follow repeated doſes of calomel, and poultices of freſh hemlock on the eye, conſtantly keeping a bliſter on the back. Small doſes of the merc. cor. alb. daily repeated for a length of time, have been uſeful.

Mr. Sharp gives it as a general rule for proceeding to the operation, when the *cataract* is entirely opake; he obſerves, that ſometimes they are of a proper conſiſtence for the operation before they become ſo, but forbids proceeding thereto while the patients can perceive any thing through them. *Cataracts* are of different colours; the pearl coloured, and thoſe that appear like burniſhed iron, are thought proper to endure the needle; the white are

ſuppoſed

ſuppoſed milky; the green and yellow are horny, and incurable; the black *cataract* Mr. Sharpe takes to be the gutta ſerena.

The yellow *cataract* often adheres to the iris ſo as to be incurable. When a gutta ſerena attends, the operation will not relieve.

There is little to be expected from the operation, when the diſeaſed eye is either diminiſhed, or increaſed, from its natural ſize.

Before and after the operation, a due regard muſt be had to the ſtate of the patient's conſtitution; and ſuch means are generally adviſed, as will keep it ſomewhat below its natural vigour.

When no objection to the operation attends, Mr. Sharp commends the following method for depreſſing the *cataract*. "Place the patient in a convenient light, and a ſuitable height: put a pillow behind his back, that his body may bend forward, and the head approach near to you; then inclining the head a little backwards upon the breaſt of your aſſiſtant, and covering the other eye, ſo as to prevent its rolling, let the aſſiſtant lift up the ſuperior eye-lid, and yourſelf depreſs a little the inferior one: this done, ſtrike the needle through the tunica conjunctiva, ſomething leſs than one-tenth of an inch from the cornea, even with the middle of the pupil, into the poſterior chamber, and gently endeavour to depreſs the *cataract* with the flat ſurface of it. If after it is diſlodged it riſes again, though not with much elaſticity, it muſt again and again be puſhed down. If it is membranous, after the diſcharge of the fluid, the pellicle muſt be more broke and depreſſed. If it is uniformly fluid, or exceedingly elaſtic, we muſt not continue to endanger a terrible inflammation, by a vain attempt to ſucceed.

After the operation, treat it as an ophthalmy; and a collyrium, of one part rectified ſpirit of wine, and ten parts of luke warm water, will be as proper an application as any.

Mr. Daviel has the honour of having diſcovered the method of extracting the cryſtalline humour; but Mr. St. Yves practiſed it about ſixty years before him. When the cryſtalline lens had paſſed through the pupil into the anterior chamber of the eye, both Mery and Petit extracted it, for then the depreſſion is impracticable. When this method of relief is put into practice, proceed as follows.

Paſs your knife through the cornea, into the anterior chamber of the eye, about a line before the iris; for if it is not put there the iris will, perhaps, be wounded: if you go too far on the cornea, you may get between its lamina, and ſo not perforate into the chamber: after puncturing into the chamber, guide your knife with the flat ſide perpendicular to the eye, through the aqueous humour horizontally (being careful not to wound the iris) and then thruſt it out at the oppoſite ſide and ſituation of the cornea you put it in at; then turning its edge obliquely and perpendicular outwards, make an inciſion rather through the inferior half of the cornea, then lifting up the ſuperior part of it, the cryſtalline humour will burſt its aranea, and drop out; but if it ſhould ſtick at its exit through the wound, it ſhows that the capſula of the cryſtalline is not broke, on which you muſt puncture it with the knife, and then it will drop: but if the diſeaſe is in the aranea, or the capſula of the cryſtalline, you muſt extract it alſo with the forceps.

With reſpect to the nature of this diſorder, or the ſtate of the cryſtalline lens, whatever improvements have been made within the preſent century, reſpecting its diſordered ſtate, many difficulties are ſtill attendant. Mr. Pott obſerves that until the year 1720, or thereabout, neither the ſtate, nature, nor ſeat of this diſeaſe were truly known; at leaſt not to thoſe who practiſed ſurgery. Accident, he adds, firſt proved it to be a diſtemper of the corpus cryſtallinum, and to be in general abſolutely confined to it. Heiſter is the firſt writer on this ſubject, who leads to any juſt idea of it. Mr. Pott ſeems to be the firſt who dwells on the true ſtate of the cryſtalline humour when a *cataract* is formed. He ſays, that the idea of a beginning or imperfect *cataract* being ſoft, and that of a mature or perfect *cataract* being hard, is erroneous; at leaſt, for the moſt part ſo. That the natural ſound tranſparent cryſtalline, is very far from being uniform in its conſiſtence through its whole ſubſtance; its external part is much ſofter, and more gelatinous, than its internal: which therefore although equally tranſparent, may be ſaid to form a kind of nucleus, and is always of a much firmer texture. He adds, if this known difference of conſiſtence, between the external and internal parts of the cryſtalline, was duly attended to, it would ſolve many of the appearances in *cataracts*; which for want of ſuch attention, are either not accounted for, or very abſurdly. Among other phænomena, it would account for the very different colour which the different parts of the ſame *cataract* frequently bear; and which hath furniſhed the wildeſt conjectures. From this ſound and natural ſtate, it is capable of ſeveral morbid alterations: it is capable of being diſſolved or of becoming a fluid, without loſing any thing of its tranſparency: it hath been ſuppoſed by very able anatomiſts, that the human cryſtalline has ſometimes between its ſurface and its capſula, a ſmall quantity of fine pellucid lymph; and conſequently that there is no immediate connection between the body and its inveſting membrane. In many beaſts, as well as fiſhes, this is known to be the caſe; but whether it be ſo in the human eye, is not very eaſy to be known during life; but that this is the caſe ſometimes from diſtemper, there is no doubt: that is, the whole cryſtalline is diſſolved into a fluid which ſtill preſerves its tranſparency; and this ſeems to form what is called the black *cataract*, which is a ſpecies of the gutta ſerena. Mr. Pott goes on to obſerve that, the cryſtalline humour is capable of being diſſolved into an apparently uniform fluid of a gelatinous conſiſtence, which will be more or leſs opake through the whole of it; it ſometimes becomes opake, while it undergoes a partial kind of diſſolution, which leaves, or renders the different parts of it of very different degrees of conſiſtence; and it now and then, though very rarely, becomes opake through its whole ſubſtance, and yet preſerves its natural degree of firmneſs. From this variety of alteration, which the cryſtalline is capable of undergoing, proceeds that variety of appearance which our anceſtors have called ſo many different kinds of *cataracts*. The idea of beginning *cataracts* being ſoft, and hardening as they become more perfect, hath an ill influence in practice. When the cryſtalline humour becomes ſofter than it ſhould be, it is certainly diſtempered, and unfit for perfect viſion, whether it be opake or not; but that this ſoftened lens will ever be harder, we have no reaſons to depend on, any more than we have evidences that an opacity is a proof of its induration. The moſt fluid *cataracts* are as opake as the moſt firm ones. Farther inconveniences attending the idea of ripe and unripe, ſoft or hard, *cataracts* are as follow: the early or unripe ſtate is ſuppoſed an improper one for the operation, and that the patient muſt wait for a later or ripe one; it then becomes a matter of conſideration whether the patient ſhall or ſhall not continue blind for a very uncertain ſpace of time. Again, the ſoft ſtate being ſuppoſed not the proper one, a more opake and hardened ſtate is expected as a neceſſary conſequence of time, which not being true, the patient is either never relieved, or at beſt is deprived of that advantage without any juſt reaſon. Beſides the body of the cryſtalline lens, its capſula or inveſtigating membrane may be the ſeat of the diſeaſe; it may become opake while its contents are clear and duly tranſparent. This may happen after the operation for depreſſing a harder *cataract*, or for letting out a ſofter one. When the capſula is the ſeat of the diſeaſe, and happens to take place after depreſſing or extracting the cryſtalline lens, it ſometimes vaniſhes in a few weeks, and ſometimes requires an operation.

Reſpecting the operation of couching, Mr. Pott obſerves that, as in ſome inſtances the *cataract* remains always fluid, ſo in others they become inſtantly indurated; whence it follows that there is no point of time for which we ſhould wait, but at any time when on other accounts the object is a proper one, the ſurgeon may proceed. Previous to the operation, it is right to know the circumſtances which render it likely or unlikely to ſucceed. To have it ſucceed, the cryſtalline humour ſhould be opake, and all the other parts of the eye capable of performing their functions; the eye ſhould be of its natural ſize, when with a *cataract* the globe of the eye is manifeſtly enlarged, the patient is incapable of perceiving light, or

diſ-

diſtinguiſhing betwixt light and darkneſs, in ſuch a caſe the operation muſt be omitted. The pupil ought to be capable of contracting and dilating; it hath been taught by many, that when the pupil is immoveable, it is to no purpoſe to perform the operation, which in a general ſenſe is true, though not in a particular one; the operation certainly ſhould not be performed if the pupil is immoveable from a paralyſis of the part, nor if it adheres to the cryſtalline, as in theſe caſes we could not operate with any ſucceſs, but if it is immoveable or almoſt ſo from a diſtenſion of the cryſtalline humour (which Mr. Pott thinks ſometimes happens) you may operate; however, in theſe caſes, on a very nice examination the pupil will be found to have a very ſmall degree of motion. The patient ought always to be able to diſtinguiſh light from darkneſs, and a white from a black body; if he is not, though you remove the *cataract* from over the pupil, yet the retina is incapable of performing its office. In the following inſtances ſucceſs is hardly to be expected by either couching or extracting the cryſtalline body; when the diſeaſed cryſtalline is ſomewhat of the colour of braſs, or of a bright yellow, or of a copper colour, the operation does not ſucceed; the pupil being generally found immoveable and the whole eye enlarged. When all the parts of the eye are enlarged, or when the cryſtalline protrudes through the pupil, the caſe is not a proper one for the operation.

As to the extraction or depreſſion of the *cataract*, thoſe who undertake to perform theſe operations will doubtleſs have availed themſelves of all the information given by the beſt writers on theſe ſubjects; and to thoſe who wiſh for fuller directions, &c. the ſubjoined writers are thoſe from whom the whole of what art hath taught will be received.

See Celſus, Paulus, Aetius, St. Yves on the Diſorders of the Eyes, Heiſter's Surgery, Sharp's Operations, Med. Muſ. vol. ii. p. 157, &c. and 412. vol. iii. p. 1, Warner and Pott on the *Cataract*.

CATARACTA NIGRA. The ſame as amauroſis.

CATARIA. Cat-mint. See MENTHA.

CATARRHALIS. The catarrhal fever, or continual quotidian of the ancients. It begins in the evening, with a ſhivering and a coldneſs of the ſkin and extreme parts, a coſtiveneſs, a frequent deſire of making water, but the urine is ſmall in quantity; a weakneſs of the head, an univerſal languor, a falſe appetite, thirſt, difficulty of ſwallowing, a ſtimulus in the larnyx, a heat in the noſtrils and fauces, attended with ſneezing, and a weight in the breaſt. Towards night heat, and a quicker, fuller pulſe, a cough, with a defluxion of rheum, a heat in the fauces, unquiet ſleep, ſweating in the morning, and at length a total loſs of appetite.

The immediate cauſe is a ſharp, acrid ſerum, or lymph which irritates the glandulous tunics, or the noſtrils, palate and fauces, the aſpera arteria, and branches of the bronchia, and ſometimes the œſophagus, ſtomach, and inteſtines are affected; whence a cough, hoarſeneſs, ſpitting a viſcid matter, ſneezing, and a defluxion on the lungs, nauſea, gripes, &c. followed by a ſalutary flux.

Women, children, and weakly men, are its chief ſubjects.

It is moſt frequent in ſpring and autumn, or in very variable ſeaſons.

In ſeven, or betwixt that and fourteen days, a *catarrh* comes on; and as ſoon as its diſcharge appears at the noſe, the ſymptoms of this fever go off: ſometimes indeed, a copious perſpiration relieves, and at others a large diſcharge thrown up from the lungs, give a turn to the complaint, or, perhaps, a diarrhœa proves the natural means of cure.

The intentions of cure are, 1ſt, to ſheath the acrimony of the lymph; 2dly, to increaſe perſpiration; 3dly, to promore the expectoration of the viſcid mucus.

The firſt intention is anſwered by abſorbents and demulcent drinks; the ſecond, by adding ſaffron and ſnake-root to the abſorbents, and by waſhing them down with tepid liquors; the third, decoctions of figs, mixture with gum ammoniacum, &c.

If the heat is conſiderable, nitre may be joined with the other medicines; and if the cough is violent, the paregoric elixir, or ſtorax pill, may be given at bed-time.

After the fever is abated, if a copious ſpitting continueth, to the perſpirative powders, a few grains of cort. eluther may be added. See Hoffman's Med. Rat. See CATARRHUS.

CATARRHEUMA, i. e. Catarrhus.

CATARRHEXIS. A violent and copious eruption or effuſion; joined with *ῥῆξις*, it is a copious evacuation from the belly, and ſometimes alone it is of the ſame ſignification. In Vogel's Noſology, it is defined a diſcharge of pure blood from the belly.

CATARRHŒCUS. A word applied to diſeaſes proceeding from diſtillations of rheum.

CATARRHOPA PHYMATA. Tubercles tending downwards; or, as Galen ſays, thoſe that have their apex on a depending part.

CATARRHOPOS NOUSOS. A remiſſion of the diſeaſe, or its decline, and oppoſed to the paroxyſm.

CATARRHUS, a defluxion, from *κατα* and *ῥεω, to flow down*. It is an inflammation of, or an increaſed and morbid ſecretion from the mucous membrane of the noſe, eyes, throat, mouth, or lungs, which in the leſſer degrees of it, is called a cold. Dr. Cullen ranks this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ and order profluvia. He alſo enumerates two ſpecies: the firſt from cold, the ſecond from contagion. Hippocrates hath ſeven ſpecies of defluxions under the appellation of *catarrh*.

When inflammatory ſymptoms precede the increaſed ſecretion, it is called a hot *catarrh* If a fever precede it, it is called a *catarrhal* fever, which ſee. When the ſecretion of the mucus is increaſed at the beginning of the diſorder, and inflammation appears afterwards, but in no very conſiderable degree, it is then called a cold *catarrh*; when there is a violent cough excited, either by an exceſſive *catarrh*, by the rupture of a vomica in the lungs, by a polypus driven into the pulmonary artery from the heart, or by a ſpaſmodic conſtriction of the nerves, it is called a ſuffocative *catarrh*. Many include under the word *catarrh*, almoſt all kinds of defluxions; but the moſt received diſtinctions have been included in theſe verſes,

Si fuit ad pectus dicitur Rheuma CATARRHUS,
Ad fauces BRONCHUS *ad nares eſto* CORYZA.

The ſeat of the *catarrh* is in the membrane of the noſe, the frontal ſinuſes, the antra Highmoriana, all the cells of the os ſphenoides, the mouth, fauces, eyes, the aſpera arteria, and its branches in the lungs.

This diſorder is moſt frequent in cold climes, in ſpring and autumn, or in variable ſeaſons; and happens chiefly to thoſe who have narrow cheſts, long necks, or ſuch as are diſpoſed to coughs, and thoſe who are phlegmatic and weakly.

In general it is produced by whatever gives a check to perſpiration; ſtimulating diet, paſſions of the mind, &c. may conduce to this diſeaſe. The ſuffocating kind is produced by a palſy in the nerves, ſubſervient to reſpiration, and polypous concretions in the pulmonary veſſels.

In a hot *catarrh*, the ſymptoms, according as the different parts are affected, are a redneſs, heat, foreneſs, and ſenſe of diſtenſion in the eyes and eye-lids; at the ſame time there is an unuſual ſecretion of tears, and watery mucus, which running down the cheeks inflame them. When the noſe is affected, there is a ſenſe of ſtuffing and ſwelling in the noſtrils, an alteration in the voice, a loſs of ſmell; and if the inflammation runs high, a thin mucus is ſecreted, which produces heat, foreneſs of the noſtrils, ſneezing, and ſometimes inflammation, with excoriation of the upper lip. If the throat, trachea, or lungs, are the ſeat of the diſeaſe, the rheum ſeparated in theſe parts inflames them; ſometimes a ſwelling of the noſe attends, or, perhaps the whole face is puffed up, a languor, ſtupor, deafneſs, and foreneſs of the ears are alſo complained of, and a running from them. When the throat is affected, the tonſils, and parts thereto adjacent, are red, ſore, and hot, accompanied with a ſecretion of watery mucus, which ſtimulates, and occaſions a conſtant, troubleſome, tickling cough; ſometimes the whole mouth is ſore, there are little excoriations of the tongue, and a conſtant flow of ſaliva, with foreneſs of the ſalivary glands, and the lips are inflamed and excoriated. When the larynx or trachea are affected, a foreneſs is felt in them, attended with a hoarſeneſs, and generally with a troubleſome tickling cough. In the lungs this diſeaſe

produces a foreneſs, tightneſs, and ſenſe of ſtuffing in the breaſt, with difficulty of breathing, and a violent cough, with which either nothing, or only a watery mucus is at firſt ſpit up, and which produces foreneſs under the ſternum, and in the ſides, and ſometimes head-ach, ſickneſs, and reaching. Sometimes all theſe parts are affected at once, but more generally it happens that one only is diſeaſed at the firſt, and it ſpreads more or leſs, as circumſtances concur to favour its progreſs. There is more or leſs of inflammation too, according as the ſtrength of the patient, or the violence of the diſeaſe is. In the evening the ſymptoms are more troubleſome, but, in the morning, a gentle moiſture in the ſkin appears, and the patient is eaſier. In weakly habits the pulſe is frequent, but not very hard; the appetite is loſt, and the increaſe of the evening's paroxyſm is conſiderable.

In the cold *catarrh*, the ſecretion of the mucus comes on firſt: there is, therefore, a running from the noſe; the matter is not watery, but viſcid, though thin, and not very ſtimulating. This mucus, when it is ſecreted into the throat, produces a cough, by which it is thrown off, and ſometimes a nauſea; or affecting the lungs, there is a ſpitting with the cough. This expectoration of phlegm is moſt conſiderable after ſleeping; but there is no great ſenſe of foreneſs or of ſtuffing. After ſome days, inflammatory ſymptoms come on, though not in a great degree, nor is the whole ſyſtem often much affected. Theſe ſymptoms are followed by an increaſed ſecretion of mucus, which becoming viſcid, if it was not ſo at the beginning, loſes is ſtimulus. If the inflammation is great, the mucus diſcharged is yelloviſh, and ſometimes tinged with blood; as this goes on, the other ſymptoms abate, and, at length, the diſcharge by ſpitting, grows whiter, then leſs in quantity, and thus the diſorder ends. If the patient is in a cold atmoſphere, the cough is the more troubleſome, the other ſymptoms are aggravated, and the diſeaſe is prolonged. If through an imprudent expoſure to the air, a relapſe happens, the ſame courſe is run through that had juſt before been paſſed. If the inflammation is very conſiderable, an angina, or a quinſy, may be produced; or if there is alſo the inflammatory diatheſis in general, a pleuriſy may come on, or other diſorders which tend to a conſumption.

As different ſymptoms appear, according to the violence of the attack, &c. different diſeaſes are imitated by this, and care ſhould be taken to diſtinguiſh the *catarrh* from an angina, peripneumony, ulcerated ſore throat, venereal and other ulcerations in the throat, &c. and the ſuffocative *catarrh* muſt not be confounded with the hooping cough, aſthma, and other difficulties of breathing.

According to the heat of the body, and the ſtrength of the patient, the cure may be begun by bleeding, or with purging, ſucceeded by gentle laxatives, diuretics, or perſpiratives, as one or the other may ſeem moſt likely to relieve, and let them be repeated as circumſtances may require. After purgatives, let a gentle opiate be given at nights, joined with a ſmall doſe of the tart. emet. If pain in the breaſt is conſiderable, let a bliſter be applied as near the part affected as is convenient. If the throat is ſore, the volatile liniment may be applied to the fore-part of it. Perſpiration may be promoted with the uſual antimonial preparations, joined with ſuch other perſpiratives of the cooling or warmer kinds, as the nature of the caſe may require; and by bathing the feet in warm water at night. This laſt method abates the cough and head-ach conſiderably; and if inflammation does not forbid, by the following anodyne preparation: R Extr. Thebaic. gr. ij. amygd. decort. gr. x. tart. emet. gr. ij. f. pil. no. vi. cujus capt. j. ter in die.

In chronical *catarrhs* very great advantage is obtained by a frequent uſe of purgatives, mixed with opiates, in ſuch quantities as not to prevent their efficacy as laxatives, e. g.

R Pil. Ruſi, gr. xv. pil. ſapon. gr. viij. m. f. pilul. no iij. h. f. ſumend.

To moderate the cough, eaſe the foreneſs complained of inwardly, and aſſiſt the diſcharge by ſpitting, mucilaginous medicines may be adminiſtered, ſuch as the infuſion of linſeed, mixtures with ſpermaceti, &c.

See Hoffman's Med. Rat. Syſt. Opuſcula Med. Doctoris Baker, Dr. Fordyce's Elements, part ii. Brooks's Practice of Phyſic. Schneider hath writ largely on this diſeaſe.

CATARRHUS, i. e. Peripn. Notha.

CATARRHUS BELLINSULANUS, i. e. Mumps.

CATARRHUS SUFFOCATUS. See SUFFOCATIO STRIDULA.

CATARRHUS VESICÆ, i. e. Dyſuria mucoſa.

CATARTISMUS. According to Galen it is a tranſlation of a bone from a preternatural to its natural ſituation.

CATASARCA, i. e. Anaſarca.

CATASCHASMOS, from σχαζω, ſignifying *to ſcarify* or *open a vein*.

CATASTAGMOS, from σταζω, *to diſtil*. This is the name which the Greeks, in the time of Celſus, had for a diſtillation.

CATASTALAGMOS, i. e. Cataſtagmos.

CATASTALTICUS, from καταστελλω, *to reſtrain*, or στελλω, *to contract*. It ſignifies ſtyptic, aſtringent, repreſſing.

CATASTUS (LAPIS), i. e. Achates.

CATATASIS, from κατατεινω, *to extend*, or *to place*. In Hippocrates, it means the extenſion of a fractured limb; or a diſlocated one in order to replace it: alſo the actual replacing it in a proper ſituation.

CATAXA. Both Aetius and Actuarius expreſs by this word raw ſilk, or ſilk before it is dyed.

CATE, i. e. Terra Japonica. See alſo LYCIUM.

CATECHU. See ACAJATIBA and TERRA JAPONICA.

CATEIADION. A long inſtrument which was introduced into the noſtrils, in order to provoke an haemorrhage in the cure of the head-ach. It is mentioned by Aretæus.

CATELLORUM (OLEUM). It is olive oil in which young whelps have been boiled until their fleſh ſeparates from the bones; after which is added thyme, marjoram, &c. which ſtand together in the ſun, and then the oil is ſtrained for uſe. See PH. PARIS.

CATELLUS CINEREUS. A cupel or teſt. See CUPELLA.

CATEVALA. Common aloe.

CATH. An abbreviation of catholicus.

CATHÆRESIS, from αιρω, *to take away*. Any ſort of ſubtraction of a part of the body by any kind of evacuation.

CATHÆRETICA, from αιρω, *to take away*. Remedies which conſume ſuperfluous fleſh.

CATHARMA, from καθαιρω, *to purge*. The excrements purged off from any part of the body.

CATHARMOS, from καθαιρω, *to purge*. Purgation by medicines; and the cure of a diſorder by ſuperfluous remedies.

CATHARSIS. Purgation. Whether by the menſes, lochia, urine, ſtool, in a way natural or artificial.

CATHARTICA, from καθαιρω, *to purge*. This word is generally uſed as expreſſive of purging medicines; but it alſo implies emetics.

CATHARTICUM EXTRACTUM. Cathartic extract.

CATHARTICUM EXTRACTUM. The London college directs the following: take of Succotorine aloes, an ounce and a half; of the pith of coloquintida, ſix drams; ſcammony, the leſſer cardamom ſeeds, huſked, of each half an ounce; of proof ſpirit, a pint. The ſpirit being poured upon the coloquintida, cut ſmall, and the ſeeds bruiſed, draw a tincture with a gentle heat, continued four days; then to the tincture preſſed out, add the aloes and ſcammony, firſt ſeparately reduced to powder; and theſe being diſſolved, draw off the ſpirit, and reduce the maſs to the conſiſtence of a pill.

This is a very effectual purge; the doſe is from gr. x. to ʒ ſs. It is an improvement on the pilulæ Rudii, a compoſition, except for the addition of the turbith, which was deſcribed by Andernacus ſome time before Euſtachius Rudius. Andernacus called it extractum ſolutorium compoſitum.

CATHARTICUS (SAL), called alſo ſal catharticus amarus, purging ſalt. Epſom ſalt, and Engliſh ſalt. This *ſalt* was firſt obtained from the mineral water at Epſom; it was afterwards ſeparated from the brine which remains after the cryſtallization of common ſalts, and this latter is the

the ſort which is now in general uſe. It is compoſed of the vitriolic acid and magneſia: differing from the ſal catharticus Glauberi, in that the latter hath a mineral alkaline ſalt for its baſis. The firſt is often ſold for the latter, but they are thus diſtinguiſhed: to a ſolution of the firſt, add any alkaline ſalt in a ſtate of ſolution, and the earth will ſoon be precipitated; the like addition being made to a ſolution of the ſecond, no alteration is perceived.

It is with this *ſal catharticus amarus* that the purging mineral waters are impregnated, and to which they owe their virtue. It hath a bitter taſte, is ſoluble in leſs than twice its weight in water, ſhoots into long priſmatic cryſtals, liquifies and bubbles in a moderate heat, emitting a quantity of aqueous vapours, it changes to a white ſpongey maſs; this ſpongey maſs is more bitter than the ſalt was before this change was made in it by the heat.

That the acid contained in this *ſalt* is of the vitriolic kind, appears from its precipitating chalk that is diſſolved in aqua fortis, or other acids.

If this *ſalt* is diſſolved in water, and cryſtallized afreſh, it concretes into a larger kind of cryſtals, which reſemble the purging ſalt of Glauber.

This *ſalt* is a gentle purgative, operating in general with eaſe and ſafety, yet with a ſufficient efficacy, and quickly finiſhing its operation. Is paſſing off haſtily, and not extending its action ſo far as moſt other purgatives, ſeems to be its principal imperfections, though if given in ſmall doſes, it paſſes farther into the conſtitution, promotes the ſecretions in general, and prove an excellent aperient in many chronical diſorders. It ſeldom occaſions gripes or ſickneſs, &c. which is common with reſinous purges. If the patient keeps warm, ſmall doſes will ſweat him; if cool, they paſs off by urine. As a purge, from an ounce to an ounce and a half is a full doſe, which, when diſſolved in a quart of water that hath a dram of mace or of cardamom ſeeds previouſly infuſed in it, is very eaſy in the ſtomach. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

CATHARTICUS HISPANICUS SAL. It is produced near Madrid, from ſome ſprings there: it is neutral and agrees with the Glauber ſalt. Its operation is very gentle.

CATHARTICUS GLAUBERI SAL. See GLAUBERI SAL.

CATHEDRA. In Hippocrates it is the anus.

CATHERETICA, from καθαιρω, *to throw down*. See CORRODANTIA.

CATHESTECOS. An epithet for a ſtrict and regular diet.

CATHETER, from καθιημι, *to thruſt* or *put down into*. It is a long crooked tube for paſſing along the urethra into the bladder, either for the diſcovery of a ſtone there, or to extract the urine if ſuppreſſed. The Latins call it fiſtula. See Celſus, lib. vii. cap. 26. And it had the epithet ænea beſtowed on it from the matter of which it was formed.

CATHETERISMUS. The introduction of the catheter into the bladder. This appellation was given by P. Ægineta to this operation; and it is required in the following caſes.

1. When a ſtone lies internally on the neck of the bladder, and ſtops the diſcharge of the urine.

2. When a preternatural weakneſs of the bladder hinders the urine from being diſcharged in the uſual manner; and when other remedies fail, as oft happens in women weakened with labour, &c.

3. When by too long retention of urine, the bladder is ſo diſtended and weakened as not to be able to diſcharge its contents.

4. When mucus, blood, pus, or other matter, ſticks in the neck of the bladder, in caſes of ulcers, or wounds of the kidneys, or after diſcharges of bloody urine.

5. When the urethra is contracted or obſtructed, or the neck of the bladder, (but in this caſe bougies are preferred) or when the proſtatæ are ſcirrhous, or tumid, and prevent the paſſage of the urine.

6. In the laſt months of pregnancy it is ſometimes uſeful to introduce the *catheter*, to draw off the urine.

7. When a prolapſus uteri produces an iſchury.

8 When a liquor is to be injected into the bladder, in which caſe a bladder may be filled with the liquor to be injected, then faſtened to the *catheter*, and ſo by gentle preſſure conveyed through it.

It is eaſy to introduce the *catheter* into the bladder of a woman, but in men's ſome difficulty attends. Heiſter ſays, that the eaſieſt method of introducing the *catheter* is for the man to lay on his back, and the operator to take the penis in his left hand, as he ſtands on the patient's left ſide, reclining the penis towards the navel; then he is to introduce the *catheter* with its concave part to the belly; into the urethra, ſo far as the os pubis, and by moving the handle, ſo as to deſcribe an arch towards the knees, without that dexterity of turning it under the arch of the os pubis, he gently forces it into the bladder.

If the *catheter* is too ſmall, it is the more apt to ſtop in the corrugations and foldings of the urethra, which often occur in old men. Dr. Hunter obſerves that ſome impediment is often met with at the caput gallinaginis, in which caſe he adviſes to draw the *catheter* a little back, and preſs the end of the *catheter* a little higher, and then it will ſlip in; but he cautions againſt uſing any force. If a difficulty is ſtill found, he adviſes to put a finger into the anus, at the ſame time draw the perinæum forward, and therewith endeavour to aſſiſt the *catheter* in its introduction.

Thoſe *catheters* are the beſt that are made with ſmall holes at their ends inſtead of long eyes.

Though this inſtrument may be required on ſome accounts, yet in the following caſes it cannot be uſed.

1. When the neck of the bladder is greatly inflamed, for then the urethra is much contracted, and to force in this caſe would endanger a ſphacelus.

2. When a caruncle, cicatrix, or hard tubercle obſtructs the paſſage.

3. In old men, ſometimes from the ſtricture ſhrinking, or from wrinkles in the urethra.

4. From the diſtenſion of the ſpongy ſubſtance of the urethra with the blood.

5. From a ſcirrhoſity or preternatural humour of the proſtate gland.

6. A ſtone lodged in the neck of the bladder.

7. When the uterus is remarkably prominent and pendulous over the oſſa pubis, the neck of the bladder, then forming an angle with the body of the bladder, hinders the paſſage of the *catheter*.

CATHIDRUSIS, from καθιδρυω, *to place together*. The reduction of a fracture.

CATHIMIA. In the ſpagyric language it ſignifies, 1. A ſubterraneous mineral vein, where gold and ſilver is dug; 2. Concretions in the furnace of gold and ſilver; 3. Gold; 4. Spuma argenti; and 5. Soot that adheres to the walls in burning braſs.

CATHMIA. Litharge. And the ſpume of gold, ſilver, braſs, or iron.

CATHOLCEUS. An oblong fillet which came over the whole bandage of the head called periſcepaſtrum.

CATHOLICON. A general or univerſal medicine. Formerly it was ſuppoſed to purge off all kinds of bad humours. From κατα, *through*, and ολον, *the whole*, i. e. univerſal

CATHYPNIA, from υπνος, *ſleep*. A profound ſleep.

CATIAS, from καθιημι, *dimitto*. An inciſion knife, formerly uſed to extract a dead fœtus, and for opening an abſceſs in the uterus.

CATILLIA. The weight of nine ounces.

CATILLUS CINNEREUS, i. e. Capella.

CATIMIA, i. e. Cadmia.

CATINUM ALUMEN. Pot-aſh.

CATINUS FUSORIUS. A crucible.

CATISCHON. One who is coſtive or not eaſily purged.

CATIUS. The name of an inſtrument for extracting a dead child.

CATMA. Filings of gold.

CATOBLEPA, or Catoblepas, or Catablepon. A wild beaſt in Ethiopia, of which Pliny relates ſtrange things.

CATOCATHARTICA. Medicines that operate by ſtool.

CATOCHE. A catalepſy, alſo a coma ſomnolentum.

CATOCHITES, from κατεχω, *to retain*. A ſtone found in Corſica, which Pliny ſays attracts and retains the hand when laid upon it.

CA-

CATOCHUS. A catalepſy. Alſo the tetanus. Some define it to be a rigidity of the body, without ſenſibility.

CATOCHUS CERVINUS. The tonic tetany, particularly affecting the neck.

CATOCHUS DIURNUS. The ſymptomatic tetany.

CATOCHUS HOLOTONICUS. The tonic tetany.

CATODON, from κατω, *below*, and ὀδους, *a tooth*. A name of the ſpermaceti whale, becauſe it hath teeth only in its lower jaw.

CATOMISMOS, from κατω, *under*, and ωμος, *the ſhoulder*. A putting under of the ſhoulder. By this word P. Ægineta expreſſeth that mode of reducing a luxated humerus, which is performed by a ſtrong man taking the patient's luxated arm and laying it over his ſhoulder, ſo that he can raiſe him from the ground, thus by the weight of the body the luxation is reduced.

CATOPTER, i. e. Speculum ani. From κατα, *through*, and σκοπειν, *to ſee*.

CATORCHITES. A ſort of wine which Dioſcorides takes notice of.

CATORETICA, from κατω, *downwards*, and ῥεω, *to flow*. Purgative medicines.

CATOTERICA. Purging medicines.

CATOU-KARUA. See FOLIUM.

CATTA TRIPALI. Long-pepper.

CATTEE. See ACAJAIBA.

CATTU-SCHIRAGAM. The Malabar name for the ſcabioſa Indica arborea: the ſeeds of which kill worms. Raii Hiſt.

CATU-TIRPALI. Long-pepper.

CATULOTICA. κατελκω. Medicines that cicatriſe wounds.

CATULUS. In zoology it is a puppy. In botany it is a catkin. See JULUS.

CATU PITSJEGAM MULLA. A ſpecies of jeſſamine.

CAUCAFON, i. e. Moly Indicum.

CAUCALIS. Baſtard parſley, called alſo echinophora tertia, lappula Canaria, pſeudoſelinum, anthriſcus, daucus annuus minor, and hedge-parſley; they have generally red flowers, and poſſeſs the common qualities of the garden parſley. Boerhaave takes notice of twelve ſorts.

CAUCALIS. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of tordylium, alſo of a ſpecies of carrot.

CAUCALOIDES. A name of the patella, in Moſchion de Morb. Mulieb. It is ſo called from its likeneſs to the flower of the caucalis.

CAUDA. In botany, the tail of a leaf; is a production of the middle rib, and connects the leaf with the ſtalk, after the manner of a pedicle; when the middle rib hath an appendix of the leaf running along it, it is often called a winged leaf.

CAUDA. Aetius in his Tetrab. 4. ſerm. 4. ch. 103. ſays that in ſome women a fleſhy ſubſtance ariſes from the os uteri, and fills the vagina. Sometimes it protuberates without the lips of the pudenda, like the tail of ſome animal, whence its name. In order to extirpate it, he adviſes to extend it with a forceps, and then cut it off, after which it muſt be dreſſed with lint dipped in rough wine. P. Ægineta ſpeaks to the ſame purpoſe.

CAUDA. A name of the os coccygis.

CAUDA EQUINA. Horſe-tail. It is a plant with a thick, hollow, ſtrait ſtalk, full of joints, long, ſlender, rough, ſtiff, jointed, ruſh-like leaves, ſtanding ſeveral round every articulation in form of a ſtar. It is perennial, and common in watery places. Boerhaave enumerates ten ſpecies.

Equiſetum, called alſo hippuris, equiſetum paluſtre longioribus, equiſetum majus, great marſh or water horſe-tail. The leaves are moderately aſtringent: they give out their active matter to water, and to ſpirit; but are not of efficacy enough to obtain a place in practice.

Equiſetum arvenſe longioribus ſetis; called alſo equiſetum minus terreſtre, equiſetum ſegetale, corn horſe-tail. It is the equiſetum arvenſe. Linn. It bears its flowers ſeparate from the ſtalks which bear the leaves. They appear in April and May. The qualities of this are ſimilar to the above-named ſpecies.

Equiſetum paluſtre brevioribus foliis, polyſpermum, called alſo polygonum fœminia, *cauda equinam* fœminia, pinaſtella ruppio, pinaſtella ſurrectior, female horſe-tail. This ſpecies is found in lakes and other watery places.

Equiſetum polygonoides bacciferum majus, ephedra maritima major, tragus, uva marina major, polygonum bacciferum, ſea-grape, or ſhrub horſe-tail. This grows in Sicily and other maritime places in the Mediterranean.

Ephedra maritima minor, called alſo polygonum bacciferum maritimum minus, tragus, uva marina, equiſetum iv mathioli, hippuris minor, equiſetum polygonoides bacciferum minus, leſſer ſea-horſe tail. See Dale, Ray, Boerhaave, and Miller.

CAUDA EQUINA. The medulla ſpinalis ends about the firſt or ſecond lumbar vertebra, and there forms itſelf into many branches which receive all together the name of the horſe's tail. From the loins downwards the holes in the vertebræ are ſomewhat lower than the origin of the nerves that paſs through them; hence it is of importance when any diſorder ariſes from an injury of any of the nerves below the firſt and ſecond lumbar vertebra to advert to this circumſtance; and as at the firſt or ſecond vertebra of the loins the *cauda equina* begins, ſo in tracing the ſource of all the nerves below theſe parts, their origin is together there.

CAUDA MURIS. A ſpecies of ranunculus. See alſo MYOSURUS.

CAUDA PORCINA, i. e. Peucedanum.

CAUDA VULPIS RUBICUNDI. Red lead.

CAUDATIO. So an elongation of the clitoris is called.

CAUDEX. The trunk of a tree. The trunk, ſtock, or ſtem, is that part of any plant which is betwixt the root and the branches. In herbs and underſhrubs this part is called caulis, the ſtalk, or thyrſus, or ſcapus, or calmus, or calamus.

CAULEDON, becauſe it breaks like καυλος, *a branch*. A ſpecies of fracture, and is when the bone is broken tranverſely ſo as not to cohere.

CAULIAS. An epithet for that juice of the ſylphium which flows from the ſtalk, by way of diſtinction from that which flows from the root, and is called ῥιζιας.

CAULIFEROUS. Such plants are ſo called as have a true ſtalk.

CAULIS. The ſtalk. In botany it is a part of a plant receiving the nouriſhment from the root and conveying it into the other parts with which it is clothed, not having one ſide diſtinguiſhable from the other. The ſtalk of a tree is called its trunk. See CAUDEX. And in corn and graſs it is called the blade.

CAULIS. A cabbage or colewort.

CAULIS RUBRA. Red colewort.

CAULIS FLORIDA. Cauliflower.

CAULIS. A name both for the penis and the vagina.

CAULIS PROCUMBENS. A procumbent or trailing ſtalk is that which lies on the ground, and propagates itſelf by emitting roots, as the ivy and ſtrawberry.

CAULIS SCANDENS. A climbing ſtalk is that which climbs by the help of tendrils, as the vines and briony.

CAULIS VOLUBILIS. A twining ſtalk is that which twiſts about any prop, without the help of tendrils, as the hop and kidney-bean.

CAULODES. The white or the green cabbage.

CAULOS. A ſtalk. This word is uſed by way of eminence to expreſs the ſtalk of ſylphium or laſer.

CAULOTON. An epithet of the beet.

CAUMA, from καιω, *to burn*. The heat of the atmoſphere or of the body in a fever.

CAUNGA. A name of the areca.

CAUSA. A cauſe. It is more difficult very often to diſcover the *cauſes* of diſorders than to preſcribe for the cure, when the *cauſe* is known; and it is by this ſkill and ſagacity in making ſuch diſcoveries that a phyſician ſhews how much he is above the mountebank and pretender. Great confuſion is met with in moſt writers on this ſubject; and indeed it is hard to ſay from whoſe theory we ſhall proceed to an uſeful practice. One ſays that the *cauſes* of diſeaſes are in the fluids; another fixes them in the ſolids; ſome proceed from chemical, and others from mechanical principles, &c. But when reaſoning a priori is laid aſide, when nature is ſtudied, and theory is confirmed

firmed only by clinical obſervation; this ſubject, ſo perplexed, may gradually unfold, and a theory be formed which, ſo far as it extends, will happily convert this uncertain ſcience into an art.

It is ſome ſatisfaction to be able to account for morbid ſymptoms, though the diſeaſes which give riſe to them may be in their own nature incurable; for, where we cannot relieve, we ſhall at leaſt be prevented from doing harm.

Diſeaſes ſhould be diſtinguiſhed by their *cauſes*, and not their effects; for this method, in many inſtances, Boerhaave and Van Swieten are truly admirable. It is owned that men of experience may be led from the effects of a diſeaſe to the knowledge of its *cauſe* in ſome caſes; but then the curative indications can only be properly taken from the knowledge of the true *cauſe*.

The *cauſes* of diſeaſes are always ſomething phyſical; they are that which makes a diſeaſe to be preſent; they are what impairs the functions, by producing diſorders in the ſolids, fluids, or both.

Cauſes are variouſly conſidered and divided by different writers, but perhaps the following general order will be found as free from objections as any of the different ones. Moſt diſeaſes have four cauſes, viz. the prediſpoſing, primary, antecedent, and conjunct. The three laſt are called morbific *cauſes*. And it ſhould be noticed that two efficient *cauſes* ſometimes produce a diſeaſe, or even one, (e. g.) iſt. By violent exerciſe, a ſtone falls from the kidnies, but obſtructs the urethra, and cauſes pain: here are two cauſes, viz. the primary, i. e. the exerciſe; and the conjunct, i. e. the ſtone. 2dly. A wound by a ſword; the wound is owing to a ſingle *cauſe*, which is the primary one, i. e. the ſword. A conjunct *cauſe* may be a procatarctic *cauſe* at the ſame time, e. g. an extraneous body lodged in the œſophagus. The antecedent *cauſe* may alſo become the conjunct; or the conjunct may become the antecedent; e. g. a plethora of blood in the veſſels may be the antecedent *cauſe* of a phlegmon, if it ſtill circulates, and become the conjunct *cauſe* if it ſettles on any part; e contra, the coagulated blood which is the conjunct *cauſe* of a phlegmon, may become the antecedent *cauſe* if it is taken up again by the veſſels, and re-enters the circulation.

The prediſpoſing *cauſe*, alſo called *cauſa* præcumena, and by ſome the antecedent; but then, in their diviſion they have only three general cauſes. The prediſpoſing *cauſes* are thoſe which render the body more fit to receive a morbid impreſſion, when a primary *cauſe* is applied; alſo that diſpoſes the body to ſuffer in one or other mode more readily than in any different ones. This kind of *cauſe* is a fault in the original conſtitution; or elſe it is induced in time by ſome accident. Of itſelf it neither conſtitutes nor produces a diſorder; but when certain morbid *cauſes* occur, it favours their effects; e. g. a long neck and flat breaſt diſpoſes to a conſumption, a ſhort neck to an apoplexy, ſlenderneſs to a pain in the ſide, rigid fibres to inflammation and fever, lax fibres to a cachexy and dropſy, &c. Some diſeaſes pave the way for others, as an aſthma for a dropſy, colic for the palſy, ſmall-pox and meaſles for an inflammation in the eyes, and a conſumption, &c. And a part, once injured, is more ſubject to be affected in the ſame way again.

The primary *cauſe*, called alſo the privative external, evident, apparent, remote, active, efficient, præincipient, procatarctic, or occaſional. This excites the pre-diſpoſing *cauſe* to action, or theſe *cauſes* applied to the body that is pre-diſpoſed thereto, excite diſeaſes; and are generally an error in one or more of the non-naturals, or wounds, contuſions, compreſſions, mucous matter thrown out of the follicules of the glands, before the ſalts are abſorbed. Dr. Sheebeare obſerves, in his Theory and Practice of Phyſic, that "if, inſtead of attending to particular diſorders, with all the minute differences which attend them, we were attentive to the primary *cauſe*, our medicinal knowledge would thereby be more advanced." He farther obſerves, that "an exceſs or defect of vital fire, is the moſt general *cauſe* of diſeaſes;" what he advances on this ſubject, may be ſeen in the juſt quoted publication, and deſerves more attention than ſeems hitherto to have been given it.

The antecedent *cauſe*, called alſo the mediate. Theſe *cauſes* are uſually in the excreta and retenta. In moſt complaints, the non-naturals firſt diſorder ſome of the evacuations, this is the primary *cauſe* of the diſeaſe; then theſe evacuations affect the blood and juices, which is the ſecond *cauſe*; the blood and juices thus affected, will not fail to diſturb the action of the parts, which is the laſt and immediate *cauſe* of diſeaſe, and in which conſiſts the nature of all diſeaſes.

The immediate, called alſo the conjunct, proximate, continent, formal, hidden, and internal. The immediate *cauſes* are thoſe which, taken altogether, immediately conſtitutes the preſent diſeaſe; the preſence of theſe conſtitute and continue them; and their removal is the cure: as the air in an emphyſema, and the blood in an aneuriſm.

A knowledge of the proximate *cauſe* enables us to judge of the nature of the complaint and its remedies. The empiric ſect rejected this enquiry. The knowledge of this kind of *cauſes* may be learnt from, firſt, a fore-knowledge of the nature and powers of the remote *cauſes*; ſecondly, from collating the different ſymptoms of the diſeaſe together, and by ſtrict reaſoning, to reduce them to one ſimple *cauſe*; thirdly, from the pernicious or ſalutary effects of the remedies applied during the diſeaſe; fourthly, by a careful inſpection of dead bodies. In this laſt, much ſkill in the appearances met with in dead bodies is required, leſt the effects of the *cauſes* ſhould be miſtaken for the *cauſes* themſelves.

The proximate *cauſe* is often difficult to be diſcovered, ſometimes impoſſible; and general *cauſes* are very numerous, hence the difficulty to fix on the particular one.

CAUSIS. A burn. See AMBUSTA.

CAUSODES FEBRIS, i. e. Cauſus. Celſus renders this word by febris ardens.

CAUSOMA. In Hippocrates it ſignifies a burning heat and inflammation.

CAUSTICA. Cauſtics, from καιω, *to burn*. *Cauſtics* deſtroy the texture of the parts to which they are applied.

Cauſtics, are, the actual *cautery*, or red-hot iron; burning, moxa, &c. See ESCHAROTICA, or the

CAUSTICUM ANTIMONIALE. See ANTIMONIUM.

CAUSTICUM COMMUNE FORTIUS. Ph. Lond.

The common ſtronger Cauſtic *of the London College.*

Boil to a fourth part any quantity of the ſoap leys (as prepared by the Diſpenſary of the London College), then ſprinkle in, while boiling, lime that hath been kept in a veſſel pretty cloſe ſtopped for ſeveral months; continue to add this lime till all the liquor is abſorbed, and the whole reduced to a paſte, which is to be kept in a veſſel well ſtopped. The deſign of keeping the lime is to leſſen its acrimony.

CAUSTICUM COMMUNE MITIUS. Ph. Lond.

The common milder Cauſtic *of the London Diſpenſary.*

Take of ſoft ſoap, and of freſh quick lime, equal parts; and mix them at the time of uſing.

CAUSTICUM LUNARE. See ARGENTUM.

When *cauſtics* are applied upon an abſceſs, &c. lay on a piece of ſticking plaſter upon the ſoft part of the abſceſs, having previouſly cut a hole in it, nearly as big as the eſchar is to be made: then in the hole of the plaſter lay the *cauſtic*, which muſt be ſecured by another piece of ſticking plaſter, when the eſchar is formed, it muſt be cut through, and wholly, or the greateſt part of it, ſeparated with the knife.

According to the intention of applying a *cauſtic*, it muſt lay on longer, or a leſſer time; if to form an iſſue it may lay on four hours, or if to lay a bone bare, the ſame time may be allowed; to deſtroy a large gland it may lay on ſix hours; to open an abſceſs, more or leſs, according to the thickneſs or hardneſs of the ſkin. See ESCHAROTICA.

CAUSUS, from καιω, *to burn*. A burning, or highly ardent fever. Hippocrates deſcribes this fever, and, according to him, a fiery heat and inſatiable thirſt are its peculiar characteriſtics. Galen's account of it is much the ſame. Hoffman, in his Med. Rat. Syſt. is very particular in his deſcription of this diſorder; and obſerves, with the ancients, that its pathognomonic ſymptoms are,

an intenſe burning all over the body, an unquenchable thirſt, and a parched, furrowed, black tongue. Aretæus deſcribes this diſorder, and Lommius is very accurate in his account of it; but from any of their relations, it does not appear to be any other than a continued ardent fever, in a bilious conſtitution. They obſerve, that the heat of the body is not only intenſe, but that the breath is peculiarly fiery; the patient's extremities are cold; his pulſe is frequent and ſmall; the heat is more violent internally than externally; and the whole ſoon ends in recovery or death. Boerhaave in Aph. 738, calls it an ardent fever. Dr. Cullen places it amongſt the remitting tertian fevers.

The cure is the ſame as in ardent fevers in general.

An inflammation of the aorta and vena cava is a ſpecies of *cauſus*.

CAUTERIUM, from καίω, to burn. A cautery, either actual or potential. See ESCHAROTICA.

Cauterium *Potentiale Ph. Edinb.* *The Potential* Cautery *of the Edinburgh Diſp.*

Take of Ruſſian pot-aſh and quick-lime, of each equal parts; of ſpring-water, three times the quantity of the whole; macerate them for two days, occaſionally ſtirring them; then filter the ley, and evaporate it to dryneſs; put the dry maſs into a crucible, and urge it with a ſtrong fire till it flows like oil; then pour it out upon a flat plate made hot, and while the matter continues ſoft, cut it into pieces of a proper ſize and figure, and keep it in glaſſes cloſely ſtopped

This is alſo called lapis ſepticus. It is a ſtrong and ſudden cauſtic, but it deliquates too ſoon in the air, and runs beyond the bounds it ought; indeed the ſuddenneſs of its action depends on its diſpoſition to liquify. But this inconvenience is avoided in the cauſt. com. fort. Ph. Lond.

CAVA HERBARIORUM, i. e. Fumaria bulboſa.

CAVA MAJOR RADIX, i. e. Fumaria bulboſa.

CAVA (VENA). The large vein which receives the refluent blood, and conveys it to the heart, is thus named.

The *vena cava* is generally deſcribed as being two, viz. the aſcending and the deſcending; the right auricle receives them both, one at its upper, the other at its lower part.

The ſuperior *vena cava* is diſtributed principally to the thorax, head, and upper extremities, and but very little to the parts below the diaphragm.

The inferior *vena cava* is diſtributed principally to the abdomen and lower extremities, and very little to the parts above the diaphragm.

The ancients called the *vena cava* ſuperior, the *vena cava* aſcendens; and the *vena cava* inferior, *vena cava* deſcendens.

According to Winſlow, who is extremely accurate in his deſcription of the blood-veſſels, the ſuperior or aſcending *vena cava* runs up from the right auricle of the heart, almoſt in a direct courſe for about two fingers breadth within the pericardium, on the right ſide of the aorta, but a little more anteriorly. When it paſſes out of the pericardium, it runs up to near the cartilage of the firſt true rib, and a little higher than the curvature of the aorta; here it divides into two branches, viz. the right and left ſubclavian veins. The trunk of this upper *vena cava*, from where it leaves the pericardium, to the juſt named bifurcation, ſends out anteriorly the vena mediaſtina, pericardia, diaphragmatica ſuperior, thymica, mammaria interna, and trachealis. All theſe are called dextræ. Their fellows on the other ſide are called ſiniſtræ; they do not ſpring from the trunk of the *vena cava*, but from the left ſubclavian vein. Poſteriorly, a little above the pericardium, the trunk of the *vena cava* ſends out a capital branch, called vena azygos. It runs down by the vertebræ dorſi, almoſt to the diaphragm, giving off the greateſt part of the venæ intercoſtales and lumbares ſuperior.

Hardly a quarter of an inch of one ſide of the *vena cava* inferior is contained in the pericardium; from thence it immediately perforates the diaphragm, to which it gives the venæ diaphragmaticæ inferior, or phrenicæ: it paſſes behind the liver, through the great ſinus of that viſcus, to which it furniſhes thoſe branches called venæ hepaticæ. In this courſe it inclines towards the ſpina dorſi and aorta inferior, the trunk and ramifications of which it accompanies all the way to the os ſacrum, the arteria cœliaca, and the two meſentericæ excepted. Arrived at the os ſacrum, it terminates by a bifurcation, and forms the two illiacæ, which give off the hypogaſtricæ, and ſome other branches diſtributed into the pelvis; then they paſs under the ligamentum Falopii, and there take the name of crurales, each of which are diſtributed throughout the lower extremities.

CAVALAM. A Malabarian plant, called alſo arbor ſiliquoſa Malabarica pluribus ad ſingulos flores lobis. It is not remarked for any medicinal virtue.

CAVERNA. A cavern. Alſo a name of the female pudenda.

CAVIARIUM. It is the pickled roe of the ſturgeon.

CAVICULA, or Cavilla. The ankle, alſo the os cuneiforme.

CAVITAS INNOMINATA. See AURICULA.

CAYMANES. The Weſt Indian crocodile, or alligator.

CAYUTANA LUZONIS, i. e. Fagara major.

CAZABI, i. e. Caſſada.

CEANOTHOS, i. e. Carduus vinearum repens.

CEANTHUS. See CELASTUS.

CEASMA, from κεάζω, *to ſplit*, or *divide*. A fiſſure or fragment.

CEBER. An Arabian word for agallochum.

CEBIPIRA BRASILIENSIBUS, Cebipira Guacu, or Cebipira Miri. A tree which grows in Braſil. Its bark is bitter and aſtringent, and of which baths and fomentations are made for the relief of pains in the limbs, diſeaſes from cold, tumors of the feet and belly, itch, and other cutaneous diſeaſes.

CECIS. A gall of the oak.

CECRYPHALOS. Hippocrates by this word means the net in which women confined their hair. It is alſo that ſtomach of ruminating animals which lies next before the omaſum.

CEDMA. The ſame as Pudendagra.

CEDRA, (ESSENTIA DE), i. e. Eſſ. bergamote.

CEDRELÆUM. Oil of cedar. See CEDRIA.

CEDRELATE. According to Bellonius, this word is derived from ἔλατη, *the fir-tree*, and κέδρος, *the cedar*. Among botaniſts, it ſignifies that ſpecies of *cedar* which is ſaid to exceed all other trees in bigneſs.

CEDRIA. It is called the pitch and the reſin of the great cedar-tree, ſo that it is the crude tears of the cedar. Some ſay it is different from the cedrium, or oil of cedar, which is more oily and liquid; but by writers in general, it is called *cedria* cedrium, and cedrelæum, &c. Gorræus and Pliny ſay, that the great cedar yields a pitch called *cedria*, to which Galen gives ſeveral names, and among the reſt he calls it *cedria*. Salmaſius ſays, that the Arabians call the oil of cedar ketran, or alketran; and we, by a corruption of that word, give the name of cedrinum to the pitch which is uſed for ſhips. Though the Greeks confound cedrelæum with *cedria*, they are not the ſame; for the *cedria* is the pitch, or reſin, that diſtils from the cedar-tree; and the cedrelæum is an oil obtained from the pitch or reſin, and which ſwims above it in boiling, and is collected with wool. Dioſcorides ſays, that the beſt *cedria* is thick, pellucid, of a nauſeous ſmell, when poured out it does not ſpread, but runs into drops, and has a power of preſerving dead bodies from corrupting: but after all, from the diſputes about what the cedrium is, it does not appear to be really known.

CEDRINUM LIGNUM. So the wood of the juniper tree is called.

CEDRINUM VINUM. Cedar wine. Take thin pieces of wood, juſt cut from the tree, while the fruit is on it, and expoſe them to the ſun, or a fire, to obtain their juice by exudation. A pint of this juice is mixed with ſix pints of wine; then they ſtand for two months, after which they are decanted into another veſſel, and expoſed for ſome time to the ſun, and thus this wine is made fit for uſe.

In the ſame manner is prepared wines from juniper, pine, cypreſs, bay, and the wood of ſome other trees. All theſe wines are remarkably heating, diuretic, and aſtringent, and the bay wine is remarkably ſo.

Cedar wine is alſo prepared by mixing half a pound of the bruiſed berries with ſix pints of muſt, which are placed in the ſun for forty days, and then taken for uſe.

Cedrinum is a name for that compoſition of wax and reſin uſed for ſhips. See CEDRIA.

CEDRIS. The fruit of the great cedar tree.

CEDRITES. It is wine, in which the reſin which diſtils from cedar trees hath been ſteeped.

CEDRIUM. See CEDRIA. Alſo a name for tar.

CEDRO. The citron-tree.

CEDROMELA. The fruit of the citron-tree.

CEDRONELLA. Turkey baum.

CEDROSTIS, i. e. Bryonia Alba.

CEDRUS, called alſo cedrus conifera foliis laricis cedrus Libani, cedrus magna, larix orientalis. The great cedar of Libanus.

No modern botaniſts find any of the *cedar* trees that agree with the Scripture account of their loftineſs, but rather with that account of them which the Pſalmiſt gives, when he ſays, the flouriſhing ſtate of a people is, that they ſpread their branches like the *cedar* tree. Maundrel, in his Travels ſays, he meaſured the trunks of ſome old *cedar* trees, and found one to be twelve yards in circumference, and thirty-ſeven yards in the ſpread of its boughs.

The *cedar of Lebanon* is an ever-green coniferous tree, with very narrow, ſtiff, ſharp-pointed leaves, ſtanding ſeveral together in tufts. It is a native of the bleak ſnowy mountains of Syria, and is not as yet become common in England. As a medicine, it differs very little from the virtues of the fir-tree. Its ſmell is conſiderably more agreeable, and the reſinous juice extracted from the trunk of the *cedar* tree, by inciſions, is more diſpoſed to concrete into a ſolid brittle maſs, than that from the fir-tree is; nor does the matter which diſtils from the *cedar* tree loſe much of its finer parts in drying; even boiling water does not eaſily carry off the flavour of *cedar* wood.

By diſtilling the wood with water, a ſmall quantity of eſſential oil is obtained, which congeals in a moderate degree of cold. The decoction in the ſtill affords an extract by evaporation, which ſmells conſiderably of the wood, and is in taſte bitteriſh and ſaline. In the ſaline nature of this extract, this wood differs from all the reſinous ones that have been examined. Margraff ſays, that the ſaline part which ſhot from the extract juſt named, was common ſalt.

CEDRUS FOLIO CYPRUS, called alſo Lycia, bellonio, oxycedrus, juniperus major, thuyæ genus quartum, and ſabina baccifera.

It is a ſhrub with yellow flowers, and fleſhy leaves, placed four together like thoſe of cypreſs. The flowers are followed by a round fruit like a mulberry in taſte and ſmell, and of a purple colour when ripe. In this fruit are three or four ſeeds which ſmell like roſin. Until this tree is three or four years old, its only diſtinction from the juniper buſh is, that its leaves are ſofter and ſhorter. It grows in many of the ſouthern parts of Europe. Its medicinal qualities are like thoſe of juniper. Dale informs us of another ſpecies which he found in Carolina, and which affords a gum ſo like the true olibanum, that when mixed they cannot be ſeparated. Hence he concludes, that this is the tree that affords the olibanum.

CEDRUS PHŒNICIA, called alſo thuya Maſſilienſium, juniperus ex Goa, cedrus ex Goa, ſabina Goënſis, and juniperus Caroliniana. Its virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of juniper.

CEDRUS AMERICANUS, i. e. Arbor vitæ.

CEDRUS BACCIFERA. See SABINA.

CEDRUS FOLIO CUPRESSI, i. e. Oxycedrus.

CEDRUS LYCIA, i. e. Oxycedrus.

CELASTRUS. The ſtaff tree.

CELASTUS INERMIS, foliis ovatis, ſerratis, trinervis Linnæi. Called alſo ceanothus Linnæi. It is a ſpecies of carduus.

Some noted Indians depend more on this than on the lobelia for the cure of the pox, and uſe it in the ſame manner as the LOBELIA, which ſee. If the diſorder is exceedingly virulent, they mix ſome of the roots of the rubus caule aculeato foliis ternatis Linn. with it.

CELE. Κηλη, *a tumor*, cauſed by the protruſion of a ſoft part.

CELERI. See APIUM.

CELULÆ MASTOIDÆÆ. Theſe are very irregular cavities in the ſubſtance of the maſtoid apophyſis, which communicate with each other, and have a common opening towards the inſide, and a little above the poſterior edge of the orbicular groove. Theſe cells are lined by a fine membrane, which is partly a continuation of the periofteum of the tympanum, and partly ſeems to be a glandular ſtructure like a kind of membrana pituitaria. The *maſtoide* opening is oppoſite to the ſmall opening of the Euſtachian tube, but a little higher. See TYMPANUM.

CELLULOSA MEMBRANA. The cellular membrane. It is called the mucual web, tela celluloſa, and membrana adipoſa; the French call it tiſſue-cellulaire, tiſſue-muqueux, and l'organe cellulaire. This membrane is of the greateſt extent, and of the utmoſt conſequence in the human ſtructure; for it not only enfolds, but it enchains and penetrates into every part; yea, it ſeems to be the very conſtituent of moſt, if not all the parts that are called the ſolids in our bodies. Experiments prove that all *membranes*, without exception, and the veſſels, which are hollow *membranes*, the parenchymatous ſubſtance of the viſcera, ligaments, and a great part of the bones, either are, or have been *cellular membrane*. The *cellular membrane*, by being compacted in different degrees of firmneſs, forms theſe ſolids. Air introduced under the ſkin, diffuſes itſelf through all the ſurface of the body, penetrates into the interſtices of the muſcles; and Haller aſſerts, that even the vitreous humour of the eye hath received the flatus of an emphyſema.

Some deſcribe the *cellular membrane* not as one, but as a congeries of many membranous laminæ joined irregularly to each other at different diſtances, ſo as to form numerous interſtices of different capacities, and which communicate with each other. Theſe interſtices they call cellulæ, and the ſubſtance made up of them cellulous ſubſtance.

But generally, and that moſt properly, it is conſidered as being of two kinds, viz. reticular and adipoſe; and is deſcribed as a compoſition of ductile *membranes* for the lodgment of oil, connected by a ſort of net-work. In ſome parts its ſubſtance is merely a net-work of ſlender fibres, and ſmall membranes which give it ductility and looſeneſs; for inſtance, under the ſkin of the penis and ſcrotum. In other parts, it is more or leſs loaded with oil, and is leſs porous or ſpongy in its ſubſtance, as under the ſkin of the buttocks, and in the ſoles of the feet. Dr. Hunter uſes the term *cellular* as the generical name, and the terms reticular and adipoſe, for expreſſing the two ſpecies. He alſo obſerves, that the reticular part is evidently diſperſed through the whole body, except, perhaps, in the ſubſtance of the bones, of the brain, and in the humours of the eye. That it is found in a much greater degree in the belly of muſcles than in the tendons, in which it is ſcarcely diſcerned. And he is of opinion, that the adipoſe *membrane* is compoſed of two kinds of cells, viz. the reticular, which communicate with each other; and adipoſe, which are diſtinct, and are the reſervoirs of the animal oil. He urges, as a proof of his opinion, that the water in an anaſarca goes downward, whilſt we are in an erect poſture, but the oil does not. The oil is ſuppoſed to be ſecreted by the ſmall arteries, and occaſionally abſorbed into the circulation. Though Dr. Hunter thinks, that wherever there is fat in the human body, that there is a particular glandular apparatus ſuperadded to the reticular *membrane*, conſiſting of veſicles, or bags, for lodging the animal oil, as well as veſſels fitted for its ſecretion.

Whether or no the *cellular membrane* be the baſis of all the organized and vaſcular parts of our frame, Dr. Hunter hath proved, that the moſt ſimple parts of it are vaſcular; that the callus which unites broken bones, is itſelf bone, and alſo vaſcular; that the morbid adhæſions between the lungs, &c. and their adjacent parts, are vaſcular, and that a cicatrix in the ſkin is vaſcular. Whence he infers, that all our ſolids are organized, and that whether lengthened, or renewed, they ſhoot in a vaſcular form. But here the doctor ſpeaks of the viſible parts.

The *cellular membrane* receives the terminations of the nerves, both of the brain, and of the medulla ſpinalis. Perhaps it is formed of the continuation of their coats, and is the termination of them.

The

The ducts which carry off the fluid fecerned in this membrane, pafs out between two membranes like the ureters in the bladder.

The ufes of this membrane are many, fome of which are of the utmoft importance, confidered in a medical view, and others but little underftood. Among the variety, the following are fufficiently obvious:

1. It fills up interftices, and gives an agreeable contour to the body.

2. It is a cufhion to defend againft preffure, hence it is of a thicker compofition in infants.

3. It connects the parts of the body, but fo as to admit of a fliding motion on the circumjacent parts.

4. In fome parts of the body it ferves as a bed for tender parts to be lodged on, as the orbit, fcrotum, &c.

5. It ferves as a refervoir for animal oil.

6. And from obferving, that the deftruction of it in a mufcle is always attended with a lofs of motion there; it is juftly concluded to be of ufe in conveying the principle of life, and duly diftributing it throughout the body.

This membrane is the feat of abfceffes, the leucophlegmatia, emphyfema, anafarca. In a confumption it is fhrunk up fo as to be hardly vifible; in an anafarca its greafy contents are all deftroyed: and in an emphyfema, almoft its minuteft parts are rendered vifible. Bullets, and other large fubftances that cannot pafs the circulation, pafs by the *cellular membrane*.

On this article, fee what Dr. Hunter fays in the Lond. Med. Obf. and Inq. vol. ii. p. 26, &c. Haller's Phyfiology: Malpighii on the *Cellular Membrane*; Dr. Shebbear in his Theory and Practice of Phyfic; alfo Recherces fur le Tiffu Muqueux, ou *l'Organe cellulaire* par Monf. Theoph. de Bordeu.

CELLULOSA TUNICA RUYSCHII, i. e. Tunica extern. vel membranofa inteftinorum.

CELOTOMIA, from κηλη *hernia*, and τεμνω, *to cut*. The operation of caftration, or of hernia.

CELSA. Paracelfus means the fame by this word, as is generally meant by what is called the beating of the life, or of the life's blood: it is a barbarous term of Paracelfus.

CELSUS, a Latin phyfician who flourifhed early in the firft century. He excels more as a furgeon than a phyfician. He is called the Latin Hippocrates, becaufe of the elegance of his ftyle.

CELTIS. The lote or nettle tree. See LOTUS.

CEMARO, i. e. Adrachne.

CEMBRO. A fpecies of pine tree growing in Switzerland, but not remarkable for any medical virtue. Raii Hift.

CEMENTATIO. See COEMENTUM.

CEMENTERIUM. An aludel.

CEMPOAL XOCHITL. A fpecies of African marigold.

CEMENTUM. See COEMENTUM.

CENCHRAMIS. A grain, or feed of the fig.

CENCHRIA. See AMMODYTES.

CENCHRIAS, a ferpent, called cenchrites, or acontias. It is alfo the name of the ferpent called ammodytes.

CENCHRITES. A ferpent of a green colour; alfo a ftone. See AMMITES.

CENCHRIUS. A fpecies of herpes that refembles κεγχρος, *millet*.

CENCHROS. Millet. See MILLIUM. Thefe feeds are alfo called cenchreides, whence in Hippocrates we find the words κεγχραιδεις ιδρωτες, *miliary fweats*.

CENEANGIA, from κενος, *to empty*, and αγγος, *a veffel*.

CENEONES, the flanks, from κενος, *empty*.

CANIFICATUM. Calcined.

CENIGDAM, i. e. Ceniplam.

CENIGDAM, or Cenigotam. The name of an inftrument anciently ufed for opening the head in epilepfies.

CENIGOTAM, i. e. Ceniplam.

CENIOTEMIUM. A purging remedy, formerly of ufe in the venereal difeafe, fuppofed to be mercurial.

CENIPLAM, or Cenipolam, i. e. Cenigdam.

CENOSIS, from κενος, *empty*. Evacuation. It muft be diftinguifhed from catharfis. *Cenofis* imports a general evacuation. Catharfis means the evacuation of a particular humour which offends with refpect to quality.

CENT. An abbreviation of centuria.

CENTAURIOIDES. Hedge-hyffop.

CENTAURIUM. Centaury.

Boerhaave mentions thirteen forts.

CENTAURIUM CAPITATUM. A fpecies of ferratula.

CENTAURIUM MAJUS, i. e. Rhaptonicum vulg.

CENTAURIUM MINOR, Centaurium minus, or *leffer centaury*. It is the gentiana centaurium, or, gentiana corollis quinquefidis infundibuli formibus, caule dichotomo, flore purpureo, Linn. the purple *leffer centaury*. It is a fmall plant, with three ribbed, fomewhat oval leaves, fet in pairs on the ftalks; which divide towards the top into feveral branches, bearing umbel-like clufters of bright red, funnel fhaped-flowers, cut into five acute fegments, followed by little oblong capfules, full of very fmall feeds. It is annual, grows wild in dry paftures, and among corn. It flowers in July.

The leaves and tops are ftrong bitters, having fcarcely any fmell or flavour, and agree with the gentian root. The feeds are bitter, but the petala of the flowers and roots are almoft infipid. The flowery tops are chiefly the part that is ufeful, and, as a corroborant ftomachic bitter, are in much efteem.

All its active parts are readily given out to water, or to rectified fpirit of wine. Water takes up with the bitter an infipid mucilage; but fpirit only takes up the bitter part. Hence the watery extract is more in quantity, but lefs bitter; and the fpirituous one lefs in quantity, and more bitter. Cartheufer fays that one ounce of the herb yields about half an ounce of the watery extract, and fcarcely two fcruples of the fpirituous. The extract is prepared in the fame manner as that of wormwood. See Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

CENTAURIUM MINOR. A name of the fulph. ant. precip.

CENTIMORBIA, i. e. Nummularia.

CENTINERVIA. Plantain.

CENTINODIA, or Centinodium, i. e. Polygonum.

CENTIPEDES. Wood-lice. See ASELLI.

CENTRATIO. Paracelfus expreffes by it the degenerating of a faline principle, and contracting a corrofive and exulcerating quality. Hence centrum falis is faid to be the principle and caufe of ulcers.

CENTRION, from κεντεω, *to prick*. An epithet for a plafter mentioned by Galen, and which is calculated againft ftitches in the fide.

CENTRUM. In chemiftry it is the principal refidence, foundation, or fource of any thing. Alfo that part of medicine in which its virtue refides.

CENTRUM NERVEUM. The tendinous part of the diaphragm which hath a triangular appearance is thus named by fome.

CENTRUM OVALE. Vieuffens firft called a part of the corpus callofum thus. It is convex, and of the form of the cerebrum.

CENTRUM TENDINOSUM. The fame as centrum nerveum.

CENTUNCULUS, i. e. Alfine. Blanchard fays it is the gnaphalium.

CEPA. The onion. Allium cepa, Linn. Botanifts enumerate ten kinds.

The common *onion* is a plant with a fingle bulbous root, compofed of a number of coats, producing long fiftular leaves, and a tall, naked, bellied ftalk, bearing always a clufter of hexapetalous white flowers, each of which is followed by a roundifh capfule, containing a number of black angular feeds. It is chiefly cultivated for culinary ufes.

They are very acrid, ftimulating, and but of very little nourifhment. In bilious hot difpofitions they produce flatulence, thirft, and head-ach; they are ufeful in cold, fluggifh, and phlegmatic temperaments; they are warming, attenuant, and promote both expectoration and urine. They are powerfully antifeptic; and if applied to tumors they are fuppurating.

The root is the moft active part; it lofes moft of its virtue by drying. Diftilled with water all its flavour and acrimony arifes. The active matter is much more volatile than garlic, but in other refpects they agree.

Onions have the moft effect of any of the alkalefcent

plants in diſſolving gravelly concretions. Neumann ſays, that the characteriſtic principle of this root is its eſſential oil, notwithſtanding it cannot be collected in a ſeparate ſtate. See Lewis's Mat. Med. or Neumann's Chem. Works.

CEPA SECTILIS. Cives.

CEPÆA. Baſe orpine. See SEDUM.

CEPASTRUM. According to Dale it is the allium ſylveſtre, the cepa eſcalonica, and ſchœnopreſſum; theſe he ſays differ from the cepa in that their root is proliferous, and their ſtalks are not bellied.

CEPHALÆA. A long continued pain in the head. See CEPHALALGIA.

CEPHALAGIA, i. e. Cephalalgia.

CEPHALALGIA, from κεφαλη, *the head*, and αλγος, *pain*. The head-ach. It is alſo named cephalæa, cephalagia, and cephaloponia. By ſome it is uſed to ſignify a dull pain of the head, which is of a ſhort duration. But moſt frequently it is uſed as expreſſive of pain in the head, in general without regard to circumſtances.

It is ſometimes acute and ſometimes chronical.

In ſome the pain is in the back part of the head, from a contraction of the occipital muſcles. When mild it is called *cephalalgia*, when inveterate it is called cephalæa. When one ſide of the head only is affected it takes the name of hemicrania. In one of the temples only it is entitled crotaphos. And that which is fixed to a point, and that is generally in the crown of the head, is diſtinguiſhed by the name of clavus hyſtericus.

The nervous membranes of the head are the general ſeat of pains there, as the pericranium, the ſkin, dura mater, the membrane which covers the ſinus in the os frontis, &c.

Women, on account of their care about their hair; and children, becauſe of the irregular indulgences that are allowed them by improper foods, are the moſt ſubject to this diſorder.

The cauſes are very numerous. Hippocrates, in the 13th ſection of his book De Flatibus, ſays, "As the motion of the blood in the head is performed through very narrow channels, the redundance and confinement of this fluid excites pain; for as the blood is naturally hot, when it is impelled by any force, it cannot quickly paſs through the narrow channels, ſince it meets with many hindrances and obſtructions, for which reaſon there is a pulſation about the temples." This account of the origin of *head-achs* is not excelled by any ſucceeding writer. Among the variety of cauſes are, ſuppreſſed or diminiſhed cuſtomary evacuations; the acrid matter of ſome diſeaſes, by fixing particularly on any part of the head; a caries in the bones of the head; polypuſes, &c. obſtructing the blood's paſſage through the jugular veins and ſinuſes of the brain; ſtony concretions in the brain; acrid humours repelled from the external parts of the head; abſceſs in the brain; a want of ſleep; expoſure of the head either to heat or coldneſs; a ſpaſmodic conſtriction of the nervous membranes in the head; uneaſineſs in the ſtomach, and the faulty quality of its contents; cold feet; inanition; repletion; hardneſs and adheſion of the meninges. The hemicrania is uſually from diſorders in the ſtomach; and periodical pains have their cauſe in the ſtomach or other viſcera, &c.

When the pain is in the back part of the head, it is uſually from a ſpaſm of the occipital muſcles. Some *head-achs* are attended with fever, and others not. When a ſuppreſſed uſual evacuation of blood from the noſe is the cauſe, there is generally a pain in the whole head, which becomes hot, red, and tumid; the veſſels ſwell, the pulſation of the arteries become ſtrong, eſpecially about the neck and temples, the noſtrils are parched and dry, a heat ſeizes the fauces, and thirſt is troubleſome. When a catarrh is the cauſe, a pain affects the fore part of the head, it is of a dull kind, with a ſenſe of preſſure and heavineſs. When a lues venerea is the cauſe, it often renders the cranium carious. When the cauſe is from a hot bilious habit, the pain is acute and throbbing. When from a cold phlegmatic habit, there is a dullneſs and heavy oppreſſion in the head, and a ſenſe of coldneſs in the part. When hyſteric affections are the cauſe, the pain is fixed generally to a point in the crown of the head, ſcarce exceeding the breadth of half a guinea; in ſome it ſeems as if a nail was driven into the head; ſometimes it ſeizes the forehead and affects the eye-brows; ſometimes it is in the ſinciput, at others in the occiput; ſometimes it is near the vertical ſuture, at others about the temples; and a ſenſation of cold is always attendant on this kind of pain in the part affected; it is called clavus or clavus hyſtericus.

When the cauſe is within the cranium, and the pain is attended with a conſiderable degree of fever, there is danger of a phrenitis. If when no fever attends, a ſudden pain attacks hypochondriac patients, or ſuch as are diſpoſed to melancholy, depriving the patient of ſleep and appetite, and is accompanied with a dulneſs of hearing, and an internal pulſation of the veſſels, there is danger of madneſs. When a ſudden pain of the head is followed by a ringing of the ears, a weakneſs in the knees, and interruption in the ſpeech, an apoplexy may be expected. Frequent *head-achs* in young people prognoſticate future arthritic diſorders. Violent *head-achs* with pale urine in fevers indicate an approaching delirium. Violent and long continued *head-achs* often end in deafneſs, blindneſs, vertigo, apoplexy, and epilepſy or palſy, &c.

The cauſes diſtinguiſhed, and the particular cauſe determined, will eaſily lead to the cure; but, in general, if the fluids are impetuouſly conveyed to the head, they muſt be derived to the more ignoble parts. The ſpaſmodic ſtrictures relaxed, the cauſe muſt be removed; and to prevent a relapſe, the whole nervous ſyſtem muſt be ſtrengthened.

Patients ſubject to pains in the head ſhould eat ſparingly at night, lay high with their heads, keep their bowels ſoluble, and feet warm.

Vomits. They are proper to begin the cure with, in all caſes where the ſtomach is in fault, which it is in all hemicranias, and moſt periodical *head-achs*.

Bleeding. This operation is only neceſſary where there is a ſanguine plethora or an inflammation attendant. Opening the temporal artery is uſually extolled in violent *head-achs*; but, if the external jugular vein was opened, greater benefit, and that more ſpeedily, would be produced.

Baths for the feet. In all caſes where bleeding cannot be conveniently admitted, a bath of tepid water, in which the feet and part of the legs may be now and then placed, will be of ſingular uſe.

Purges. Lenitives are more proper in all kinds of *head-achs* than the more active purges. The ol. ricini, elect. e caſſia, or tinct. ſacra, are to be preferred.

Æther. If this is dropped on a rag, laid upon the palm of the hand, then immediately applied to the part affected, inſtant relief is ſometimes obtained. Thus the late Dr. Ward cured pains that were ſituated ſuperficially.

A branch from the fifth pair of nerves is ſpread on the membrane that lines the noſtrils, and another branch from the ſame paſſes through the foramen ſupercilia, and ſpreads on the teguments of the forehead; hence, when pain is in the eye-ball and forehead, a heat is perceived in the noſtrils, and benefit may be expected from external means, if applied to the membrana narium and to the forehead; alſo from alternate preſſure near the ſuperciliary holes of the frontal bones.

If ſpaſms of the lower parts propel the blood upwards, and ſo produce this diſorder, bleed, then rub the ſpaſmodic extremities with æther to relax them, and place the feet in tepid water.

Symptomatic *head-achs* are only removed by relieving the original diſorder, e. g If the venereal diſorder gave riſe to it, mercurials will be the proper medicines; if the ſcurvy, or other diſorder in which an acrimony is induced into the juices, let the means of relief reſpectively be accompanied with a free uſe of a decoction of ſarſaparilla.

Periodical head-achs are the moſt difficult to remove. In theſe caſes the bark is the general remedy, and when it fails, large doſes of valerian, duly repeated, will ſucceed.

If the pain is ſo great that the ſtrength is leſſened by it, the firſt endeavours muſt be to abate the pain by gentle laxatives and anodynes, and then to remove the cauſe.

If a beginning caries is obſerved to be the cauſe, cut directly upon it, for thus relief is ſoon obtained; but if the caries hath reached the diploe, the only cure is the trepan.

In the hemicrania, vomits, repeated bitter purges, and warm ſtrengthening ſtomachics are the proper means.

Habitual *head-achs* have been much relieved by cold bathing, and by the uſe of antimonial wine taken in doſes as large as the ſtomach will bear, with a ſtrong infuſion of the wild valerian root.

When an acid in the primæ viæ gives riſe to this diſorder, a glaſs of warm water may be taken now and then with thirty drops of ſpt. C. C. and a doſe of rhubarb with magneſia every third or fourth day.

In that ſpecies called, clavus a bliſter may be applied to the part, fetid pills and valerian muſt be given freely, or inſtead of a bliſter, æther may be applied to the pained part, and warm pedilaves may be uſed.

If a tranſition of gouty matter to the head produces pain there, give now and then the tinct. ſacra as a ſolutive, bliſter the legs, and give draughts with ſal C. C. vol. rad. ſerp. conf. card. &c.

CEPHALALGIA CATARRHALIS, i. e. Catarrh from cold.

CEPHALALGIA INFLAMMATORIA, i. e. Phrenitis.

CEPHALALGIA HERBA, i. e. Verbena.

CEPHALARTICA. Medicines that purge the head.

CEPHALEA JUVENUM. The head-ach that often attends youths at the approach of puberty.

CEPHALICA POLLICIS. A branch from the *cephalica* vena ſent off from about the lower extremity of the radius, and runs ſuperficially between the thumb and the metacarpus.

CEPHALICA TINCTURA, Ph. Edinb. Take four ounces of wild valerian root, finely powdered, one ounce of Virginian ſnake-root powdered, half an ounce of the tops of roſemary, and ſix pints of white French wine, digeſt for three days, and then ſtrain off the clear liquor for uſe.

CEPHALICA TINCTURA (Purgans). Ph. Edin. To the *cephalic tincture* add two ounces of ſenna, one ounce of black hellebore, and two pints of French white wine.

Purgatives are uſeful additions to *cephalic* medicines.

CEPHALICA VENA. The cephalic vein. It was ſo called becauſe the head was ſuppoſed to be relieved by taking blood from it. It does not attend any peculiar artery; it comes over the ſhoulder between the pectoral and deltoide muſcles, and runs down the back part of the arm: when it gets to, or a little below the bending of the fore-arm, it divides into two, below the outer, as the baſilic does below the inner condyle of the os humeri. The inner of the two branches of the *cephalic vein* is called mediana *cephalica*, and is the ſafeſt to bleed in. It is a branch from the axillary vein.

CEPHALICUS. Cephalic. From κεφαλη, *the head*. Thus remedies againſt diſorders of the head are ſtyled; cordials are comprehended herein, as are alſo whatever promotes a free circulation of the blood through the brain.

Except when the diſorder ariſes from exceſs of heat or an inflammatory diſpoſition in the head, moiſt topics ſhould never be uſed; but always dry ones.

To rub the head after it is ſhaved proves an inſtantaneous cure for a cephalalgia, a ſtuffing of the head, and a weakneſs of the eyes, ariſing from a weak and relaxed ſtate of the fibres.

And as by every freſh evacuation of the humours their quantity is not only leſſened, but alſo their recrementitious parts derived thither, the more frequently the head is ſhaved, the larger quantity of humour is diſcharged; ſo that the frequent ſhaving of the head and beard is like a perpetual bliſter: and inaſmuch as it is uſeful, it is a *cephalic*.

CEPHALICUS (Pulvis). See Asarum.

CEPHALINE. That part of the tongue which is next the root and neareſt the fauces.

CEPHALITIS. The ſame as Phrenitis.

CEPHALOIDES. Shaped like a head, or having a head. It is applied to plants which are called capitated.

CEPHALONOSOS, from κεφαλη, *a head*, and νοσος, *a diſeaſe*. This term is applied to a fever that is frequent in Hungary, and which is alſo called febris Hungarica.

CEPHALO-PHARYNGÆUS, from κεφαλη, *the head*, and φαρυγξ, *the throat*. A muſcle of the pharynx is thus named. It ariſes above, from the cuneiform proceſs of the os occipitis, before the foramen magnum, near the holes where the ninth pair of nerves paſs out; lower down, from the pterygoid proceſs of the ſphenoid bone, from the upper and under jaw, near the roots of the laſt dentes molares, and between the jaws; it is continued with the buccinator muſcle, and with ſome fibres from the root of the tongue and from the palate. It is inſerted into a white line, in the middle of the pharynx, where it joins with its fellow, and is covered by the conſtrictor medius, i. e. hyo-pharyngæus of Douglas. Its uſe is to compreſs the upper part of the pharynx, and to draw it forwards and upwards. Innes. See Pharynx.

CEPHALOPONIA, i. e. Cephalalgia.

CEPHALOS, i. e. Mugil.

CEPHALOTOS, i. e. Capitatæ.

CEPHALUS, i. e. Mugil.

CEPINI. Vinegar.

CEPULA. Large myrobalans.

CERA. Wax. It is a concrete, collected from vegetables by bees; and extracted from their combs after the honey is ſeparated from them. It poſſeſſes the attractive power of amber; it is lighter than water, but heavier than proof ſpirit: with the aſſiſtance of heat it is ſoluble in rectified ſpirit of wine. Dr. Alſton ſays it is more ſoluble in this ſpirit than in oil. It is not at all ſoluble in aqueous liquors. With a ſmall degree of heat it is diſſolved into the appearance of an oil; and in this ſtate it is eaſily miſcible with oils, and any kind of fat. It readily takes fire, and burns all away. It almoſt totally riſes in diſtillation, partly in form of a thick empyreumatic oil, and partly in that of a conſiſtent butyraceous matter, which by repeated diſtillations becomes fluid and thin. Hence it appears that all the *wax*, like camphor, is volatile in a certain heat. Inflammable vegetable oils may exiſt under the various forms of oil, balſam, roſin, pitch, dry tears, *wax*, or butter.

Yellow *wax*, in the ſtate it is taken from the combs, is, while freſh, of a lively yellow colour, tough, yet eaſy to break; hath an agreeable flavour, ſomewhat reſembling honey: by long keeping it loſes it colour, its agreeable ſmell, and becomes harder and more brittle.

Diſtilled with water it impregnates the liquor with the ſcent, but gives no appearance of oil. If chewed, it proves tenaceous, and neither mingles with the ſaliva, nor diſcovers any peculiar taſte. By a mixture of gum arabic in fine powder it is rendered ſoluble in water; the *wax* requires its weight of the powdered gum for this end; and thus prepared it is ſtill inſipid, and void of all acrimony.

Dioſcorides ſays that *wax* is healing and ſoftening. When *wax* is made into an emulſion, or mixed with ſpermaceti and made into an electary, or divided by rubbing it with the teſtaceous powders while it is in a melted ſtate, it is ſucceſsfully uſed to blunt the acrimony in diarrhœas, and dyſenteries; it ſupplies the loſs of mucus in the bowels, and heals their excoriations.

The college of Edinburgh gives the following preparation.

Pulvis Teſtaceus Ceratus.

Melt yellow *wax* over a gentle fire, and carefully ſtir into it by little and little as much of the compound powder of crabs claws as the *wax* will take up. The doſe is a dram twice a day.

The London college gives the following preparation, in which *wax* is a part of the compoſition.

Balſ. Locatelli. Locatellus's Balſam.

Take of olive oil, one pound; Straſburgh turpentine and yellow *wax*, of each half a pound; of red ſanders, ſix drams. Melt the *wax* with ſome part of the oil over a gentle fire, then add the reſt of the oil and the turpentine; in the laſt place mix in the ſanders, and ſtir the whole together till it is nearly cold. The dragon's blood improves the colour of this medicine, but communicates ſome heat and acrimony. The doſe is from ℈ij to ʒij. if mixed with twice its quantity of the conſerve of roſes, it is commodiouſly taken, and thus it is called balſamic electary.

But the chief uſes of *wax* are at preſent in plaſters, ointments, and cerates, partly to give conſiſtence and partly on account of its emollient and ſuppurating quality.

Oleum Ceræ. *Oil of* Wax.

Cut yellow *wax* in ſmall pieces, and put as much into a retort as will fill near one half, then add as much clean white ſand as will nearly fill the retort; after which place it in a ſand furnace. At firſt an acid liquor ariſes, afterwards a thick oil, which ſticks in the neck of the retort, unleſs it be heated by applying a live coal. The thick oil is alſo called the butter of *wax*, and may be rectified into a thin oil by diſtilling it ſeveral times, without addition, in a ſand heat: if it is not thus rectified, it never turns hard again.

Boerhaave highly extols this oil as an emollient, and for healing chaps and roughneſs of the ſkin, for diſcuſſing chilblains, and, with the aſſiſtance of exerciſe, for relaxing contracted tendons. It is rarely uſed on account of its empyreumatic ſmell, but it is wholly free from all acrimony.

White *wax*. It is the yellow *wax* artificially deprived of its colour, by reducing it into thin flakes, expoſing them to the ſun and air, and occaſionally ſprinkling them with water. When ſufficiently whitened, it is melted and caſt into thin cakes. Some whiten it firſt by diſſolving it in hot water, then forcing it through linen ſtrainers into ſhallow metalline moulds, and then expoſe it to the air. When *wax* is thus robbed of its colour, it is alſo deprived of its reſolvent quality; but it is rendered more fit for cooling.

A few drops of rectified ſpirit of wine renders *wax* more eaſily pulverizable. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

CERA DI CARDO. So the Italians call the gum of the carduus pinea.

CERA CINAMOMI. See Cinnamomum.

CERÆÆ. So Rufus Epheſius calls the cornua of the uterus, from κηρας, *a horn*.

CERAGO. The aliment of bees.

CERAMIUM. A Greek meaſure of nine gallons.

CERANITES. A paſtil or troch is thus named by Galen.

CERANTHEMUS. Bee-glue or bee-bread. See Propolis.

CERARE. To incorporate or mix.

CERASA GUMMOSA. See Copalxocotl.

CERASIATUM. A purging medicine in Libavius, ſo called becauſe the juice of cherries is a part of it.

CERASIOS. The name of two ointments in Meſue.

CERASMA. A mixture of cold and warm water, when the warm is poured into the cold.

CERASUS. The cherry-tree. It receives its name from *Ceraſus*, a city of Pontus, from whence they were imported to Rome by Lucullus, and thence propagated into Britain, according to Pliny's account. Boerhaave ſays that through culture the ſpecies are already forty-four in number.

Cherries have the ſame general properties as other ſummer fruits: they are agreeable, cooling, and quench thirſt.

CERASUS NIGRA, called alſo *ceraſus* major, black *cherry* and mazzard.

CERASUS RUBRA, called alſo *ceraſa* ſativa, *ceraſus* Anglica, the red or common Engliſh *cherry*.

Cornus, called alſo cornus mas, cornus hortenſis. The cornelian *cherry*.

CERASUS ACIDA NIGRICANTIA. The morello *cherry*.

Mahaleb, called alſo macaleb, the rock wild *cherry* of Auſtria, *ceraſus* ſylveſtris amara mahaleb putata, rock-*cherry*.

Cornus fœminia. The dog-berry or gatten-tree.

Cornus fœminia foliis variegatis. The ſtriped dog-berry-tree. Miller takes notice of ſeven other ſpecies of the dog-berry.

The winter-*cherry*. See Alkekengi.

The bird *cherry*. See Padus.

Aq. *ceraſorum*. nigr. See Amygdalus.

CERASUS. See Laurocerasus.

CERASUS AMERICANUS, &c. i. e. Malpighia.

CERASUS DULCIS INDICA, i. e. Capollin.

CERASUS RACEMOSA FRUCTU NON EDULI. See Padus.

CERATIA. See Siliqua Dulcis.

CERATIA DIPHYLLOS, &c. i. e. Courbaril.

CERATITES. The yellow horned poppy.

CERATITIS. Unicorn ſtone. See Unicornu. Marcellus Empiricus ſays it is the ſea violet. And Pliny calls the horned poppy by this name.

CERATIUM. The fruit of the carob-tree.

CERATO-CEPHALUS. See Acmella and Bidens.

CERATO-GLOSSUS, from κηρας, *a horn*, and γλωσσα, *a tongue*. See Hyo-glossus.

CERATOIDES, from κηρατος, the genitive caſe of κηρας, *a horn*. A name of the tunica cornea.

CERATOMALAGMA. A cerate.

CERATONIA. See Siliqua Dulcis.

CERATOPHYLLON. An aquatic plant, of which two ſorts are noticed; one of which is alſo called milleſolium aquaticum cornutum, and equiſetum ſub aqua repens foliis bifurcis: but no medical virtues are attributed to them. Raii Hiſt.

CERATOTOIDES TUNICA, i. e. Cornea.

CERATUM, from *cera*, *wax*, Cerate. *Cerates* chiefly differ from plaſters in conſiſtence, being a ſofter kind of plaſter, or a harder kind of ointment. Their conſiſtence is very convenient: when mercury is made up in plaſters a ſufficient quantity is not abſorbed from them to produce any valuable effect; but in a *cerate* it powerfully reſolves and diſcuſſes, and when thus applied to venereal tophs and nodes they often yield to it. The general rule for *cerates* is, eight parts of oil, fat or juices, four of wax, and one or two of powders: or, three ounces of oil, half an ounce of wax, and two or three drams of powder. The London college directs the following *cerates*.

Ceratum *Album*. *White* Cerate.

Take of olive oil, four ounces in meaſure; of white wax, four ounces in weight; of ſpermaceti, half an ounce in weight: melt all together, and ſtir them well, till the *cerate* is quite cold.

Ceratum *Citrinum*. *Yellow* Cerate.

Take of yellow baſilicum, half a pound; of yellow wax, one ounce: melt them together.

CERATUM EPULOTICUM. See Calaminaris Lapis.

Ceratum *Mercuriale*. *Mercurial* Cerate.

Take yellow wax, tried hog's lard, of each half a pound; of quick-ſilver, three ounces; of the ſimple balſam of ſulphur, a dram. Melt the wax with the lard, then add them gradually to the quick-ſilver, firſt well divided by the balſam of ſulphur.

CERAUNIA, alſo called fulminaris lapis, *ceraunius*, *ceraunias*, and thunder-ſtones. Theſe ſtones are principally found in Germany. They are of a pyramidal figure, of a brown or a black colour, and by many are thought to differ from the belemnites.

CERAUNO-CHRYSOS, i. e. Aurum fulminaris.

CERBERUS TRICEPS, i. e. Pulv. e ſcammonio C.

CERCHNOS, κερχνος, *wheezing*. See Rhenchos.

CHERCHODES. Thoſe are ſo called who labour under a denſe breathing.

CERCIS, κερκις, *a peſtle for a mortar*, or *ſpoke for a wheel*; alſo a name of the bone called radius. See Siliquastrum.

CERCOSIS, κερκωσις, *a diſeaſe of the clitoris*, which conſiſts in its preternatural enlargement, from κερκος, *a tail*.

CEREA. Ear-wax.

CEREALIA. All ſorts of corn of which bread is made.

CEREBELLUM, as it were the little brain. The cerebrum and *cerebellum* together, are often called *cerebellum*, when the brain is ſpoken of in ſmall animals, as birds, pigs, &c.

The *cerebellum* is flattened, and is convex on its upper and lower part; its greateſt extent is from ſide to ſide. It is ſituated under the poſterior lobes of the cerebrum, and is divided into two lobes by a ſmall proceſs of the dura mater, which is a continuation of the falx running in its direction. It is covered by the pia mater like the

cere-

cerebrum, but the lobuli of the *cerebellum* differ from thoſe of the cerebrum, moſtly lying horizontal. It hath no convolutions like the cerebrum, but it hath curved parallel lines deſcribed on its ſurface by the pia mater, and is of a darker colour than the cerebrum. It is compoſed of a cortical ſubſtance, and a medullary part like the cerebrum, but diſpoſed in a more regular manner, and a perpendicular ſection of it hath a beautiful appearance, called arbor vitæ, the trunks of which form the peduncles of the *cerebellum*. On the back part of the iſthmus which joins the cerebrum and *cerebellum*, we ſee four eminences, the two upper are called nates, and the two lower teſtes. Before theſe the aquæduct runs down into the fourth ventricle, the medullary covering of which is called vulvula magna. The fourth ventricle is placed between the *cerebellum* and the medulla oblongata.

CEREBRI GALEA, i.e. the Skull.

CEREBRI, (Basis). The palate is ſo called.

CEREBRUM. The brain. Its ſtructure and uſe are not ſo fully known as ſome other parts of the body, and different authors conſider it in various manners. However, according to the obſervations of thoſe moſt famed for their accuracy and dexterity in anatomical enquiries, its general ſtructure is as follows.

The whole maſs of brain is divided into *cerebrum* and cerebellum. It conſiſts of two ſubſtances, viz. cortical or cineritious; the other medullary. The firſt is of an aſh-colour, the ſecond is white, and of a firmer texture: they both are vaſcular, but the cortical is more ſo than the medullary, from whence the nerves proceed. When the two hemiſpheres of the *cerebrum* (each ſide of the falx is called an hemiſphere) are removed, a white part, called corpus calloſum, running from one hemiſphere to the other, appears. The centrum ovale is the appearance of a particular ſection of it. The anterior ventricles are two oblong bodies, placed one on each ſide the corpus calloſum, with a partition between them, called the ſeptum lucidum, which is a continuation of the medullary ſubſtance of the corpus calloſum. There is commonly much water in theſe ventricles in thoſe who die of diſorders in their heads, as in the epilepſy, hydrocephalus, &c. but naturally they only contain about half a ſpoonful. In watery heads, the fluid is always found in the *cerebrum* only; the cerebellum never hath any ſhare in it. Each ventricle at the poſterior part throws back an appendage, which makes a cavity in the poſterior lobe of the *cerebrum*. Below the ſeptum lucidum appears the fornix, narrow at the anterior extremity, where it riſes by a double baſis, called its crura, which follows the track of the ventricle; in each ventricle are eminences of a cineritious colour, called corpora ſtriata. The plexus choroides, is a plexus of veſſels which follow the ſweep of the ventricle: it is formed by the veſſels of the pia mater; it is partly collected in two looſe faſciculi, which lie one in each lateral ventricle, and partly expanded over the neighbouring parts, and covering in a particular manner the thalami nervorum opticorum, glandula pinealis, and other adjacent parts, both of the *cerebrum* and cerebellum, to all which it adheres. The parts of this plexus which are in the ventricles, contain ſome very ſmall glands, which are conſiderably increaſed in ſome diſeaſes. After the fornix is removed, we ſee a large plexus of veſſels, particularly Galen's great vein, which go to form the torcular, or fourth ſinus. Under the plexus, before the united thalami nervorum opticorum, is a hole on each ſide called the anus and the vulva; the latter goes to the infundibulum, the former to the aqueduct and third ventricle. The thalami nervorum opticorum are white externally, and grey within. The third ventricle is very ſmall; it runs back under the two thalami, between them and the medulla oblongata. The pineal gland is a little greyiſh body, the ſize of a pea: it lies juſt a little before where the tranſverſe and longitudinal proceſſes meet, where the veſſels go to form the torcular. It is covered by the pia mater, and is connected by a little bone to each thalam. nerv. opt.

Numberleſs experiments prove, that the nerves are neceſſary to life; and that when the brain, or medulla ſpinalis, is much injured, life is at an end, or at leaſt health: yet no part of the brain being injured, cauſes immediate death, though an injury of the medulla oblongata is ſo inſtantly fatal.

Behind the infundibulum is ſeen, the corpora albicantia, or glandula Williſii.

Two glands are ſaid to be in the brain, viz. the ſuperior, or glandula pinealis; and the inferior, or glandula pituitaria. They have the external appearance of glands, but as to their being ſuch is not certainly known.

The *cerebrum* fills all the upper portion of the cavity of the cranium, or the portion which lies above the tranſverſe ſeptum; each lateral half is divided into three eminences called lobes, one anterior, one middle, and one poſterior

The blood-veſſels which ſupply the *cerebrum*, cerebellum, and medulla oblongata, come partly from the carotid, and partly from the vertebral arteries. The veins of the *cerebrum* and cerebellum may, in general, be looked on as branches not only of the longitudinal ſinus of the dura mater, and of the two great lateral ſinuſſes, but alſo of all the inferior ſinuſſes of this membrane, in all which the veins terminate by different trunks.

Malpighi ſays that the brain is a gland; but others who have attended to the uſe, as well as the ſtructure, &c. of it, as anatomiſts, ſay it is not.

Dr. Shebbeare, in his Theory and Practice of Phyſic, ſeems to conſider the brain as a non-electric body, and intimates, that the red globules of blood contain the vital heat, which they attract from the earth; that the circulation carrying the red globes to all parts, the nerves conduct the vital principle therefrom to the brain, where meeting with electric, or non-conducting ſubſtances, ſuch as the bones, &c. of the ſkull, it is accumulated by the brain, and its watery contents, to be in ſtore and readineſs to return by the nerves as wanted.

Dr. Kirkland, in his Diſſertation on the Brain and Nerves, denies that the brain is fibrous, and aſſerts, that the nerves are only the continuations of the mucus, which conſtitutes the brain. He intimates, that this mucus is ſenſible. He obſerves that, "if we view the brain within the ſkull, juſt before it enters thoſe membranes which form the covering of the nerves, it will appear that the inſide of a nerve is not a maſs of fibres ariſing from the white part of the brain, but that it is a ſmall portion of the white part of the brain itſelf, which is not fibrous. This being conducted by the dura and pia mater to the different parts of the body, it depoſits one, or both of theſe coats, and is diffuſed round every fibre, not only upon the part it is carried to, but a conſiderable way round; ſo that each portion of the brain conveyed by its own nervous caſe, meeting, form one continued, or connected ſubſtance, in every part included within the cuticle, and gives that gloſſy, or gelatinous appearance, which is ſo readily diſtinguiſhed in the muſcular fibres. From whence it appears, that the brain is not confined to the ſkull, but is expanded in every part of the body, in the ſame manner, but much thinner, as the retina is expanded at the bottom of the eye." This ſimple method of conſidering the brain as a ſenſible mucus or jelly, both frees us from much perplexity, which attends all other views of it, and alſo has a happy influence into the doctrines which depend on this part of our frame.

Thoſe who are diſordered in their brain, are firſt affected with a ſtupor, often make water, and have other ſymptoms in common with thoſe who have the ſtrangury. Theſe ſymptoms continue eight or nine days, and then, if there is a watery or mucous diſcharge from the noſe or ears, there is a ſolution of the diſeaſe, and the ſtrangury ceaſes. Plenty of white urine comes off from the patient, without pain, until the twentieth day; at which time the pain in the head leaves him, but a dimneſs of ſight remains if he looks long at any object.

Dr. Hunter obſerves, that the principal parts of the medullary ſubſtance of the brain in idiots and madmen, ſuch as the thalami nervorum opticorum, and medulla oblongata, are found entirely changed from a medullary to a hard, tough, dark coloured ſubſtance, ſometimes reſembling white leather.

Other diſorders to which the brain is ſubjected, ſee in the article Encephalos.

See Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic; Winſlow's

low's Anatomy; Haller's Phyſiology; Kirkland's Diſſertation on the Brain and Nerves; alſo his Diſſertation on the Sympathy of the Nerves.

CEREBRUM ELONGATUM, i. e. Medulla ſpinalis.

CEREFOLIUM, i. e. Cœlifolium, and Chærefolium.

CEREFOLIUM HISPANICUM. Sweet Cicely. See Myrrhis.

CEREFOLIUM SYLVESTRE. Wild Cicely. See Chærophyllum: ſee alſo Antriscus.

CEREIBA BRASILIENSIBUS. It is a ſmall tree like a willow, growing in Braſil. When the ſun ſhines, a ſort of ſalt concretes on its leaves, which in the night, or when the dew falls, it diſſolves.

CEREIBUNA, i. e. Cereiba.

CERELÆUM, i. e. Ceratum. Alſo the oil of wax. Galen ſays, that the *cerelæum* is thinner than the cerate.

CEREUS. The torch-thiſtle. Boerhaave enumerates thirteen ſpecies; and Mr. Juſſieu gives a long account of it in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy for 1716; but it is of no conſiderable uſe in medicine.

CEREVISIA. Ale, or liquor brewed from any kind of corn. See Alla.

CERIA, or Ceriæ. The flat worms bred in the inteſtines.

CERINTHE. Honey-wort. Boerhaave enumerates eight ſpecies. But they are not remarkable for their medical properties. See Cynoglossum.

CERINTHOIDES. A ſpecies of hound's-tongue is thus called.

CERIO, i. e. Favus. See Achor.

CERION, κηρίον, *a honey-comb*. It is a kind of Achor, which ſee: but the mouths of its perforations are larger, reſembling the cells of a *honey-comb*, whence the name.

CERITUS, or Cerritus. Drunk with malt liquor. The goddeſs Ceres was ſuppoſed to affect people with that diſorder which is produced by an exceſs of ſtrong drink, whence this name.

CERNUA FLUVIATILIS. See Aspredo.

CEROMA & CERONIUM. Cerate.

CEROPISUS. A plaſter of pitch and wax. Of this ſort of *plaſter* the ancients made their dropaces. It was uſual to ſpread it on cloth or leather, and to apply it to ſome part of the body, then to pull it off again, and apply it a freſh, frequently renewing the application and removal of the ſame, to induce a redneſs on the part, with an intent to attract the humours which ſerve to nouriſh it. To render this *plaſter* the more efficacious, acrimonious powders were added to it. The dropax was alſo uſed to make hair fall off, or to pull it off from any part.

CEROTUM. Cerate.

CERRITUS. See Ceritus.

CERRO. See Phellodrys.

CERRUS. The holme-oak. See Ægylops.

CERUMEN AURIS. The wax in the ears. The Latins call it aurium ſordes, & marmorata aurium. It inviſcates and retains inſects, and prevents their hurting the membrana tympani. It is bitter and viſcid, conſequently impregnated with acrid lixivial ſalts, mixed with pinguious and oily particles. Theſe principles render its qualities very ſimilar to thoſe aſcribed to the bile, with which it agrees in many particulars. It is ſeparated from the glands in the part of the ear in which it is found. It is fluid when firſt diſcharged, but ſoon thickens by lying.

Deafneſs is often occaſioned by the *wax* hardening on the meatus auditorius externus; and from many experiments it appears, that warm water alone is the beſt means of diſſolving it, and ſo of curing this kind of diſorder. See Dr. Haygarth's Experiments, inſerted in the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv.

CERUSA. See Plumbum.

CERUSSA ANTIMONII. See Antimonium.

CERUSSA COMPOSITUS, (Pulvis.) Ph. Lond. The compound powder of ceruſſe of the London Pharmacopeia.

Take of *ceruſſe* five ounces; of farcocol, an ounce and a half; of gum dragant, half an ounce. Make all into a powder. This is a reformation of the white troches of Razi. It is uſed to repel hot rheums on the eyes, and is alſo called fief album, or dry collyrium.

CERVARIA, i. e. Seſeli Æthiopicum.

CERVARIA NIGRA. See Laserpitium vulgatius, & oreoselinum.

CERVICALES. The nerves which paſs through the vertebræ of the neck are thus called.

The firſt *cervical nerve* throws out a conſiderable branch to the occiput, it joins the ninth pair from the brain, to form the firſt *cervical* ganglion of the intercoſtal.

The ſecond *cervical nerve* hath a very remarkable plexus; it ſends out a very conſiderable *nerve* to the occiput, as well as the firſt. It ſends off three branches behind the ſterno-maſtoideus, where they are entangled with the acceſſorius Williſii. The firſt branch going upward and backward becomes cutaneous on the poſterior parts of the temporal and parietal bones. The ſecond goes upward and a little forward under the ſterno-maſtoideus, and throws branches to the parotid gland to the lobe, and to the poſterior ſide of the ear. The third goes horizontally forward to the neck, and there becomes a cutaneous nerve, which is ſometimes pricked in opening the external jugular vein.

The third *cervical nerve* goes downwards by a number of filaments towards the ſhoulders, and produces the phrenic nerve, which runs towards the thorax, before the anterior portion of the ſcalenus, between the ſubclavian artery and vein, contiguous to the trunk of the par vagum; runs down before the root of the lungs, follows the pericardium, and branches out in the diaphragm. That on the right is ſhorter than that on the left, as the latter goes round the apex of the heart.

The four inferior pairs (the above to be underſtood as pairs) are larger than thoſe already named. Their main trunk, with the firſt nerve of the back, paſſes between the portions of the ſcalenus over the firſt rib, into the axilla, where they produce ſix trunks, which go to the upper extremities. In their way thither they detach branches to all the arteries.

The firſt of theſe ſix branches is the humeral, which follows the courſe of the humeral artery, round the head of the os humeri.

The ſecond is the cutaneous nerve, which runs down the inſide of the arm, and goes into the fore-arm, juſt where we prick in opening the baſilic vein, and it is often wounded.

The third is called the muſculo-cutaneus, and is larger. It riſes pretty high, and throws branches into the coracobrachiæus, through which the trunk paſſes obliquely; it is then covered by the biceps, and paſſing through between the brachiæus and biceps, it ſends off ſeveral branches, and lies on the outſide of the tendon of the laſt mentioned muſcle, where we commonly bleed in the median cephalic vein.

The fourth is called the ulnar nerve, it follows the courſe of the artery, but paſſes gradually backwards, and gets behind the inner condyle of the os humeri, betwixt which, and the olecranon, it paſſes to the fore-arm. A little above the carpus it divides into an anterior and poſterior branch which goes to the palm, the back of the hand, and fingers.

The fifth branch called the median nerve, paſſes down contiguous to the brachial artery, and accompanying the veſſel, it goes to the fore-arm, and to the palm of the hand, thence to the thumb and fingers.

The ſixth branch, called the radial nerve, paſſes down the inſide of the arm, and then backwards between the brachiæus externus, and the ſhort heads of the biceps externus attended by the artery. When it hath got round it runs down, and at the head of the radius it gives off a cutaneous branch, which goes to the thumb and fingers on the back of the hand, whilſt the main trunk paſſes round the head of the radius through the ſupinator radii brevis, and goes betwixt the radius and ulna, to be loſt in the extenſor digitorum communis, and the muſcles of the carpus and thumb.

CERVICALES ARTERIÆ. The arteries of the neck.

The *cervical artery* riſes from the ſubclavian on its upper ſide, and is preſently afterwards divided into two, which ſometimes come out ſeparately, and at others by a ſmall common trunk; the anterior ones goes to the ante-

rior muſcles which move the neck and head; the poſterior goes to the ſcalenus trapezius, &c.

The anterior *cervicalis* running behind the carotid of the ſame ſide, is diſtributed to the muſculus coracohyoidæus, maſtoidæus, cutaneus, ſterno-hyoidæus, and ſterno-thyroidæus, to the jugular glands, and aſpera arteria; the muſcles of the pharynx, bronchia, œſophagus, and to the anterior muſcles which move the neck and head. This *artery* has been obſerved to ſend out the intercoſtalis ſuperior.

The poſterior *cervicalis* ariſes ſometimes a little after the vertebralis, and ſometimes from that artery. It paſſes under the tranſverſe apophyſis of the laſt vertebra of the neck, and from thence runs up backward, in a winding courſe, on the vertebral muſcles of the neck, and then returns in the ſame manner. It communicates with a deſcending branch of the occipital artery, and with another of the vertebral, about the ſecond vertebra. It is diſtributed to the muſculi ſcaleni, angularis ſcapulæ, and trapezius, and to the jugular glands and integuments.

CERVICALIS. Belonging to the neck. The arteries and veins of the neck have this epithet.

CERVICALIS DESCENDENS DORSI, i. e. Sacro lumbaris acceſſorius.

CERVICALES VENÆ. The cervical veins. They are branches from the upper external jugular veins, or from the vertebral veins; they ſpread in the vertebral muſcles of the neck, and communicate with the humeralis & occipitalis.

CERVICARIA. Bell-flower, or campanula.

The flower conſiſts of one leaf ſhaped like a bell; before it is blown it is of a pentagonal figure, and, when fully opened, it is cut into five ſegments at the top. The ſummit of the pedicle is expanded into an ovary, whoſe apex is crowned with a monophyllous quinquifid calyx, divided into five long ſegments. The ſeed-veſſel is for the moſt part divided into three cells, each having a hole at the bottom, by which the ſeed is emitted.

Boerhaave enumerates thirty-four ſpecies, but they poſſeſs no conſiderable medical virtue. The moſt common of them are the

Trachelium, called alſo campanula vulgatior major, Great throat-wort, and Canterbury-bells.

The root is very moderately aſtringent.

Campanula eſculenta, rapunculus, campanula flore cœrulea, rapuntium parvum, ſmall or garden rampion.

The roots are uſed in ſallads.

Medium, campanula foliis profunde inciſis fructu duro, viola Mariana peregrina. Syrian *bell-flower*.

CERVICARIA. A ſpecies of rapunculus.

CERVICARIA ALBA, i. e. Laſerpitium vulgarius.

CERVICULÆ SPIRITUS. Rulandus ſays it is the ſpirit of the bone of a ſtag's heart.

CERVI BOLETUS. See BOLETUS.

CERVI SPINA, i. e. Rhamnus.

CERVIX. The neck. It is that part of the body ſituated betwixt the head and the breaſt. But it is applied figuratively to other parts: thus there is the *neck* of the bladder, and the *neck* of the uterus; alſo *cervix* of a bone, which is when the proceſs ſtands out in a roundiſh ball, the round part is called caput, and the narrow part betwixt it and the reſt of the bone is called *cervix*.

The *neck* is divided into the anterior part or throat, and the poſterior or nape.

It contains the larynx, a part of the trachea arteria, the pharynx, part of the œſophagus, the muſculi cutanei, ſterno-maſtoidæi, ſterno-hyoidæi, thyro-hyoidæi, omo-hyoidæi, ſplenicus, complexus, the muſculi vertebrales, which lie upon the firſt ſeven vertebræ, and a portion of the medula ſpinalis.

The arteries which go to the *neck*, are the arteriæ carotides externæ, & internæ, vertebrales, & cervicales. The veins are, the venæ jugulares externæ & internæ, cervicales & vertebrales. The nerves are, the portio dura of the auditory nerves, the eighth, ninth, and tenth pair, the ſeven cervical pairs, and the nervi ſympathetici maximi.

Among other diſorders to which the *neck* is ſubject, a contraction of it to one ſide is of the number. Tulpius calls this contraction caput obſtipium; he hath removed this diſorder in thoſe who were twenty years of age, or more, and were born with it. Meekren and Roonhuyſen have had the ſame ſucceſs.

This diſorder is uſually deſcribed under the title of the wry-*neck*. It proceeds from various cauſes, as burns, a ſtricture in the ſkin, a relaxation of ſome of the muſcles in the *neck*, or a contraction of them; but for the moſt part the cauſe is a contraction of the maſtoid or ſterno-maſtoid muſcle only.

When a paralyſis is the cauſe, it is incurable; if it is produced by a defluxion of humours, ſweating the part is often of uſe; if the ſkin is contracted by a burn, rub it with emollients, and apply warm fomentations, and if theſe fail, make two or three inciſions tranſverſely through the ſkin where it is contracted. If the cauſe is from ſeveral muſcles being contracted, no method of relief is yet known; but if there is a contraction of the maſtoid-muſcle only, or as called by ſome the ſterno-maſtoid muſcle, the cure is effected by dividing it into two.

In order to perform this operation, Mr. Sharpe directs in his Treatiſe of Operations, "to make a tranſverſe inciſion through the ſkin and fat, ſomething broader than the muſcle, and not above half an inch from the clavicle; then paſſing the probed razor with care underneath the muſcle, draw it out and cut the muſcle. After the inciſion is made, the wound is to be crammed with dry lint, and always dreſſed ſo as to prevent the extremities of the muſcle from re-uniting; to which end they are to be ſeparated from each other as much as poſſible, by the aſſiſtance of a ſupporting bandage for the head during the whole time of the cure, which will generally be about a month."

Mr. Potts directs to cut through as near the middle as may be, taking care not to wound the carotid attery, nor the jugular vein. Dr. Hunter prefers making the inciſion near the ſternum; he ſays, that at the lower part of the muſcle it is beſt to perform this operation, becauſe there the celular membrane is not in any great proportion. Mr. Sheldon adviſes, when the ſterno-maſtoid muſcle is to be cût, not to uſe the razor above named, for thereby danger attends, from cutting the carotid artery, the jugular vein, and the eighth pair of nerves. He adviſes to uſe an inciſion knife, to cut gently in a tranſverſe direction; then the fibres will fly from the edge of the knife, and with a moderate attention, the dangers juſt mentioned will be avoided.

Wounds in the *neck*. See VULNUS.

CERVUS. The ſtag, hart, or male of the red deer.

Their fleſh, until they are three years old, is excellent. The bone of the *ſtag's* heart is but the tendons of the muſcles of its heart hardened. This bone, as it is called, ſhould be very white. See Os CORD. CER.

Balls are formed in their ſtomachs from the hairs which they ſwallow when licking themſelves. Theſe balls are called elaphopila. See EGAGROPILÆ.

The tears of a *ſtag*, are the ſordes collected in the inner angles of the eyes, reſembling wax. This matter hath many virtues attributed to it; three or four grains are a doſe.

CERVUS MINOR AMERICANUS BEZOARTICUS. The deer which affords the Weſt Indian bezoar.

CERVUS ODORATUS. See MOSCHUS.

CERVUS PLATYCEROS. The fallow-deer. See DAMA.

CERVUS RANGIFER. See RANGIFER.

CERVUS VOLANS. A ſort of beetle ſo called. See SCARABÆUS.

CESTRITES VINUM. Wine impregnated with betony.

CESTRUM. Betony.

CETACEUS. Cetaceous. Thoſe fiſhes are thus called which are very large, bring forth a perfect animal inſtead of ſpawn. Or which, like viviparous animals, reſpire by means of lungs, generate, conceive, bring forth young, and nouriſh them with milk.

CETE. The ſpermaceti whale.

CETE ADMIRABILE. The ſpermaceti whale.

CETERACH. See ASPLENUM.

CETUS. The whale. There are many kinds of this fiſh,

fiſh, but the two principal are the Greenland *whale*, and the ſpermaceti *whale*.

CETUS, alſo called balæna vulgaris, balæna major, muſculus, myſticetus. The Greenland, or black *whale*

It is from the upper jaw that which is called *whale*-bone is taken, and from no other part of this fiſh. Beſides this bone its only produce is its oil, which is called train oil, and which is uſed for burning in lamps, but is of very little, if any uſe, in medicine. In Paris they have two ſorts of *whale* oil; the beſt is called huile de grande baye, it is made from the blubber immediately after it is taken out of the *whale*, whence the French oils are not of ſo offenſive a ſmell as thoſe from Holland, which are melted down, &c. after their arival there.

CETE ADMIRABILE, alſo called cachalot, balæna macrocephala, &c. trompa, byaris, occa, and the ſpermaceti *whale*. This ſpecies does not afford any of what is called *whale*-bone; but, inſtead of that, it hath teeth, which are ivory. From its body it yields a finer oil than that from the Greenland ſpecies; and it alſo affords SPERMACÆTI, which ſee. This matter is lodged in an oily ſtate in the head of this fiſh, and ſeems to be its brains.

CEVADILLA, called alſo ſebadilla, ſabadilla, cauſticum Americanum, hordeum cauſticum, canis interfector, and Indian cauſtic-barley. It is the ſeed-veſſel of a Mexican plant, reſembling in its form and ſtructure a *barley* ear, but with ſmaller ſeeds, not above the ſize of lintſeed. They are reckoned the ſtrongeſt of the vegetable *cauſtics*. Monardes ſays, that for deſtroying vermin, and as a corroſive for ſome kinds of ulcers, they are as effectual as the actual cautery, if a little of the ſeed is powdered and ſprinkled on the part. Dale ſays, it is the the capſula of the ſeed that is uſed.

CEVILLUS. See LUDUS.

CHAA. A Chineſe name for tea.

CHAB. An abreviation of Dominicus Chabræus, M. D. Stirpium Icones & Sciagraphia, 1677.

CHACRIL. A name which the French give to the thuris cortex.

CHÆREFOLII, i. e. Chærophyllum.

CHÆROPHYLLO. See PERCEPIER.

CHÆROPHYLLUM, called alſo cerefolium gingidium, chærefolii, chærophyllon, common chervil. It is the ſcandix cerefolium, Linn. It is an umbelliferous plant, with winged leaves like thoſe of parſley, producing ſmooth longiſh ſeeds, ſhaped like a bird's beak. Its a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, and ſown annually in our gardens. It is ſlightly aromatic, aperient, and diuretic, differing not from parſley in its medical virtues. Diſtilled with water, it affords a ſmall quantity of eſſential oil.

CHÆROPHYLLUM SYLVESTRE PERENNE CICUTÆ FOLIO, Cicutaria, cicutaria alba, cerefolium ſylveſtre, myrrhis ſylveſtris, wild cicely cow-weed. The roots are poiſonous, cauſing difficulty of breathing, torpors, and madneſs. The root reſembles parſnips, and are called by the country people madnips. The plant above ground reſembles hemlock.

Botaniſts enumerate four ſpecies. Raii Hiſt.

CHÆROPHYLLUM. The name of ſome ſpecies of myrrhis.

CHÆROPHYLLUM SYLVESTRIS, i. e. Antriſcus.

CHAIARXAMBAR, i. e. Caſſia fiſtularis.

CHAITA. Properly the name of quadrupeds; but Rufus Epheſius expreſſes by it the hair of the hind-head.

CHACARILLA, i. e. Thuris cortex.

CHALASIS, from χαλαω, *to relax*. Relaxation.

CHALASTICA MEDICAMENTA. Relaxing medicines.

CHALAZA, frum χαλαζα, *a hail-ſtone*, or Chalazion. A hail-ſtone. Some call them grandines. This name is given to a white knotty kind of ſtring at each end of an egg, formed of a plexus of the fibres of the membranes, whereby the yolk and the white are connected together.

It is alſo the name of a tubercle on the eye-lid, reſembling a *hail-ſtone*; it is white, hard, and generally on the edge of the eye-lid. It is encyſted and moveable, and only differs from the crithe in being ſo. It continues long, and proceeds ſlowly. Sometimes it may be diſperſed with the ung. cœrul. fort. and with a few doſes of calomel, of one grain each. In weakly habits theſe may be accompanied with bark and ſteel. If they fail to relieve, make an inciſion through the ſkin which covers them, and diſſect the tumor clearly out, or touch the ſkin over them with cauſtic, then either preſs the tumor out, or touch it until the whole is waſted. See St. Yves on the Diſorders of the Eye.

CHALBANE. Galbanum.

CHALCANTHUM. Vitriol.

CHALCEDONIUS, called alſo charchedonias, carcedonius, and chalcedony. It is a precious ſtone, the beſt of which are brought from the Eaſt Indies. It is a ſpecies of the agate of a milk white colour, and ſomewhat tranſparent.

Chalcedonius is alſo the name of a medicine, which Galen directs to be uſed in diſorders of the ears.

CHALCEION. A ſpecies of pimpinella.

CHALCIDICA LACERTA. The ſerpent called ſeps.

CHALCITIS, from χαλκος, *braſs*.

The native kind is ſaid to be a vitriolic mineral, containing copper and iron, of a copperiſh colour. Dr. Alſton aſſerts it to be one of the deſiderata, and that its ſuccedaneum is the

CHALCITI officinarum, i. e. Colcothar vitrioli, which is the reſiduum of what is put together for diſtilling the oil of vitriol. Or, it is green vitriol calcined to redneſs.

CHALCOIDEUM, (Os.) The os cuneiforme of the tarſus.

CHALCOS. Braſs.

CHALCUTE. Burnt braſs.

CHALICRATON. Wine and water. From χαλιξ, an old word that imports *pure wine*; and κερανυμι, *to mix*.

CHALINOS. This word is ſometimes uſed to expreſs that part of the cheeks, which, on each ſide, is contiguous to the angles of the mouth.

CHALYBS. Steel. As a medicine it differs not from iron, ſee FERRUM. *Steel* is ſofter or harder than iron, according to the management of the artiſt; and, when ſofter, may be more eaſily prepared for ſome medical purpoſes, but otherwiſe contains no advantages above common iron. See Neumann's Chemical Works, the Dictionary of Chemiſtry.

CHALYBEATÆ AQUÆ. See Aqua.

CHALYBIS SAL, i. e. Salmartis.

CHALYBS TARTARIZATUS, i. e. Mars ſolubilis.

CHAMA. Baſtard cockle, called alſo glycimerides magna, and *chama* glycymeris. They are found in the Mediterranean ſea, and are of the ſame nature and uſe as our common cockle, and other ſhell-fiſh.

CHAMÆACTE, from χαμαι, *upon the ground*, ακτη, *the elder*. Dwarf-elder, or danewort. See SAMBUCUS.

CHAMÆBALANO. Wood-peas. See OROBUS.

CHAMÆBALANUS LEGUMINOSA. A ſpecies of lathyrus.

CHAMÆBATOS. Dewberry. See RUBUS.

CHAMÆBUXUS. A ſpecies of polygala.

CHAMÆCEDRYS, i. e. Abrotanum fœmina.

CHAMÆCERASUS. Upright honey-ſuckle. See CAPRIFOLIUM.

CHAMÆCERASUS, i. e. Xyloſteum.

CHAMÆCISSUS. Ground-ivy.

CHAMÆCISTUS, called alſo helianthemum, panax chironium, conſolida aurea cordi, chamæciſtus vulgaris flore luteo, helianth. flore luteo, dwarf ciſtus, little or dwarf ſun-flower. Miller enumerates fifty ſpecies or more.

It is vulnerary, and makes a good gargariſm in diſeaſes of the throat.

CHAMÆCLEMA. Ground-ivy.

CHAMÆCRISTA. The name of a plant which is a native of Braſil, and is called cham. pavonis Braſiliana ſiliqua ſingulari; and another ſpecies growing in Curacao, which is called cham. pavonis Americana ſiliquæ multiplici: but they are not known to poſſeſs any medical virtue.

CHAMÆCYPARISSUS, i. e. Abrotanum fœmina.

CHAMÆDAPHNE. Spurge laurel. See LAUREOLA.

CHAMÆ-

CHAMÆDROPS. In Paulus Ægineta and Oribaſius, it is the ſame as chamædrys.

CHAMÆDRYS. Germander. Alſo called quercula calamandrina, triſſago, chamæd. minor. repens cham. vulg. ſmall *germander*, and Engliſh treacle. It is the teucrium *Chamædrys*, or Teucrium foliis ovatis inciſo crenatis petiolatis, floribus ſubverti cillatis ternis, caulibus procumbentibus, Linn. Creeping *germander*. Boerhaave mentions ſeven ſpecies of *chamædrys*.

The ſmall *germander* is a ſmall, creeping, ſhrubby plant, with ſquare ſtalks, ſmall, ſtiff, oval leaves, notched from the middle to the extremity, like thoſe of the oak tree, ſet in pairs at the joints, and purpliſh labiated flowers, ſet thick together, wanting the upper-lip. It grows wild in France, Germany, and Switzerland. It is ſometimes found wild in England, but is generally raiſed by culture in gardens. It flowers in June and July.

The leaves and tops are bitter, and ſlightly aromatic. They loſe a little by drying; they are mildly aperient and corroborant. In uterine diſorders, and rheumatic complaints, they are moſt eſteemed. The beſt time for gathering this herb is when the ſeeds are formed, and then the tops are preferable to the leaves. When dry, the doſe is from ʒſs. to ʒj.

Either water or ſpirit will extract their virtue, but water takes up more of the bitter matter.

It is an ingredient of the noted powder, which goes by the name of the duke of Portland's.

Pulvis ad Rheumatiſmus vel de Morbis Arthriticis Ducis Portlandii. The Duke of Portland's Powder for the Gout or the Rheumatiſm.

Take of the roots of round birthwort and gentian, the tops and leaves of ſmall *germander*, leſſer centaury, and groundpine, of each equal parts; powder them all together. Of this powder a dram muſt be taken, in any convenient liquor, every morning faſting, for three months; then two ſcruples for three months; and, after that, half a dram for ſix months; and to conclude the proceſs, half a dram every other day for a year.

Dr. Cadogan obſerves, that by keeping up a degree of fever, the gout is prevented from fixing on any part by the above uſe of this powder. Experience in general hath tended to leſſen the credit of this compoſition, which hath little more than its antiquity to ſupport the character that it was lately puffed off with. It differs but little from the diacentaureon of Cœlius Aurelianus, the pulvis principis Mirandolæ, and others, of which an account is given in the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. vi. p. 126, &c. where alſo the origin of the duke of Portland's powder is traced, and ſhewn to be but a varicty of the many powders which the ancients uſed under the following names, viz. antidotos ex duobus centaureæ of Aetius, amarant. grammatici ad podagricus, climax, vel ſcala ſacra, &c.

CHAMÆDRYS PALUSTRIS ALLIUM REDOLENS. See Scordium.

CHAMÆDRYS FRUTICOSA SYLVESTRIS MELISSÆ FOLIO. See Salvia.

CHAMÆDRYS FRUTESCENS. See Teucrium.

CHAMÆDRYS SPURIA ANGUSTIFOLIO. See Veronica.

CHAMÆDRYS LATIFOLIA. See Veronica.

CHAMÆDRYS ALPINA FLORE FRAGARIÆ ALBO. Mountain Avens.

CHAMÆDRYS INCANA MARITIMA, &c. i. e. Marum Syriacum.

CHAMÆDRYS III. ſeu Montana. Mountain avens.

CHAMÆDRYS. A name of a ſpecies of caryophyllata.

CHAMÆFILIX, i. e. Filix marina Anglica chamægeniſta.

CHAMÆIASME Alpina, i. e. Sedum Alpinum 4 Cluſii.

CHAMÆIRIS. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of iris.

CHAMÆITEA. A ſpecies of ſalix.

CHAMÆLÆA. Widow-wail. A ſhrub with leaves like the olive-tree. The juice is a powerful hydragogue and cathartic, but much milder than mezereon. If it is applied to the pubes and abdomen of dropſical patients, no medicine is more effectual in promoting urine.

CHAMÆLÆA. A name of the mezereon.

CHAMÆLEAGNUS. See Eleagnus and Gale.

CHAMÆLARIX. A plant mentioned by Ray. It grows on the Cape of Good Hope.

CHAMÆLEON. The chameleon. An animal ſo called.

CHAMÆLEO ALBUS, &c. i. e. Carduus pinea.

CHAMÆLEON ALB. The low carline thiſtle.

CHAMÆLEON NIGRUM. Black chamæleon thiſtle. Called alſo maranthæ of Dioſcorides, carthamus aculætus, &c.

CHAMÆLEON SALMANTICENSIS. A ſpecies of thiſtle.

CHAMÆLEON VERUM. See Cnicus.

CHAMÆLION. A name of many ſpecies of thiſtles.

CHAMÆLUIE, i. e. Tuſſilago.

CHAMÆLINUM, i. e. Linum catharticum.

CHAMÆLINUM VULGARE. So Tournefort calls the knawel folio alſines glabro floſculis plurimis.

CHAMÆMALUS. A kind of dwarf-apple. Gerard calls it the paradiſe apple.

CHAMÆMELUM. Camomile.

The root is fibrous, the calyx ſquamous, and expanded with a manifold ſeries of leaves. The flower is generally radiated, ſeldom naked, with radiated petals, for the moſt part white, with yellow diſk; the leaves are finely indented; in other things it reſembles the bellis.

Boerhaave enumerates eighteen ſpecies, of which the following are the moſt common.

Chamæmelum nobile, called alſo cham. Romanum, chamomilla, leucanthemum odoratius, vel odoratiſſimum repens, common, or creeping, or Roman, or trailing perennial camomile. It is found wild in moiſt paſture ground in many parts of England, but is commonly cultivated in gardens. It flowers in June, and ſo on through the ſummer; and the ſeeds come to perfection at the time of flowering. The leaves and flowers have a ſtrong ungrateful ſmell, and bitter taſte. The flowers are more aromatic and bitter than the leaves and the ſtalks; the yellow diſk is by far the ſtrongeſt part. The ſmell and taſte are both improved by careful drying. Theſe flowers loſe very little by long keeping.

The flowers only are uſed internally; they are bitter, carminative, anodyne, antiſpaſmodic; of particular uſe in colics of the cold and flatulent kind; in nephritic, hyſteric, hypochondriac, and other ſpaſmodic diſorders; the pains of child-bed women are much relieved by frequent draughts of a warm infuſion of them; they promote the uterine diſcharges. They are almoſt a ſpecific in agues, and more ſo in intermitting fevers of the low and irregular kind, eſpecially when they border too much on continual fevers to admit of the bark; in this caſe the *camomile* is aſſiſted by a mixture of fixed alkaline ſalts, and other corroborating medicines.

The doſe may be from gr. x. to ʒi. of the dry powder. Of the freſh juice from the whole herb, the doſe may be from one to ſix ounces, which if taken juſt before the paroxyſm of agues, is effectual in a few doſes. This juice is peculiarly uſeful againſt a ſtrangury, in aſthmas, jaundice, and dropſies.

Camomile flowers give out their virtue to water and to ſpirit; the dry flowers make a more agreeable infuſion than the freſh ones, or newly dried; and the moſt grateful is when cold water only is uſed. Diſtilled with water, they impregnate it ſtrongly; and, from a large quantity of flowers, a ſmall quantity of eſſential oil may be thus obtained. This oil is of a yellowiſh colour, and poſſeſſeth all the virtues of the flowers in an eminent degree.

Externally, this herb is diſcutient and antiſeptic; but the flowers poſſeſs the greateſt degree of theſe qualities. Dr. Pringle ſays that their antiſeptic power is 120 times greater than that of the ſea-ſalt.

A green oil is prepared from the herb, whilſt it is freſh, in April and May at fartheſt, by boiling it with olive oil until the leaves are almoſt criſp: but as boiling diſſipates all the beſt part of the herb, the propereſt method is to ſteep the flowers cold in the oil, and to ſtrain it off as it is wanted.

Camomile *Flower water.*

Take of *camomile* flowers, well dried, a few hands full; water a ſufficient quantity: draw off the water as long as it is ſtrong enough of the flowers.

Extract of Camomile.

It is prepared by evaporating the decoction which remains after diſtilling the water for the eſſential oil. But if this extract is made from a ſpirituous tincture of the flowers, it retains much of their flavour, as well as their bitter taſte.

CHAMÆMELUM VULGARE, called alſo leucanthemum Dioſcorides, anthemis, chamomilla; common, wild, or dog's camomile. It is the anthemis arvenſis, Linn. The corn camomile. It is upright, annual, and grows wild in corn-fields. In France, and other countries on the continent, theſe are uſed indiſcriminately with the other ſpecies, but they are weaker and more diſagreeable. The oil obtained from this ſpecies by diſtillation is of a fine blue colour, but the air ſoon changes it to a yellow.

CHAMÆMELUM FLORE PLENO, called alſo cham. nobile flore, multiplici, cham. Anglicum flore multiplici, cham. repens. cham. Romanum, and double camomile. The Anthemis nobilis. Linn. They are produced by culture. They differ in their flowers from the Roman *camomile* above deſcribed in being double, or having ſeveral rows of the white petala and the thick diſk proportionably ſmaller.

The ſingle and the double flowered ſorts are often uſed indiſcriminately; their leaves differ very little; but the flowers, as their active parts, are confined to the yellow diſk, and as the ſingle have larger diſks than the double, and when very double have ſcarce any diſk, the ſingle muſt be allowed to be ſtronger; but they cauſe an uneaſineſs in the ſtomachs of ſome people, which the double does not, whence more generally uſed.

The ſingle ſort affords moſt oil.

CHAMÆMELUM FETIDUM, called alſo cotula fœtida, chamæmelum fœtidum, chamæmelum caninum fœtidum, ſtinking camomile, maiths, and May-weed. It is annual, growing in waſte grounds and amongſt corn. It is more upright than the other ſpecies; its leaves are finer, and flowers thicker together.

In its qualities it differs greatly from the three preceding. Its ſmell is diſagreeable; its flowers are almoſt inſipid, but the leaves have a ſtrong acrid bitter taſte.

CHAMÆMELUM CANARIENSE. A ſpecies of leucanthemum.

CHAMÆMELUM CHRYSANTHEMUM. See BUPTHALMUM.

CHAMÆMESPILUS. It is the aria, a ſpecies of wild ſervice tree.

CHAMÆMESPILUS GESNERI, i. e. Meſpilus folio ſubrotundo fructu tubro.

CHAMÆMORUS, called alſo chamæ rubus foliis ribes Angiica, rubus paluſtris humilis, vaccinia nubis vulgo, Cambro-Britannica, Lancaſtrenſe vaccinium nubis, rubus Alpinus humilis Anglicus, rubus Alpinus foliis ribes, rubo Idæo miori affinis, cloud-berry, and knot-berry.

It is a ſhrub which grows on boggy mountains in England and other northern countries; the leaves reſemble thoſe of the mallow or of the currant tree; the fruit is like the raſberry, when ripe it is ſweet, tart, and of a yellowiſh red. It ripens in July and Auguſt. This fruit, when ripe, if boiled, without any addition, to the conſiſtence of a pulp, will keep well if cloſely covered in pots; and as an antiſcorbutic far excels the ſcurvy-graſs and other vegetables of its tribe in common uſe.

The *chamemorus* Norwegiæ is only another ſpecies of the ſame plant. Raii Hiſt.

CHAMÆNERION. A name for ſeveral ſpecies of lyſimachia.

CHAMÆORCHIS, i. e. Orchis lilifolia minor.

CHAMÆPERICLYMENUM, i. e. Chamæceraſus Alpina fructu gemino rubro duobus punctis notato.

CHAMÆPEUCE, i. e. Chamæpuce of Dioſcorides, alſo a name of the ſtinking ground-pine.

CHAMÆPITUINUM VINUM. It is wine in which the bruiſed green leaves of the chamæpytis have been infuſed.

CHAMÆPITYS CÆRULEA AUSTRIACA, i. e. Ruyſchiana.

CHAMÆPITYS, alſo called abiga, ajuga, iva arthritica *chamæpitys* lutea vulgaris, five folio triſido, cham. vulgaris, iva moſchata, cham. mas. Dioſcorides ſays that it was called holocyron in Pontus, Ionia in Athens, and ſiderites in Eubœa. Common ground-pine. It is the teucrium *chamæpitys*, or teucrium foliis trifidis linearibus integerimus, floribus ſeſſilibus lateralibus ſolitariis luteis, caule diffuſo, Linn.

It is a low hairy creeping plant with ſquare ſtalks, whitiſh clammy leaves, cut deeply into three narrow ſegments, ſet in pairs at the joints, and yellow labiated flowers without pedicles, and wanting the upper lip. It is annual, grows wild in ſandy and chalky grounds in ſome parts of England: it flowers in July and Auguſt, having a long ſlender fibrous root.

The leaves are moderately bitter, of a reſinous but not diſagreeable ſmell, approaching in this reſpect, as in their external form, to thoſe of the pine tree. They are aperient, and corroborate the nervous ſyſtem; are commended in palſies, rheumatiſms, gout, and uterine obſtructions. It is very attenuating and diuretic, and in general of ſimilar virtues with the chamædrys.

They give out their virtue to water, but ſomewhat more fully to ſpirit: on diſtillation with water a very ſmall portion of eſſential oil is obtained, reſembling in ſome degree that from turpentine. But an infuſion of the dried herb in white wine is the beſt preparation. The dried leaves may be taken to a dram for a doſe.

CHAMÆPITYS MOSCHATA, alſo called iva moſchata Monſpelienſium, cham. anthyllis, and French ground-pine.

CHAMÆPITYS MAS, cham. odoratior, and Italian ground-pine.

Theſe two laſt are weaker, but of virtues ſimilar to the above.

CHAMÆPLION. A name in Oribaſius for the eryſimum.

CHAMÆRAPHANUM. So Paulus Ægineta calls the upper part of the root apium.

CHAMÆRIPHES. The dwarf palm-tree.

CHAMÆRIPHES. A name of the palma humilis dactylifera, &c.

CHAMÆRODODENDROS. See ÆGOLETHRON.

CHAMÆROPHES. A name of a ſpecies of palm-tree.

CHAMÆROPS. A ſpecies of palm-tree is thus named.

CHAMÆRUBUS. The dew-berry. See RUBUS.

CHAMÆRUBUS. Cloud or knot-berry. See CHAMEMORUS.

CHAMÆSPARTIUM, i. e. Geniſtella.

CHAMÆSYCE. Time-ſpurge.

CHAMBAR, i. e. Magneſia.

CHAMBROCH. Treſoil.

CHAMELÆA. See CHAMÆLÆA.

CHAMOIS, i. e. Capra Alpina.

CHAMOMILLA. Camomile.

CHAMPACAM. A large tall tree in the Eaſt-Indies, which bears fragrant flowers twice a year and not fruit, until it is advanced in age. Ray thinks it is the champaca of Bontius. The dried root of its bark is an emenagogue: the flowers are reckoned cordial.

CHANCRE. The ancients called ſuch like ulcers on theſe parts caries pudendorum. *Chancres* reſemble the ulcers in the mouth, which are called by the name of canker. They are venereal ulcers. Aſtruc ſays that their ſeat is in the ſebaceous glands, and Boerhaave ſays that they appear on any part of the body: but generally they are on or near the pubes. They appear at firſt like a little eryſipelatous inflammation, with itching; this is followed by one or more ſmall puſtules filled with a tranſparent fluid, becoming ſometimes white; theſe break and a ſmall but ſpreading ulcer is formed, ſometimes painful, generally inflamed, fore and unequal at the bottom, often with hard protuberant aſh-coloured edges, covered with whitiſh ſloughs.

The ſurrounding caloſity about the edges of theſe ulcers diſtinguiſhes them from all others. This hardneſs Boerhaave ſays is from the coagulating quality of the venereal virus.

The ſofteſt parts are moſt ſubject to this kind of ulcer: the more ſenſible the part on which it is ſeated is, and the more irregular the form of the ulcer, greater is the difficulty of curing it.

If a *chancre* is ſeated in the urethra it may be miſtaken for a gonorrhœa, but may be diſtinguiſhed by the ſmallneſs of the diſcharge, the pain during erection being in

the extremity of the penis, or a particular ſpot in the urethra, but principally by examining with the touch of a probe or bougie whether it is callous or not.

The lips of theſe ulcers never appear ſwollen or retorted, but contracted, ſmooth as if poliſhed, and of a pale colour; the pus in them ſhines like melted tallow; it hath little or no ropy lentor, and is of a dirty white colour, ſometimes inclining to green. It ſinks no farther than into the cellular membrane, which it deſtroys. And when theſe ulcers heal, the ſkin there adheres to the ſubjacent muſcle, and forms a cavity of a livid red colour.

In order to the cure, the venereal infection (which is their only cauſe) muſt be deſtroyed. They may be dreſſed with the unguentum cœruleum ſpread on lint, once in twenty-four hours, and thus they are moſt eaſily removed.

In ſome conſtitutions, by the irritation of the mercury, when not uſed with proper care, theſe ulcers turn cancerous; theſe caſes are eaſily made to appear like ſores that are well diſpoſed to heal, but yet rarely admit of a cure. This ſhould caution practitioners to guard againſt acrimony in the blood when mercurials are uſed.

See Aſtruc on the Venereal Diſeaſe, or Chapman's Abridgment of Aſtruc, Heiſter's Surgery, Lond. Med. Tranſ. p. 337, &c.

CHANDRILLA. A ſpecies of ſerratula.

CHANNA. A ſort of ſea-fiſh like a perch. Alſo another fiſh not unlike this which at Marſeilles they call cannadella and channadella.

CHANTERELLA FLAVA GELATINOSA. It is a ſort of fungus, about an inch high, growing in cluſters. Tournefort includes under this name all thoſe fungi whoſe heads are ſolid, that is, neither lamellated, nor porous, nor latticed, nor prickly, nor turning to duſt when ripe.

CHAOSDA. Paracelſus uſes this word as an epithet for the plague.

CHAOVA. The Egyptian name for coffee.

CHAR. PLANT. An abbreviation of character plantarum.

CHARA. A ſpecies of plants which have been called equiſeta. Horſe-tail. But M. Vaillant deſcribes nine ſpecies under this name in the Mem. of the Royal Academy of Sciences, 1719. They are not noted for any medical virtue.

CHARABE, i. e. Succinum.

CHARACIAS, from χαραξ, *a bulwark or fence*. An epithet given to ſome plants which require ſupport, as the vine, &c.

CHARACTER. In botany it is that aſſemblage of marks by which each ſpecies of plants is diſtinguiſhed from each other.

Character ſignifies alſo an hereditary diſpoſition to ſome particular diſeaſe.

In chemiſtry it is a mark importing ſome particular thing; or it is a ſign invented to repreſent the principal ſubſtances and operations in a conciſe manner, the chief of which will be found on the ſubjoined plates.

CHARAMAIS. The Turkiſh and Perſian name for ambella.

CHARANTIA, i. e. Balſamina mas.

CHARCEDONIUS LAPIS, i. e. Chalcedonius lapis.

CHARIEN. The name of an unknown plant.

CHARISTOLOCHIA. Mugwort.

CHARLET. EXER. An abbreviation of Gualterus Charltonus Exercit. de Differentis & Nominibus Animalium, 1677.

CHARME, or Charmis. The name of an antidote mentioned by Galen.

CHARONIUS. Charonean. An epithet for caves, ſome of which are in Italy, where the air is loaded with a poiſonous vapour, that animals ſoon expire if expoſed to it.

CHARTA VIRGINEA. A name of the amnios.

CHARTREUX (POUDRE DE). See KERMES MINERAL.

CHASEMIE. The ſame as anoſinia.

CHASME, χασμη. Oſcitation or yawning. See OSCITATIO.

CHATE. Egyptian cucumber. See CUCUMIS.

CHAULIODONTA. So the Greeks called thoſe animals whoſe teeth grow a great length out of their mouths, as the boar, the elephant, &c.

CHEDROPA. A general term for all ſorts of corn and pulſe.

CHEILOCACE, i. e. Labriſulcium.

CHEILOCACE, from χειλος, *a lip*, and κακον, *an evil*. The lip-evil. A ſwelling of the lips. Alſo, according to Le Dran, a canker in the mouth or lips.

CHEIMETLON, from χειμα, *winter*. A chilblain.

CHEIMIA. Cold, ſhivering.

CHEIRAPSIA, from χειρ, *the hand*, and απτομαι, *to touch*. Scratching.

CHEIRI, called alſo keiri, leucoium luteum, viola lutea, *cheyri*, and common yellow wall-flower. It is the cheiranthus *cheiri*, Linn.

The ſtalks are woody and brittle; the leaves are oblong, narrow, ſharp-pointed, ſmooth, and of a dark green colour; the flowers are numerous, yellow, tetrapetalous, open ſucceſſively on the tops, are followed by a long ſlender pod, containing reddiſh flat ſeeds. It grows wild on old walls and among rubbiſh, and flowers in April and May.

The flowers have an agreeable ſmell, but to the taſte are nauſeouſly bitter and pungent. Water takes up all their active matter; but no eſſential oil is obtained by diſtillation, though this way a water is obtained that poſſeſſeth much of the flavour of theſe flowers.

The flowers are reckoned among the nervines, deobſtruents, diuretics, and antiparalytics.

CHEIRIATER, from χειρ, *a hand*, and ιατρος, *a phyſician*. A ſurgeon.

CHEIRISMA. Handling, or a manual operation.

CHEIRIXIS. Surgery.

CHEIRONOMIA. An exerciſe mentioned by Hippocrates, which conſiſts of peculiar geſticulations of the hands.

CHEIZI. Paracelſus means by it quickſilver, when he ſpeaks of minerals, and flowers, when he ſpeaks of vegetables.

CHELA. A forked probe mentioned by Hippocrates for extracting a polypus from the noſe. In Rufus Epheſius it is the extremities of the cilia. But moſt commonly it is uſed for claws, particularly of crabs. It alſo ſignifies fiſſures in the heels, feet, or pudenda.

CHEL. CANC. PULV. See CANCER.

CHELIDON. The ſwallow. Alſo the hollow at the bend of the arm.

CHELIDONIA. The greater and leſſer celandines.

CHELIDONIA SILVESTRIS, i. e. Aquilegia.

CHELIDONIUM. Celandine.

CHELIDONIUM MAJOR, called alſo cheledonia, papaver corniculatam luteum, tetter-wort, and great celandine. It is the *chelidonium* majus. Linn.

Boerhaave takes notice of five ſorts.

This plant hath longiſh leaves, divided to the rib into roundiſh and indented portions, of which thoſe at the extremities are the largeſt, of a bright green colour on the upper ſide, of a bluiſh green underneath, full of a gold-covered juice, as are likewiſe the ſtalks; from the boſoms of the leaves iſſue long pedicles, bearing cluſters of tetrapetalous yellow flowers, which are followed by browniſh pods, containing flattiſh ſhining black ſeeds: the root is thick at the top, with a number of fibres at the bottom; externally browniſh, internally of a deep yelloviſh red or a ſaffron colour: it is perennial, grows wild in hedges and ſhady places; it flowers in May and June.

The leaves and roots have a faint unpleaſing ſmell, and to the taſte are bitter and acrid: they give out their active matter to ſpirit and to water: the pungency they poſſeſs is not of the volatile kind, for hardly any of it riſes in diſtillation with water; yet it is leſſened with drying the plant, and by inſpiſſating infuſions of it. Drying wholly diſſipates the ſmell of this herb.

It is aperient, attenuant, and uſeful in the jaundice, when not accompanied with inflammatory ſymptoms. The freſh juice is uſed to deſtroy warts and films in the eyes; but for this latter uſe it is diluted with milk. Of the dried root from ʒ ſs. to ʒ i. is a doſe; of the freſh root infuſed in wine or in water the doſe may be to ℥ ſs.

CHELIDONIUM MINUS, called alſo ſcrophularia minor, ficaria minor, *chelidonia* rotundifolia minor, ranunculus vernus, rotundifolius minor, pile-wort, and leſſer celandine. It is the ranunculus ficaria. Linn.

Boerhaave enumerates four ſpecies. It is a ſmall plant with roundiſh ſmooth ſhining green leaves, ſet on long pedicles; and ſlender procumbent ſtalks, bearing bright gold-coloured ſolitary flowers of eight or nine petals, which,

which ſtand in three leaved cups, and are followed by cluſters of naked ſeeds: the root conſiſts of ſlender fibres, with a number of tubercles or little knobs. It is perennial, grows wild in hedges and moiſt meadows, and flowers in April.

The leaves are antiſcorbutic, but are without ſmell, and have very little taſte, though on chewing, a ſlight pungency is perceived. The roots are reckoned a ſpecific, if beat into a cataplaſm and applied to the piles: they yield a large portion of mucilaginous matter to water. Raii Synop. & Hiſt.

CHELIDONIUM. A name of the bryonia alba.

CHELIDONIUM MAJUS ARBORESCENS FOLIIS QUERCINUS, i. e. Bocconia.

CHELIDONIUS LAPIS. The ſwallow-ſtone. Theſe ſtones are ſaid to be found in the craws of young ſwallows.

CHELONE. A tortoiſe. It alſo imports a part of a ſurgical machine mentioned by Oribaſius. An inſtrument to make a gradual extenſion in any fractured member, in which motion it reſembles the ſlowneſs of χελωνη, *a tortoiſe*. It is alſo a plant mentioned by Tournefort in the Mem. of the Roy. Acad. of Sciences for 1706, from the reſemblance of its galea to the ſhell of a tortoiſe. Boerhaave mentions but one ſpecies, viz. *chelone* Arcadienſis flore albo. No medical virtues are attributed to it.

CHELONION. A hump-back, ſo called from its reſemblance to the ſhell of χελωνη, *a tortoiſe*.

CHELTENHAM WATER. This is one of the ſtronger ſort of our bitter purging mineral waters.

CHELONITES, i. e. Lapis buſonites.

CHELYS. The breaſt. So called becauſe it reſembles in its figure the back of a tortoiſe.

CHELYSCION. A ſhort dry cough.

CHEMA. Blancard ſays it is a certain meaſure mentioned by the Greek phyſicians, ſuppoſed to contain two ſmall ſpoonfuls. The Athenians had one of two drams, and another of three.

CHEMIA. Chemiſtry, or Chymiſtry. As ſome ſay (though much difficulty attends the diſcovery of its etymology and its orthography) from χυμος, *any ſort of juice*, but particularly from our aliment after digeſtion. Among the Greeks it was called χημια, χημεια, and χυμεια; the laſt of which hath been generally followed by the later writers on this ſubject, though the moſt approved editors and other learned men have preferred the former. The modern Greeks write χημεια. As to the word *chemy*, it is a very trifling innovation.

Chemiſtry may be called the anatomy of natural bodies, or the reducing them to their component parts by attraction. See AFFINITAS.

Dr. Aiken defines it to be the art of combining or ſeparating the conſtituent parts of bodies by fire.

It is an important branch of natural philoſophy, and hath for its objects the properties of bodies, which it diſcovers by analyſis, and by combinations.

As to its antiquity, Tubal Cain is not improperly ſaid to have practiſed it. Thoſe *chemical* arts which are exerciſed without literary ſtudy were introduced by neceſſity, and gradually improved from the earlieſt times; but they were practiſed by thoſe who knew no more than what related to their own buſineſs; one branch occupied each practitioner, as the miner, the aſſayer, the ſmith, the dyer, &c. each confined himſelf to his narrow ſphere; no one deſcribed his art further than as a mechanic inſtructs his apprentice, ſo they were none of them underſtood, conſidered ſcientifically.

The firſt grand object which engaged *chemiſts* in this peculiar character was, the tranſmutation of inferior metals into gold: and in the fourth century they diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the name of alchemiſts. This viſionary purſuit ſubſided not till the ſeventeenth century. In the ſixteenth Paraceiſus was negatively uſeful in reforming *chemiſtry*; for thoſe who deſpiſed his conduct in moſt inſtances of it, and yet were wiſe enough to obſerve that his ſucceſs in the uſe of his *chemical* preparations exceeded theirs with the then uſual ones, they engaged with new views in their purſuit of this art. Theſe were the inventors of modern chemiſtry. The inquiſitive and the ingenious now began to obſerve, deſcribe, and unravel the operations of workmen, and they writ clearly on every ſubject: Agricola is one of the firſt of theſe writers, who, though contemporary with Paracelſus, was of a very oppoſite character; mines and metallurgic works are his principal ſubjects. Neri, and Merret, and Kuncle, beſides their improvements in other reſpects, have very fully deſcribed the arts of making glaſs, enamels, imitations of precious ſtones. Kircher and Conringius ſeem to have quite put an end to the ancient alchemy.

In the beginning of the ſeventeenth century James Barner, phyſician to the king of Poland, was one of the firſt who arranged in order the principal *chemical* experiments, to which he added rational explanations; this work is entitled Philoſophical Chemiſtry. Bohnius, Becker, Stahl, and Boerhaave, all contributed their advancements; Macquer, Neumann, Lewis, and others of their own nations, poſſeſs diſtinguiſhed honour as improvers of this art. But after all, in the preface to the Dictionary of Chemiſtry, it is, declared that "*Chemiſtry* remains but little more than a collection of facts, the cauſes of which, and their relations to one another, are ſo little underſtood, that this art is not yet capable either of the ſynthetic or analytic modes of explanation, and is not yet capable of being ranked as a ſcience."

Thoſe who would ſee the learned controverſies relating to the antiquity of *chemiſtry* may conſult Borrichius and Conryngius, de Hermetica Medicina, the Hiſtory of the Hermetic Philoſophy by the Abbé Langlet de Freſnoy; a ſmall ſketch of the ſame may be alſo ſeen in the narrative to the London College Diſpenſatory, p. 24—27.

Beſides the uſes of *chemiſtry* in various other arts, it hath introduced many improvements into phyſic. It hath furniſhed us with many of the moſt powerful remedies, by putting into our hands ſome of the active principles of bodies diveſted of thoſe other parts which are but as clogs while in their natural combined ſtate.

Many authors might be recommended for improvement in the preſent ſtate of this art; but, in general, ſatisfaction will be obtained from Lewis's Mat. Med. the Dictionary of Chemiſtry, 1771, and Neumann's Chem Works.

CHEMOSIS, from χαινω, *to gape*. It is when from inflammation the white of the eyes ſwells above the black, ſo that there appears a ſort of gap, whence the name. Galen de Euphoriſtis calls it a red and carnous inflammation of the cornea tunica. Paulus ſays it is a *chemoſis*; when through a vehement inflammation, both the eyelids are turned outwards, ſo as ſcarce to cover the eye, and the white of the eye appears higher than the black, and occupies much of it. Le Dran calls it a tumor on the white of the eye.

In Dr. Cullen's Noſology, it is a variety of that ſpecies of ophthalmy, which he names the ophthalmia membranarum. It is when the inflammation is very great, cauſing the tunica conjunctiva ſo to thicken or project, that the cornea, or tranſparent part of the ſcelerotica, appears depreſſed and ſunk in the globe. When the ophthalmy is in this ſtate, it is, for the moſt part, accompanied with violent pain. As ſome obſerve, in this ſtate of the inflammation, the white part of the eye is become more like raw fleſh; or as others, that it reſembles the pile of red velvet. Monſ. de St. Yves ſays, "in this ſpecies of ophthalmy, all the conjunctiva is ſwelled to the thickneſs of a finger's breadth; this makes the tranſparent part of the cornea appear, as it were, ſunk into a cavity. This inflammation is attended with great pain in the head and eye, with heavineſs over the orbit, and with want of ſleep; there is likewiſe a fever, pulſation, &c. All the tranſparent part of the cornea often comes away by ſuppuration, which deſtroys the anterior chamber of the eye. The cicatrix, ſubſequent to the ſuppuration, hinders the chryſtalline and vitreous humours from falling out, and by that means, the entire decay of the globe is prevented: ſometimes both happen." This diſeaſe is often fatal; loſs of ſight always follows; and generally the pain which comes on deſtroys the patient.

In order to relief, the violence of the diſeaſe requires the ſpeedieſt and the moſt powerful aids. Bleeding, according to the ſtrength of the patient, after which a purge will be neceſſary; and this repeated as required. A bliſter may be applied on the forehead, or leeches to the temples, and after them a bliſter there, over the part

where they were applied. Goulard's faturnine poultice may be applied cold over the eye-lids, and renewed as often as it grows warm. Antimonial perfpiratives may be given inwardly, &c. as in general for inflammation of the eye.

CHENALOPEX, from χην, *a goofe*, and αλωπηξ, *a fox*. The fhell-drake. See VULPANSER.

CHENOCOPRUS, from χην, *a goofe*, and κοπρος, *dung*. Goofe-dung. It was formerly ufed as a powerful refolvent, diuretic, and anti-icteric. The green was thought the beft; it was collected in fpring, dried, and given from ʒfs. to ʒi. for a dofe.

CHENOPODIO-MORUS. Mulberry-blight.

CHENOPODIO-MORUS MAJOR, alfo called atriplex, mori fructu major, fragifera major, fpinachia fragifera, the great mulberry blight, or ftrawberry fpinnage.

CHENOPODIO-MORUS MINOR, alfo called atriplex mori fructu minor, fragifera minor, atriplex fylveftris mori fructu, atriplex fylv. baccifera, the leffer mulberry blight, or berry-bearing orache.

They have no medical virtues attributed to them.

CHENOPODIUM, from χην, *a goofe*, and πους, *a foot*, *goofe-foot*, or *fow-bane*; called alfo atriplex fylveftris, pes anferinus, and atriplex Silv. latifolia. It is reckoned among the uterines, but not ufed in the prefent practice. Boerhaave enumerates fourteen fpecies, befides two others, with leaves like thofe of the herb kali.

CHENOPODIUM, linifolio, villofo. Flax-leaved orache, or fummer cypreſs, or belvedere. Called alfo linaria, fcoparia, ofyris, and herba ftudioforum.

CHENOPODIUM. See MERCURIALIS.

CHENOPODIUM FETIDUM. See ATRIPLEX.

CHENOPUS, i. e. Chenopodium.

CHEOPINA, i. e. Chopino.

CHERAS. The ftruma, or fcrophula.

CHEREFOLIUM, i. e. Chærophyllum.

CHERIONIUM. It is that in which nature cannot be altered. Thus cryftal hardened by nature cannot be melted, as that which is made by art.

CHERMES, alfo called granum fcarlatum, kermes, gran. tinctorium, coccus baphica, grana kermes, cocca baptica, grana infectoria, coccum infectorium, fcarlet grain, and kermes berries. They are the produce of the quercus coccifera. Linn.

Kermes, among the Arabians, fignifies a fmall worm; and κοκκος among the Greeks, whence the Latin word *coccum*, both which mean a *kernel* or *grain*; for which reafon, among the later Greeks, inftead of the word κοκκος, the word σκωληξ, a *worm*, is fubftituted; for thefe grains are full of fmall worms, the juice of which affords the fcarlet colour and dye. Hence the worm is taken for the grain itfelf.

An infect which much refembles the green-houfe bug, lays its eggs on the fhrub called ilex aculeata cocciglandifera, ilex coccigera, and the fcarlet oak. The females of this kind have no wings. The colour of thefe berries, or rather infects, is like that of a blue plum; the brown colour which they have when brought to us, is from their having been waſhed with vinegar. They are about the fize and fhape of peas that are cut into two parts; the hole in the flat furface leads to the fkin of the belly. When thefe infects are freſh, they appear full of minute reddifh ova, and which, in long keeping, change to a brownifh-red colour. They are cured by fprinkling with vinegar, which prevents the exclufion of the ova, and kills fuch of the animalculæ as are already hatched, and would otherwife foon fly away. They are brought from France, Spain, Candia, &c. where they are gathered in May, and early in the mornings, while the prickly thorns on which they adhere are foft with the dew.

Geoffroy obtained an urinous kind of fpirit from them by diftillation. The freſh kermes on expreſſion yield a red juice, of a light agreeable fmell, and a bitterifh taſte, that is fub-aſtringent, and fomewhat pungent; but before it is brought to us, it is boiled up with fugar, into the conſiſtence of a fyrup. The dried grain, if not too long kept, gives out both to water and to fpirit the fame deep red colour, the fame fmell and taſte, as is in the expreſſed juice. By evaporation the watery tincture loſes nearly all its fmell and taſte, but the fpirituous tincture does not: befides, fpirit extracts the active parts moſt completely.

They are grateful to the palate, are eſteemed cordial and aſtringent, but they are not either one or the other in any conſiderable degree; conſequently neither they nor their preparations are of much value.

With us they are only uſed in a confect, and that as a cordial after delivery, when a tea-ſpoonful is given with a glaſs of cinnamon water, and is repeated two or three times a day. The London college directs the following preparation.

Confectio alkermes. *Confection of* Kermes.

Take of the juice of *kermes*, warmed and ſtrained, three pounds; of damaſk roſe water, ſix ounces in meaſure; of oil of cinnamon, half a ſcruple; of double refined ſugar, one pound. Melt the ſugar, by the heat of a balneum, into a ſyrup with the roſe-water; then add the *kermes* juice, and, after it is cold, the oil of cinnamon.

CHERMES MINERALIS. See KERMES MINERALIS.

CHERNIBION. In Hippocrates it is an urinal.

CHERSA, i. e. Fecula.

CHERSÆA. An epithet of one of the three ſpecies of aſps.

CHERSYDRUS, from χερσος, *earth*, and υδωρ, *water*. An amphibious kind of ſerpent which reſembles a ſmall land-aſp.

CHERT, i. e. Petroſilex.

CHERUTRUNDA. A ſpecies of ſolanum.

CHERVA. An Arabian name for cataputia.

CHEVASTRE. A double headed roller, applied by its middle below the chin; then running on each ſide, it is croſſed on the top of the head; then paſſing to the nape of the neck, is there croſſed; then paſſes under the chin, where croſſing it, is carried to the top of the head, &c. until it is all taken up.

CHEYRI, i. e. Cheiri.

CHEZANANCE, from χαζω, *to go to ſtool*, and αναγκη, *neceſſity*. It ſignifies any thing that creates a neceſſity of going to *ſtool*; but particularly in P. Ægineta, it is the name of an ointment with which the anus is to be rubbed to procure *ſtools*. Aëtius gives this name to a plaſter, which was to procure *ſtools* by applying it to the navel.

CHIA TERRA. Earth of Chios (now called Scio, an iſland in the Archipelago). It is a greyiſh earth brought from that iſland, formerly uſed as a ſudorific in fevers, but now neglected. Fuller's earth, or pipe-clay coloured, and impreſſed with proper ſignatures, are the general ſubſtitutes.

CHIACUM COLLYRIUM. In P. Ægineta, it is a remedy for diſorders of the eyes, of which the dry ingredients were bruiſed and prepared in Amenion wine.

CHIADUS. In Paracelſus it is the ſame as furunculus.

CHIASMOS. It is the meeting of any two things under the form of a croſs, or of the letter X, *Chi*; whence it is named. The adverbs chiaſti and chiaſticos mean the ſame.

CHIASTOS. The name of a bandage in Oribaſius, ſo called from its reſembling the letter X, *Chi*.

CHIASTRE. A bandage for the temporal artery. It is a double headed roller, about an inch and an half broad, and four ells long. The middle is applied to the ſide of the head, oppoſite to that in which the artery is opened, and when brought round to the part affected, it is croſſed upon the compreſs that is laid on the wound, and then the continuation is over the coronal future, and under the chin; then croſſing on the compreſs, the courſe is, as at firſt, round the head, &c. till the whole roller is taken up.

CHIBOU. The French ſpeak of a ſpurious gum elemi of this name.

CHIBOULS. A ſort of onions which form no bulbs at the roots.

CHIBUR. Sulphur.

CHICHIAXOCOTL. The fruit of a ſpecies of Maxocotl.

CHICOS, or Chicres. A ſort of worm. See BOVINA AFFECTIO.

CHIFFR, or Chifir. Libavius ſays, that in the preparations of the philoſopher's ſtone, it is called lapis animalis, as the mineral is called Chaos minerale. But Johnſon takes it to be any ſulphur of the metalline kind.

CHAIL-

CHAILCHOTES. See PIPER.

CHILI, (BALS. DE). This ſeems to have been an impoſition. Salmon ſpeaks of its being brought from *Chili*, but there is no evidence of any ſuch thing. The Barbadoes tar, in which is mixed a few drops of the oil of aniſeed, is uſually ſold for it.

CHILIODYNAMON, from χιλιοι, *a thouſand*, and δυναμις, *virtue*. An epithet of the herb polemonium. In Dioſcorides, this name is given on account of its many virtues.

CHILIOPHYLLON, i. e. Millefolium.

CHILLI ARBOR. The Peruvian-bark tree.

CHILLI. Guinea-pepper.

CHILLI INDIÆ ORIENT, i. e. Zingeber.

CHILON. One who hath great lips, or whoſe lip or lips are inflamed and ſwelled. See LABEONES.

CHILPELAGUA. See PIPER.

CHILTERPIN. See PIPER.

CHIMALATH, or Chimalatl. The ſun-flower.

CHIMETHLON. See PERNIO.

CHIMIA. Chymiſtry.

CHIMOLEA LAXA. Paracelſus means by this word, the powder which is ſeparated from the flowers of ſaline ores.

CHIMUS. A term in Paracelſus of an uncertain meaning; though moſt likely it is the droſs of metals, or of their ores.

CHINA ORIENTALIS. China radix, ſankira, quaquara, ſmilax aſpera Chinenſis, or China root. It is the ſmilax *China* of Linn.

It is an oblong, thick jointed root, full of irregular knobs, of a reddiſh-brown colour outwardly, but inwardly of a pale red. There are two ſorts, the Eaſt and the Weſt Indian. The firſt is moſt eſteemed; it is paler and harder than the other, and is the root of a ſpecies of ſmilax, which in *China* is called lampatam.

The plant is a climber, with tendrils, and, like the vine, it bears cluſters of large berries of a red colour. It is a native of *China* and Japan.

The root hath but little ſmell or taſte. An inſpiſſated decoction of them yields an unctuous, farinaceous, almoſt inſipid maſs. It is ſaid to promote perſpiration and urine. Proſper Alpinus ſays, that the Egyptian women uſe this root to fatten themſelves with. It firſt appeared in Europe as an anti-venereal about the year 1535, but now it gives place to the root of ſarſaparilla.

This Eaſt India kind being the beſt, may be diſtinguiſhed from the other by its yellow-brown colour outwardly; its white, or reddiſh-white colour inwardly; by its being in flattiſh long pieces, full of knots, firm, and ſmooth when cut.

CHINA OCCIDENTALIS, China ſpuria nodoſa, ſmilax aſpera, pſeudo China, kaboloſſa kiribunnawel, ſmilax Indica ſpinoſa, jupicanga, olcacatzan, pahuatlanica, China Mexicana. American, or Weſt-Indian China.

This plant is a climber, and bears black berries, grows wild in Virginia and Jamaica, and bears the cold of our clime. The root is brought chiefly from Jamaica, in long round pieces, full of knots; whitiſh without, and reddiſh within.

In ſcrophulous diſorders, ſome prefer it to the Oriental kind. In other caſes, it is of like virtue with it, but inferior.

CHINA SUPPOSITA, Senecio Madraſpatanus, parin chakka, ſenecio Aſiaticus, pſeudo China, or baſtard China.

It grows in Malabar, the root greatly reſembles the *China* root, both in appearance and qualities. Lewis's Mat. Med. Raii Hiſt.

CHINA CHINÆ. The Peruvian-bark.

CHINNENSE. The China orange.

CHICHINA. Peruvian-bark.

CHIOLI. In Paracelſus is the ſame as furunculus.

CHIQUES. A name which the French give to the worms which get under the toes of the negroes, and which are deſtroyed by the oil which flows out of the caſhew nut-ſhell.

CHIRAGRA, from χειρ, *the hand*, and αγρα, *a ſeizure*. The gout in the hand.

CHIRON. A phyſician in Greece. He excelled in medicine, both to the advantage of men and beaſts, whence he was fabled as being half one, half the other. His name, derived from χειρ, *a hand*, and the appellation of *Chirowean*, given to the moſt untractable ſpecies of ulcers, ſeem to prove his eminence in curing them. He diſcovered the uſe of the herb centaury. Hercules was his pupil.

Chiron is the next in eminence, as a phyſician, to Polydius. He lived to a great age, and taught many his art, among whom was Hercules (ſee HERCULES); but next to *Chiron* himſelf, his ſucceſſor was the Grecian Æſculapius. See ÆSCULAPIUS.

CHIRONES. See BOVINA AFFECTIO.

CHIRONIA. See APRONIA, & BRYONIA NIGRA.

CHIRONIUM. An epithet of a malignant ulcer, difficult to be cured, with a hard, callous, and tumid margin, ſo called from Chiron the Centaur, who is ſaid to be the firſt who knew how to cure them. It is alſo called telephium.

CHIRONOMIA. See CHEIRONOMIA.

CHIROTHECA, and Podotheca. In the preparation of anatomical ſubjects, they are a glove and a ſhoe of the ſcarf-ſkin, with the nails adhering to them. They are brought off with very little trouble after the cuticula looſens from the parts below by putrefaction, which comes on by long keeping a ſubject; and this method is better than that of forcing off this ſkin by means of boiling water.

CHIRURGIA, from χειρ, *a hand*, and εργον, *work*, *manual operation*, *ſurgery*, or that part of medicine which conſiſts of manual operations. In this branch of healing the ancients had great merit in many particulars; but notwithſtanding the ſlight manner in which M. C. Bernard ſpeaks of the moderns, their improvements are an honour to them, and to their profeſſion, both by rendering ancient methods more ſupportable, and introducing new ones entirely unknown to their predeceſſors, and theſe in caſes where with them the patient was left hopeleſs.

Among the ancients, Celſus, Paulus Ægineta, and Albucaſis, excel. After them, the principal ſyſtematical writer is Heiſter. Though numerous are the authors among the moderns, whoſe publications on ſubjects in this province deſerve the utmoſt regard, many of which are referred to in this work under their reſpective articles.

CHIRURGORUM SAPIENTIA, i. e. Sophia.

CHIST. The name of a meaſure. See SEXTARIUS.

CHITON. A coat, or membrane.

CHI-TUA. A ſpecies of agallochum.

CHIUM VINUM. Chian wine. A wine of the iſland now called Scio. Dioſcorides ſays, it is leſs diſpoſed to intoxicate than any other ſort.

CHIVEF THEVETI, J. B. A cucurbitiferous tree, bearing a large fruit, as big as a large melon, very ſweet, and which melts in the mouth like manna. *Raii Hiſt.*

CHIVES, in botany, are the fine threads of flowers, or the little knobs which grow on their tops. *Chives* tipped with pendants are the apices of flowers, having farina hanging and ſhaking at their points, as the tulip, &c. See STAMINA.

CHIVES. See SCHOENOPRASUM.

CHIVETS The ſmall parts at the roots of plants by which they are propagated. *Miller's Dict.*

CHIVIQUILENGA. The Malabar name for Curcas.

CHILIASMA. A warming fomentation, called alſo thermaſmata.

CHLORA. See CHLOROS.

CHLORASMA, from χλωρος. A paliſh green colour, ſhining with a ſort of ſplendour, and inclining to watery.

CHLOROPUS GERMANIS. The green plover.

CHLOROS, χλωρος. This word is variouſly applied to a green colour, as a pale green, a yellowiſh pale herbaceous green, &c. When *chloros* ſignifies green, it is ſpoken of things recent, and not dry, and it is applied to leguminous plants before they are dry, or come to perfection.

CHLOROSIS, from Chloros, χλωρος, *green*, or χλωριζω, *I am green*. The green-ſickneſs, called alſo the white-fever, the virgin's diſeaſe, febris amatoria, and icterus albus. Though Hippocrates does not ſeem to have known theſe names of this diſorder, yet in the 34th and 35th paragraphs of his book De Intern. Affection. he deſcribes

ſcribes it fully; and when it happens to girls, he ſpeaks of it in his Book De Virginum Morbis.

Moſt authors treat it as a ſpecies of cachexy, and indeed it is no other; only diſtinguiſhed from other ſpecies by its having retarded, or ſuppreſſed menſes for its cauſe. Dr. Cullen had ranked it as a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſis, and order adynamiæ, but now he ſays, it is only a ſymptom of amenorrhœa. A vitiated apetite, a ſtrong deſire of eating abſorbent ſubſtances, are conſtant attendants on this diſorder; and, if married women become *chlorotic*, they are thereby rendered barren, or elſe the children they bring forth are weakly. The common ſymptoms, when from difficult menſtruation, are, a palenеſs in the lips, a livid colour about the eye-lids, indolence, coldneſs, particularly in the feet, loſs of appetite, nauſea, vomiting, diſturbed ſleep, a languid pulſe, limpid urine, which in time becomes turbid; a tremor, if exerciſe is briſk, or if the patient aſcends up hill; a frequent palpitation of the heart; the feet are puffed up; heart-burn, intermitting head-achs, fainting, &c. See AMENORRHOEA, and MENSES DEFECTIVE.

It is treated as a CACHEXY, which ſee.

CHNUS, χνυς, *fine ſoft wool*; but, according to ſome, it is chaff, ſound, or wind.

CHOA. See CHUS.

CHOACON, i. e. Choacum.

CHOACUM. The name of a black plaſter, mentioned by Celſus, made of a ſpuma argenti boiled in oil, then added to a proper quantity of roſin.

CHOANA, i. e. Infundibulum. χοανη, is properly *a funnel.*

CHOANOS. A funnel, or furnace for melting metals.

CHOAVA. Coffee.

CHOCOLATA. Chocolate. See CACAO.

CHŒNICIS. The trepan, ſo called by Galen and P. Ægineta. From χοινιξ, *the nave of a wheel.*

CHŒRADES, from χοιρος, *a ſwine.* The ſame as ſtrumæ.

CHŒRADOLETHRON, from χοιρος, *a ſwine*, and ολεθρος, *deſtruction.* Hog-bane. A name in Ætius for the xanthium or louſe-bur.

CHOIRAS, i. e. Scrofula, from χοιρος, *a hog.*

CHOIAC. ſo Ætius calls the month of December.

CHOLADES, ſo the ſmaller inteſtines are called, becauſe they contain bile.

CHOLAGO. See CHORAS.

CHOLAGOGA, Cholagogues, from χολη, *bile*, and αγω, *to drive out*, or *evacuate.* By cholagogues the ancients meant only ſuch purging medicines as expelled the internal feces, which reſembled the cyſtic bile in their yellow colour, and other properties, as brightneſs, tenacity, and bitterneſs; but it is uncertain that there are any ſuch purging medicines as particularly act on the bile. We may, however, retain the word for ſuch purgatives as are found moſt uſeful when bile offends, or are uſeful when the liver is diſeaſed. Of this kind is antimony, which is ſuppoſed to act more powerfully on bile than any other medicine.

CHOLAS. All the cavity of the ilium is ſo called, becauſe it contains the liver, which is the ſtrainer of the gall.

CHOLE. The bile.

CHOLEDOCHUS, from χολη, *bile*, and δεχομαι, *to receive.* It is a common epithet for the gall-bladder, the biliary ducts, and the common gall-duct, which communicates with the duodenum.

CHOLEDOCHUS DUCTUS. It ſeems to be a continuation of the ductus cyſticus; for it is often obſerved, that the *ductus* hepaticus runs, for ſome ſpace, within the ſide of the *ductus cyſticus*, before it opens into its cavity: alſo at the opening of the hepatic *duct* into the cyſtic, there is a ſmall looſe membrane to hinder the bile from returning into it.

CHOLEGON, i. e. Cholagoga.

CHOLERA MORBUS It is a vomiting of and purging of bilious or other acrid matter, with great pain and fever. Cœlius Aurelianus ſays the name is derived from χολη, *bile*, and ρεω, *a flux.*

There is the true *cholera*, and the ſpurious one. Hippocrates divides this diſorder into the moiſt and dry; and there is a kind of *cholera morbus* which frequently happens to children from dentition. Dr. Cullen names it *cholera.* He ranks it in the claſs neuroſes, and order ſpaſmi. He obſerves two ſpecies. 1. *Cholera ſpontanea*, which happens in hot ſeaſons, and without any manifeſt cauſe. 2. *Cholera accidentalis*, which occurs after the uſe of food that digeſteth ſlowly, and becomes too acrid.

The true ſpecies is moſt frequent in autumn, and happens chiefly to young perſons; the ſpurious is produced by ſurfeits, and though happening moſt frequently about September, may as well as the true ſpecies occur at any other ſeaſon.

The ſeat of this diſorder ſeems to be the whole volume of the inteſtines, but more particularly the duodenum and bilious duct, as appears by the vomiting, and ſtools, which are bilious.

The *cholera* and bilious diarrhœa, are incident to the bilious, dry, and choleric; for thoſe of a ſucculent, phlegmatic, and ſanguine habit, are more frequently ſubject to a pituitous flux. Thoſe who are ſubject to a ſcorbutic acrimony, or who have acid ſordes in the primæ viæ, are ſubject to this diſorder; ſo are thoſe of a paſſionate temper. In ſultry weather it is moſt frequent: hence it is ſaid by Bontius and Thevenot to be endemic in India, Mauritania, Arabia, and America.

The true *cholera* approaches often ſuddenly; ſickneſs, pain, flatulency, and diſtention of the belly, are firſt perceived, and are ſoon followed with frequent vomiting and purging of bilious matter; the vomiting and purging come on both at once, and continue very frequent, and violent pain racks the bowels. The matters voided, are, at firſt, the remains of the food; afterwards bilious humours, more or leſs mixed with frothy mucus, of a yellow, green, and at length, often of a black colour; ſometimes bloody, like the waſhings of fleſh, extremely acrid, and almoſt corroſive. The pulſe is frequent, and ſometimes ſmall or unequal; heat, thirſt, and anxiety now attend; cold ſweats preſently appear, and ſpaſmodic contractions affect the extremities. In greater degrees of this diſorder, ſpaſms affect the muſcles of the belly, and, indeed, of the whole body: ineffectual ſtrainings to vomit, with an almoſt continual urging to ſtool, uſher in an hiccoughing, lividneſs of the nails, convulſive contractions of the legs and arms, and ſometimes the patient is carried off in twenty-four hours.

The ſymptoms of the ſpurious kind are ſimilar to thoſe of the true.

In the dry ſpecies there is a conſiderable diſtenſion of the ſtomach and inteſtines from wind, which is plentifully diſcharged both upward and downward with extreme anxiety, but without either vomiting or purging being attendant.

The remote cauſes are various; as acrid poiſon taken into the ſtomach, rough emetics or purgatives, diet that is acrid, ſuch as ſoon ferments or corrupts, violent paſſions, the gas ſylveſtre from fermenting vegetables, or ſpringy liquors, &c.

The immediate cauſe is the vellication of the nervous coat of the ſtomach and inteſtines, which induces a convulſive conſtriction of the viſcera, and which conſtitutes the diſeaſe, alſo produces the painful ſymptoms that attend, and are various, according as different parts are moſt affected.

Hoffman ſays, that the dangerous vomiting and purging, which infants are thrown into, from the vehement anger of the nurſe, and thoſe which follow the exhibition of arſenic, and ſome other poiſons, and the virulent cathartics and emetics, ſeem to be no other than the true *cholera.*

The dry *cholera* proceeds from a collection of acrid and flatulent humours in the ſtomach, by which the adjacent nervous parts are vellicated and diſtended, in which reſpect it reſembles the humid *cholera.*

The *cholera morbus* muſt be diſtinguiſhed from a bilious looſeneſs, a dyſentery, and the dry *cholera.*

It is often fatal; no diſtemper is more ſpeedily ſo, except the plague. The more corroſive the matter is that is diſcharged, the more intenſe the heat and thirſt, the greater is the danger. Hippocrates ſays, that if black blood and black bile are voided together, death is certainly at hand. An exorbitant diſcharge of green humour, both upward and downward, fainting, hiccough, convulſions, coldneſs of the extremities, cold ſweats, a ſmall intermitting pulſe,

and

and the continuance of the other ſymptoms after the looſeneſs and vomiting ceaſe, are mortal ſigns. Danger is extreme, if what is vomited ſmell like the internal excrements. If the vomiting ceaſes, ſleep ſucceeds, and the patient ſeems relieved, there is good hope; alſo if the diſeaſe continue more than ſeven days. But the beſt ſign is a free diſcharge of flatus downwards.

The general indications of cure are:

1ſt. To correct and ſoften the acrid peccant matter, and fit it for expulſion, and if need be, to expel it by art.

2d, To check the violent commotions.

3d, To ſtrengthen the weakened nervous parts.

When this diſorder is cauſed by corroſive poiſon, treat it as directed in the articles ARSENIC and MERC. COR. ALB.

If rugged emetics or purgatives gave riſe to it, foment the region of the ſtomach and belly with ſpirituous fomentations, and afterwards with a liniment of ol. nerv. ol. n. m. &c. and give internally warm opiates, ſuch as the elect. Mithrid.

Fermenting and corruptible diet ſometimes gives riſe to this diſorder, in which caſe give draughts of warm water to excite two or three evacuations by vomiting; after which the bowels may be gently moved downwards, and the patient well ſupplied with thin gruel, which may be drank plentifully.

If violent anger brought on the diſorder, carefully avoid emetics and purgatives, and any kind of cold drink, for ſome time after its approach, leſt an inflammation of the ſtomach ſhould be produced. In this caſe, abſorbents mixed with nitre, water-gruel, barley-water, decoction of hart's-horn ſhavings, &c. after which, a few grains of ipecac. may be admitted of, and a gentle doſe of manna with rhubarb.

The ſpurious *cholera*, or that ſpecies which hath a ſurfeit for its cauſe, requires the ſame treatment as the true kind does.

In the true *cholera*, Aretæus long ſince commended frequent ſmall draughts of tepid water, to evacuate the preſent contents of the ſtomach; after which, when bilious diſcharges appear, loathing, reſtleſſneſs, &c. come on, give the patient a quarter of a pint of cold water to check the purging, to cool the ardent heat of the ſtomach, and to abate the thirſt; this he adviſes to be repeated, as often as the patient throws up what he drinks: and if fainting, with other ſymptoms of weakneſs, come on, he ſays, a little wine may be added to each draught of water.

Many ſince Aretæus have extolled cold water, and the more ſo as the climate, ſeaſon, and conſtitution of the patient are warm; for it cools, blunts acrimony, and reſtores the tone of the parts.

Sydenham commends a ſimilar practice for the moſt part; he orders a chicken to be boiled in three gallons of water, but ſo as that the water hardly taſtes of the fleſh; of this the patient is to drink freely, and, at the ſame time, receive it glyſterwiſe; thus the offending matter will be evacuated both by vomit and ſtool, and alſo obtunded. The glyſters may be repeated as often as they return, at leaſt until the pain abates.

In want of chicken water, as adviſed by Sydenham, barley-water may be uſed; water in which a little gum arabic is diſſolved, or any other inſipid mucilage, butter-milk, (which ſome prefer above every thing beſides) gentle acid drinks, or as Dr. Douglas hath adviſed in the Edinb. Med. Eſſ. a decoction of oat (or other) bread that is firſt toaſted, until it is brown as coffee, but not burnt; as much of this toaſted bread ſhould be boiled in the water as will render the decoction as brown as weak coffee.

Theſe liquors ſhould be plentifully drank, until the patient is ſufficiently reduced to render the exhibition of opium ſafe.

If the ſymptoms are not exceeding violent, from a quarter to half a grain of tart. emet. may be given in part of the drink, every three or four hours; or, if the vomiting is not very troubleſome, from twenty to thirty of rhubarb may be taken in a draught of any of e drinks.

When the ſtrength is reduced by the evacuations, and the primæ viæ cleared, the vomiting and purging che cked with opiates. Sydenham directs the tine mint from twelve to twenty drops, or more, in a littl water, to be repeated two or three times a day, or oftener, as the urgency of the pain, and frequency of the evacuations require, and to continue it, at leaſt, night and morning, until the patient recovers ſome degree of ſtrength.

If the diſorder hath continued ſome hours, and the patient is already weakened, begin immediately with the tinct. theb. and proceed with it as already directed. If the ſymptoms of weakneſs are extreme, the pulſe weak and intermitting, and convulſions are approaching, give the tinct. theb. to twenty-five or thirty drops, in a large ſpoonful or two of ſtrong cinnamon water, and after it a draught of whatever liquor the patient hath to drink, mixed with an equal quantity of wine.

Nitre is uſeful when great anxiety attends.

The ſaline draughts given in the act of fermentation often allays the vomiting very ſoon: they may be repeated after each evacuation upwards.

But, perhaps, it will be found, that a free uſe of the columbo-root will be alone an adequate remedy againſt this dangerous diſeaſe. It rarely requires any means to be employed for promoting the diſcharge of bile, or to cleanſe the primæ viæ, previous to its adminiſtration. As ſoon as aſſiſtance is demanded, begin with this medicine, and give from ʒ ſs. to ʒ ii of it finely powdered, in a glaſs of pepper-mint water, and repeat it every three or four hours, more or leſs, according to the urgency of the ſymptoms. In hot climes this remedy is almoſt ſpecific, it ſoon abates the violent evacuations, and by continuing it a few days, every other ſymptom vaniſhes.

Hoffman obſerves that in *choleras* and bilious diarrhœas, eſpecially ſuch as are excited by paſſion, it is neceſſary to abſtain from ſudorifics and a ſudorific regimen, particularly at the beginning; theſe being apt to bring on violent rheumatic or arthritic affection.

The *cholera morbus* ſometimes deſtroys the patient in twenty-four hours. If it is cured, the patient is much relieved in three or four days; it rarely continues a week, beyond which it never laſts, except it turns into ſome other diſeaſe. See Aretæus, Cœl. Aurelianus, Hoffman, Fordyce's Elem. p. 2. Edinb. Med. Eſſ. vol. v. Swan's Tranſl. of Sydenham.

CHOLERA SICCA, i. e. Colica Accidentalis.

CHOLERICA, i. e. Hepatirrhœa. It is a flux from the bowels without a cholic. It is a kind of dirrahœa.

CHOLOBAPHINON. An epithet of copper, which reſembles gold. Libavius calls it Æſ. Coronarium.

CHOLOMA, from χωλος, *lame, maimed*. Galen ſays that in Hippocrates it ſignifies any diſtortion of a limb. In a particular ſenſe it is taken for a halting, or lameneſs in the leg.

CHOLOSIS. In Vogel's Noſology this is a genus of diſeaſe, which he defines to be lameneſs, from one leg being ſhorter than the other. It is ſometimes the caſe with children, that one leg ſeems to be longer than the other, and the patient walks rotatorily in conſequence of it. Mr. Pott thinks that this is owing to a kind of paralyſis of the part. In theſe inſtances, the glutæi muſcles are in a very relaxed ſtate, and the diſeaſe moſt probably in a very great meaſure originates from a weakneſs of the ſciatic nerve. Amongſt the moſt uſeful means of relief, are the cold bath, the bark, iron, ſetons, the vitriolic acid, &c.

CHONDRILLA. It is a ſpecies of ſuccory, the root of which is perennial, and the leaves finely jagged.

Boerhaave enumerates the following ſpecies.

Chondrilla cœrulæa, lactuca Sylveſtris peren. lactuca humilior flore cœruleo. Gum ſuccory.

It grows wild in Germany and Italy, a gum-like maſtich is found about its branches, which is uſed with myrrh as an emenagogue.

Chondrilla vel lactuca Sylv. flore albo.

Chondrilla vellactuca Sylveſtris majore flore incarnato.

CHONDRILLA VEL LACTUCA PERENNIS HUMILIOR DENTATA. Blue flowered gum ſuccory, with broad cut leaves.

There is another kind of *chondrilla* with different characters from the juſt named. The ſeeds of this kind are oblong and narrow, and the calyx, in a manner, fiſtular and cylindrical. Of this there are five ſpecies, as follow:

Chondrilla vel ſonchus lævis parvis floribus, lactuca Sylveſtris murorum flore luteo.

Chondrilla vel lactuca Sylveſtris purpurea, ſonchus montanus purpureus.

Chondrilla hieracii folio annua. The annual gum ſuccory with hawkweed leaves. Hieracium pulchrum, hieracium montanum.

Chondrilla viminea, chondrilla cichoroides, chond. junica, chond. viminalibus virgis, lactuca Sylveſtris perennis lutea, &c. Gum ſuccory with yellow flowers.

Chondrilla viminea viſcoſa Monſpeliaca.

CHONDRILLA. A name of ſome ſpecies of ſonchus.

CHONDRILLA CŒRULEA CYANI CAPITULIS. Baſtard ſuccory. See CICHORIUM.

CHONDRILLA HISPANICA. Bearded-creeper.

CHONDRILLOIDES. The leaves reſembling thoſe of *chondrilla*, the ſtalks ſpread into numerous branches, the calyx is ſquamous, and almoſt cylindrical, and the flowers are yellow. It is of no medical uſe.

CHONDROGLOSSUS, See HYOGLOSSUS.

CHONDROS. The ſame as ALICA, which ſee. It alſo ſignifies any grumous concretion, as of maſtic, &c. It is the Greek word for cartilage; and Hippocrates calls the cartilago xiphoides by this name.

CHONDROSYNDESMUS. A cartaliginous ligament, from χονδρος, *cartilage*, and συνδεω, *to tie together*.

CHONDRO PHARYNGÆUS, ſee PHARYNX. It riſes from the cartilaginous appendage of the os hyoides, and is inſerted in the membrane of the fauces. Douglas.

CHONDRILLA RARA PURPUREA. Bearded-creeper.

CHONE. The infundibulum.

CHOPIN. An Engliſh wine quart.

CHOPINO. A chopine. A pint meaſure at Paris. Some ſay it contains fifteen ounces and a half, others ſay ſixteen ounces.

CHORA. A region. Galen in his De Uſu Part. expreſſes by it particularly the cavities of the eyes; but in others of his writings he intimates by it any void ſpace.

CHORDA. χορδη. Properly a muſical *chord*. Metaphorically it is uſed to ſignify a tendon. Poets often expreſs by it the inteſtines. Paracelſus, in his De Orig. & Cur. Morb. Gal. calls the pudenda by the name of chordæ. A painful tenſion of the penis in the lues venerea is called chorde.

CHORDA MAGNA. A name of the tendo Achillis.

CHORDA TYMPANI. The fifth pair of nerves from the brain divides into three capital branches, one of which is called the inferior maxillary. See NERVES. A branch of the inferior maxillary nerve forms the lingual, which, ſoon after it leaves its origin, is accompanied by a ſmall diſtinct nerve, which runs upward and backward towards the articulation of the lower jaw, in company with the lateral muſcle of the malleus, and paſſes through the tympanum, between the handle of the malleus and the long neck of the incus, by the name of the *chorda tympani*. It afterwards perforates the back ſide of the *tympanum*, and unites with the portio dura of the auditory nerve.

CHORDÆ TENDINÆE. See COR.

CHORDÆ WILLISII. Willis obſerved ſmall *chords* going acroſs the ſinuſes of the dura mater, and from him they are thus named.

CHORDAPSUS. An ancient name for the *colic*, when ſeated in the ſmall inteſtines. It is the iliaco paſſio.

CHORDATA GONORRHŒA. A *gonorrhœa* attended with a *chordee*.

CHORDE, ſo the French call what others name corda, chorda, *cirde* and *chordee*, from χορδη, the *chord* of a muſical inſtrument.

It is a painful contraction of the under part of the penis, which when it is erected (and only then) is painful, and feels as if pulled downwards with a chord. The pain is principally under the frenum, and along the duct of the urethra.

Aſtruc diſtinguiſhes it, when the whole body of the penis is regularly drawn downwards in the form of a ſemicircle, from inflammation, or an ulcer in the membrane that lines the urethra, or in the corpus cavernoſum urethræ, and when the glans only is drawn down by inflammation, or ſpaſmodic ſtricture in the frænum. He alſo obſerves, that beſides the *chordee*, there are other diſtortions of the penis, e. g. if the ſuſpenſory ligament that connects the penis to the os pubis is inflamed, or if only one of its cavernous bodies is injured, the penis will either be bent upwards, or to one ſide, and theſe are relieved in the ſame manner as the *chordee*.

Dr. Rutherford of Edinburgh, in his Clinical Lectures ſays, that inflammation and ſwelling in the corp. cavern. ureth. is the cauſe of the chordee.

In order to the cure, if the patient is plethoric and ſtrong, bleed; if the pain is great during erection, give an opiate at bed-time, and rub the ungt. cœrul. fort. all along the duct of the urethra every night.

If the inflammation is wholly from a flux of humours on the part, mercury will heighten it, ſo ſhould be forborn until the defluxion ceaſes; but when the inflammation is from the venereal poiſon ſimply, mercury is its proper antidote.

CHOREA SANCTI VITI. St. Vitus's dance. Horſtius ſays that there were ſome women who once every year paid a viſit to the chapel of St. Vitus, near Ulm, and there exerciſed themſelves day and night in *dancing*, being diſordered in mind, till they fell down like thoſe in an extacy. Thus they were reſtored till the return of the following May, when they were again ſeized with a reſtleſſneſs and diſorderly motion of their limbs, ſo as to be obliged, at the anniverſary feaſt of St. Vitus, to repair again to the ſame chapel for the ſake of *dancing*. From this tradition, a ſort of convulſion, to which girls are principally ſubject before the eruption of the menſes, took its name. But yet the diſorder above deſcribed by Horſtius is different from what we call the St. Vitus's *dance*.

Mead and Pitcairn ſay that this diſorder is of the paralytic kind; Sydenham ſays it is convulſive; Biſs and Cheyne ſay that it partakes both of the convulſive and paralytic kinds. Dr. Cullen calls it *chorea*. He ranks it in the claſs neuroſes, and order ſpaſmi.

Sydenham is generally allowed to excel in his deſcription of this complaint, which is as follows: "It is a kind of convulſion, which principally attacks children of both ſexes from ten to fourteen years of age. It firſt ſhews itſelf by a lameneſs, or rather unſteadineſs of one of the legs, which the patient draws after him like an ideot, and afterwards affects the hand on the ſame ſide, which being brought to the breaſt, or any other part, can by no means be held in the ſame poſture for a moment, but is diſtorted or ſnatched by a kind of convulſion into a different poſture or place, notwithſtanding all poſſible efforts to the contrary. If a glaſs of liquor be put into the hand to drink, before the patient can get it to his mouth, he uſes a thouſand odd geſtures; for, not being able to carry it in a ſtraight line thereto, becauſe his hand is drawn different ways by the convulſion, as ſoon as it hath reached his lips he throws it ſuddenly into his mouth, and drinks it very haſtily, as if he only meant to divert the ſpectators."

Its cauſe is from an acrid humour falling on the nerves; ſometimes from worms: Cheyne ſays it ſometimes riſes from an epilepſy, which is leaving the patient as his ſtrength increaſes; and Pitcairn intimates that its cauſe is from a paralytic affection of the muſcles. From the variety of ſymptoms obſerved in different patients, whatever can be a cauſe of convulſions and paralytic relaxation, may alike conduce to the forming this diſorder.

Thoſe who have once ſuffered under this diſeaſe are very ſubject to relapſe. However violent the ſymptoms are, they never are ſuddenly deſtructive. When recent in a young perſon, of an otherwiſe good conſtitution, there is good hope of a ſpeedy cure. If the menſes or hæmorrhoids are obſtructed, their return will mitigate if not cure the diſeaſe. If the temperament is very ſenſible, the diſeaſe hereditary, or become habitual, the cure is very difficult. Through ill management it may degenerate into an epilepſy or hypochondriac melancholy.

Dr. Cheyne, in his Treatiſe on the Gout and Bath Waters, intimates that the indications of cure are, 1. To evacuate. 2. To attenuate. 3. To corroborate. And he informs us that he effects the firſt by a vomit once a week, until the diſeaſe abates, and then he lengthens the intervals. The ſecond he effects by giving for a month or ſix weeks, on the days in which the emetic is not adminiſtered, a large doſe of Æthiops mineral, with Bath water. The third by an anticachectic regimen and nervous corroborant; ſuch as the bark, orange peel, iron, cold bathing, &c

Valerian,

Valerian in large doſes, e. g. three drams in a day, hath been followed with ſucceſs. The cardamine (which ſee) is almoſt a ſpecific. Of purges the tinct. facr. or pil. Rufi, are the moſt proper. Dr. Mead particularly cautions us to adminiſter medicines at and about the changes of the moon.

See Sydenham's Works; Mead's Influence of the Sun and Moon, upon Human Bodies; Cheyne's Engliſh Malady, and his Eſſay on the Gout, &c. Biſs's Medical Eſſays.

CHORION. απο τε χορε, vel χωρα. Vide H. Steph. Theſ. A name of the external membrane of the fetus. In women, as in ſome other creatures, the *chorion* at the firſt is without any ſenſible placenta. It hath its name from the chorus of blood veſſels which are ſpread upon it. It adheres to the amnios by a gelatinous ſubſtance, and is diviſible into two lamellæ; the internal (or true *chorion*) is even more thin and pellucid than the amnios, whilſt the external (or falſe *chorion*) is thick and opake. This ſpongy *chorion* adheres to the uterus at every part, and grows thicker as it approaches the placenta, whilſt the internal lamina adheres inſeparably to the inner ſurface of the placenta; hence it is plain that the ſubſtance of the placenta is betwixt theſe two lamellæ of the *chorion*. This membrane hath abundance of lymphatic veſſels; but in the human placenta the veſſels cannot be traced by injection on the amnios and *chorion*, yet the uterus ſends veins to the outer *chorion*; perhaps the arteries do the ſame. See DECIDUA.

The uſe of the *chorion* is to ſuſtain the umbilical veſſels.

CHORION SANCTI VITI, i. e. Chorea Sancti viti.

CHOROIDES, from χοριον, the *chorion*, and ειδος, *likeneſs*. It is an epithet of ſeveral membranes, which, on account of the multitude of their blood veſſels, reſemble the *chorion*. Thus it is a name of one of the coats of the eye. It lines the ſclerotis, is a thin vaſcular coat of a browniſh colour, generally ſaid to derive its origin from the pia matral covering of the optic nerve. From the colour of part of this membrane it hath been called uvea, the external ſurface of which is called the iris, but at preſent the whole fore part of this coat is called iris; and the reſt is called *choroides*. It conſiſts of two laminæ, the exterior is ſlightly connected with the ſclerotica, and is alſo covered with a black matter, called nigrum pigmentum. Both laminæ are extremely vaſcular; the extremities of the veſſels of the inner ſurface project therefrom, and are termed villi and papillæ. As this internal lamina was firſt noted by Ruyſch, it is called tunica Ruyſchiana. The black ſubſtance which lies between the ſclerotica and choroides is alſo found betwixt it and the retina. Near where the ſclerotica becomes tranſparent, the *choroides* is firmly united to it, and at this circle of adheſion the *choroides* ſeems to change its colour and texture, appearing as a whitiſh kind of ring, of a compact ſubſtance, and is termed ligamentum ciliare. Here the internal lamina of the *choroides* dips inwards, to make what are termed the proceſſes. The ciliary proceſſes are on the inſide between the iris and *choriodes*, as the ligamentum ciliare is on the outſide. The *choroides* is continued on the inſide of the tranſparent part of the ſclerotis, and there forms the iris; the perforation in the middle of which is called pupilla. The artery is a branch of the carotid. The veins empty themſelves into the optic ſinuſes, which are again diſcharged into the internal jugulars; but ſome of theſe veins communicate with the external veins of the eye, ſo part of the blood is emptied into the external jugulars. The nerves are from the opthalmic branch of the fifth pair, and a branch of the third pair.

Oppoſite to the inſertion of the optic nerve the *choroides* is wanting, and forms that white ſpeck on which if the picture of an object falls we are incapable of ſeeing it.

CHOROIDES PLEXUS. See PLEXUS CHOROIDES.

CHOUAN. A French name for a ſmall yellow ſeed reſembling worm-ſeed, but rather larger, and in taſte a little ſalt and biting. It grows on a plant brought from the Levant, and is uſed in making carmine.

CHOU DE PALMISTE. The cabbage of the *palm-tree*. See PALMA.

CHOUANA MANDARA. A ſpecies of *mandaru*.

CHOYNE. An American cucurbitiferous plant, whoſe leaves reſemble thoſe of the bay tree, but is neither of any note in medicine nor for the palate. Raii Hiſt.

CHRISTI MANUS. A name given to ſugar that is depurated, boiled in roſe-water, and caſt into troches, with or without prepared pearls.

CHRISTIANÆ RADIX. A ſpecies of vetch. See ERVUM.

CHRISTOPHORIANA. The herb Chriſtopher. It is a plant with a roſaceous flower, whoſe ovary is ſoft like a berry. Boerhaave takes notice of four ſpecies; but they have no medical virtue, attributed to them.

CHRISTOPHORIANA ARBOR. A ſpecies of aralia.

CHRISTOPHORIANA VIRGINIANA. A ſpecies of aralia.

CHRISTOS, from χριω, *to anoint*. It is whatever is applied by way of unction.

CHRONICUS, or Chronius, from χρονος, *time*. Chronical.

Diſeaſes which continue long, and are without any fever, or at leaſt a conſiderable degree of it, are thus called, to diſtinguiſh them from thoſe which proceed rapidly and terminate ſoon, and are called acute.

In the cure of chronical diſorders, Dr. Fothergil intimates that thoſe means or medicines which enable the ſtomach duly to perform its office, are the moſt effectual, if not the only remedies. See what he hath inſerted on this ſubject in the firſt vol. of the Lond. Med. Obſ. p. 314. Dr. Cadogan ſeems to corroborate this by his obſervations on the cauſes of chronical diſorders; which he ſays are indolence, intemperance, or vexation: though now and then he allows that an ill cured acute diſorder may be the cauſe of chronical ones. See his Eſſay on the Gout and Chronical Diſeaſes.

CHROS. Galen ſays that the Ionians mean by this word all that is of fleſh in our bodies, i. e. all but bones and cartilages.

CHRYSALIS, called alſo aurelia and nympha. Are names by which naturaliſts call the worm or maggot while it lies hidden under a pretty hard pellicle, which is for the moſt part of a bright yellow or gold colour, whence the names of *chryſalis* and aurelia; it is almoſt without motion, till it comes forth a butterfly, or ſome other winged inſect.

CHRYSALITES. A figured ſtone of a glittering gold and iron colour, like the ammonis cornu, hard, and rough, with many circular ſtriæ, and furniſhed with three or four circumgyrations, reſembling in ſome meaſure the *chryſalis*.

CHRYSANTHEMI FLORE PLANTA AFRA BACCIFERA RAMIS IN ACULEUM ABEUNTIBUS. A ſpecies of chryſanthemoides.

CHRYSANTHEMOIDES. Hard ſeeded chryſanthemum and *chryſanthemoides*. It is a plant whoſe flower reſembles the ſmall ſun-flower, and whoſe ovary becomes a ſtone, containing a hard kernel. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies, but they have no medical virtues attributed to them.

CHRYSANTHEMOS, i. e. Amaranthus.

CHRYSANTHEMUM, called alſo bellis lutea foliis profunde inciſis major, chryſ. ſegetum, and corn marigold.

Botaniſts enumerate fourteen ſpecies. It is an annual plant frequently met with amongſt corn. The Germans commend it in the jaundice, but it does not obtain in practice with us.

CHRYSANTHEMUM AFRICANUM FRUTESCENS SPINOSUM. A ſpecies of chryſanthemoides.

CHRYSANTHEMUM AFRICANUM, i. e. African marygold.

CHRYSANTHEMUM ALPINUM. Mountain ragwort. See JACOBÆA.

CHRYSANTHEMUM ARBORESCENS ÆTHIOPIUM FOLIIS POPULI ALBÆ. A ſpecies of chryſanthemoides.

CHRYSANTHEMUM BIDENS, i. e. Acmella.

CHRYSANTHEMUM CONYZOIDES. Golden ſtar-wort.

CHRYSANTHEMUM CONYZOIDES PALUSTRE MINUS FLORE GLOBOSO. Small flea-bane.

CHRYSANTHEMUM COTULÆ FOLIO. See BUPTHALMUM.

CHRYSANTHEMUM FOLIO COTULÆ FLORE ALBO. A ſpecies of *cotula*.

CHRYSANTHEMUM FRUTICOSUS SUBCANDIDUM. A ſpecies of cotula.

CHRYSANTHEMUM INDICUM RAMOSUM. A ſpecies of ſun-flower.

CHRYSANTHEMUM INDICUM, i. e. Potatoes.

CHRYSANTHEMUM INDICUM FLORE ET SEMINE MAXIMIS ANNUUM. Sun-flower.

CHRYSANTHEMUM PERENNE. Common ox-eye.

CHRYSANTHEMUM PERUVIANUM. Sun-flower.

CHRYSANTHEMUM VALENTINUM. A ſpecies of cotula.

CHRYSANTHEMUM. A name of the bidens.

CHRYSANTHEMUM. A name of ſome ſpecies of African marigold.

CHRYSANTHEMUM. Garden marigold.

CHRYSATTICUM. An epithet of a ſort of paſſum, recommended by P. Ægineta to be drank with the ſeed of atriplex, for the jaundice.

CHRYSE. The name of a plaſter in P. Ægineta for freſh wounds.

CHRYSISCEPTUM. A name for the white chamæleon.

CHRYSITIS, or Chryſitis Spodos. Litharge.

CHRYSOBALANUS. Nutmeg.

CHRYSOBERRILLUS. The yellow beryl.

CHRYSOCALLIA. A name in Dioſcorides for the anthemis or chamæmelum.

CHRYSOCERAUNIUS, i. e. Ceraunochryſos, or aurum fulminans.

CHRYSOCHALCOS, i e. Aurichalcum.

CHRYSOCOLLA, from χρυσος, *gold*, and κολλα, *glue* or *ſolder*. Borax.

CHRYSOCOME, from χρυσος, *gold*, and κομη, *hair*. A name for many ſpecies of helichyrſum.

CHRYSODENDRON. See CONOCARPODENDRON.

CHRYSOGONIA, from χρυσος, *gold*, and γινομαι, *to be made or generated of*. It is the aurific tincture.

CHRYSOGONUM. Red turnep.

CHRYSOLACHANON. Garden or white orache. Alſo an unknown plant mentioned by Pliny.

CHOYSOLITHOS. The topaz.

CHRYSOLITHUS. The chryſolite, called alſo topazius veterum.

It is a green diaphanous gem, of a glittering ſplendour like gold. It is found in India and ſome other countries.

CHRYSOMELIA. Orange.

CHRYSOPASIUS. The topaz. See CHRYSOLITHUS.

CHRYSOSPLENIUM. Golden ſaxifrage.

CHRYSOPLYCIUS PULVIS. A powder mentioned by Helmont, which he ſays makes lead hard, but ſoftens iron.

CHRYSOPŒIA, from χρυσος, *gold*, and ποιεω, *to make*. The art of changing inferior metals into *gold* by the help of mercurius philoſ.

CHRYSOPUS. A name for the gummi-gutta.

CHRYSOSPLENIUM. Golden ſaxifrage. It is a perennial plant, of which two ſpecies are noticed by Boerhaave, viz.

Chryſoſplenium foliis amplioribus auriculatis, ſaxifraga rotundifolia aurea, alchimilla rotundifolia aurea hirſuta. *Golden ſaxifrage* with long eared leaves.

Chryſoſplenium foliis minoribus ſubrotundis, ſaxifraga rotundifolia aurea minor montis aurei.

They have not any medical virtues attributed to them.

CHRYSULCA. An epithet in Helmont and ſome others for aqua Stygia or aqua regia.

CHRYSUN, from χρυσος, *gold*. An epithet of two collyria for the eyes, and alſo of two peſſaries for the uterus in Aetius.

CHU, or Chus. The name of a meaſure. The ſame as choa.

CHUNDRILLA VERCURIA. See ZACINTHA.

CHUNNO. The Peruvian name for potatoe bread.

CHYBUR. Sulphur.

CHYLARIA. A diſcharge of whitiſh mucous urine. It is the dyſuria mucoſa of Cullen.

CHYLIFERA VASA, i. e. Lactea vaſa.

CHYLIFICATIO. Chylification. The firſt concoction or the changing of the aliment into chyle by the power of the ſtomach.

CHYLISMA, from χυλος, *juice*. In Dioſcorides it ſignifies expreſſed juice.

CHYLISTA. Hartman's chyliſta is glaſs of antimony obtunded by levigating it with maſtich diſſolved in rectified ſpirit of wine; the oleoſe part of this ſpirit blunts the ſpicula of the vitr. ant.

CHYLOPOIETIC. Of the chyle.

CHYLOSIS, i. e. Chylificatio.

CHYLOSTAGMA DIAPHORETICUM MINDERERI, called alſo aqua thericalis bezoardica. It is a liquor diſtilled from the ther. Andromachi, or from Mithridate, or ſuch like matters.

CHYLUS, χυλος. The chyle. In general it is a juice inſpiſſated to a middle conſiſtence between humid and dry.

In Hippocrates the word χυλος is uſed to expreſs the juice and forbile liquor of barley, which liquor they call ſtrained ptiſan, being the expreſſed ſubſtance of the barley; not what the Latins call *cremor*, which is only the expreſſed water of the barley. To χυλος is oppoſed whole and entire, that is, not ſtrained ptiſan.

The aliment received into our ſtomachs is converted into a fluid ſtate, the oily part of it mixing with the ſaliva and other juices ſecerned into the ſtomach and duodenum, becomes like milk, and is called chyle. The bile mixing with the digeſted aliment when it is conveyed into the duodenum, aſſiſts the ſeparation of the nutritious chyle from the excrementitious part. The nutritious chyle is conveyed by the lacteals into the circulation, to be converted into blood. The chyle ſeems to conſiſt of oil, mucilage, water, a coagulable part, and fixed air.

From the chyle proceeds the milk which flows into the breaſts of nurſes, as well as all that is required to recruit the waſte made by the actions of living bodies.

The chyle when it enters the blood does not immediately mix with it, but in many inſtances is proved to paſs in a ſeparate ſtate through the whole circulation; e. g. the chyle hath been ſeen to float on the ſurface of blood which was taken from the arm: in the laſt ſtage of a diabetes the urine manifeſtly points out the preſence of chyle in it. See Haller's Phyſiology on the Chyliferous Veſſels; Percival's Med. Eſſays, edit. 2. p. 251, &c.

CHYMATION. The name of a penetrating medicine in Marcellus Empiricus.

CHYMIA. Chemiſtry.

CHYMIATER. A chemical phyſician, or one who cures by chemical medicines.

CHYMIATRIA, from χυμια, *chymiſtry*, and ιατρια, *healing*. The art of curing diſeaſes by chemical medicines.

CHYMOSIS, i. e. Chemoſis.

CHYMOSUM. In Paracelſus it is chylus.

CHYMUS, χυμος, *humour or juice*. In the common ſignification of the word it is every kind of humour which is incraſſated by concoction. Sometimes it means the fineſt part of the chyle when ſeparated from the fæces. In Galen it is the guſtatory faculty or quality in plants and animals.

CHYTLON. In Hippocrates it means a plentiful inunction with oil and water.

CIBAGE, pino ſimilis Orientalis. A tree growing in the Eaſtern countries reſembling a pine-tree.

CIBARIUS (Panis). Houſhold bread.

CIBARIUS (SAL). Common ſalt.

CIBATIO. In chemiſtry it is the ſame with corporatio.

CIBORIUM. Egyptian bean. See FABA.

CIBOTIUM, i. e. Ciborium.

CIBOUL. A ſort of onion nearly allied to the ſcallion. They have no bulb at the root, and are cultivated in the kitchen garden.

CIBUR. Sulphur.

CIBUS ALBUS. White food. It is a ſpecies of jelly, which in Fuller's Pharmacopœia is thus made: take four pints of milk, the breaſt of a boiled capon, and two ounces of blanched ſweet almonds; let them be beat and ſtrong impreſſion made; then boil them over a gentle fire, adding three ounces of rice meal; and when they begin to coagulate, add eight ounces of white ſugar, and ten ſpoonfuls of roſe-water; mix all well together.

The Spaniards give the name of cibus albus to a certain American plant.

CICADA. The baulm cricket. An inſect common in Italy, ſomewhat reſembling a cricket. It hath wings, is very noiſy, and is ſaid to live on dew, which they ſuck from the dwarf aſh manna-tree. Theſe inſects, when dried and burnt, are uſed in the colic, and to diſſolve the ſtone.

CICATRICULA. A little white ſpeck or veſicle in the coat of the yolk of an egg, wherein the firſt changes appear towards the formation of the chicken or the nervous cylinder.

CICATRISANTIA. See EPULOTICA.

CICATRIX, from *cicatrico, to ſkin*. A ſcam or elevation of callous fleſh, riſing on the ſkin, and remaining there after the healing of a wound or ulcer, and is commonly called a ſcar.

It is the deſtruction of the cellular membrane by inflammation that cauſes cicatrices to tuck inwards, as they are always obſerved to do. Some commend the ſteams of hot water to be often applied to the growing ſkin, to prevent a cicatrix, and to dreſs with a cerate of wax and the oil of eggs.

CICCUS. A ſmall ſpecies of graſhopper, and a ſpecies of wild gooſe.

CICER, album, nigrum, vel rubrum; *cicer* ſativum, *cicer* Arietinum, chiches, ciches, *cicers*, and cich peaſe. The ſort uſed in medicine is the *cicer* Arietinum. Linn.

Chiches, a ſort of pulſe, cultivated in warmer climates, where our finer peas do not thrive ſo well. They are a ſtrong flatulent food, hard of digeſtion. They are ſown in France, Italy, &c. they flower in June, and the peas are ripe in July.

CICER SYLVESTRE, aſtragalus luteus perennis ſiliqua gemella rotunda veſicam referente, glaux. Wild chiches.

CICERA TARTARI. Small pills compoſed of turpentine and cream of tartar.

CICERA. Cyder.

CICERBITA. See SONCHUS.

CICERCULA. See LATHYRUS.

CICERI SYLVESTRIS MINORI. Milk-wort of Dioſcorides. See GLAUX.

CICHOREUM. Succory.

CICHOREUM SYLVESTRE, ſeris, cichorium ſylveſtre, and ſativum. Wild and garden ſuccory. The wild is the cichorium intybus. Linn.

It is a plant with oblong dark green hairy leaves, deeply jagged like thoſe of dandelion, but larger; in the boſoms of which, towards the tops of the branches, the flowers come forth in ſpikes, conſiſting each of a number of blue flat floſculi, ſet in a ſcaly cup, which afterwards become a covering to ſeveral ſhort angular ſeeds: the root is long and ſlender, of a brown colour on the outſide, and white within. It is biennial, grows in hedges, and by road ſides, and flowers in June and July.

It abounds with a milky juice, of a penetrating bitteriſh taſte, and of no remarkable ſmell: the roots are bitterer than the leaves or ſtalks, and theſe much more ſo than the flowers. But by culture in gardens it loſes its green colour, and in a great meaſure its bitterneſs, and in this ſtate is a common ſallad herb: the deeper coloured and the deeper jagged the leaves are, the bitterer is the taſte of the whole plant.

The whole plant is mildly aperient, and if freely uſed it looſens the belly. The virtue reſides in the milky juice, which may be extracted by coction in water, or by preſſure. The wild and the garden ſorts may be uſed indifferently, but ſhould be uſed as food rather than phyſic. If the root is cut into ſmall pieces, dried and roaſted, it reſembles coffee, and is a good ſubſtitute for it.

Chondrilla cœrulea cyani capitulis, alſo called ſeſamoides, cichorium cœrul. coronopi foliis anguſtis, &c. Baſtard ſuccory, or lion's foot with buckſhorn leaves.

Catanance, Candy lion's foot. It is a ſpecies of ſuccory.

Boerhaave enumerates fourteen ſpecies.

CICHOREUM. Endive.

CICHOREUM VERNICARIUM. See ZACINTHA.

CICHOREUM VERRUCARUM. See ZACINTHA.

CICHOREUM LUTEUM. See SCOLYMUS.

CICILIANA, i. e. Androſæmum.

CICINDELA. The glow-worm, alſo called λαμπυρὶς, nocticula terreſtris, ſcarabæus, cicindela mas & fœmina.

The flying glow-worms are males, and the reptile ones are the females. Some reckon them anodyne, others that they are uſeful againſt the ſtone in the bladder.

CICINUM (OL.) i. e. Ricini (ol.)

CICIS, κίκις. In ſome places of Hippocrates and Theophraſtus it is put for κέγχις. A gall.

CICLA. White beets.

CICONGIUS. Blancard ſays it is a meaſure containing twelve ſextaries or pints.

CICONIA. The ſtork.

CICUTA. Hemlock.

CICUTA MAJOR FŒTIDA. The conium maculatum, vel conium majus, feminibus ſtriatis, or ſpotted hemlock, of Linn. It grows wild almoſt all over the world, and with us is found about the ſides of the fields, under hedges, and in moiſt ſhady places. It is a tall umbelliferous plant, with large leaves, of a blackiſh green colour on the upper ſide, and a whitiſh green underneath, divided into a number of ſmall oblong ſomewhat oval ſegments, which ſtand in pairs on middle ribs; theſe ſegments are again deeply cut, but not quite divided on both ſides; and many of theſe ultimate ſections have one or two ſlighter indentations. They much reſemble parſley or chervil, eſpecially the leaves of the ſmalleſt ſorts, whoſe poiſonous quality is the moſt violent. The ſtalk is round, ſmooth, hollow, irregularly variegated with ſpots and ſtreaks of a red or blackiſh purple colour: the flowers are white, and blow in June or July; the ſeeds greeniſh, flat on one ſide, very convex, and marked with five furrows on the other. The root is oblong, about the ſize of a middling parſnep, yellowiſh without, white and fungous within, and part of it hollow; it changes its form according to the ſeaſon. The leaves have a rank ſmell, but do not much affect the taſte.

The beſt for medical uſe is that which hath arrived at its full vigour, and is rather on the decline, or juſt when the flowers fade; the rudiments of the ſeeds become obſervable, and the habit of the plant inclines to yellow. That which grows in expoſed places is generally ſtronger than what grows in the ſhade, and that which grows in dry places is alſo to be preferred.

It agrees with all ages, and every circumſtance of patients. Joined with pectorals it promotes perſpiration. It hath been of great efficacy in epilepſies and convulſions. Internally and externally it abates inflammations of the eyes. It is narcotic and anodyne. It promotes reſt and eaſes pain. It ſeldom creates thirſt or head-ach, which ſucceed opiates next morning, and as rarely creates coſtiveneſs, but commonly produces a lax ſtool the day following. It poſſeſſes a property of altering thin, corroſive, cancerous ichor, and renders it mild. It hath been uſed with conſiderable advantage in ſanious ulcers, gleets, painful diſcharges from the vagina, fixed pains from acrid ſerum, fluor albus, and ſchirrous tubercles. It powerfully promotes the menſes, particularly when ſuddenly reſtrained by colds, &c. Inveterate itches have been cured by an internal uſe of the extract. Cancers have had their virulence much abated by it. It neither heats, nor cools, nor diſturbs the animal functions. It promotes perſpiration in ſome, and a copious diſcharge of urine in others. Though it is not a cure in cancers, yet it is a ſpecific anodyne; when the uterus is affected therewith, relieving more effectually than opium.

When *hemlock* is imprudently eaten, it cauſes a vertigo, a dimneſs of ſight, hiccough, a ſort of madneſs, and coldneſs of the extremities, convulſions and death, by an utter interception of reſpiration: ſometimes by the ſpaſms, which it produces in the ſtomach and other nervous parts, hæmorrhages are the conſequence; or if this happens not, an epilepſy comes on, which, without very ſpeedy relief, is fatal. The proper method of relief is, to diſcharge the ſtomach of its contents by means of the moſt active emetics, and then to adminiſter frequent doſes of ſtrarp vinegar, &c. as in the articles AMANITA and VENENUM.

The proper method of adminiſtering *hemlock* inwardly is, to begin with a grain or two of the powder, or extract, and gradually to increaſe the doſe until the full one is arrived at, which is thus known: for the moſt part a giddineſs

dineſs affects the head; there is a motion in the eyes, as if ſomething puſhed them outwards; a ſlight ſickneſs and trembling agitation of the body; a lax active ſtool or two the morning after the doſe. One or more of the ſymptoms are the evidences of a full doſe, and here continue until none of theſe effects are obſerved; and then, after a few days, increaſe the doſe; for little advantage can be expected but by a continuance of full doſes. In ſome conſtitutions even ſmall doſes greatly offend, occaſioning ſpaſmodic twitchings, heat and thirſt; in ſuch inſtances its uſe muſt be diſcontinued. The dried herb may be given in the form of tea; or it may be boiled in broth, and taken at ſeveral times in the day. The internal uſe is conſiderably aſſiſted by the patient's going into a warm bath well impregnated with this plant; particularly in ſcirrhous tumours, cancerous ulcers, and ſcrophulous diſorders. An excellent tincture is extracted by means of rectified ſpirit of wine.

Dioſcorides prepared the extract of *hemlock* only by the heat of the ſun. The preſent method is, to take the freſh juice of the plant when the flowers begin to decay, and as on expreſſion the herb gives out all its ſmell, which reſides in the herbaceous feculencies, it is thickened by the addition of the herb finely powdered.

As much dependence is had in ſome inſtances on this medicine, and ſome plants may be miſtaken for this *hemlock*, it ſhould be noticed that the cow-weed, or wild cicely, reſembles it in the ſpring, before the purple ſpots appear on the *hemlock*; though even then the leaves of *hemlock* ſmell ſtronger, and are of a deeper colour. The *cicutaria* tenuifolia of Ray, called alſo *cicuta* minor, reſembles the above ſpecies of *hemlock* in ſummer, and autumn; but it is without the ſtrong ſmell thereof, and in ſhape and colour reſembles parſley. The ſmall *hemlock* chervil of Ray, or myrrhis ſylveſtris feminibus aſperis of C. Bauhine, is miſtaken for the great *hemlock*, in ſpring; but it flowers in April, and its ſeeds are ripe before the *hemlock* begins to flower.

After all, this plant is not found to be ſo injurious as has beeen related. The *cicuta* aquatica is probably the ſort which is ſo poiſonous, and this is miſtaken for it. See Wilmer's Obſervations on Poiſonous Vegetables. Withering's Bot. Arangement, vol. i. p. 161.

CICUTARIA, called alſo ſeſeli Peloponenſe, cicutaria latifolia fœtida vel fœtidiſſima. Great broad-leaved baſtard hemlock. The root is large and thick; the ſtalks are thick, hollow, and jointed; the leaves are the green *hemlock*, but thicker; the ſeeds are long, thick, gibbous, and ſhaped ſomewhat like a half-moon, and are much channelled.

CICUTA MINOR, called alſo cicuta fatua, cicutaria tenuifolia, cicutaria fatua, cynapium. The leſſer hemlock, or fool's parſley.

It is a ſpecies of a ſmall growth, and unhappily miſtaken ſometimes for parſley.

Theſe two ſpecies are not in uſe: but the following plaſter was formerly in much eſteem, and contains the juice of the firſt ſpecies.

Empl. e Cicuta *cum Ammoniaco.* Hemlock *Plaſter with Gum Ammoniacum.*

Take of the juice of freſh *hemlock* leaves four ounces; vinegar of ſquills, and gum ammoniacum, of each eight ounces; with a very gentle heat work them up into a plaſter.

CICUTA AQUATICA. Water hemlock, alſo called ſium alterum olulatri facie, ſium majus alterum anguſtifolium, ſium erucæ folio, long-leaved water *hemlock*, and cow-bane. It is the *cicuta* viroſa of Linn. Dr. Withering gives the following deſcription of it: Rundle roundiſh, with many equal ſpokes. Rundlets roundiſh, with many briſtle ſhaped ſpokes. Empalement; general fence none. Partial fence of many leaves; little leaves, briſtly, ſhort. Cup ſcarcely evident. Bloſſom, general, uniform. Florets all fertile. Individuals; petals five, egg-ſhaped, nearly equal; bent inwards. Chives; threads five, hair-like, longer than the petals. Tips ſimple. Pointal; ſeed-bud beneath; ſhafts two, thread-ſhaped, longer than the petals, permanent. Summits roundiſh. Seed veſſels none. Fruit nearly egg-ſhaped; ſlightly furrowed; diviſible into two. Seeds two, ſomewhat egg ſhaped; convex, and ſcored on one ſide; flat on the other. To this he adds, with rundlets oppoſite the leaves. Leaf-ſtalks with bluntborders; leaves with about ſeven pair of little leaves, which are variouſly divided and indented. Petals yellowiſh, pale green. It is met with in ſhallow waters, and flowers in July.

It is one of the moſt active of the vegetable poiſons. Early in the ſpring, when it grows in the water, cows often eat it, and are killed by it; but as the ſummer advances, and its ſmell becomes ſtronger, they carefully avoid it.

Mr. Wilmer obſerves, that the poiſon is of that claſs which produces epileptic ſymptoms. Wepfer notices ſome children, who on taking ſome of the roots of this plant, were ſeized with pains of the precordia, loſs of ſpeech, abolition of the ſenſes, and terrible convulſions; the jaws were locked, blood ſtarted from the ears, the eyes were diſtorted, and ſome of theſe children died in half an hour. Others have obſerved that the old roots are more active and ſudden poiſon than arſenic, or than corroſive ſublimate.

If any of this plant is taken, a quick vomit ſhould be inſtantly given, after which give vinegar in water, to be drank now and then. See VENENUM.

N. B. The phellandrium is often miſtaken for this plant. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii. p. 229, &c. 400, &c. vol. iv. p. 104, &c. Neumann's Chemical Works. Medical Muſæum, vol. iii. p. 566. Withering's Botanic Arrangement, vol. i. p. 177.

CICUTARIA. Wild cicely, or cow-weed. See CHÆROPHYLLUM.

CICUTARIA. Baſtard and water hemlocks. See CICUTA.

CICUTARIA. Several ſpecies of myrrhis.

CIDRA. Cyder.

CIGNUS. A meaſure ſo called, containing about two drams.

CILIA. The extreme parts, or edges of the eye-lids; they are ſemi-circular, and cartilaginous, with hairs fixed in them, which by ſome are called *cilia*. See TARSUS.

CILIARES GLANDULÆ. Ciliary glands. On the inner edge of each eye-lid, in the tarſus, is a row of ſmall holes, which are the excretory ducts of what are called the *ciliary*, or Meibomius's *glands*; theſe *glands* appear of a whitiſh colour, and are ſituated on the internal ſurface of the tarſus; their ducts are ſhort, reſembling white lines running down towards the edge of the eye-lids. Theſe *glands*, like the miliary ones, ſecern an unctuous matter, which prevents the attrition of the eye-lids from their frequent motion, to keep the edges ſoft and free from excoriation, and to prevent the tears from falling down the cheeks.

CILIARE LIGAMENTUM, alſo called proceſſus ciliaris. It is a range of black fibres, circularly diſpoſed, having their riſe in the inner part of the choroides, and terminating in the prominent part of the chryſtalline, which they ſurround, or rather the ſclerotica joins the choroides, and round the edge of the cornea, they adhere firmly; at this circle the choroides ſems to change its colour and texture, appearing as a whitiſh kind of ring; this ring is termed *ligam. ciliares*: here the internal lamina of the choroides dips inwards, to make what are termed the proceſſes, which are little folds of the inner lamella of the choroides. Theſe folds become broader, until they terminate in a broad point in the chryſtalline humour; the whole radiated ring, made by the *ciliary* proceſſes, is ſometimes called corona *ciliaris*.

CILIARES PROCESS. See CILIARE LIGAMENTUM.

CILIARIS MUSCULUS. That part of the muſc. orbicularis palpebrarum, which lies neareſt the cilia, miſtaken by Riolanus, who gave it this name, for a diſtinct muſcle.

CILIUM. See CILIA.

CILLO. One who is affected with a perpetual trembling of the upper eye-lid, from *cillendo*, i. e. motalando, a being in continual motion.

CILLOSIS. A trembling of the upper eye-lid.

CILO. One whoſe forehead is prominent, and temples compreſſed, or who is beetle-browed.

CIMEX. Cimex domeſticus, cimex lectularius. The wall-louſe, or bug. It is of a rhomboidal figure, a dark brown colour, and hath ſix legs. The ſkin is extremely tender, ſo that it burſts with the leaſt compreſſion, and emits an offenſive ſmell. Six or ſeven are given inwardly to cure the ague: they are given juſt before the fit comes on.

CIMOLIA ALBA (Terra); called alſo Creta fullonica, terra candida, terra fullonica, argilla candida, argilla alba, Creta *Cimolia*. Tobacco-pipe-clay.

It obtained its name of *Cimolia* from the iſland *Cimolus*, now called Argentiere. It hath nearly the ſame qualities with the boles, and is often ſubſtituted for them. Its ſoft viſcous quality is its only medicinal one, and in this particular it excels moſt of the earths of its kind.

The *Cimolia Alba* of the ancients ſeems to have been a ſort of looſe marle; probably it was our fuller's earth. In Cornwal there is a ſort of clay called ſteatites, which is uſed as ſoap, as well as the *Cimolia Alba* of the ancients. This ſort, which is called ſteatites, is marked with a ſeal, and called terra ſigillata alba, and ſome call it terra Samia: but it is only a fatter pipe-clay.

CIMOLIA PURPURASCENS, (Terra); called alſo ſmectis, terra ſaponaria Anglica, terra fullonica, and fuller's earth. It has its name ſmectica, from *σμηχω, to abſterge*.

It is a kind of marle rather than a compact earth, and of the ſame qualities as bole. Edwards, in his Foſſilogy, ranks it as a ſpecies of bole.

CINA, i. e. Sem. Santonicæ.

CINA CINÆ. The Peruvian-bark.

CINARA. The artichoke. Alſo called ſcolymus, artiſchocus lævis, cinara hortenſis, carduus ſativus, ſcolymus ſativus, cinara maxima alba, carduus domeſticus capite majore. The ſpecies uſed in medicine is the cynara (Scolymus) foliis ſubſpinoſis pinnatis indiviſiſque, calycinis ſquamis ovatis. Var. γ. Linn.

Boerhaave mentions ſix ſpecies.

Artichokes are ſufficiently known not to require a deſcription; they are natives of the ſouthern parts of Europe, perennial, and cultivated in our kitchen gardens.

The bottoms of the heads, and the fleſhy parts of the ſcales, are eaſily digeſted, but are flatulent, and of but little nouriſhment. The leaves are bitter, and give out their bitterneſs along with the juice, on being bruiſed and preſſed. This juice is powerfully diuretic and uſeful in dropſies; it ſhould be mixed with an equal quantity of white wine, and taken to the quantity of three or four table-ſpoons-full every night and morning.

In England we only eat the heads, but the Germans and French eat the young ſtalks after boiling them.

Cinara ſpinoſa, called alſo carduus eſculentus vel ſpinoſiſſimus elatior, chardone, cactos. The chardon.

As a medicine it is ſimilar to the *artichoke*. It is a culinary plant, which is blanched like celery, and, like that, eaten raw with pepper and ſalt in Italy.

Cinara Sylveſtris, alſo called ſcolymus Sylveſtris, wild *artichoke*, or cardonet. They grow in Italy and France, but is only the flowers that are uſed. See Dale, Ray.

CINARA ACAULIS GUMIFERA, i. e. Carduus pinea.

CINAROIDES. A ſhrub which grows near the Cape of Good Hope, alſo called lipidocarpodendron.

CINCHONA. Peruvian-bark.

CINCLESIS. In Vogal's Noſology, it ſignifies a morbid nictitation, or an involuntary winking.

CINCLISIS, or Cincliſmos, from *κινκλιζω, to ſhake or wag*. Hippocrates means by it a ſmall and repeated motion.

CINERARIA. A ſpecies of ragwort.

CINERARIUM. The aſh-hole of a furnace.

CINERITIUM. A Cupel. See Cupella.

CINERULAM. See Spodium.

CINETUS. The diaphragm.

CINGULARIA CLUBMOS. See Lycopodium.

CINGULUM. A girdle or belt. Dr. Cheyne, in his Eſſay on the Regimen of Diet, &c. ſays, "*Cinéture*, with a broad quilted-belt about the loins, to keep the bowels in their natural ſituations, and the chylous veſſels, in their beſt locality, and in flabby conſtitutions, weak bowels, and atrophies, is of great benefit."

CINGULUM MERCURIALE. A mercurial girdle, called alſo *cingulum* ſapientiæ & *cingulum* ſtultitiæ. It was an invention of Rulandus's; different directions are given for making it, but the following is one of the neateſt.

Take three drams of quickſilver; ſhake it with two ounces of lemon juice, until the globules diſappear; then ſeparate the juice, and mix with the extinguiſhed quickſilver, half the white of an egg; gum-dragon finely powdered a ſcruple; and ſpread the whole on a belt of flannel.

CINGULUM SANCTI JOHANNIS. Mugwort.

CINGULUM SAPIENTIÆ, i. e. Cingulum Mercuriale.

CINGULUM STULTITIÆ. So Juncker calls the quickſilver-girdle.

CINABARINUM BALSAMUM. The ſimple balſam of ſulphur is a proper ſubſtitute, and a better medicine, as a pectoral particularly.

CINNABARIS. Cinnabar. Alſo called *cinnab.* nativ. purum minium, minium Græcorum.

Native *cinnabar*, a ponderous, red, ſulphurous ore of mercury. It is found in Spain, Hungary, Eaſt-Indies, &c. The fineſt is brought from the Eaſt-Indies. Mr. Edwards, in his Elements of Foſſilogy, places it as a ſpecies of quickſilver ſtone, in the order of cryptometalline ſtones. See Cryptometallines.

Sometimes it is brought to us in large irregular maſſes, but ſometimes it is in ſmaller roundiſh ones, ſmooth without, and ſtriated within. It is of a deep red colour throughout.

This ore conſiſts of ſulphur and quickſilver, in the proportion of from four to ſeven parts mercury to one of ſulphur; the finer the colour, the more mercury it contains: with theſe conſtituents there is generally much earthy matter, from which it is eaſily ſublimed. If this earth be of the calcareous kind, iron-filings, or ſuch ſubſtances as abſorb mercury more than ſulphur does, may be added; ſome of the ſulphur will be detained by them. One part lime, &c. one part iron-filings, is uſually ſufficient for extricating all the mercury from four parts of *cinnabar*; or the ſulphur is eaſily ſeparated by boiling the *cinnabar* in a lixivium of wood aſhes, or rather of decrepitated nitre, and then precipitating it with vinegar.

The heterogeniety of the native *cinnabar* renders it leſs fit for uſe than the artificial. See Dict. of Chemiſtry, Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

Cinnabar is a name now confined to the native and factitious ſorts; but formerly it was applied to dragon's-blood, to madder root, to ceruſs calcined to redneſs, and to ſome other articles.

CINNABARIA ANTIMONII. See Antimonium.

Cinnabaris *Factitia*. *Artificial* Cinnabar.

Take of purified quickſilver twenty-five ounces; of pure ſulphur ſeven ounces. Stir the quickſilver into the ſulphur melted; and if the mixture takes fire, it is to be extinguiſhed by covering the veſſel. Then let the matter be reduced to powder and ſublimed.

The mercury in the *cinnabars* is too much reſtrained by the ſulphur to be of uſe as an internal medicine. Their chief uſe is for fumigating venereal ulcers with; but Ethiop's mineral may at any time be ſubſtituted for them.

If it is adulterated with red lead, it may be diſcovered by putting a little on a hot iron; for thus the *cinnabar* is all evaporated, and the lead remains behind.

This preparation is uſed by painters under the name of vermillion, and to improve the colour, the leſs ſulphur is uſed the better; and if a little arſenic be added in the ſublimation, though the preparation is thereby ſpoiled as a medicine, it is more perfect as a pigment.

An oval earthen jar is the beſt ſubliming veſſel. The great art of making this *cinnabar* is firſt to manage the fire, ſo as continually to keep the matter ſubliming, yet not ſo as for it to force its way through the mouth of the veſſel, which is covered with an iron plate. Secondly, to put in but a little at a time.

CINNABARIS GRÆCORUM, i. e. Sanguis draconis.

CINÆ, (Sem.) i. e. Sem ſantonicum.

CINNAMOMUM, alſo called cinnamum, canella, canella zeylanica, laurus zeylanica, caſſia cinnamomea, canella cuurdo, kurundu, cinnamon.

It is the bark of a tree of the bay kind, growing in the iſland of Ceylon, freed from the outer green or greyiſh part, and cut into long ſlices, which curl up in drying into quills or canes, the form in which it is brought to us; very thin, light, of a reddiſh yellow, or pale ruſty iron colour, ſomewhat tough in breaking, and of a fibrous texture. The tree is the laurus cinnamomum, or laurus fol. trinerviis ovato-oblongis, nervis verſus apicem evaneſcentibus, floribus parvis albis. Linn. The *cinnamon*-tree.

It is often mixed with the caſſia bark, which is thus diſtinguiſhed; the caſſia hath a cloſe ſmooth ſurface, which it ſhews on being broken, and, when chewed, it is ſlimy; it is alſo of a dark brown colour, whereas the *cinnamon* is rougher to the ſight and taſte, having an aſtringency and brittleneſs in chewing, and is of a paler brown colour.

It is one of the moſt grateful aromatics, of a fragrant ſmell, moderately pungent, but not fiery, ſweetiſh to the taſte, and aſtringent. The fine flavour is ſaid to reſide in the thin pellicle which lines the interior ſurface of the bark, and which abounds with veſicles of eſſential oil; the reſt of the bark, while freſh, being merely aſtringent, receiving its flavour from the inner pellicle; accordingly the thineſt pieces are the moſt cordial, and the thicker moſt aſtringent.

Infuſed in boiling water in a cloſe veſſel it gives out the greateſt part of its virtue. The watery decoction, after diſtillation, yields, on being inſpiſſated, a mild aſtringent maſs, but without the flavour of the *cinnamon*.

Rectified and proof ſpirits extract its virtues better than water, and that without heat; but in diſtillation they carry over very little of the flavour.

An extract made with rectified ſpirit of wine has all the virtue of the ſpice: *cinnamon* affords about 1-16th of its weight of extract.

The London College directs the following waters, viz.

Aqua Cinnamomi *ſimplex*. *Simple* Cinnamon *Water*.

Take of *cinnamon* one pound; of water as much as is ſufficient to prevent burning. Diſtil off a gallon. It is alſo called aq. *cinnam.* tenuis. As the oil of *cinnamon* is very heavy, in time it falls to the bottom; and as this water loſes its milky appearance, it loſes its aromatic and cordial quality; to prevent which, ſome let it run upon ſugar, which keeps the oil divided and ſuſpended.

Aqua Cinnamomi *Spirituoſa*. *Spirituous* Cinnamon *Water*.

Take of *cinnamon* a pound; of proof ſpirit a gallon; of water as much as is ſufficient to prevent burning. Diſtil a gallon. In diſtilling with proof ſpirit, the ſpirit which ariſes firſt is almoſt flavourleſs; the water which ariſes after bringing the oil with it, and this oil being diſſolved by the ſpirit, is the reaſon why it is ſo limpid. As the oil of *cinnamon* is the heavieſt of almoſt any vegetable oil, therefore, when *cinnamon* water is diſtilled, uſe a low flattiſh ſtill, and a quick equal fire. As very little of the oil riſes with the ſpirit, the beſt method is firſt to diſtil the *cinnamon* with water only, and then to add a proper quantity of rectified ſpirit of wine.

The aromatic principle in *cinnamon* reſides in the eſſential oil, which riſes when diſtilled with water; it riſes ſlow and difficultly, rendering the liquor rather milky. When a large quantity is diſtilled at once, a ſmall portion of the oil is found ſunk to the bottom of the receiver. To obtain this oil more eaſily and plentifully, let the water after it is diſtilled ſtand in a cold place. A pound of good *cinnamon* affords a dram or a dram and a half of this oil, which, if expoſed to the air, loſes its virtue without any ſenſible loſs of its weight; ſo that it is not the oil that is efficacious, but the ſpirit in the oil. The oil of caſſia bark is ſubſtituted for the oil of *cinnamon*; however, as they are the ſame in their medicinal virtues, no objections can be reaſonably made. The ol. canel. alb. is alſo mixed with the ol. *cinnam.* ſo is the ol. caryoph.

Oil of *cinnamon* is one of the moſt immediate and moſt powerful cordials; a drop or two may be given in a draught mixed up with a little ſugar or mucilage of gum arabic.

Cinnamon, when freſh, affords much more oil than what is abovementioned; but the Dutch extract great part of it before they ſell it, ſo that the beſt method is to buy it of them. In proportion as the oil is ſeparated, the *cinnamon* loſes its pungency. It is ſaid that the Dutch obtain above an ounce of eſſential oil from every pound. If this oil is genuine, and you dip a pen-knife point into it, it will not flame at a candle, but ſmoak; if it ſoon flames, it contains the rectified ſpirit of wine.

From the fruit of the *cinnamon-tree* a white ſebaceous matter, reſembling the ol. N. M. per expreſſ. is obtained by coction or by expreſſion. It is white, and is called cera *cinnamomi*.

The London College directs the following tincture:

Tincture of Cinnamon.

Take of *cinnamon* an ounce and a half; of proof ſpirit a pint. Digeſt without heat, and ſtrain the ſpirit off. It contains all the cordial and reſtringent qualities of the *cinnamon* itſelf: if it is continued for ſome time daily, it warms and ſtrengthens the ſtomach.

Caſp. Neumann, in his Prælect. Chym. ſays, that a pound of *cinnamon* contains near three-fourths of its quantity of an indiſſoluble earth, two ounces of a reſinous ſubſtance, an ounce and a half of gummy ſubſtance, and about two ſcruples and a half of eſſential oil. See Neumann's Chem. Works, and Lewis's Mat. Med.

CINNAM. ALBUM, i. e. Canella alba.

CINNAM. CRASSIORE CORT. VULG. i. e. Malabathrum.

CINNAM. MAGELLANNICUM, i. e. Cort. Winteranus.

CINAM. MALAB. See FOLIUM & CANEL. ALB.

CINNAM. SAPOREM, i. e. Canella alba.

CINNAM. SPURIUM, i. e. Cort. caryophyllat.

CINNERES RUSSICA. Pot-aſh.

CINNIOGLOTTUS CINNATUS. Paracelſus coined theſe words to expreſs the total deſtruction and corruption of mineral bodies.

CINNUM, or Cinnus. The ſame as cyceon.

CINZILLA. So Paracelſus calls the diſorder which others call zona.

CION, κιων. A name which Aretæus gives the uvula. Alſo the name of a diſeaſe, which is a ſwelling or relaxation of the uvula. Hippocrates gives this name to a carunculous excreſcence in the pudendum muliebre.

CIONIA. In Dioſcorides it is the middle part of a whelk or purple fiſh, near the centre of the ſtriæ, which being calcined, is more cauſtic than the other parts.

CIONIS. A painful thickneſs of the uvula.

CIPOREMA. A ſpecies of garlic growing in Braſil, without leaves. Raii Ind.

CIRCÆA, from Circe, the famous inchantreſs. Its leaves reſemble thoſe of the garden nightſhade: the flowers are ſmall and black; the ſeeds are like thoſe of the millet; they are incloſed in a ſort of corniculated capſule; the roots are three or four ſpans long, white, ſcented, and heating. It grows on rocky ground, where it is expoſed to the ſun.

Boerhaave ſays that there are two ſpecies, viz.

Circæ lutetana, ocymaſtrum verrucarium, or inchanter's nightſhade.

Circæ minima, the ſmalleſt inchanter's nightſhade.

The virtues of the firſt ſpecies reſemble the garden nightſhade.

CIRCE. The daughter of Œtas. She practiſed ſome branches of medicine. See CHIRON.

CIRCOCELE. A circocele, from κιρσος, *varix*, and κηλη, *a tumour*. See CIRSOCELE.

CIRCULATIO. Circulation. For what is underſtood by it in chemiſtry, ſee CIRCULATION and DIGESTIO.

In anatomy it is the *circulation* of any fluid through the veſſels deſtined for its conveyance. But properly *circulation* is only applied to the blood, becauſe it moves from the heart to return to it again; but the other fluids do not return to where they firſt were ſeparated.

Dr. Hunter ſays that there are only three men who have any claim to the diſcovery of the *circulation*, viz. Servetus, Seſalpinus, and Harvey.

Servetus diſcovered the blood going from the right ventricle, by the pulmonary artery, to the lungs, where it was mixt with the inſpiratory air, and returned by the veins to the left auricle, and ſo into the aorta. He traced the

the *circulation* through the lungs; but, like the old anatomiſts, he attributed the functions of the arteries to the veins.

Selaſpinus ſays that the blood cannot be returned to the heart by the arteries of the valves, but by the veins, where the paſſage is open; but his ideas were confuſed and neglected. He obſerves that the arteries and veins come from the heart. He improves greatly upon Columbus, who, in 1559, deſcribed the *circulation* through the heart and lungs. Thus improving on Servetus, he ſhewed the uſe of the valves; but ſtill abides in the track of the old anatomiſts. He does not carry the *circulation* from the aorta to the vena cava; but he ſays the blood cannot return by the arteries, and that it paſſes thro' the veins. He imagines that the blood is in the arteries whilſt we are awake, and being received into the veins by their anaſtomoſing with the arteries, is returned to the heart whilſt we are aſleep. Here is the *circulation* completed ſo far as that one could not well read it without being ſtruck with the notion, and almoſt convinced of the truth of it. But his account is ſo jumbled with the notions of the ancients, and in other parts of his works he ſpeaks ſo contrary to this, that one would really imagine he did not thoroughly underſtand what he advanced there.

Harvey led to the diſcovery in full, by a Treatiſe on the Valves of the Veins, in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century. See ARTERIA. When he firſt publiſhed his Hiſtory of the *Circulation*, the novelty and the merit of the thing drew upon him the envy of the moſt learned men in Europe, who accordingly oppoſed him; but afterwards, when they could not argue againſt truth and conviction, they ſtrove to rob him of the diſcovery, alledging that Hippocrates was acquainted with it; but this is out of the queſtion.

The blood is conveyed from the left ventricle of the heart by the aorta and its branches to the moſt minute and the moſt remote parts of the body, and then paſſing from the extremities of the ſmalleſt arteries into the naſcent or incipient veins, through them paſſes into their larger branches, and ſo on into the right auricle of the heart, thence into the right ventricle, from whence it is forced (with the freſh ſupplies that it receives from the chyle in paſſing through the ſubclavian vein) into the pulmonary artery, and after *circulating* through, and being acted upon by the lungs in its paſſage through them, is returned by the pulmonary vein into the left auricle, and thence into the left ventricle, and ſo on the ſame round, until death concludes the progreſs.

Dr. Shebbeare obſerves, in his Theory and Practice of Phyſic, that during the dilatation of the heart, when the blood enters the ventricles, the coronary arteries receive that fluid, contrary to all the other arteries of the body, and thus ſupply the body of the heart with the blood; and perhaps this blood is partly the cauſe of the vital heat being attracted ſtronger into the heart by the nerves at that time than at any other; though there is another reaſon for its paſſing at this time rather than at any other, viz. the paſſage of the blood is freer through the arteries during the heart's inflation than at the contraction, becauſe thoſe veſſels then approach nearer the direction of a ſtraight line. That the heart is not the one and ſole cauſe of *circulation* appears from that the arteries all perform their diaſtole at the ſame inſtant, in healthy people. If the heart's propelling the blood was the cauſe of the *circulation*, the pulſation of the artery would be an undulation, and in different parts it would be perceived at different times, as the impreſs at different diſtances of the artery from the heart would be in ſucceſſion. It ſhould be remembered that fire acts momentaneouſly in all the diſtances in which it hitherto hath been tried.

That ſome other power than the velocity of the blood dilates the capillary arteries to give paſſage to the globules, ſeems evident alſo from this: Dr. Hales poured water into the aorta and other arteries of dogs; and though water is ſo much a more limpid fluid than blood, and its force and velocity equal to that given to the blood by the heart, yet it never paſſed by the anaſtomoſes of the arteries and veins, but through the ſides of the arteries; and this ſeems to prove that the arteries are totally ſtopped by the contraction of their fibres, after the vital fire no longer continues to act, and that the force of the heart hath not a power equal to what is required to dilate them.

The cauſe of the great velocity of the blood's motion is diſtributed to the whole arterial tube, and the heart, inſtead of moving a weight equal to more than that of the blood, in this way, impels no more than about two ounces, the quantity ſuppoſed to be contained by the ventricle in each diaſtole. See ANIMALIS MOTUS, in the preceding ſheets; Haller's Phyſiology, ſect. iv. Berdoe on the Nature and *Circulation* of the Blood.

The *circulation* of the blood in a fœtus hath ſome peculiarities different from what is obſerved in adults. 1ſt, The blood does not all paſs through the lungs; it is a very ſmall part of it only that paſſes through them each time that it returns to the heart. 2dly, The blood brought by the two venæ cavæ into the right auricle of the heart, paſſes chiefly into the right ventricle, but not entirely; for ſome portion goes immediately through the foramen ovale into the left auricle, and eſpecially that brought up by the cava inferior. Suppoſe then two thirds of the blood got into the right ventricle, in order to paſs along the pulmonary artery, yet all the blood that flows into it in the fœtus will not *circulate* through the lungs, for a conſiderable part muſt neceſſarily paſs by the ductus arterioſus, directly to the aorta, before it hath arrived at the lungs, ſo that probably not above one third of the blood *circulates* through the lungs every time it is brought back to the heart. That blood which was thrown out directly from the right to the left auricle, goes thence to the left ventricle, and ſo on to the aorta, without touching at either the right ventricle or pulmonary artery, and conſequently not coming to the lungs. After the child is born, and a little grown up, the foramen ovale becomes cloſed up in moſt ſubjects, though in ſome inſtances it is found to continue more or leſs open during the whole life of the perſon.

CIRCULATOR. A mountebank.

CIRCULATORIUM. A circulatory glaſs. It is a veſſel in which the contained liquor, when put over the fire, performs certain gyrations, and circulates by aſcending and deſcending in ſuch a manner that the more volatile parts of the liquor raiſed by the fire, not finding a paſſage, may always fall back again. Thus chemical *circulation* is only a ſpecies of digeſtion. Repeated diſtillation anſwers the end of *circulation*. See DIGESTIO.

CIRCULATUM. According to Boerhaave the *circulatum* of Paracelſus was a liquor prepared from ſea-ſalt. Paracelſus obtained from this ſalt a perpetual oil, which he called *circulatum* minus, *circulatus* ſal minor, ens primum ſalium, oleum ſalis, liquor ſalis, aqua ſalis. He had alſo a *circulatum* majus, which he called alſo materia mercurii ſalis, and ignis vivens. Different writers aſſert variouſly concerning theſe *circulatums*; and thoſe whoſe curioſity leads to an enquiry into the proceſs for obtaining them, may ſee Barchuſen, in his Pyroſophia-Maets, and the Collectanea Chym. Leydenſ. and Blancard's Lexicon Renovatum.

CIRCULATUS SAL MINOR. See CIRCULATUM.

CIRCULUS. A circle. Beſides its proper ſignification it is applied to parts of the body; as by Hippocrates to the balls of the cheeks, the orbs of the eyes, or the cavities which ſurround the eyes, &c. *Circulus* is alſo the name of an iron inſtrument uſed by the chemiſts for cutting off a neck of glaſs: the *circulus* is heated, then preſſed cloſe to the glaſs where it is to be divided, and when the glaſs is hot a blaſt of cold air, or a few drops of water, divides it if applied thereto: it is alſo called abbreviatorium.

The *circulus* is reckoned among ſurgical inſtruments, figures of which may be ſeen in Scultetus's Armamentarium Chirurgicum, tab. xxii. fig. 6, 7. tab. xliii. fig. 5.

CIRCULUS QUADRUPLEX. See CIRCUS QUADRUPLEX.

CIRCULUS ARTERIOSUS IRIDIS. It is compoſed of two arteries going round the baſis of the iris. From the arteries of the external lamina are ſent ſeveral ramifications to the circumference of the iris, where they produce a vaſcular circle, called *circulus* arterioſus. From this vaſcular circle paſs off many ſmaller veſſels, which form themſelves into arches, and from theſe arches ſtill finer veſſels are ſent, which probably ſecrete the aqueous humour.

CIRCUMCALUALIS. A name of the tunica conjunctiva oculi.

CIRCUMCISIO. Circumciſion. Albucaſis deſcribes

ſeveral

ſeveral methods of performing this operation; but the beſt is to ſtretch the prepuce over the glans, and make a ligature about it, then with a razor cut off all that extends farther. In warm countries this operation ſeems to be convenient in point of cleanlineſs; for the glandulæ odoriferæ lying under the prepuce, corrupt and become acrid, corrode the glans, inflame both it and the prepuce; and thus ſometimes health as well as neatneſs may require it.

CIRCUMFLEXUS PALATI. It riſes from the ſpinous proceſs of the ſphenoid bone, behind the foramen ovale, which tranſmits the third branch of the fifth pair of nerves, from the Euſtachian tube, not far from its oſſeous part; it then runs down along the pterygoides, internus, paſſes over the hook of the internal plate of the pterygoid proceſs by a round tendon, which ſoon ſpreads into a broad membrane. It is inſerted into the velum pendulum palati, and the ſemilunar edge of the os palati, and extends as far as the ſuture which joins the two bones. Generally ſome of its poſterior fibres join with the conſtrictorpharyngis ſuperior, and palato-pharyngæus. Its uſe is to ſtretch the velum, to draw it downwards, and to a ſide towards the hook. It has little effect upon the tube, being chiefly connected to its oſſeous part. Innes.

CIRCUMGYRATIO. Circumgyration. A turning of the limb round about in its ſocket.

CIRCUMLITIO. In general, is any medicine applied by way of unction, or as a litus; but in a particular manner it is appropriated to ophthalmic medicines, with which the eye-lids are anointed.

CIRCUMOSSALLIS. A name of the tunica conjunctiva oculi. Le Dran calls the periofteum thus.

CIRCUMSTANTIA. Circumſtances. In medicine they are whatever are not eſſentially neceſſary connected with the principal indicant. Of this kind, in what are commonly called res naturales, are the condition of the patient and the part affected; the ſtrength, age, ſex, cuſtom, and way of life. In the preternaturals, are the times of diſeaſes, paroxyſm, number and ſymptoms. In the non-naturals, are their air and ſoil. Theſe regulate the conduct of a phyſician.

CIRCUS QUADRUPLEX. The four-fold circle. It is a kind of bandage, called alſo plinthius laqueus. See Galen de Faſciis.

CIRRI. The little fibres on the roots of plants are thus called. Alſo the ſame with cerræ, which ſee. In Pliny they ſignify the four leſſer claws of the polypous fiſh.

CIRSIUM. A kind of thiſtle, of which Boerhaave enumerates nine ſpecies. Their leaves are covered with ſhort ſoft prickles.

CIRSIUM ARVENSE. Common way-thiſtle.

CIRSOCELE, from κιρσος, a *varix*, and κηλη, a *tumour*. It is alſo called varicocele, circocele, ramix varicoſus, and hernia varicoſa.

This diſorder conſiſts of a varicous ſtate of the ſpermatic veſſels. Any large tumour in the abdomen, or external force preſſing the veins, or a large tumour of the ſcrotum ſtretching the veſſels, or impeding the return of the blood, may occaſion the veins of the ſcrotum, or the ſpermatic veins, to be dilated with blood, in which caſe they are alſo here and there diverſified with large and unequal knots, and the teſticles hang lower than in their natural ſtate. But moſtly this diſorder depends on a relaxed ſtate of the veins themſelves.

Sometimes young men of a ſalacious turn, abounding with ſeminal matter, are ſubject to this diſorder, moſtly in the ſcrotum. However, when neither pain nor other troubleſome ſymptoms attend, no regard need be had to the caſe, except it be to apply to matrimony for the cure.

As this diſorder is ſymptomatical, to remove the circumſtances on which it depends, will be its cure. It ſometimes depends on the preſſure of an hernial truſs upon the ſpermatic proceſs; and then an alteration in the bandage, will probably anſwer the purpoſe. If tumours of a ſchirrous kind are the cauſe, and they are ſo ſituated as to admit of extirpation, let them be removed. However, when the veins have been long diſtended, ſo that their coats are become very weak, inciſions may be made lengthways into them, after which dreſſing as in a common wound, a cicatrix will be formed, and the return of the complaint prevented. Before inciſions are made in the veins, it will be proper to try a ſuſpenſory bandage, the cold bath, the application of a ſolution of alum, or other aſtringents. Before opening the knot in theſe veins it will be proper to try evacuants, lying in an horizontal poſture, by which the courſe of the returning blood is facilitated; the ſcrotum and its contents ſhould be ſupported by a proper bandage, and ſtrengthening embrocations may be applied to the part affected. See Heiſter's Surgery, and Bell's Syſtem of Surgery, vol. i. p. 493.

CIRSOIDES. It is an epithet in Rufus Epheſius for the upper part of the brain. He alſo applies this name to two of the four ſeminal veſſels.

CIRSOS, κιρσος. A *varix*.

CISSA. A depraved appetite. See MALACIA.

CISSAMPELOS. An epithet in Galen and P. Ægineta, for the helxine.

CISSAMPELO RAMOSO DI CANDIA, i. e. Convolvulus in canus foliis Piloſellæ.

CISSANTHEMOS. A name in Dioſcorides for one of the two ſpecies of cyclamen.

CISSARUS, i. e. Ciſtus.

CISSINUM. The name of a plaſter mentioned by P Ægineta

CIST, or RIST. A meaſure of wine containing about four pints.

CISTERNA. A ciſtern. A name of the fourth ventricle of the brain, and of the concourſe of the lacteal veſſels in the breaſts of women who give ſuck.

CISTHORUS, i. e. Ciſtus.

CISTUS, κιστος. The *ciſtus* or *rock-roſe*. It is a ſhrub which grows in ſtony places: it is full of branches and leaves, but not tall: the leaves are round, black, and hairy. The leaves of the male *ciſtus* reſemble thoſe of the pomegranate-tree, but thoſe of the female are white. See LADANUM. Boerhaave mentions ſeventeen ſpecies.

CISTUS. A name of a ſpecies of chamæciſtus.

CISTUS HUMILIS. A name of the Parnaſſia.

CISTUS LADANIFERA. See LADANUM.

CITHARUS. According to Heſychius it ſignifies the breaſt, the ſide, and a ſpecies of fiſh.

CITRA INDIS LIGNUM. A ſort of reddiſh ſweet-ſcented wood, of an aromatic taſte, growing in the Eaſt-Indies. Raii Hiſt.

CITRAGO. Baum. Alſo a name for the Moldavica betonicæ flore albo.

CITRARIA. Baum.

CITREUM, called alſo malum citreum, malus medica, malus citria, citreum vulgare, mala Aſſyria. The *citron tree*.

It was firſt brought from Aſſyria and Media into Greece, and thence into the ſouthern parts of Europe, where it thrives and produces perfect fruit, which is larger and leſs ſucculent than the lemon; but in all other reſpects the *citron* and lemon trees agree.

As to its medicinal qualities, the chief difference from thoſe of the lemon are, that the *citron* juice is leſs acid, the yellow rind is hotter, bitteriſh, and its flavour more volatile, even ſo that it riſes with rectified ſpirit of wine.

Oils obtained from the freſh peels of the more odoriferous kinds, by rolling the fruit on a plane ſtuck full of points, are brought from Italy, and uſed as perfumes; theſe are more grateful, and leſs pungent, than ſuch as are drawn by diſtillation with water. The oil prepared either of theſe ways, is ſubject to loſe its flavour, and become thick and reſinous in keeping; when diſtilled with rectified ſpirit of wine, and afterwards ſeparated from the ſpirit by dilution with water, it retains much longer its odour, fluidity, and limpidneſs. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

CITRONELLE. So the French name the liquor which we call Barbadoes water. Take the dry yellow rind of *citrons* ℔ iii. of French brandy ℔ vi. infuſe cold for a month, then diſtil in B. M. in a retort, with a receiver luted to it. When the ſtrongeſt of the ſpirit is drawn off, add to the remainder of the pulps of *citrons*; let them macerate five or ſix days; then diſtil, and add what comes over to the former ſtrong ſpirit; add to this mixture as much ſugar and orange flower water as is needful to render it agreeable.

CITRINATIO. Complete digeſtion; and, according to Rulandus and Johnſon, it ſignifies reſurrection.

CITRINULA, i. e. Flammula or ſpear-wort.

CITRINULUS. A ſtone between a cryſtal and a beryl, called by Paracelſus, ſaxifragus. In Rulandus it is a pale cryſtal.

CITRONELLE. See CITREUM.

CITRONES. A term of Paracelſus's, which he no where explains.

CITRULLUS, called alſo anguria, tetranguria; the *water-melon* or *citrul*. It is the cucurbita citrullus. Linn. It is a kind of gourd. The Greeks call it ἀγγάριον, from ἄγγος, which ſignifies any veſſel, or receptacle. This name was probably given, becauſe when the pulp was taken out, a veſſel may be made of the ſhell for holding any liquor. The branches run along the ground; the fruit is large, ſometimes as big as a man's two fiſts, and at others as big as a man's head; the rind is ſmooth, of a green colour, variegated with ſpecks of a paler green, though in this it is not always the ſame. The pulp is grateful to the taſte; the ſeeds are oblong, broad, rhomboidal, and blackiſh. The ſeeds only are uſed in medicine; they are one of the four greater cold ſeeds.

CITRUM. The citron. The citrus medica. Linn.

CITTA. The diſeaſe called pica. An unnatural longing for eatables.

CIVETA, or CIVETTA. See ZIBETHUM.

CLÆR. A chemical term for the bone-flour, which is prepared from the bones of the fore part of the cranium of a calf, depurated from the fat by boiling, then calcined to whiteneſs, and levigated finely, then moiſtened with water, and calcined again in an earthen pot cloſed, and after cooling, reduced again to a ſubtil powder, which is ſprinkled through a ſieve upon earthen veſſels, to prevent their contracting chinks.

CLAKIS. A name for barnacles.

CLAMOR. A ſolicitous exaltation of the voice.

CLANDESTINA. The name of a plant deſcribed by Tournefort in his Inſt. but to which no medical virtues are aſcribed.

CLANGOR, or the Greeks write Clange, κλαγγὴ. It is properly the cry of cranes, geeſe, &c. A ſhrill noiſe. Clangoſum de voce dicitur, quæ à gravi tono inchoata in acutum definit. See Ainſworth's Lat. Dict.

CLARETA. Claret. See CLARETUM.

CLARETA. The white of an egg.

CLARETUM. Claret. By this name is generally underſtood an infuſion of aromatic powders in wine, which is afterwards edulcorated with ſugar and honey. This ſort of liquor is alſo called vinum Hippocraticum, and by the Germans Hippocras; becauſe when the infuſion is finiſhed, it is ſtrained through Hippocrates's ſieve. It is prepared of various ingredients, according to the intentions to be anſwered.

Extemporaneous clarets are made by pouring a ſmall quantity of ſome tincture, according to the intention, made with ſpirit of wine, which ſome keep under the name of tincture of claret.

CLARIFICATIO. Clarification. It is to render any fluid more tranſparent and free from fæces. See DEPURATIO.

CLARUM. Any thing made of cryſtal.

CLASIS. A fracture, from κλάω.

CLASMA. A fracture, from κλάω, *to break*.

CLAUDIACON. The name of a collyrium in P. Ægineta.

CLAUDICATIO. Staggering, halting, or limping, as when one leg is ſhorter than the other.

CLAUSTRUM GUTTURIS. The paſſage to the throat, which lies immediately under the root of the tongue and tonſils.

CLAUSTRUM VIRGINITATIS. The hymen.

CLAUSURA. An imperforation of any canal or cavity in the body. Thus,

CLAUSURA UTERI, is a preternatural imperforation of the uterus.

CLAUSURA TUBARUM FALLOPIANARUM. A morbid imperforation of the Fallopian tubes, mentioned by Ruyſch as one cauſe of infecundity.

CLAVARIA ALBA & MILITARIS. Two ſorts of funguſes, but of no medical virtue.

CLAVATA. The name of a future.

CLAVATIO, i. e. Gomphoſis.

CLAVELLATI CINERES, alſo called alumen catinum, ſoda, ſal alkali fixum, cineres Ruſſica. Pot-aſh, and pearl-aſh.

The ancients called the aſhes of burnt wood, lix; the moderns call them *cineres clavellati*, from clavæ, or clavi, billets, into which the woods were cleft. The Engliſh name pot-aſh is from the pots in which the lixivium was boiled.

Pot-aſhes are made in moſt countries that abound with the hard kind of wood; as Scotland, Ireland, Sweden, Pruſſia, Poland, Hungary, Ruſſia, and many parts of North America, from which laſt the beſt is brought to us.

It is produced from the aſhes of vegetable ſubſtances, by diſſolving their ſalt in water, decanting the clear ſolution from the aſhes which ſubſide, and then evaporating the clear liquor to dryneſs.

Oak, aſh, and other trees that ſhed their leaves in autumn, are proper, and the ſmaller ſhrubs, &c. commonly called underwood; but evergreens, as the pine, cypreſs, &c. yield very little ſalt. Fearn, bean-ſtraw, and moſt annual plants, afford a large quantity of ſalt; dead trees are ſeldom good, but old hollow trees are the beſt.

The timber may be cut down at any ſeaſon of the year, but ſhould be burnt as ſoon as poſſible after. Pieces of eight or ten feet long may be laid in piles, filling the interſtices with the chips and ſmaller wood; then the fire ſhould be kindled at both ends of the pile. As ſoon as the pile is burnt down, rake ſuch aſhes as lie thin on the outſide, a little in towards the middle; add no freſh fuel, nor throw on any of the brands. The aſhes muſt lay without being ſtirred, till you can bear your hand in them, and no longer; then place them in the ſhade on a plank floor; there wet them, until they are brought near to the conſiſtence of mortar in the firſt mixture of lime and ſand, or ſo as to ſtick together, and ram them in a heap, in which they muſt continue not leſs than twenty days, but may continue many months. This is called wood-aſh.

Kilns are alſo made for the more advantageous burning of wood into aſhes.

Wood-aſhes, put into veſſels with falſe latticed bottoms, covered with clean ſtraw, are to be firmly preſſed together; then cover their ſurface four or five inches deep with ſoft water, and as it ſubſides, add more; place a receiver underneath to receive the ſolution, and continue adding water until the ley is very weak; paſs this ley through a freſh parcel of aſhes, until it is ſtrong enough, which is when it weighs eighteen carats, or more. This lye muſt be conveyed, as it is wanted, into a pan, to be evaporated to dryneſs, and the produce is called pot-aſh.

If the lye of wood aſhes, made ſtrong enough to bear an egg, is boiled briſkly, until a pellicle appears on the ſurface, then gently boiled until it thickens, then continued juſt bubbling until it is very hard; after which taken out in pieces, which muſt be cut out with a cold chiſſel, and ſpread on the floor of a furnace, the middle door of which is to be kept open, and the flues ſtopped up ſo as to make a gentle fire at firſt, and to keep the ſalt juſt covered with the flame: if it is thus continued until it begins to look fair, and incline to look red, then kept red hot, and turned now and then, until it is of a pearl colour, it is called pearl-aſh. When this pearl-aſh is cold enough to handle, put that which is imperfectly calcined, with ſuch as falls into powder, back into a caldron with freſh lye. From contact with ſome inflammable matter it hath ſometimes a blue colour, but it ſhould be of a pearl colour.

Pot-aſh is ſaid to be a creature of the fire. In ſome parts of Germany it is prepared from the ſame wood of which charcoal is made. A number of tubes made of copper, or of iron, are ſo diſpoſed in the pile of wood intended to be burnt into charcoal, that the water, acid, and oil, which are obtained in ordinary diſtillations, ſhall, when ſeparated from the wood by fire, paſs through theſe tubes into buckets placed to receive them. The oil is then to be ſeparated from the acid liquor, which is then to be boiled in copper or iron veſſels, and the reſiduum dried and calcined. By this calcination, the acid ſalt is alkalized. This method, and the preparation of ſalt of tartar by calcining tartar, ſhews that vegetable alkali is produced by converſion of an acid to an alkali; but the general practice wherever *pot-aſh* is made, is to burn wood, lixivate the aſhes, evaporate the ley, and calcine the produce. Sometimes in calcining, too much heat being admitted, ſome part of the *pot-aſh* will be fuſed, and then it appears

of a blue colour, but this circumſtance ſhould be guarded againſt.

Pearl-aſh is entirely ſoluble in water, and is, in all reſpects, the ſame as the fixed ALKALINE SALT, which ſee.

Pot-aſh, if good, is equal to pearl-*aſh* in every conſideration, particularly if prepared according to Mr. Stevens's method.

The Ruſſia *pot-aſh* contains a large portion of quicklime.

Pot-aſh often, though carefully prepared, contains ſome portion of neutral ſalt, which is either a vitriolated tartar, or ſea ſalt. It alſo contains ſome earth. The earth is ſeparable by diſſolving the ſalt in water. The neutral ſalt diſſolves with difficulty, and ſo may eaſily be ſeparated by ſolution in cold water, which readily diſſolves the alkaline ſalt, but leaves the neutral unaffected; or the *pot-aſh* may be left to deliquiate in the air, and thus its ſeparation will be perfect, for no part of the neutral ſalt will be thus diſſolved. The ſea ſalt diſcovers itſelf by decripitating, if laid on red hot iron; and is ſeparated by diſſolving one part of *pot-aſh* in two parts of water, for in this the ſea ſalt will not diſſolve.

Pot-aſh is met with of various colours; but when good, if it is expoſed to the air, it firſt grows clammy, then runs to an oily liquid, which, when dried, leaves an impalpable powder of a whitiſh colour. It hath but little ſmell, and is of a quick, pungent, urinous taſte; does not crumble in ſolution, but diſſolves gradually; it ferments, but does not foam, with acid; and it unites with oil.

As a medicine, the virtue of the alkaline ſalt of *pot-aſh* are the ſame as thoſe of any other vegetable fixed alkaline ſalt.

See Neuman's Chem. Works; Dict. of Chemiſtry, 4to. and ſee Mr. Stevens's Plan for making *Pot-aſh*.

CLAVI SILIGINIS. Grains of rye that are diſeaſed, and grow like a horn.

CLAVICULA. In botany. See CAPREOLUS & CLAVICULUS.

CLAVICULÆ. In anatomy, the *clavicles*. From clavis, a little key. So the collar-bone is called from its likeneſs to an ancient key.

Each *clavicle* reſembles the Italian letter *ſ*, they bend forwards near the ſternum, and backwards near the ſcapula. They are more ſtrait in women than in men. They are placed almoſt horizontally, between the ſternum and acromion, and are connected to the ſternum by a ſort of arthrodia. At their extremities, next the ſternum, is a ligament, which runs acroſs to the other *clavicle*, and it is connected to the firſt rib likewiſe by a ligament. Theſe bones, by keeping the ſcapulæ in their proper ſituation, ſerve for the more free and eaſy motion of the arm.

CLAVICULUS. In botany. It is a part from a ſtalk, curling, and laying hold of any adjacent body; it is always produced at a joint, and is alſo called TENDRIL, CLASPER, and CAPREOLUS, which ſee. They are of various textures; ſome of them emit a glue at their terminations, by which they ſtick as well as cling; others have points, by which they ſtick into trees, walls, &c. and theſe points not only ſerve for holding faſt with, but alſo as roots.

CLAVIS. In anatomy, the ſame as clavicula. In chemiſtry, it is any menſtruum, particularly of minerals, which unlocks them, as it were, and penetrates to their inner ſubſtance.

CLAVUS. An inſtrument in ſurgery mentioned by Amatus Luſitanus, which was deſigned to be introduced into the ulcerated palate, for the better articulation of the voice. Sometimes this word ſignifies indurated tubercles of the womb.

CLAVUS. A corn. Alſo called callus, condyloma *clavus*, and tylloma. Dr. Cullen defines it a lamellated hard thickening of the cuticle. He ranks it as a genus of diſeaſe, in the claſs locales, and order tumores. The word *clavus* is uſed by ſome to ſignify the hyſteric pain in the head, called clavis hyſtericus, and *clavus* hyſtericus.

CLAVUS HYSTERICUS. A ſymptom attending ſome hyſteric patients, which is thus deſcribed by Sydenham: "Hyſterics ſometimes attack the external part of the head, between the cranium and the pericranium, occaſioning violent pain, which continues fixed in one place, not exceeding the breadth of one's thumb; and it is alſo accompanied with enormous vomiting." See CEPHALALGIA. Such again attends a venereal caries, or an exſtoſis of ſome bone of the cranium.

CLAVUS OCULORUM. Celſus ſays, that it is a callous tubercle on the white of the eye, and takes its denomination from its figure. He adviſes to perforate it with a needle to the bottom of the root, to cut it out, and then dreſs it with lenients.

CLEIDION. An epithet of a paſtil deſcribed by Galen and P. Ægineta. It is the name of an epithem, deſcribed by Aetius. Sometimes it ſignifies the ſame as clavicula.

CLEIDOMASTOIDEUS, i. e. Clino maſtoideus.

CLEIS, i. e. Clavis.

CLEISAGRA, from κλεὶς, the *clavicle*, and ἄγρα, a *prey*. The gout in the articulation of the clavicles to the ſternum.

CLEITHRON, i. e. Clauſtrum.

CLEMA. A twig or tendril of a plant, the ſame as ſarmentum.

CLEMATIS, i. e. Atragene. Alſo a name of a ſpecies of vinca pervinca.

CLEMATITIS, i. e. Climber. A ſort of plant ſo called, becauſe it climbs up trees with claſpers, like thoſe of vines. The root is perennial and fibrous. Boerhaave enumerates twelve ſpecies.

CLEMATITIS, alſo called flammula ſurrecta alba, flammula Jovis, and upright lady's bower. The ſpecies uſed, ſee FLAMMULA JOVIS.

The herb with the flower are cauſtic; the root, ſeeds, bark, and all, if rubbed with the fingers, then held to the noſtrils, ſtrikes them like lightning with a ſtrong ſmell. It yields a water as hot as ſpirit of wine, but it does not ſeem ſafe to adminiſter it internally.

CLEMATITIS PEREGRINA FOLIIS PYRI INCISIS. Spaniſh *climber*, or *traveller's joy*, with *cut leaves*.

CLEMATITIS CŒRULEA VEL PURPUREA REPENS. Clematitis peregrinis cœrulea vel rubra. *Virgin's bower*.

The reſt are diſtinguiſhed by their leaves, or the colour of their flowers, or by their flowers being double. Raii Hiſt.

CLEONIS COLLYRIUM. The name of a collyrium deſcribed by Celſus.

CLEONIS GLUTEN. It is mentioned by Oribaſius, lib. iv. and recommended for reſtraining fluxes; it conſiſts of terra ſamia, myrrh, grains of frankincenſe, of each equal parts; the white of egg, a ſufficient quantity: ſpread on linen cloth, to be applied to the temples and forehead.

CLEOPHANTUS. An ancient phyſician, quoted by Celſus.

CLEPSYDRA, from κρύπτω, *to conceal*, and ὕδωρ, *water*. Properly an inſtrument with which to meaſure time by the dropping of water through a hole from one veſſel to another, but it is uſed to expreſs a chymical veſſel perforated in the ſame manner. It is alſo an inſtrument mentioned by Paracelſus, contrived to convey ſuffumigations to the uterus.

CLIBANUS. A little portable oven. See ARTOS.

CLIDION. See CLEIDION.

CLIMACTERICUS ANNUS. From *climacter*, the round of a ladder. The climacteric year. According to ſome, this is every ſeventh year; but others reckon only thoſe years that are produced by multiplying ſeven by odd numbers, viz. 3, 5, 7, 9, to be climacterical. Theſe years they ſay bring with them ſome remarkable changes with reſpect to health, life, or fortune. The grand *climacteric* is the ſixty-third year; ſome making two, add to this the eighty-firſt year. The other remarkable ones are the ſeventh, twenty-firſt, forty-ninth, and fifty-ſixth. The credit of *climacteric* years depends on Pythagoras's introduction of the doctrine of numbers.

CLIMAX, alſo called ſcala ſacra. A name given by the ancients to ſome antidotes, the ingredients in which gradually diminiſhed in quantity, e. g. Chamædrys ℥iij. centaurii ℥ij. hyperici ℥j.

CLIMIA. A name for the cadmia fornacum.

CLIMIA EREPS. Rulandus explains it by cadmia auripigmenti.

CLINICUS, from κλίνη, *a bed*. Clinical. It is applied to patients who keep their beds. Hence a *clinical* phyſician is one who attends the ſick.

CLINOIDES. The four ſmall proceſſes of the os ſphenoides, which form the cella turcica, from εἶδος, *reſemblance*, and κλίνη, *a bed*.

CLINO-MASTOIDEUS. So Albinus calls one portion of the ſterno-maſtoideus, which ſee. It is alſo a name of the maſtoid-muſcle.

CLINOPETES. A perſon, who on account of great weakneſs, or any diſorder, is obliged to lie in bed, or on a bed.

CLINOPODIUM. Common marum, ſee MARUM. A ſpecies of baum. Great wild baſil, ſee BASILICUM; and a ſpecies of ſatureia.

CLISSUS. In Paracelſus, it is a certain virtue, or occult viciſſitude of things, which go and return; thus the flowers of all vegetables grow flaccid in the evening, but revive, and are expanded in the morning, by the virtue of this *clyſſus*. It alſo ſignifies the ſame as *clyſſus*.

CLISTUS, i. e. Clyſſus.

CLITORIDIS FLOS TERNATENSIBUS. A beautiful flower growing in the iſland of Ternate. The inhabitants boil and eat it; but it hath no medical virtues attributed to it.

CLITORIDIS MUSCULUS. Innes calls it erector clitoridis, and deſcribes it as ariſing from the crus of the os iſchium internally, and in its aſcent covers the crus of the clitoris, as far up as the os pubis. It is inſerted into the upper part of the crus and body of the clitoris. Its uſe is to draw the clitoris downwards and backwards, and may ſerve to make the body of the clitoris more tenſe, by ſqueezing the blood into it from its crus.

CLITORIS, called alſo œſtrum veneris. It is a part of the external pudenda, ſituated at the angle which the nymphæ forms with each other. In the angle between the labia externa, and the upper angle, we obſerve the prominent extremity of the *clitoris*, which is covered with a preputium ſimilar to that of the penis. It is very vaſcular and villous; the villi are very nervous, and full of veſſels, to allow of a greater irritation in coitu. The *clitoris* is in many reſpects analogous to the penis; its two crura ariſe from the iſchium, and running along the lower edge of the os pubis and the os iſchium, unite, to form the corpora cavernoſa of the *clitoris*. It is furniſhed with two erector muſcles, whoſe origin and inſertion are the ſame as in the penis; but though the clitoris has a glans, there is no corpus ſpongioſum urethræ; its trunk is ſuſtained by a ſuſpenſory ligament, fixed in the ſymphyſis of the oſſa pubis. Like the penis it has an erection, and it is thought to be the principal ſeat of venereal pleaſure.

The *clitoris* is of different ſizes in different women; but in general, it is ſmall, and covered with the labia.

The preternaturally enlarged *clitoris*, is what conſtitutes an hermaphrodite.

When the *clitoris* is too large, it may be ſo extirpated as to remove the unneceſſary part; but this requires much care, for a farther extirpation ſubjects the patient to an involuntary diſcharge of urine.

CLITORISMUS. A morbid enlargement, or ſwelling of the clitoris.

CLOACA. A jakes. In comparative anatomy, it imports the canal in birds, through which the egg deſcends from the ovary in its exit. In this it is remarkable, that the part which is next the ovary is jagged like the morſus diaboli, and fluctuates in the abdomen without any attachment to the ovary; hence anatomiſts have been puzzled to comprehend by what means the egg falls into it.

CLONICUS. See CLONOS.

CLONICI. Diſeaſes from clonic ſpaſm. See SPASMUS CLONICUS.

CLONODES. An epithet for a ſort of pulſe which is vehement and large, at the ſame time unequal in one and the ſame ſtroke.

CLONOS. Κλόνος. Any tumultuary, interrupted, or inordinate motion. It is applied to epileptic and convulſive motions. See SPASMUS CLONICUS.

CLOUS, i. e. Aromatic cloves.

CLUNES. The buttocks. Theſe are the two poſterior and lower parts of the belly; they are ſeparated by a foſſa, which leads to the anus, and each buttock is terminated downwards by a large fold, which diſtinguiſhes it from the reſt of the thigh. They conſiſt of ſkin, fat, and muſcles, principally thoſe of the glutæi.

CLUNESIA. Inflammation of the anus. See PROCTITIS.

CLUPEA. A fiſh called a ſhad. See ALOSA.

CLUS, & CLUS. HIST. An abbreviation of Carolus Cluſius Rariorum Plantarum Hiſtoria.

CLUS. HISP. An abbreviation of Carolus Cluſius rariorum aliquot ſtirpium per Hiſpanias obſervatorum Hiſtoria.

CLUS. CUR. POST. An abbreviation of Carolus Cluſii Curæ Poſteriores.

CLUTIA. It is a roſe-ſhaped flower, conſiſting of five leaves. Boerhaave mentions but one ſpecies, which is the ſhrubby Æthiopian *clutia*, with a purſlane leaf, and a greeniſh white flower.

CLYDON. A fluctuation and flatulency in the ſtomach and inteſtines.

CLYMA. The fæces of ſilver and gold.

CLYMENOS DIOSCORIDES. A ſpecies of ſcorpioides.

CLYMENUM. A ſpecies of vetch. See ERVUM.

CLYMENUM DIOSCORIDIS. Chichling, or everlaſting-peas. A ſpecies of cataputia minor.

CLYMENUM ITALORUM, i. e. Androſæmum.

CLYPEALIS CARTILAGO. The thyroide cartilage.

CLYPEUS. It is ſuppoſed to be an inſtrument uſed in the ancient baths, to increaſe or diminiſh their heat, by admitting or excluding air.

CLYSSIFORMIS DISTILLATIO. A diſtillation of ſuch ſubſtances as are ſubject to take fire, and fulminate by a tubulated retort.

CLYSSUS. Among the ancient chymiſts, this word imported an extract prepared of various ſubſtances mixed together. Among the moderns, it ſignifies a mixture, containing the various productions of one ſubſtance united with each other: e. g. when the diſtilled water, the ſpirit, the oil, the tincture, and the ſalt of wormwood are ſo blended, that the mixture is poſſeſſed of all the united virtues of the ſimple, from which theſe preparations are obtained. *Clyſſuſes* were formerly prepared from the vapours of different matters joined with nitre; ſeveral inſtances of which may be ſeen in the Dictionary of Chemiſtry; and as their virtues merit not the trouble of preparing them, the curious are referred thereto.

CLYSSUS ANTIMONII. It is obtained by deflagrating a mixture of antimony, nitre, and ſulphur, in a red hot retort, fixed to a receiver, in which is ſome water. But as it is no other than a weak ſpirit of ſulphur, it is not worth the labour of preparing. See Dict. of Chemiſtry, and Neumann's Chemical Works.

CLYSSUS MINERALIS, i. e. Clyſſus antimonii.

CLYSTER. A glyſter. From χλυζω, *to waſh or cleanſe out*. See ENEMA.

CNAPHOS, i. e. Hippophæs; alſo carduus fullonum, and a fuller's ſhop.

CNECUS, i. e. Carthamus; alſo the ſeeds of the carthamus.

CNEMIU. Galen expounds it of ſomething belonging to the tibia.

CNEMODACTYLÆUS, i, e. Muſculus extenſor digitorum pedis communis.

CNEORON. It is the ſame as the gneſtron, or thymelæa.

CNEORON ALBUM. Rock-roſe. It is a ſpecies of convolvulus major rectus Creticus argentæus, but not with a ſcandent ſtalk. It grows in Crete, and flowers in June. It is of no remarkable virtue.

CNEORON NIGRUM. It is the thymelæa Alpina linifolia humilior flore purpureo odoratiſſima.

CNESIS, κνῆσις, the ſame as cneſmos, from κνάω, *to ſcratch*. That eager, hurrying ſcratching obſerved in brutes; but is more generally meant of the itching itſelf.

CNESMOS, i. e. Cneſis.

CNESTON. It is a ſpecies of thymelæa; a raſp, which is alſo called cneſter, and particularly a raſp for ſcraping cheeſe.

CNESTRUM. A ſpecies of thymelæa.

CNICELÆON, from κνικὸς, cnicus, and ἔλαιον, *oil*.

Oil

Oil made of the ſeeds of cnicus. The virtues are the ſame as of the ol. ricin. only weaker.

CNICION. A name for the trifolium.

CNICUS. A name for the CARTHAMUS, which ſee. Modern botaniſts exclude the carthamus from the ſpecies of *cnicus*; and they give the following as the characters of the *cnicus*, viz. the heads are ſurrounded with a crown, formed of a complication of a multitude of leaves. Boerhaave ſpeaks of nine ſpecies, among which are the carduus benedictus, the Tangier perennial blue diſtaff thiſtle, the *cnicus* Hiſpanicus arboreſcens fœtidiſſimus, ſtinking Spaniſh tree diſtaff thiſtle, carduus pinea, or true chamæleon, or changeable thiſtle without a ſtalk, the pine thiſtle. The people in Apulia gather the gum of this carduus pinea, and name it cera di cardo. Raii Hiſt.

The *cnicus*, uſed as a purge by Hippocrates, is ſuppoſed to be the carthamus.

CNICUS. See ATTRACTYLIS.

CNICUS ALBIS MACULIS NOTATIS. Small Spaniſh milk thiſtle.

CNICUS SYLVESTRIS, i. e. Carduus benedictus.

CNIDE. A name in Dioſcorides for the nettle.

CNIDELÆON. Oil made of the grana cnidia.

CNIDIA COCCIS. See THYMELÆA.

CNIDIA GRANA. Cnidian berries. Some ſay theſe are the fruit of the thymelæa (which ſee), others of the mezereon, others of the cneoron. Ray ſays, the berries of the thymelæa are not the grana *cnidia*, but the ſeeds contained in the berry.

CNIDOSIS. An itching and ſtimulating ſenſation, ſuch as is excited by the cnide, or nettle. Celſus renders it pruriginem.

CNIPES. Small worms that infeſt vines.

CNIPOTES. Itching. Some take it to ſignify a dry ophthalmy.

CNISMOS, i. e. Cneſmos.

CNISSOREGMIA, from κνισσα, *a nidorous ſmell*, and ρηγνυμι, *an eructation*. A nidorous eructation.

CNYMA, from κνυω, *to ſcrape, or grate*. In Hippocrates it ſignifies a razure, punction, or vellication; and alſo the ſame as cneſmos.

COA. A plant ſo named by father Plumier, in honour of Hippocrates. It is an ever-green of the ſcandent kind, with a globular bell-ſhaped flower, conſiſting of one leaf. It is found in America, particularly about Campeachy. The ſeeds have been brought to England, and plants raiſed from them; but they are not remarked for any medical virtue. Miller's Dict.

COAACHIRA INDORUM, i. e. Indicum.

COACUS. An epithet of a treatiſe of Hippocrates's, called Coacæ Prænotiones, from Coos, his birth-place.

COAGULANTIA. In general ſuch things as coagulate fluids; but in medicine it ſignifies more particularly ſuch remedies or poiſons as coagulate the blood and juice flowing from it.

COAGULATIO, Coagulation, is when a fluid, or ſome part of it, is rendered more or leſs ſolid. This is variouſly effected, and from the different methods, as well as means, the appellations vary.

Heat and cold are the two principal natural agents for *coagulating* fluids. When heat is uſed by art, its effect is called *coagulatio* per ſegregationem, or ſeperationem. When cold is thus made uſe of, its effect is called *coagulatio* per comprehenſionem, which is when no part of the fluid is loſt, and all its parts are brought into a ſolid ſtate.

Different means *coagulate* different matters; thus heat *coagulates* ſalts by diſſipating their moiſture; cold *coagulates* water by freezing it; water *coagulates* camphor, if it is diſſolved in ſpirit of wine; ſpirit of wine, if pure, *coagulates* the white of egg and other matters; and motion *coagulates* milk into butter.

The *coagulatio*-continui is produced either by impaſtation, that is, when powders, &c. are mixed with the fluid; or by condenſation, that is, when coldneſs is applied to water ſo as to congeal it.

The *coagulatio*-partis, is when one ſubſtance ſo adheres to another, as to form a more ſolid body; for example, dry things with moiſt, oil with water, &c.

The *coagulatio*-totius is preternatural, when heterogene matter is united; and natural, when homogene fluids are coagulated by way of generation.

COAGULUM. Curdled concretions, formed by the mixture of two liquors, are thus called; ſuch as the curd for cheeſe, ſeparated from the ſerous part of milk, by means of rennet infuſed in warm water, &c.

COAGULUM. Rennet, or runnet. It is the concreted milk found in the ſtomachs of ſucking quadrupeds, which as yet have received no other nouriſhment than their mother's milk. In ruminating animals, which have ſeveral ſtomachs, it is generally found in the laſt, though ſometimes in the next to it.

If *rennet* is dried in the ſun, and then cloſe kept, it may be preſerved in perfection for years.

Not only the *rennet* itſelf, but alſo the ſtomach in which it is found, curdles milk, without any previous preparation. But the common method is, to take the inner membrane of a calf's ſtomach, to clean it well, to ſalt, and hang it up in brown paper: when this is uſed, the ſalt is waſhed off, then it is macerated in a little water during the night, and, in the morning, the infuſion is poured into the milk to curdle it.

The medicinal qualities of *rennet* are its acrimony, its reſolvent power, and its uſefulneſs in ſurfeits, from food of difficult digeſtion.

COAGULUM ALUMINOSUM. See ALUMEN.

COALESCENTIA, Coaleſcence. The union, or growing together of two bodies, which before were ſeparate.

COALTERNÆ FEBRES. Fevers mentioned by Bellini, which are moſt probably imaginary. He deſcribes them as two fevers affecting the ſame patient, and the paroxyſm of one approaching as that of the other ſubſides.

COAPOIBA, i. e. Caopoiba.

COARCTATIO. Coarctation. A rendering the canals more narrow, or contraction of the diameters of the veſſels. A coarctation of the pulſe is its diminution.

COARTICULATIO. See ABARTICULATIO, or SYNARTHROSIS.

COATLIS, i. e. Ben.

COAVA. The infuſion of coffee, as it is uſually drank.

COAXOCHITL. The American name for the tagetes Indicus minimis flore ſericæ hirſutie obſito.

COBALTUM, called alſo cadmia metallica, and cobalt. It is a ponderous hard foſſil, or metallic and earthy mineral, or a kind of marcaſite. It hath been found in ſome parts of Aſia; is now chiefly dug up in Saxony, and is alſo found in ſome parts of England. The beſt way of diſtinguiſhing it from other mineral matters, is to turn it into glaſs, or to melt it therewith, for it gives thereto a ſapphire blue colour.

Cobalt is the foundation of zaffer or ſmalt; and from it the greateſt quantity of arſenic is obtained, that is uſed all over Europe.

The *cobalt* when dug up, is mixed with various other ſubſtances; it is then broken into ſmall pieces, and calcined in a reverberating furnace, ſo formed, as that the flame of the fire may paſs over the calcining matter, and keep it ignited: the flame in paſſing over the *cobalt*, carries off a copious fume, which is conveyed from the top of the furnace into a large winding wooden chimney, which is ſome ſcores of yards long, to the inſide of which the fumes adhering in the form of a white ſoot, is at proper intervals ſweeped down, and when melted is the white arſenic.

After the arſenic is thus ſeparated, the *cobalt* is calcined two or three times; and then being finely ground with two or three times its weight of powdered flint, with which being melted, zaffer is produced. The zaffer being powdered and waſhed, the whitiſh part that ſeparates from it thereby, is called eſchel, and the blue powder is named blanc tarbe.

If two parts of calcined *cobalt*, one part of pot-aſh, and three parts of common ſand, are melted together, a vitreous, opake bluiſh maſs is formed, which when ground to powder is called ſmaltum, ſmalt, or encauſtum cœruleum, or powder-blue.

Biſmuth, ſmall portions of ſilver, and other matters, are found in different parcels of *cobalt*.

On

On the outside of the mines where *cobalt* is found, there is a mineral of the colour of streaked roses, called the flower of *cobalt*.

The chief use of this mineral is for obtaining arsenic, and the reguline part, which is the blue made use of for colouring glass, china, and other such like manufactories. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Dict. of Chem. 4to. and Neumann's Chem. Works.

COBASTOLI. Ashes.

COBBAN. A small tree much like the peach tree. It grows in Sumatra: the fruit quenches thirst, and the kernel affords an oil by expression, which is externally used against pains. Raii Hist.

COBITES. A fresh-water fish of the gudgeon kind.

COBRA DE CAPELLO. A venomous serpent, which is also called serpens Indicus coronatus, vipera Indica vittata gesticulatia, vipera pileata. The Indian *serpent*. The part in use is a stone taken out of its head, called pedro del cobra, and by mistake piedra di cobra: it is of an oval figure, plain on the outside, and gibbous on the other, of a brown colour, shining, with pores interspersed. It is said to be an antidote to the poison of venomous animals; but neither this quality, nor the truth of its being a natural production, are ascertained.

COBRELLA. So the Portuguese call the morbus sacer.

COCAOTE, i. e. Corvinus lapis.

COCAZOCHITL. A species of French marigold; also the Mexican name for a species of tagetes.

COCCA BAPTICA. Kermes berries.

COCCA CNIDIA, or Gnidia. See CNIDIA.

COCCALOS. A name of the cnidia, and of the nux pinea.

COCCARIUM. The name of a very small pill mentioned by Oribasius in his Synop. lib. 3.

COCCEIRA INDICA. The cocoa-nut tree. See PALMA.

COCCI CNIDII. The berries of the mezereon tree.

COCCI ORIENTALES. Indian berry.

COCCI RADICUM. Kermes berries.

COCCIÆ MINORES PIL, i. e. Pil. ex colocynth. cum aloe.

COCCINILLA, also called coccinella, grana, scarabeolus hæmisphericus cochineelifer, cochenille, cochinille, coccus Indicus tinctorius, and cochineal.

It is an insect, but as brought to us, appears in little grains, that are wrinkled, of an irregular figure, convex on one side, and flat or hollowed on the other; externally they are of a dark red colour, generally sprinkled with a whitish clammy powder; internally of a deep bright red. It is brought from Mexico and New-Spain. It is found adhering to the leaves and branches of the opuntia, called nopal in New-Spain, or the American prickly pear-tree, or Indian fig. *Coccus* (Cacti) *cacti coccinelliferi*, Linn. The natives carefully collect, preserve, and cure them. The male insects have wings, and are about the size of a flea; the females have no wings, and are larger: when full of young they swell so as to resemble berries, in which state they are swept off from the leaves and branches of the opuntia with a pencil: if left until the young ones creep out, the parent dies, and its body becomes an empty husk. It is the female sort that we use.

The greatest consumption of this article is amongst the scarlet dyers, and for making carmine. By different management it affords all the shades of red, from the lowest to the highest.

Carmine is a fecula or powder that settles at the bottom of the water wherein *cochineal* hath been mixed; with this the drapers rub scarlet cloth where it misses to take the dye.

Aq. regia, impregnated with pewter, improves the bow scarlet into a flame colour.

Aq. fortis, impregnated with pewter, produces from *cochineal* a scarlet dye.

Cochineal affords also the finest lake.

Rags dyed in the dregs of the scarlet dye made from *cochineal*, is called turnsole, which is used to colour wines, &c.

Cochineal gives a fine durable red to proof and rectified spirit, and a deep durable crimson to water, and none of them lose any of their colour by inspissating them to an extract.

This insect hath been commended as diuretic, diaphoretic, and corroborant; but these qualities are not duly ascertained.

Neumann observes, that the watery infusion contains a large portion of mucilage; and Cartheuser says, that the mucilaginous, bitterish, watery extract, amounts to 3-4ths of the weight of the *cochineal*. An ounce of *cochineal* distilled in an open fire, gave out two scruples and three grains of phlegm; four scruples of an urinous spirit; fifteen drops of an oily spirit; twenty-two grains of volatile salt; and five scruples two grains of an empyreumatic oil: the caput mortuum weighed two drams two scruples, and yielded five grains of a fixed lixivial salt. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Dict. of Chem. Lewis's Mat. Med.

COCCOBALSAMON. The fruit of the true balsam tree.

COCCONES. The grains or acini of the pomegranate.

COCCONILEA. A name for the coccygria.

COCCOS. The cocoa. See PALMA.

COCCOS, or Coccum. In Hippocrates, when without any addition, it significes the grana cnidia: but coccus implies any berry or grain.

COCCULI INDI AROMATICI. Jamaica pepper.

COCCULUS INDUS, called also cocculæ officinarum, cocci Orientales. Indian berry. It is a brown fruit, of the size of a very large pea; it is rough, brittle, and when perfect hath a white kernel. It is brought from Malabar and the East-Indies, where it grows in clusters on a large tree called natsiatam. It is poisonous; it brings on a nausea, fainting, and convulsions if swallowed. The noxious quality resides in the kernel, and it operates both as an emetic and purgative. It is only used externally, and that very rarely: made into ointment, or infused in water, it destroys lice more effectually than the staves-acre. Mixt with paste it stupifies fishes so that they will lie on the water, and not attempt to escape from the hand that takes them. Condronchius writ a treatise on these berries: Wepfer takes notice of several experiments made with them in his De Cicuta Aquatica. See also Raii Hist. and Neumann's Chem. Works.

COCCUM, i. e. Cnidia grana.

COCCUM BAPHICUM, infectorium, tinctorium, chermesinum vel scarletinum, i. e. Chermes.

COCCUS AMERICANUS. Cochineal.

COCCUS INDICUS TINCTORIUS. Cochineal.

COCCUS DE MALDIVIA, called also nux Indica, palma coccifera, tavaccare, nux medica, palma Maldivica vel Naldivensis, and the Maldivia nut. It hath a black rind, more shining than the common cocca or Indian nut, and its shape more oval; the pulp when dried is extremely hard, white, porous, and full of clefts on its superficies, and of an unpleasant taste. They are found in the earth and on the sea-shore about the Maldivas; but the leaves or branches of the trees which produced them were never known. Drinking cups are made of the shells. Raii Hist.

COCCUS POLONICUS. It is said to be found of different sizes, from a poppy-seed to a pepper-corn, and in greater or lesser numbers adhering to one plant. Breynius describes it as being round, smooth, and of a purple violet colour; has a thin skin, inclosing a blood-red juice; one half or more of it is covered with a rough dark-brown crust, by which it adheres to the roots. It is gathered in summer, and dried in earthen platters. One of these exposed to the sun, by the latter end of July produces a small worm, which worm, after a few days, produces from 50 to 100 or more eggs; these in a month after are hatched, and the young ones fixing to the roots of the plant, and its lowest branches, live by sucking its juice. These berries are used as a colour in dying, for they abound with a purple juice. As a medicine their virtues are the same with the chermes, and they are a good succedaneum thereto. See Neumann's Chem. Works, and Raii Hist. Plant.

COCCUS RADICUM TINCTORIUS, i. e. Coccus Polonicus.

COCCYGÆUS (Musc.) It rises from the spine of the

iſchium, and is inſerted into the ſide of the os coccygis: this muſcle and its fellow form a ſling to bring that bone upwards and inwards. It is nothing elſe but a continuation of the poſterior part of the levator ani. It is Winſlow's *coccygæus* poſterior.

COCCYGÆUS ANTERIOR. This muſcle is fixed in the anterior portion of the ſmall tranſverſe ligament, at the upper part of the foramen ovale of the os innominatum; from thence it runs between the great tranſverſe ligament of the pelvis and the muſculus obturator internus, and is inſerted in the lower part of the os *coccygis*.

COCCYGÆUS POSTERIOR. This muſcle is fixed to the inner concave edge of the two firſt vertebræ of the os ſacrum, to the inner and lower edge of the ligamentum-ſacro-ſciaticum, and to the ſpine of the os iſchium, and is inſerted in the inſide of the os coccygis, above the *coccygæus* anterior.

COCCYGIS (os). It is ſituated at the extremity of the os ſacrum, and is in ſome meaſure an appendix thereof; it is bent forward towards the pelvis; the fore ſide is flat, the back part rather convex; it is made up of four or five pieces, like falſe vertebræ, joined together by cartilages, more or leſs pliable; ſometimes all the pieces are cemented together. The firſt piece is the largeſt; it hath two ſhoulders, betwixt which and the os ſacrum is a notch, through which a pair of nerves paſs. The other pieces are irregular ſquares, diminiſhing in ſquares as they deſcend.

Daventer and ſome other writers ſay, that difficult labours are often cauſed by theſe bones being anchyloſed; but experience manifeſts that theſe gentlemen were impatient, and waited not long enough for nature to do her own buſineſs: it is generally found that when the head is confined in the pelvis, and advances but ſlowly, or not at all, that by waiting and leaving the work to nature, the head is moulded into the ſhape of the pelvis, and comes along very well.

COCCYS. The cocoa. See PALMA.

COCCYX (Os). See COCCYGIS Os, κοκκυξ.

COCCHENILLA. Cochineal.

COCHENILLE. Cochineal.

COCHIA. A name formerly of ſome officinal pills: the etymology of this word is obſcure. There were two compoſitions bearing this name; the pil. *coch* majores, which was taken from Rhaſes, and the pil. *coch.* minores, which was taken from Galen: the firſt is now totally excluded from practice; the ſecond is now called pil. colocynth, cum aloe. See COLOCYNTH.

COCHINILLA. Cochineal.

COCHINILLIFERA. Cochineal plant.

COCHITSAPOTL. See ZAPOTE.

COCHLEA. The firſt mention made of this part of the ear is by Plutarch, who ſays that Empedocles, a ſcholar of Pythagoras, was acquainted with it and its uſe, for he ſaid that ſounds were formed there. It is a winding cavity, which turns round a nucleus in a ſpiral manner. It is larger where it begins, and becomes ſmaller like a horn, the ſecond turn almoſt within the firſt, and the third within the ſecond, making about two turns and a half. It is divided into a ſuperior and inferior cavity, by a partition in the middle, perpendicular to the axis of the ſpindle of the *cochlea*: that part of the partition next the axis is bony, which terminates in an edge, where it is membranous; it grows narrower towards the apex. The ſcala, which is next the baſis, opens into the tympanum by the feneſtra rotunda; that towards the apex into the veſtibulum by the feneſtra ovalis.

That the *cochlea* is a part of the organ of hearing may be concluded from its ſpiral lamina, which are hard, dry, ſlender, and eaſily broken; all which conditions are required in bodies ſuſceptible of tremulous motions. Again, when the large branch of the portio mollis of the ſeventh pair of nerves arrives at the baſis of the *cochlea*, it is divided into a great number of ſmaller branches, which paſſing through all the ſmall meatuſes with which the ſpindle is perforated, are diſtributed to the various windings and meanders of this ſpiral lamina, where they loſe themſelves. This lamina is not only calculated for receiving the vibratory motion of the air, but its ſtructure ought alſo to be looked upon as a convincing proof that it is qualified and diſpoſed for accommodating itſelf to the different characters and degrees of theſe motions; for ſince it is broader at the beginning of its firſt circumvolution than at the extremity of its laſt, and ſince the breadth of its other parts are in like manner proportionably diminiſhed, we may venture to affirm that its broadeſt parts are only fit for the reception of ſlow and languid vibrations, which are productive of grave tones, ſince they may be put into a commotion without the other parts undergoing any change, and vice verſa, that when its narrower parts are ſtruck, their vibrations are briſk and lively, and conſequently produce acute tones. Therefore, according to the various commotions of the ſpiral lamina, the nerves diſtributed through its ſubſtance receive the various impreſſions of the air, which exhibit and repreſent various tones or modulations of ſound. See SOUND.

COCHLEA CÆLATA. See ANDROSACE.

COCHLÆÆ, κοχλος, *to wind* or *wreathe*. Snails.

The *ſnail* is an animal lodged in a ſhort thick turbinated ſhell, whoſe aperture is cloſed in the winter with a kind of cement. The land *ſnails* are called operculares: that ſort which adheres to briars and tendrils of vines, &c. are ſometimes called ſeſilon and pomaticæ.

Before the time of Seranus Samonicus, who flouriſhed in the third century after Chriſt, ſhell *ſnails* were not recommended in pthiſical caſes. But indeed, abſtracted from the ſhell, *ſnails* without ſhells do not differ from thoſe that have them: it is the different ſhells that form the different ſpecies.

Snails abound with a viſcid ſlimy juice, which they readily give out by boiling to milk or water, ſo as to render them thick and glutinous. They are very nutritious and demulcent.

In Holland the ſea *ſnail*, called the periwinkle, is eaten; in France the the land *ſnail*, called the vine ſhell-*ſnail*, is eaten; but the ſmall white ſhell *ſnail* is the moſt valued.

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Earth-worms, or any other jelly, are as good as *ſnails*, if not better.

If ſalt is put upon the *ſnail* it ſoon dies, but it firſt contracts itſelf ſo as to force out all its mucus.

Cochlea terreſtris, alſo called limax, *cochl.* vulgaris, *cochlea* teſtacea.

Cochlea nuda.

Cochlea olearia, ſo called, becauſe its ſhell makes a good oil crewet.

Cochlea cælata, antonomaſtica dicta. This is a good ſhell-*ſnail*, found in the Mediteranean. Its operculum or cover is, according to ſome, the umbilicus marinus of the ſhops.

Cochlea minor ex luteo & nigro variegata. The Paris garden-*ſnail*.

Cochlea aquatica. The water-*ſnail* or periwinkle.

Cochlea purpurifera. The purple-fiſh, or murex.

Cochlea ſarmatica. A large *ſnail* found in the Baltic ſea.

Cochlea margaritifera. See CONCHA MARGARITIFERA.

COCHLEARIA, cochlear, cochleare, and cochlearium. A ſpoon. Perhaps ſo called from reſembling a ſhell. The ancients had two kinds of *cochlearia*; the greater, which contained a dram, and the leſſer, which contained a ſcruple. Various indeed are the accounts of the ancient *cochlearia*; but in the preſent London and Edinburgh Diſpenſatories a *cochleare* is, of ſyrup, half an ounce in weight, and of diſtilled waters three drams in weight.

COCHLEARIA. Scurvy-graſs. It is a low plant, with thick juicy leaves, ſomewhat hollowed, ſo as to reſemble a ſpoon, whence its name *cochlearia*; thoſe from the root ſtanding on long pedicles; thoſe on the ſtalk joined cloſe to it without pedicles; producing toward the upper parts of the ſtalks ſmall white tetrapetalous flowers, followed by roundiſh ſeed veſſels. It is annual, grows wild in ſeveral parts of England, particularly about the ſea-coaſts and ſalt-marſhes, and flowers in May or ſooner.

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COCHLEARIA BRITANNICA, called alſo cochl. marina, cochl. folio ſinuato. Engliſh ſcurvy-graſs, or ſea ſcurvy-graſs. It is the *cochlearia* Anglica, Linn. All its leaves are alike, oblong, pointed, deeply and irregularly indented and ſinuated.

The freſh leaves of both ſorts have a diſagreeable ſmell, and a penetrating acrid taſte: the firſt ſort is by much the ſtrongeſt. The leaves are the ſtrongeſt part of the plant: they are antiſeptic, attenuant, and aperient: they promote urine, but neither heat nor irritate ſo much as their pungency would cauſe one to ſuſpect. In the ſcurvy, palſy, rheumatic and wandering pains, they are uſed with advantage.

A ſmall quantity of nutmeg covers their diſagreeable flavour.

Their active parts are wholly in the expreſſed juice. Water or ſpirit alike extracts their whole virtue. The pungent part exhales in drying, and in evaporating the liquors which poſſeſs it.

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Spiritus Cochleariæ. *Spirit of* Scurvy-Graſs.

Take ten pounds of the leaves of freſh *ſcurvy-graſs*; of rectified ſpirit of wine, five pints: macerate the herb twelve hours, and with a water bath draw off five pints. This is called ſimple ſpirit, in contradiſtinction to what is called golden. The doſe is from twenty to an hundred drops. Horſe-radiſh may be mixed, or wholly ſubſtituted, without any ſenſible difference in any point of view.

Spiritus Cochlariæ *Aureus*. *Golden Spirit of* Scurvy-Graſs.

To a pint of the ſimple ſpirit of *ſcurvy-graſs* add an ounce of gamboge. The doſe is from twenty to ſixty drops. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

COCHLEARIA ALTISSIMO FOLIO. A ſpecies of lepidium.

COCHLEARIS, i. e. Aqua ductus.

COCHLEATA. See MEDICA.

COCHLIA, Cochlias. See COCHLEA.

COCHLIAXON. A name for a part in a machine deſcribed by Oribaſius.

COCHLIDIUM. The ſame with κοχλίς. A ſmall ſhell-ſnail, whoſe ſhell Breynius ſays is of a conical figure, and regularly ſpiral form. This author, in his Diſſertatio Phyſica de Polytholamiis, enumerates various ſpecies of the *cochlidium*.

COCHLITA. It is alſo called cochlea foſſilis or lapidea. It is a ſtone of the ſhape and figure of a certain ſhell-ſnail. It is ſaid to be lithontriptic.

COCHONE. Galen explains this to be the juncture of the iſchium, near the ſeat or breech; whence, ſays he, all the adjacent parts about the ſeat are called by the ſame name. Hippocrates often mentions theſe parts. Heſychius ſays that *cochone* is the part of the ſpine which is adjacent to the os ſacrum and breech, and tells us that ſome call the parts on both ſides the os ſacrum by this name, and adds, that the iſchia are thus called.

COCILIO. A weight of eleven ounces.

COCO. See PALMA.

COCOLATA. Chocolate.

COCOMICA SIGNA. A term uſed by Paracelſus, but his meaning is unknown.

COCOS, i. e. Palma Indica coccigera anguloſa.

COCTIO. Boiling. The effect of *boiling* differs from that of infuſion in ſome material particulars. In the heat of *boiling* water the eſſential oils of vegetables, in which their virtue generally reſides, are diſſipated; and when the medicine to be obtained is to conſiſt of the more volatile parts of the ingredients, infuſion is obviouſly preferable to decoction.

In decoctions thoſe ingredients ſhould be boiled firſt from which their virtues are moſt difficultly extracted; and thoſe which more readily give them out may be reſerved until the latter end of the *boiling*; ſuch volatile ones as hardly bear the heat of *boiling* water may be added when the decoction is removed from the fire; they may ſtand cloſely covered until the liquor is cool enough to be ſtrained off.

Agglutinants, aſtringents, and emollients, are the chief ſubjects of this operation, and ſuch other materials as require ſome force to ſeparate their parts.

By decoction the fermentation of fermentable liquors is deſtroyed. See Dict. Chem. 4to.

By the *coction* of humours is meant the digeſtion of the aliment into chyle with the firſt *coction*; the reduction of the chyle into blood, which is the ſecond; and the ſeparation of the juices from the blood by means of the glands, is the third and laſt.

COCYTA. See MALIS.

CODA. See BEETLE.

CODA-PANNA. A ſpecies of palm-tree.

CODAGA PALA, alſo called arbor Malabarica lacteſcens, jaſmini flore odoro, ſiliquis oblongis. It is a tree which grows in Malabar, the bark of which, when powdered and drank in ſour milk, reſtrains hæmorrhages and alvine fluxes. The root boiled in water makes a good fomentation againſt inflammatory tumours, and taken inwardly, deſtroys worms. Raii Hiſt.

CODAGEN. See HYDROCOTYLE Zeylanica aſari folio.

CODDAM-PULLI. See CARCAPULI and CAMBOGIUM.

CODESELLA. A carbuncle.

CODIA. In Hippocrates ſignifies a poppy-head. The heads of other plants are alſo thus named.

CODIAMINUM. Wild daffodil.

CODIANUM. Wild daffodil.

CODI-AVANACU. An under-ſhrub growing in ſandy ſoils in the Eaſt-Indies. The juice of the whole plant taken in wine is a good remedy for fluxes. Some other preparations are made from it.

CODOSCELLÆ. Buboes.

CŒCALIS VENA. A branch from the concave ſide of the vena meſaraica major; it runs to the beginning of the colon; it divides by two arteries, one of which communicates with the gaſtro-colica; the other, after ſending branches to the inteſtinum cœcum and appendicula vermiformis, communicates below with the extremity of the great meſaraic vein.

CŒLA. The hollow of the eyes, or rather above and below the eye-lids. They are puffed up in a cachexia. The *cœla* of the feet are the hollow parts at the bottom of the foot, adjacent to the heels.

CŒLESTINUS COLOR. In Paracelſus it ſignifies a ſky colour.

CŒLIA. It ſignifies a cavity in any part of the body, or in any of the viſcera; it is alſo the ſame with alvus, which ſee: if ανω is joined with it, it ſignifies the ſtomach, and ſometimes the thorax; and η κατω, joined with it, is the lower belly, or inteſtinal tube, from the cardia to the anus.

CŒLIACA ARTERIA, κοιλις, *venter*. The *cœliac artery* ariſes anteriorly from the aorta deſcendens, as ſoon as it has paſſed through the diaphragm; its trunk is ſhort, but it ſends off from the right ſide two ſmall diaphragmaticæ, though ſometimes there is but one. The left branch, which riſes from the intercoſtales and mammariæ, ſends ramifications to the ſuperior orifice of the ſtomach, and to the glandulæ renales of the ſame ſide, as the right furniſhes

iſchium, and is inſerted into the ſide of the os coccygis: this muſcle and its fellow form a ſling to bring that bone upwards and inwards. It is nothing elſe but a continuation of the poſterior part of the levator ani. It is Winſlow's *coccygæus* poſterior.

COCCYGÆUS ANTERIOR. This muſcle is fixed in the anterior portion of the ſmall tranſverſe ligament, at the upper part of the foramen ovale of the os innominatum; from thence it runs between the great tranſverſe ligament of the pelvis and the muſculus obturator internus, and is inſerted in the lower part of the os *coccygis*.

COCCYGÆUS POSTERIOR. This muſcle is fixed to the inner concave edge of the two firſt vertebræ of the os ſacrum, to the inner and lower edge of the ligamentum-ſacro-ſciaticum, and to the ſpine of the os iſchium, and is inſerted in the inſide of the os coccygis, above the *coccygæus* anterior.

COCCYGIS (os). It is ſituated at the extremity of the os ſacrum, and is in ſome meaſure an appendix thereof; it is bent forward towards the pelvis; the fore ſide is flat, the back part rather convex; it is made up of four or five pieces, like falſe vertebræ, joined together by cartilages, more or leſs pliable; ſometimes all the pieces are cemented together. The firſt piece is the largeſt; it hath two ſhoulders, betwixt which and the os ſacrum is a notch, through which a pair of nerves paſs. The other pieces are irregular ſquares, diminiſhing in ſquares as they deſcend.

Daventer and ſome other writers ſay, that difficult labours are often cauſed by theſe bones being anchyloſed; but experience manifeſts that theſe gentlemen were impatient, and waited not long enough for nature to do her own buſineſs: it is generally found that when the head is confined in the pelvis, and advances but ſlowly, or not at all, that by waiting and leaving the work to nature, the head is moulded into the ſhape of the pelvis, and comes along very well.

COCCYS. The cocoa. See PALMA.

COCCYX (Os). See COCCYGIS Os, κοκκυξ.

COCCHENILLA. Cochineal.

COCHENILLE. Cochineal.

COCHIA. A name formerly of ſome officinal pills: the etymology of this word is obſcure. There were two compoſitions bearing this name; the pil. *cochiæ* majores, which was taken from Rhaſes, and the pil. *cochiæ* minores, which was taken from Galen: the firſt is now totally excluded from practice; the ſecond is now called pil. colocynth, cum aloe. See COLOCYNTH.

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COCHINILLIFERA. Cochineal plant.

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The principle virtue reſides in an eſſential oil, ſeparable in ſmall quantities by diſtillation in water; this oil ſinks in water, yet it is very volatile, ſubtil and penetrating. Rectified ſpirit of wine carries the oil with it in diſtillation as eaſily as water does. A pint of ſpirit will take with it all the oil from two pounds weight of the leaves.

Spiritus Cochleariæ. *Spirit of* Scurvy-Graſs.

Take ten pounds of the leaves of freſh *ſcurvy-graſs*; of rectified ſpirit of wine, five pints: macerate the herb twelve hours, and with a water bath draw off five pints. This is called ſimple ſpirit, in contradiſtinction to what is called golden. The doſe is from twenty to an hundred drops. Horſe-radiſh may be mixed, or wholly ſubſtituted, without any ſenſible difference in any point of view.

Spiritus Cochlearie *Aureus*. *Golden Spirit of* Scurvy-Graſs.

To a pint of the ſimple ſpirit of *ſcurvy-graſs* add an ounce of gamboge. The doſe is from twenty to ſixty drops. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

COCHLEARIA ALTISSIMO FOLIO. A ſpecies of lepidium.

COCHLEARIS, i. e. Aqua ductus.

COCHLEATA. See MEDICA.

COCHLIA, Cochlias. See COCHLEA.

COCHLIAXON. A name for a part in a machine deſcribed by Oribaſius.

COCHLIDIUM. The ſame with κοχλις. A ſmall ſhell-ſnail, whoſe ſhell Breynius ſays is of a conical figure, and regularly ſpiral form. This author, in his Diſſertatio Phyſica de Polytholamiis, enumerates various ſpecies of the *cochlidium*.

COCHLITA. It is alſo called cochlea foſſilis or lapidea. It is a ſtone of the ſhape and figure of a certain ſhell-ſnail. It is ſaid to be lithontriptic.

COCHONE. Galen explains this to be the juncture of the iſchium, near the ſeat or breech; whence, ſays he, all the adjacent parts about the ſeat are called by the ſame name. Hippocrates often mentions theſe parts. Heſychius ſays that *cochone* is the part of the ſpine which is adjacent to the os ſacrum and breech, and tells us that ſome call the parts on both ſides the os ſacrum by this name, and adds, that the iſchia are thus called.

COCILIO. A weight of eleven ounces.

COCO. See PALMA.

COCOLATA. Chocolate.

COCOMICA SIGNA. A term uſed by Paracelſus, but his meaning is unknown.

COCOS, i. e. Palma Indica coccigera anguloſa.

COCTIO. Boiling. The effect of *boiling* differs from that of infuſion in ſome material particulars. In the heat of *boiling* water the eſſential oils of vegetables, in which their virtue generally reſides, are diſſipated; and when the medicine to be obtained is to conſiſt of the more volatile parts of the ingredients, infuſion is obviouſly preferable to decoction.

In decoctions thoſe ingredients ſhould be boiled firſt from which their virtues are moſt difficultly extracted; and thoſe which more readily give them out may be reſerved until the latter end of the *boiling*; ſuch volatile ones as hardly bear the heat of *boiling* water may be added when the decoction is removed from the fire; they may ſtand cloſely covered until the liquor is cool enough to be ſtrained off.

Agglutinants, aſtringents, and emollients, are the chief ſubjects of this operation, and ſuch other materials as require ſome force to ſeparate their parts.

By decoction the fermentation of fermentable liquors is deſtroyed. See Dict. Chem. 4to.

By the *coction* of humours is meant the digeſtion of the aliment into chyle with the firſt *coction*; the reduction of the chyle into blood, which is the ſecond; and the ſeparation of the juices from the blood by means of the glands, is the third and laſt.

COCYTA. See MALIS.

CODA. See BEETLE.

CODA-PANNA. A ſpecies of palm-tree.

CODAGA PALA, alſo called arbor Malabarica lacteſcens, jaſmini flore odoro, ſiliquis oblongis. It is a tree which grows in Malabar, the bark of which, when powdered and drank in ſour milk, reſtrains hæmorrhages and alvine fluxes. The root boiled in water makes a good fomentation againſt inflammatory tumours, and taken inwardly, deſtroys worms. Raii Hiſt.

CODAGEN. See HYDROCOTYLE Zeylanica aſari folio.

CODDAM-PULLI. See CARCAPULI and CAMBOGIUM.

CODESELLA. A carbuncle.

CODIA. In Hippocrates ſignifies a poppy-head. The heads of other plants are alſo thus named.

CODIAMINUM. Wild daffodil.

CODIANUM. Wild daffodil.

CODI-AVANACU. An under-ſhrub growing in ſandy ſoils in the Eaſt-Indies. The juice of the whole plant taken in wine is a good remedy for fluxes. Some other preparations are made from it.

CODOSCELLÆ. Buboes.

CŒCALIS VENA. A branch from the concave ſide of the vena meſaraica major; it runs to the beginning of the colon; it divides by two arteries, one of which communicates with the gaſtro-colica; the other, after ſending branches to the inteſtinum cœcum and appendicula vermiformis, communicates below with the extremity of the great meſaraic vein.

CŒLA. The hollow of the eyes, or rather above and below the eye-lids. They are puffed up in a cachexia. The *cœla* of the feet are the hollow parts at the bottom of the foot, adjacent to the heels.

CŒLESTINUS COLOR. In Paracelſus it ſignifies a ſky colour.

CŒLIA It ſignifies a cavity in any part of the body, or in any of the viſcera; it is alſo the ſame with alvus, which ſee: if ανω is joined with it, it ſignifies the ſtomach, and ſometimes the thorax; and η κατω, joined with it, is the lower belly, or inteſtinal tube, from the cardia to the anus.

CŒLIACA ARTERIA, κοιλις, *venter*. The *cœliac artery* ariſes anteriorly from the aorta deſcendens, as ſoon as it has paſſed through the diaphragm; its trunk is ſhort, but it ſends off from the right ſide two ſmall diaphragmaticæ, though ſometimes there is but one. The left branch, which riſes from the intercoſtales and mammariæ, ſends ramifications to the ſuperior orifice of the ſtomach, and to the glandulæ renales of the ſame ſide, as the right furniſhes

hiſhes the renal gland on the right ſide, and the pylorus. After theſe the *cœliac artery* ſends off the arteria ventriculi coronariæ, and the gaſtrica ſuperior; then divides into the arteria hepatica on the right hand, and the arteria ſplenica on the left. Sometimes this *artery* is divided into the coronaria, hepatica, and ſplenica; in the ſame place, very near its origin, the trunk going out from the aorta in a ſtraight line, and the branches from the trunk almoſt at right angles, like radii from an axis, whence this trunk hath been called axis arteriæ *cœliacæ*.

CŒLIACA, i. e. Cœliaca Paſſio.

CŒLIACA MUCOSA, i. e. Diarrhœa Mucoſa.

CŒLIACA CHYLOSA, i. e. Diarrhœa Cœliaca.

CŒLIACA LACTEA, i. e. Diarrhœa Cœliaca.

CŒLIACA PASSIO. The *cœliac paſſion* is a ſpecies of diarrhœa, in which the aliment is carried off in a liquid ſtate, but not well digeſted; the diſcharges reſemble chyle. Aretæus calls thoſe afflicted with this diſorder κοιλιακοι; Cœlius Aurelianus calls it ventriculoſi; Hippocrates does not name it.

It is cauſed by a diſorder in the firſt paſſages, which admits of the aliment being diſſolved, but not properly digeſted. Dr. Friend ſays that it is cauſed by an obſtruction of the inteſtinal glands, on which account a ſufficient quantity of lymph cannot, by theſe, be ſupplied for diluting the chyle, and rendering it fit to paſs into the lacteals; hence it paſſes off with the excrements. He diſtinguiſhes it from the chylous flux, by obſerving that in this the cauſe is an obſtruction of the lacteal veſſels.

The ſymptoms attending this diſorder are in general ſuch as are met with in different patients labouring under a diarrhœa, which are as the conſtitution and various other circumſtances differ.

It muſt be diſtinguiſhed from other inteſtinal diſcharges, and from what Celſus calls *cœliacus* ventriculi morbus.

The cure is tedious at beſt, but often uncertain. It ſometimes abates, but is apt, upon the leaſt irregularity, to return.

As the cauſe is in part an interception of the humours which uſed to be diſcharged from the glands in the firſt paſſages, aſtringents are obviouſly prejudicial; and thoſe remedies which gently irritate the bowels, and deterge the mouths of their glands, are manifeſtly the means of relief; to this end vomits of ipecacuanha may now and then be given, and gentle purges frequently repeated in ſmall doſes. As indigeſtion or weakneſs of the ſtomach in part contributes to the production of this diſorder, warm ſtrengthening ſtomachics will be uſeful; the diet and other non-naturals alſo muſt be properly regulated.

See Aretæus, lib. 2. cap. 7. Cœlius Aurelianus Morb. Chron. l. 4. c. 3.

CŒLIE. See VENTER.

CŒLI-FLOS. See COELIFOLIUM.

CŒLIFOLIUM. Paracelſus called this noſtoch and cerefolium; others call it cœliflos and flos terræ. In ſome places it is known by the name of ſtar-fall.

It is a ſpecies of jelly, ſometimes clear, at others greeniſh, and agitated with a kind of tremulous motion ſo long as it is freſh.

It is found after rain in meadows, and in dry parched grounds, generally betwixt the ſpring and ſummer ſeaſons. If it is not gathered before the riſing of the ſun, it will be ſhrivelled up to a thin membrane of a browniſh colour. Magnol, in his Botanicum Monſpelienſe, calls it muſcus fugax membranaceus pinguis. And Tournefort calls it noſtoch ciniſlonum.

It is a production of the earth, to which it adheres by one or more ſlender roots. The embryo at firſt appears like a ſmall tubercle, which is fleſhy, ſoft, and diverſified with inconſiderable inequalities, like thoſe on ſtrawberries, at firſt of a greeniſh blue colour, but afterwards clear. Afterwards this membrane is unfolded on the earth, and thus it remains while the weather is moiſt, not fading till the wind and ſun dries the earth. It affords a clear inſipid liquor, that turns merc. cor. alb. white, and ſyr. violar. green. It affords a volatile ſalt well cryſtallized, a volatile urinous ſpirit, and a fetid oil.

The Germans uſe it to make the hair grow.

CŒLI SPECTATOR, i. e. Uranoſcopus.

CŒLIUS AURELIANUS. He was of the city of Sicca, in Numidia: he was an eminent phyſician, and writ elegant Latin. He ſays he did little more than tranſlate ſome of the works of Soranus. He was an enemy to the Methodics. Though he copied much from Soranus, he alſo added much to what he collected: in what he took from Soranus and others he manifeſts much judgment. Next to him as eminent, is Galen, whom ſee.

CŒLOMA. Κοιλωμα, *hollow*. An ulcer in the tunica cornea of the eye. See BOTHRION.

CŒLOSTOMIA, from κοιλος, *hollow*, and στομα, *the mouth*. A defect in ſpeaking, when a perſon's ſpeech is obſcured by ſounding, as if his voice proceeded from a cavern.

CŒMENTATIO. See COEMENTUM.

CŒMENTUM. Cement See CAEMENTUM.

In chemiſtry *cements* are thoſe powders and paſtes with which any body is ſurrounded in pots or crucibles, and which, by the help of fire, produce changes in the bodies about which they are ſpread.

There are many compoſitions for *cementing*, which may be ſeen in chemical writings; one of the chief of them is what is called the royal *cement*, becauſe uſed in purifying gold from ſilver. It is thus made: Take four parts of fine brick-duſt, one part of green vitriol, calcined to redneſs, and one part of common ſalt; mix them well, and then work them into a firm paſte with water. See Dict. of Chem. 4to.

CŒNA. Supper. *Suppers* that are heavy ſhould be avoided, becauſe the ſtomach is more oppreſſed with the ſame quantity of food in an horizontal poſture, than in an erect one, and becauſe digeſtion goes on more ſlowly when we ſleep than we are awake. They ſhould alſo be eaten long enough before bed time, that they may be nearly digeſted before going to ſleep, and then a draught of pure water will uſefully dilute that which remains in the ſtomach.

CŒNOTES, from κοινος, *common*. The phyſicians of the Methodic ſect aſſerted that all diſeaſes aroſe from relaxation, ſtricture, or a mixture of both. Theſe were called *cœnotes*, what diſeaſes have in common.

CŒRULEUM MONTANUM. Mountain blue, alſo called chryſocolla. It is a blue ore of copper.

CŒRULEUM FOSSILE, i. e. Armenius lapis.

CŒRULEUM NATIVUM, i. e. Lap. lazuli.

CŒRULEUS LAPIS, i. e. Lazuli lapis, and vitriol. *cærul.*

COFFEA, called alſo coffee, jaſminum Arabicum caſtaneæ folio flore albo odoratiſſimo, coffe, choava, jaſminoides, coffee tree or buſh. It is the *coffea* Arabica. Linn.

The fruit of the *coffee* tree, called its berries, are of a pale colour and oval ſhape, rather leſs than a common bean, convex on one ſide, and flat on the other, with a remarkable furrow.

The tree is of the jeſſamine kind, with leaves like thoſe of the bay-tree: it grows in Arabia Felix; from thence it was introduced into the Weſt-Indies. The fruit is a juicy berry, including two of the ſeeds, joined by the flat ſides, and covered each with a thin ſhell.

Coffee was but little known in Europe before the ſeventeenth century. The firſt *coffee*-houſe in London was erected in the Tilt-Yard, in the year 1652. In Paris it was ſcarcely known until 1669; though at Marſeilles it was uſed in 1644. Rauwolfius, a German, and Proſper Alpinus, an Italian, were the firſt Europeans who writ on the uſe of it.

The Arabian *coffee* is called the Levant *coffee*, and is the ſmalleſt; the Java *coffee* is called the Eaſt-India *coffee*; it is larger, and of a whitiſh livid colour: the American *coffee* is called Engliſh or Surinam *coffee*; the berries are large and of a greeniſh colour; but the beſt are ſmall, cloſe, and ſomewhat tranſparent.

The Arabic word *cahoua*, ſignifies any kind of liquor, conſequently the liquor made with *coffee*. Hence the Turks derive their *cahveh*; whence again the European word *café*.

In Arabia, perſons of rank only uſe the ſeminal capſulæ, and the pellicles immediately covering the berries; theſe produce a grateful liquor, but for this purpoſe the capſules, &c. muſt be freſh. The French call this *café à la ſultane*.

The *coffee* berries have a farinaceous, ſomewhat unctuous

tuous bitterish taste; and little or no smell. It is roasted to destroy that flatulence that it hath in common with all farinaceous substances. Many seeds, &c. by roasting, acquire the flavour for which *coffee* is admired. Dillenius hath given a dissertation in the Ephem. Nat. Curioso, on the substances which in smell and taste resemble *coffee*; and finds that roasted rye, with a few roasted almonds, to furnish the necessary proportion of oil, comes the nearest to it.

From sixteen ounces of roasted *coffee*, Neumann obtained seven ounces, two drams, and two scruples of watery extract; and afterwards five drams and one scruple of spirituous extract. On inverting the procedure, he obtained four ounces and four scruples of spirituous extract, and four ounces of watery; the residuum, in both cases, was nearly the same, viz. about one half of the whole.

The roasted seeds ground into powder soon lose their flavour in the air; impart it to water and to spirit by light coction, or digestion, and give over a great part of it with water in distillation. The roasted berries keep very well; to recover their brisk flavour, lay them before the fire a few minutes, and, when it is warm, it may be ground for use, and is then as agreeable as when first roasted.

Coffee should be boiled eight or twelve hours before it is drank, and if the liquor is mixed with an equal quantity of milk, it is excellent.

If *coffee* is drank warm within an hour after dinner, it is of singular use to those who have head-achs from a weakness in the stomach, contracted by attention, or from drunkenness. It is useful when digestion is weak. The phlegmatic and corpulent are much benefited by its use. In some delicate habits it produces nervous symptoms. It is slightly astringent and antiseptic, moderates alimentary fermentation, and is powerfully sedative. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Newmann's Chem. Works; Percival's Ess. Med. and Exp. vol. ii. Lettsom's edit. of Fothergill's Works, vol. ii.

COGGYGRIA. It is a species of sumach.

COHOB. Cohobation. It is the returning of a liquor, distilled from any substance, back again upon the same substance, and distilling it again, either with or without an addition of fresh ingredients. The alembic, called a pelican, was invented for the more easily affecting this operation. Modern chymists neglect it.

COHOBATIO, i. e. Cohob.

COHOBIUM. See Cohob.

COHOL, i. e. Alcohol. Castellus says it is used in Avicenna, to express dry collyria for the eyes in fine powder.

COHOPH, i. e. Cohob.

COHYNE. An American tree, with leaves like the laurel. Its fruit is as large as a melon, shaped like an egg. The Indians make cups of it. The fruit is not eatable.

COIF. See Caput, Galea, and Vitta.

COILIMA. A sudden swelling of the belly from wind.

COITIO. The act of venery. See Venus.

COLATORIA LACTEA. Astruc says they were formerly called glands, and are situated on the third and internal tunic of the uterus, and that they are vesicular bodies.

COLATORIUM. A strainer of any kind.

COLATURA. Any strained or filtered liquor is called the colature.

COLCAQUAHUITL. An American plant commended in palsies and uterine disorders. Raii Hist.

COLCHESTER WATER. This mineral water is of the bitter purging kind, similar to that at Epsom, but not so strong.

COLCHICUM. Meadow saffron.

Boerhaave mentions eight species.

Colchicum, called also *colchicum* autumnale, *colchicum* foliis planis lanceolatis erectis, &c. Linnæi, *colchicum* commune, *colchicum* Anglicum purpureum & album. Meadow saffron.

It grows in moist meadows that are also rich; and sometimes it is found in marshy grounds. It hath two fleshy bulbous roots, the one producing from its lower part a smaller bulb. From the last arises in autumn, along a furrow, in the side of the old root, a slender, hollow, transparent pedicle, widening at the top into a flower like those of the crocuses, divided into six segments, of a purplish, or whitish colour, withering in two or three days. From the same root there comes forth in the next spring three or four upright leaves, like those of the lily, in the middle of which appear on short pedicles, commonly three triangular pods, about the size of small walnuts, divided into three cells, full of roundish dark coloured seeds. The outer root is barren and shrivelled, the inner one produces the plant.

When the root is young and fresh, its taste is very acrid; but when old, it is mealy and faint. For medical purposes it is best when full of sap. Two drams of this root killed a large dog; after putting him to great torment for about thirteen hours, it operated violently by vomit, stool, and urine. One grain of it being swallowed by a healthy man, produced heat in the stomach, and soon after flushing heats in different parts of the body, with frequent shiverings, followed by colicky pains; after which an itching in the loins, and urinary passages, was perceived, and then came on a continual inclination to make water, a tenesmus, pain in the head, a hurrying pulse, thirst, and other disagreeable symptoms.

Notwithstanding these effects, when made into an oxymel, it becomes a safe, but powerful medicine. The roots should be fresh, and full of sap, when they are used. In slicing them, they emit acrid particles, which affect the head, irritating the nostrils, throat, and breast; the fingers that hold them when cutting, become numb for a time, and lose their sensation; though after being steeped in vinegar, they are almost insipid, their acrimony being taken up by it.

When this root is imprudently swallowed, the following method gives the speediest relief. To a pint of water add an ounce of vinegar, or lemon juice, and half an ounce of the syrup of poppy heads. Of this take three ounces every quarter of an hour. After the use of this hath removed the immediate effects of the *colchicum*, finish the cure with demulcents.

Acetum Colchicum *Autumnale. Vinegar of Meadow* Saffron.

Take of the fresh roots of meadow saffron, sliced, an ounce; white wine vinegar, a pint. Mix and digest in a glass vessel, over a gentle fire, during forty-eight hours, then strain off the liquor.

To render this vinegar more mild, and less disagreeable, it is made into an oxymel, as follows:

Oxymel Colchicum *Autumnale. Oxymel of Meadow* Saffron.

With a pint of the vinegar of meadow saffron mix two pounds of honey; gently boil them into an oxymel.

This oxymel is agreeably acid, gently vellicates the tongue, is moderately astringent, excellent for cleansing the tongue from mucus; in an increased dose it is an emetic, and sometimes a purge; but its most general effect is as a diuretic, and as such it is very constant, and remarkably powerful.

The dose should be small at the first; half a tea-spoonful may be given two or three times a-day, increasing the dose as the stomach will admit. In dropsies, and tertian agues, its success has been great; as an expectorant it succeeds when squills fail; and, when opiates are joined with expectorants, this oxymel should be preferred, for no medicines in conjunction interferes with its operation. See Dr. Storck's Essay on the Use and Effects of the Root of the *Colchicum* Autumnale.

COLCHICUM. A name of the hermodactylus.

COLCHICUM ZEYLANICUM, i. e. Zedoaria.

COLCOTAR. Red ink, vitriol.

COLCOTHAR. See Vitriolum.

COLCOTHAR, (Sal). When the *colcothar* of vitriol is washed in water, a salt is obtained from it which is thus called; it is also named fixed salt of vitriol. If borax is added to this salt, and the mixture is exposed to the fire, it easily sublimes in the form of silver-coloured saline flowers, thus forming the sal sedativ. Hombergii. Two ounces of this fixed salt of vitriol well calcined, must be dissolved in a quart of warm water; the same quantity of borax must be dissolved also in a quart of warm water: these solutions being mixed and filtered, the clear liquor

muſt be evaporated in a glaſs alembic to dryneſs, then the dry maſs muſt be ſublimed. By mixing oil of vitriol with twice its weight of borax, the ſame ſedative ſalt may be obtained.

COLES, or Colis, i. e. Penis.

COLETTA VEETLA, i. e. Eryngium Zeylanicum.

COLI DEXTRUM, (LIGAMENTUM). Where the meſentery changes its name for that of meſocolon (which is about the extremity of the ileum) the particular lamina, which is turned to the right ſide, forms a ſmall tranverſe fold, which is thus named.

COLI SINISTRUM (LIGAMENTUM). It is a contraction of the meſocolon, a little below the left kidney.

COLIA, or Colias. A fiſh which reſembles a macarel.

COLICA. The colic.

The appellation of *colic* is commonly given to all pains of the belly, almoſt indiſcriminately, but properly it is confined to pains ſeated in the colon; however it is not neceſſarily ſo limited. From the different cauſes and circumſtances of this diſorder it is differently denominated, and ſome difference is alſo to be obſerved in the cure in different caſes.

When the pain is accompanied with a vomiting of bile, or with obſtinate coſtiveneſs, it is called a bilious *colic*; if flatus cauſes the pain, it takes the name of flatulent, or windy *colic*; theſe two laſt named are varieties only of the ſpaſmodic *colic*: when accompanied with ſymptoms of heat and inflammation, it takes the name of inflammatory *colic*, &c. The different kinds ſeem to be properly included under the diſtinctions of inflammatory, ſpaſmodic, or from irritation, and flatulent, or from wind.

The inflammatory is when actual inflammation ſeizes ſome part of the inteſtinal canal, the diſorder will then be conſidered and treated as an inflammation of the reſpective part. See INFLAMMATION of the STOMACH and INTESTINES.

The ſpaſmodic is, when pain affects the belly, principally about the navel, is attended with an obſtinate coſtiveneſs, and either a nauſea, or actual vomiting. In the beginning it is abſolutely void of inflammation, though, as a conſequence, this ſymptom ſometimes appears.

The flatulent is, when from a ſudden rarefaction of vapours in the inteſtinal canal there is pain; and as an effect of the diſtenſion, or of the pain, a conſtipation of the belly.

Dr Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs Neroſes, and order Spaſmi. He enumerates ſeven ſpecies. 1. *Colica* ſpaſmodica, with retraction of the navel and ſpaſm of the muſcles of the belly. 2. *Colica* Pictonum, this in many things is like the former, at length terminates with pains in the arms and back, which uſher in a palſy. 3. *Colica* ſtercorea, which happens from coſtiveneſs. 4. *Colica* accidentalis, from ſharp undigeſted matters. 5. *Colica* meconialis, in infants, from a retention of meconium. 6. *Colica* calloſa, from a callous ſtricture of the colon. 7. *Colica* calculoſa, from calculi formed in the inteſtines.

The ſpaſmodic *colic* is treated of under a variety of names: Hippocrates ſeems to include it under pains of the belly, where he calls all pains of the inteſtines, iliac; others, ſince him, have named it chordapſus, ileus, volvulus, &c. Writers of a more modern date have named it differently, according as it appeared epidemically in a particular country, or was apprehended to proceed from a particular cauſe, or had certain ſymptoms attending it: hence the names *colica* Pictonum, *colica* ſaturnina, *colica* pſumbariorum, *colica* Damnoniorum, or of Devonſhire, bilious *colic*, dry belly-ach, the painter's colic, ſpaſmodic *colic*, nervous *colic*, *colic* of Surinam, &c. &c.

Pains of the bowels are common to all ages, but the tender and eaſily irritable, are moſt frequently ſubject to them.

As to the ſeat, the whole region of the inteſtines is the ſubject of this diſorder; in any part of them it may manifeſt its preſence.

Whatever be the preceding, the immediate cauſe is always a ſpaſm: and with reſpect to the theory of pains in the inteſtines, it may be obſerved, that the cauſe from whence they ariſe, hath its ſeat in a part diſtant from where the uneaſineſs is felt. Whenever an inflation happens in an inteſtine, there is either an obſtruction from excrements, or a ſpaſm in another part. When either obſtruction or conſtriction happens in ſome part of the ſmall inteſtines, or a compreſſion on them; or when a load of excrement is lodged in the beginning of the colon on the right ſide, there ariſes a great and painful inflation of the belly above and below the navel, and alſo in the middle of the ſame. If the lower part of the colon, or the inteſtinum rectum, is thus affected, the colon in the left hypochondrium, towards the ſpleen, together with that part of it which is ſeated beneath the ſtomach, and near the liver, becomes greatly inflated. When, as it often happens in hypochondriac and hyſteric diſorders, the beginning of the jejunum, or end of the duodenum, is ſpaſmodically affected, there preſently ariſes a ſevere pain in the loins, on account of the ſuperior meſenteric, and intercoſtal branch of the nerves, which ſpread themſelves on the jejunum. In this caſe the duodenum and ſtomach are inflated, the breathing is thereby affected, and great anxiety comes on.

Spaſms may be excited by extraordinary agitations of mind, or uneaſy affections thereof; alſo by acrid and ſtimulating matter thrown upon the bowels. Bile, and other excrementitious ſordes, may be too long retained, or otherwiſe have changed their healthy qualities; acrid ſubſtances may be ſwallowed, or conveyed to the inteſtines by other means; vapours from lead, in the various employs where its uſe is frequent, as well as ſolutions of it from the tinning, by which kettles, &c. are lined, and various other methods by which this pernicious metal is conveyed into our bodies; the matter of the gout, &c. diverted from their original ſeat to the inteſtines; worms; obſtructed periodical evacuations, &c.

Whatever be the cauſe, the approach and progreſs of this diſorder is nearly the ſame. It begins with a ſenſe of weight, or pain, at the pit of the ſtomach, attended with loſs of appetite, yellowneſs in the countenance, a ſlight ſickneſs and coſtiveneſs; the pain gradually increaſes, and from wandering about becomes fixed ſomewhere about the navel, from whence painful dartings proceed, at times, in various directions; wherever pain is felt, a forenefs and tenderneſs remain ſometime afterwards; the ſickneſs keeps pace with the pain, and, at length, a vomiting of bilious matter comes on; the urine is diminiſhed in its uſual quantity, and a teneſmus ſometimes adds to all the other grievances. While the pain is ſpaſmodic, the pulſe remains unaffected, except concurring circumſtances produce a change in it; the urine is various; if the ſmaller inteſtines are the ſeat of the pain, it is felt more acutely; if the larger inteſtines are the parts aggrieved, the ſenſe of pain is more dull and heavy; ſometimes there is a bitter taſte in the mouth, and a yellowneſs in the countenance: if the ſymptoms are not relieved, an inflammation, or a gangrene, may enſue; or, the excrements returning, are ejected by vomit, and the iliac paſſion puts an end to the whole, by opening the way for death.

The *colic* ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from a fit of the gravel; ſtones paſſing through the ureters; rheumatic pains in the muſcles of the belly; a beginning dyſentery; the blind piles; from a ſtone paſſing through the gall-duct; and from the flatulent pains which receive the denomination of flatulent *colic*.

Of the remarkable ſymptoms that ſometimes come on in conſequence of this diſorder, a palſy is the chief. Dr. Thierry ſays, that it is the natural criſis of a *colic*: however it may be obſerved, that it ſometimes comes on during the fit, though generally it follows; and, ſecondly, it ſeldom appears after the firſt fit, if the *colic* was not ill-treated.

When the *colic* attacks with a ſhivering, and the pain is very violent, great danger attends it, for an inflammation is denoted thereby. When lead is the cauſe, the *colic* is apt to terminate in a ſpaſmodic aſthma, or a palſy. A ſweat, a ſalivation, an hæmorrhage at the noſe, or from the hæmorrhoidal veins, ſpontaneouſly occurring, ſometimes terminates the *colic*: though, if after the ſtrength is exhauſted, a colliquative ſweat comes on, a ſtupor of the hands or feet are to be feared, if not a true palſy. If the violence of the pain continues to encreaſe, fatal effects are to be expected.

As preventives from this complaint, thoſe who are at times afflicted with pains in the belly ſhould be careful to keep

keep from all violent agitations of the mind, ſhun expoſures to the northern winds, keep the feet dry and warm, abſtain from flatulent food, and from ſpirituous liquors. Thoſe whoſe occupation ſubjects them to the fumes of lead, or to the influence of any of its preparations, ſhould breakfaſt on fat broth, or eat bread that is ſpread with ſweet lard, before they begin their work.

In order to the cure, as a ſpaſm is declared to be the immediate cauſe, its reſolution is the chief indication; to which end relaxing and antiſpaſmodic medicines, with purges, which, while they ſolicit the internal diſcharge, will not increaſe the morbid irritation, are the proper means.

If the pains are violent, and the pulſe full, take away blood in proportion to the ſtrength of the patient; after which the ſtomach may be cleaned with as much warm camomile tea as will excite two or three diſcharges by vomiting, or if need be, a few grains of ipecacuanha may be given.

After the ſtomach is cleanſed, opium ſhould be given, and the doſe, which may be more or leſs, according to the violence of the pain, muſt be repeated every two or three hours, until ſleep is procured, and eaſe obtained. The notion that a free uſe of opium may cauſe the palſy is erroneous.

As ſoon as by a due uſe of opium the ſickneſs and pain abate, let gentle purges, that is, ſuch as operate with the leaſt irritation, be given: when the pain is firſt moderated by the uſe of opium, take ʒ ii. of the ſal. cath. amar. in warm water; if repeated every two hours it will operate with ſufficient efficacy; though the ol. ricini ſhould be preferred, becauſe its repetition need not be ſo frequent as the other purgatives: however, in want of it, ʒ i. of crem. tart. or ʒ ſs. of ſulph. præcip. may be repeated every hour or two. The ol. ricini may be given to ℥ i. with an equal quantity of the tinct. ſtom. ph. Lond. or any other agreeable mixture. If the ol. ricini is not to be had, any other purgative that is not painful in its operation may be uſed. When a free paſſage is obtained downwards, laxatives muſt ſtill be continued, until all danger of a relapſe ſeems to be removed.

If doſes of a grain or two of opium, repeated every ſix hours, fail to relieve, forty drops of the tinct. theb. may be mixed with four ounces of warm olive oil, and injected clyſterwiſe. This may be repeated as often as the pain returns.

In caſe of a relapſe, after the good effect of purges, the propereſt method is to begin as at the firſt, and moderate the pain by means of opium, before the uſe of purging medicines.

Fomentations, and warm baths, may prove auxiliaries, but no great dependance is to be had on them. It is true, that while the patient is ſet in the warm bath, the pain abates, but when he is taken out, it returns. In this diſorder, the pain muſt be allayed during ſome hours, before the inteſtines will be diſpoſed to perform their office of excretion, and few, if any patients, can continue in the bath ſo long as eaſe is required. Some aſſert, that the warm bath being uſed before the belly is evacuated, is hurtful, by conveying the offending humours into the blood, inſtead of determining them to the ſkin, and thus may be the cauſe of convulſions.

Dr. Warren and Biſs relate their ſucceſs in attempting the cure of the *colica Pictonum*, as it is denominated by one, and the dry belly-ach by the other, by means of a ſalivation with mercury; and obſerve, that as ſoon as the ptyaliſm was perceived, the pain abated, and returned no more. One of theſe gentlemen obſerves, that in mild caſes, where a ſalivation ſeemed not neceſſary, bliſters applied to the upper and fore-part of the thighs, near the groin, were ſometimes effectual. Dr. Hugh Smith adviſes to apply the bliſters on the belly.

Dr. Graſhuis commends allum as a ſpecific in this diſorder: and Dr. Percival, in his Eſſ. Med. and Exp. relates the ſucceſſes which hath attended his uſe of this medicine in various painful diſorders of the bowels. He gives it from gr. x. ad. xx. every four or ſix hours; and a few doſes thus adminiſtered, never failed to procure relief, and, duly repeated, to effect a cure.

Dr. Percival alſo propoſes as follows, in a letter to Dr. Duncan, which is inſerted in the 5th vol. of Edinb. Med. Comment. p. 172, &c. In violent *colics*, attended with vomiting and an obſtinate conſtipation of the bowels, it has been the common practice amongſt phyſicians to give opiates, in conjunction with purgatives. This method of treatment has been lately improved by adminiſtering the opiate firſt, and the purgative an hour or two afterwards. But I take the liberty of ſuggeſting to you another mode, which, as far as my own experience extends, has proved the moſt ſucceſsful. I direct three or four ounces of a ſtrong decoction of poppy heads, with twenty, thirty, or forty drops of tinctura thebaica to be injected into the inteſtines, and retained as long as poſſible. If it be ſpeedily diſcharged, the glyſter is repeated till the pain is relieved, and the vomiting ceaſes. A doſe of calomel and jalap, or of any other briſk cathartic, is then adminiſtered, and its operation quickened by the uſe of ſena tea, of a ſolution of the neutral ſalts, or of caſtor oil. By this proceſs, evacuations are procured with more eaſe, certainty, and expedition, than by any other which I have tried. For opium, when given in a clyſter, does not check the periſtaltic motion of the inteſtines, nor counteract the operation of any purgative ſo powerfully as when received into the ſtomach. And, in this way, it is moſt efficacious in alleviating the ſickneſs, and in putting a ſtop to the violent reachings with which *colics* are often attended. The taſte of laudanum is often ſo nauſeous, that it is often rejected as ſoon as ſwallowed. And, if the extractum thebaicum be given in a ſolid form, time muſt be allowed for its ſolution, before any effect can be expected from it.

The columbo-root infuſed in boiling water, and given to the patient in the beginning of this diſorder, may be uſeful to abate the ſickneſs and vomiting.

The palſy which remains after the removal of the colic is beſt relieved by the uſe of Bath-water; but as the circumſtances of many do not admit of this method, the whole length of the ſpine may be rubbed with Barbadoes tar, diſſolved in rum, and ſuch other antiparalytics may be uſed, as the conſtitution of the patient, and other circumſtances, may admit.

See Dr. Tronchin on the *Colica Pictonum*, with Dr. Schomberg's Notes. Dr. Thierry on the *Colica Pictonum*. Dr. De Haen on the *Colica Pictonum*. Dr. Huxham on the *Colic* of Devonſhire. Dr. Warren's Account of the *Colica Pictonum*, in the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 68, &c. Dr. Sydenham's Works, with Notes, by Dr. Swan. Dr. Percival's Eſſays, Med. and Exp. vol. ii. p. 194. &c. Dr. Brooks and the London Practices of Phyſic. Med. Muſ. vol. iii. p. 579, &c. and Dr. Shebbear's Theory and Practice of Phyſic. Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. iii.

The flatulent *colic* is uſually a ſymptom or conſequence of ſome other diſorder, and is neither accompanied with fever nor thirſt; however, the pain is acute, as the ſeat of the complaint is the ſmall inteſtines; cardialgic ſymptoms, with efforts to vomit, ſometimes attend, and a coſtiveneſs is the conſequence of the great diſtenſion.

Sometimes it is cauſed by wetting the feet, or otherways checking the perſpiration; in which caſe, inſtead of taking heating medicines, rubbing the legs with warm cloths, and afterwards keeping the feet for ſome time in warm water, will be the moſt effectual remedy.

When a perſon is ſubject to frequent returns of this diſorder, it proves that their digeſtive powers are weak, and in order to the cure, this circumſtance is to be attended to.

To promote the diſcharge of wind, clyſters of warm water, with a little common ſalt, may be frequently repeated. Warm camomile tea may be now and then drank, and tinct. of rhubarb, with a few drops of the oil of mint.

Cream of tartar, diſſolved in water, is a uſeful drink.

Sometimes the Philon. Lond. joined with rhubarb, gives ſpeedy relief.

COLICA SINISTRA, [Arteria] i. e. Meſenterica inferior arteria.

COLICA SUPERIOR, [Arteria] i. e. Meſenterica ſuperior.

COLICA VENA. It is a branch from the vena meſaraica major. It runs from the anterior part of the trunk before it joins the artery, to the middle of the colon, where it divides to the right and left, and forms arches. On the left it communicates with the upper branch of the hæmor-

hæmorrhoidalis, and on the right with the ſecond branch of the meſaraica.

COLICA RECTA, [VENA]. It is a branch of the gaſtro-colica vena; it goes to the right portion of the colon, from thence to the upper part thereof, where it divides, and anaſtomoſes with the *colica*, and the cœcalis.

COLLICULUM, i. e. Nymphæ.

COLIFORME OS, i. e. Os cribroſum.

COLINIL. The name of an American plant, the juice of which, with a little honey, cures puſtules in the mouth. Raii Hiſt.

COLIPHIUM. A ſort of bread made of the flower and bran all together as it comes from the mill. It was made for the wreſtlers. This name is derived from Greek words, which imply ſtrength of limbs. Κωλον, a *member*, and ἰσχυς, *ſtrength*. Some of the moſt ancient nations called the bread thus made panis furfuraceus, ſee AULIUS GELLIUS, lib. ii. cap. 9. Panis impurus, ſee Hippocrates. Athenæus l. 3. calls it ſyncomiſton, i. e. *bread* prepared of unſifted meal. Cœlius Rhodiginus, l. 9. c. 16. calls it panis Cibarius, and panis Gregarius. Terence calls it panis Afer. It is the ſame as in Weſtphalia is called bompour nickel, which ſee. This ſort of *bread* was always eſteemed both for nouriſhing the body, and for rendering it robuſt. The Greeks called that bread moſt nouriſhing that had the moſt bran in it, and that ſort leaſt nouriſhing that had the moſt flour in it. Varrius in Pliny, informs us that the Roman people, for 300 years, uſed only the bran of their corn.

COLIS, i. e. Penis.

COLLATENNA. A certain ſpecific for the cure of wounds. It is mentioned by Paracelſus in his De Vita Longa.

COLLATERALIS. So Spigelius calls the erectores penis, from its collateral order of fibres.

COLLATITIUM. A ſort of food prepared, according to Blancard, of the fleſh of a capon, or a pullet bruiſed, and then mixed with mutton broth, and given with verjuice, or lemon juice.

COLLETICA, from κόλλα, *glue*. Conglutinating medicines.

COLLICIÆ. The union of the ducts which convey the humours of the eyes from the puncta lachrymalia to the cavity of the noſe.

COLLICULA, i. e. Nymphæ. A dim. of collis, a hill.

COLLIGAMEN. A ligament.

COLLIQUAMENTUM. An extremely tranſparent fluid in an egg, obſervable after two or three days incubation, containing the firſt rudiments of the chick. It is included in its own proper membranes, diſtinct from the albumen. Harvey calls it oculus.

COLLIQUATIO, Colliquation. A diſſolving, or waſting, from *colliquo*, *to melt away*.

COLLISIO. See CONTUSIO.

COLLIX. A ſort of round loaf or cake; but in Hippocrates, and other Greek medicinal writers, κολλιξ, imports a ſort of paſtil, or troche, of the form abovementioned.

COLLOBOMA. The growing together of the eyelids.

COLLODES. Glutinous, from κολλα, *glue*.

COLLODIUM. A word in Paracelſus's De Vita Longa, but he no where explains it.

COLLUM, i. e. Cervix.

COLLUTORIUM ORIS, i. e. Gargariſma.

COLLYMUS VEL COLLINUS LAPIS, i. e. Lap. Ætites.

COLLYRIUM, from κολλα, *glue*, and ουρα, *a tail*, becauſe the ancient collyria were in the form of a rat's tail, and prepared of powders made up of ſomething glutinous; according to ſome, from κωλυω, *to ſtop*, and ῥυσις, *a running*. Suppoſitories, tents, and other things, have been called *collyria* from their form; but as they were uſed whole, or in their proper form, they were called entire; but what were called *collyria*, without the epithet entire, were powdered fine and applied to the eyes.

At preſent a *collyrium* only means a topical medicine for the eyes. It differs not from a lotion, but as applied to the eyes, it is now called a *collyrium*.

Collyriums made with vegetables and ſalts that entirely diſſolve, are more elegant, and agree better with the eyes, than when they are made with powders.

Hoffman condemns all acrid, aſtringent, cooling, drying, and mucilaginous applications to the eyes. Wedelius ſays, that opium does not eaſe pain in the eyes when externally applied, but rather excites greater heat. He ſays, that aloes eaſe the eyes more than opium.

COLLYR. CŒRULEUM, i. e. Sapphirina aqua.

COLLYRIUM SAMIUM. Brown Samian earth. It is an earth of the marly kind. There is alſo a white ſort. They are brought from the iſland of Samos.

COLLYRIUM SICCUM, i. e. P. e ceruſs comp.

COLOBOMA, from κολοβοω, *to maim*, the growing together of the eye-lids. Alſo the want of a particular member or part of the body.

COLOBOMATA. In Celſus this word is expreſſed by curta. Both the words ſignify a deficiency in ſome part of the body, particularly the ears, lips, or alæ of the noſtrils.

COLOCASIA. It is a plant with a tuberous, thick, and farinaceous root. Boerhaave mentions five ſpecies, but nothing is ſaid of it as a medicine. It is alſo a name of the Egyptian bean. See FABA.

COLOCHIERNI CARDUUS CRETENSIBUS. A plant which differs very little from the atractylis.

COLOCYNTHIS. Bitter-apple. Alſo called handala, alhandale, colocynthidis medulla coloquintida. *Bitter* or *wild gourd*. It is the dried pulpy part of a ſpecies of *gourd*. The cucumis colocynthis, or cucumis foliis multifidis, pomoſis globoſis glabris. Linn. differing from the common ſort only in the leaves being more deeper jagged, and the fruit not eatable. The plant is the cucumis foliis multifidis pomis globoſis glabris Linnæi. It is brought from Aleppo, and grows in many parts of Turkey. It is very light, white, and of a fungous texture, compoſed as it were of membraneous leaves, with a number of roundiſh ſeeds lodged in the cavities.

The ſeeds are unctuous and ſweetiſh like thoſe of cucumbers, but not purging; the fungous medulla, freed from the ſeeds, is acrid, nauſeous, and bitter to the taſte, and is a ſtrong, irritating cathartic; ſome commend it alſo in leſſer doſes, as an alterative in chronical diſorders. It is rarely uſed alone, though ten or twelve grains will purge violently, but is mixed with other purgatives, to quicken their operation.

When boiled in water it gives out a large quantity of ſlime; to proof ſpirit it does the ſame; the watery decoction inſpiſſated to an extract purges briſkly, but with leſs irritation than the *colocynth* itſelf, and half its weight of this extract it affords. Mr. Balduc ſays, that the active matter reſides in its ſalts, which far exceed the reſin and the oil in quantity, and that, hence, water is its beſt menſtruum.

It is uſed in the extr. cathartic, which ſee. The London college gives the two following forms, in which it is a principal ingredient.

Pil. ex Colocynthide *Simpliciores. The more ſimple Pills of* Coloquintida.

Take the pith of *coloquintida* and ſcammony, of each two ounces; of the oil of cloves, two drams. Let the dry ſpecies be reduced to powder ſeparately, the oil mixed with them, and the whole formed into a maſs with ſyrup of buckthorn.

This was formerly called pil. ex duobus. In powdering the *colocynth*, the mortar ſhould be rubbed with a little oil, and a few drops may occaſionally be added, to prevent the finer parts from flying off; the ſeeds ſhould be thrown out. Theſe pills purge briſkly in doſes from ten grains to half a dram.

Pil. Colocynthide *cum* Aloe. *Pills of* Coloquintida *with* Aloes.

Take Socotrine *aloes* and ſcammony, of each two ounces: of the pith of *coloquintida*, one ounce; of oil of cloves, two drams. Let the dry ſpecies be reduced to powder ſeparately, the oil mixed among them, and the whole be formed into a maſs with the ſyrup of buckthorn.

This was formerly called pil. cocciæ, or pil. cochiæ, probably from a corruption of the Greek words κοκκος,

or κοκκια, which are only general names for pills. Galen firſt preſcribed them, though they have been attributed to others.

COLOCYNTHIS FRUCTU ROTUNDO MAJOR. The greater coloquintida. It grows where the above ſpecies is met with, and poſſeſſes ſimilar virtues.

COLOCYNTHIS MONOCOCCOS. See SICYOIDES Americana fructu echinato foliis angulatis.

COLON, from κωλον, *hollow*. It is the firſt of the large inteſtines, and the moſt conſiderable of them all. From the cœcum it reaches in the form of an arch above the umbilical region, and to the lower part of the left hypochondrium, then runs down before the left kidney, to which it is connected, and below which it turns toward the ſpine, and forming two oppoſite convolutions, terminates in the rectum, which having paſſed below the laſt vertebra of the loins to the inſide of the os ſacrum, is bent backwards on the concave ſide, to which it is connected, and running in the direction of the os coccygis, bends a little forwards, and terminates in the extremity of that bone.

The continuity of the *colon* is a little interrupted by the inteſtinum ileum, which advances into the cavity of the *colon*, and together with a certain fold of that inteſtine, forms what is called valvula coli.

The whole convex ſide of the *colon* is divided longitudinally into three parts by three ligamentary bands, continued from thoſe of the cœcum, and of the ſame ſtructure with them. Two of theſe bands run on each ſide along the great curvature of the *colon*, and the third along the ſmall curvature. This laſt was firſt noticed by M. Morgagni. Between theſe ligaments the inteſtine is formed into cells, called the cells of the *colon*, and are proceſſes of all the coats. The cellular coat does not differ from that of the ſmall inteſtines; the internal coat is not villous, but papillous; the rugæ are waved and irregular.

Where the ileum terminates, there is a valve called valvula cœci, coli, or ilii. Its figure is oval, it keeps ſoft and looſe, and upon the very edge there is a diſtant ſphincter, which acts ſo as to hinder the feces from returning into the ileum.

The whole courſe of this inteſtine is ſuch, that when warm clyſters are plenteouſly injected, their efficacy is by it applied to almoſt all the abdominal viſcera, for it begins under the right kidney, and runs up on its fore-part, paſſes under the gall-bladder, then runs upon the firſt curvature of the duodenum, to all which it adheres; from thence it runs before the great convexity of the ſtomach, then touches the ſpleen, and goes on to the left kidney, &c. as abovementioned.

The *colon* on its upper part receives arteries from the meſenterica ſuperior and inferior, the lower portion is ſupplied from the meſenterica inferior, one of which forms the internal hæmorrhoidal artery. The veins are from the vena portæ ventralis, the meſaraica major and minor, or hæmorrhoidalis interna. The nerves of the arch of the *colon* are the two meſenteric plexuſes.

When pain is in the *colon*, it is leſs acute, and with a ſenſe of weight; when in the ſmall guts, there is not any ſenſe of weight, but an acute pain. If fever attends pain in the *colon*, the pain extending to the ribs gives a ſuſpicion of pleuriſy, though the *colon* in reality is only affected. The *colon* is narrower in the right ſide than elſewhere, whence colic pains riſe more frequently, and rack more violently in this part. The excrements are long retained here, and often are much indurated before they paſs further on.

COLOPHONIA. Colophony, or black roſin. It is alſo called reſina fricta vel toſta, and dried *roſin*. It is only *roſin* whoſe humid and volatile parts are moſt diſſipated. It receives its name of *colophonia* from Colophon, a city of Ionia, becauſe the beſt was formerly brought from thence.

Two ſorts are mentioned in ancient writings, the one dry, the other in a liquid form. The latter ſeems to have been liquid pitch, which is the crude *roſin* of the pine brought from Colophon, the former was the reſina fricta. The latter Greeks called every kind of *roſin* colophony.

The beſt colophony is the *roſin* of turpentine, which after the ethereal oil is diſtilled, is again urged by a ſtrong continued fire.

COLOQUINTIDA, i. e. Colocynthis.

COLOR INDUS. It is a mixture of blue and purple.

COLOSTRUM. The firſt milk of any animal after bringing forth its young is thus called; that from cows is alſo called beeſtings. It is gently cathartic, and purges off the meconium, thus it ſerves both as aliment and medicine.

An emulſion prepared with turpentine, diſſolved with the yolk of egg, is ſometimes called coloſtrum.

COLOTES. A kind of lizard.

COLOTOIDES. Variegated like the ſkin of a lizard, Hippocrates applies it to the excrements.

COLPOCELE. A hernia that is ſeated in the vagina. In the Edinb. Med. Comment. vol. v. p. 257, is the following inſtance of the urinary bladder protruding into the vagina. The patient had been, for many years, liable to violent hyſteric affections, which at laſt were ſucceeded by a dry, convulſive kind of a cough. When in courſe of time, this cough diſappeared, ſhe was ſeized with a ſuppreſſion of urine, together, with great pain and tenſeneſs in the abdomen. Other remedies failing, the catheter was had recourſe to, for evacuating the urine, but it was with difficulty introduced. This ſuppreſſion returned very frequently; was always preceded by the convulſive cough, and ſometimes even with convulſions, which commonly ended in faintings. The obſtruction which occurred to the introduction of the catheter, ſeemed to proceed from a conſiderable weight and pain which the patient complained of in the forepart of the genitals, and which was always moſt ſevere when the ſuppreſſion of urine was not conſiderable. On examining the parts, the hypogaſtric region was tenſe and painful, but there was no conſiderable tumor perceivable, as there uſually is, in the under part of the belly, when the urine has been long ſuppreſſed; but, upon introducing the finger into the vagina, while the ſuppreſſion continued, a large tumor was diſcovered, which occupied the whole cavity of the vagina. In this ſwelling, a fluctuation was perceived, but no urine could be evacuated by compreſſing it, unleſs the catheter was at the ſame time introduced, and then a plentiful evacuation enſued; though, even in this manner, the contents of the ſwelling could not be entirely diſcharged, unleſs the compreſſion was continued. When the urine was entirely evacuated, the catheter could be eaſily introduced; the tumor diſappeared; the ſuperior part of the vagina felt lax and flaccid; and the finger could be eaſily puſhed up to the mouth of the uterus, till the tumor began again to increaſe, by the urine collecting in the bladder. Then the ſuppreſſion returned, attended with tenſion and pain as before, which commonly ended in convulſions, unleſs the urine was in due time evacuated by the introduction of the catheter. The urine, which at firſt was of a natural appearance, after the diſorder had ſubſiſted for ſome time, became leſs pure, and ſeemed to contain a number of ſmall membranous filaments, as if the internal coat of the bladder had been eroded by it. From this time, the ſenſibility of the bladder became ſo much increaſed, that it was found neceſſary to introduce the catheter much more frequently than before. On conſidering the caſe, it appeared, that a peſſary, properly adapted for the ſupport of the relaxed parts, would, in this caſe, probably be the moſt effectual remedy; and an inſtrument of that kind being procured, and ſo conſtructed as not to prevent the diſcharge of the menſtrual flux, it was introduced; and being continued for ſeveral years, till the parts had again recovered their tone, a complete cure was at length obtained. The peſſary was then no longer neceſſary, and the patient diſcharged her urine with perfect eaſe.

COLPOS. The ſame as SINUS, which ſee.

COLPOPTOSIS. A bearing down of the vagina.

COLUBRINA, i. e. Serpentaria. It is alſo a name of the dracontium, and of the biſtorta.

COLUBRINA LUSITANIA, (HERBA), i. e. Caacica.

COLUBRINUM, called colubrinum lignum, radix colubrina, nux vomica minor Moluccana, modira caniram, nux vomica altera, ſolanum arboreſcens Indicum, and ſnake-weed tree.

It is the wood of the trees on which the nux vomica grows, and of other trees of a ſimilar kind. Linnæus mentions two ſpecies of ſtrychnos, viz. ſtrychnos nux

vomica, and ſtrychnos colubrina. They are brought from the Eaſt Indies in pieces about the ſize of a man's arm, covered with a browniſh or ruſty coloured bark, internally of a yellow colour, with whitiſh ſtreaks.

It hath a faint ſmell, but not a diſagreeable one; on chewing it ſome time, it is bitteriſh: it gives a gold colour to water and to ſpirit. It affords a fourth of its weight of extract by means of ſpirit, but not ſo much by water.

It hath been given in doſes to half a dram, as an anthelmintic, in quartan agues and ſome other diſorders. It operates differently, ſometimes paſſing off by urine, at others by ſweat, and alſo by ſtool. In a leſſer degree it poſſeſſes the ill qualities of the nuces vomicæ.

COLUBRINUS LAPIS, alſo called ſerpentis lapis. It hath its name from the *coluber* ſnake, from which it was thought to be taken; but it is now known to be an artificial compoſition. It is made of hartſhorn, luted up in an earthen pot, where it burns to a blackneſs, and is afterwards poliſhed. The Moors ſay it is made of a kind of clay. It is fabled to be a cure for the bites of ſerpents, by applying it to the wound.

COLUMBAC. That part of the agallochum which is betwixt the heart and that part which is next the bark.

COLUMBINA. See AQUILEGIA.

COLUMBO, Columobè, or in the Portugueſe language raijs de Moſambique.

It is produced in Aſia, from whence it was tranſplanted to *Columbo*, a town in the iſland of Ceylon, whence its name, and from whence all the Eaſt Indies is ſupplied with it.

It is brought into Europe in circular pieces of different ſizes up to three inches diameter; its ſides are covered with a thick wrinkled bark, of a dark brown hue externally, but internally of a light yellow. It is a root, and conſiſts of three laminæ, viz. the cortical, which in the larger pieces is a quarter of an inch thick; the ligneous, which is about half an inch; and the medullary, which forms the center, and is near an inch in diameter. This laſt is ſofter than the other parts, and when chewed ſeems to be very mucilaginous. Many ſmall fibres run longitudinally through it. The cortical and ligneous parts are divided by a circular black line.

It hath an aromatic ſmell, but is diſagreeably bitter, and ſlightly pungent to the taſte.

It is almoſt a ſpecific in the cholera morbus, nauſea, vomiting, purging, diarrhœa, dyſentery, bilious fever, indigeſtion, want of appetite, acidity in the primæ viæ, and moſt diſorders of the ſtomach and bowels. It is powerfully ſedative, corroborant, and antiſeptic. The bark more powerfully reſiſts the putrefaction of animal fleſh, but this root exceeds it in preſerving the bile from putridity, and alſo in correcting its begun putreſcency. It is a good ſubſtitute to the bark where an averſion thereto renders the taking of it difficult. A tincture of this root in brandy is the moſt uſeful remedy known for moderating the reachings ſo commonly attendant on pregnant women during the firſt months of pregnancy.

It may be given in powder from three grains, to two drams, but the common doſe is from ten to fifteen grains, every three or four hours.

Diſtilled with ſpirit, it ſends over little or nothing of its taſte or ſmell; but the extract made by evaporating a decoction of it in rectified ſpirit of wine is better than the root itſelf in powder: about two-thirds of this root is obtained in the ſpirituous extract.

A tincture is made by infuſing an ounce of this root in powder with a pint of good brandy; a table ſpoonful of which may be taken in mint-water, or an infuſion of orange peel, which laſt renders it the moſt grateful. It powerfully and ſpeedily relieves colicky pains from flatulence or from indigeſtion.

Extract of Columbo-Root.

Take twelve ounces of *Columbo-root* in powder, digeſt it four days in rectified ſpirit of wine, three pints; filter this tincture; boil the reſiduum repeatedly in different waters, until it yields little or no taſte to the liquor; ſtrain the decoction, and evaporate until ſix pints only remain; then evaporate in a vapour-bath, and, when nearly finiſhed, add to it the tincture, and reduce the whole to the conſiſtence of a pill.

In diſorders of the ſtomach, attended with a violent fermentation of the food, with flatulence and great acidity, no other known medicine equals this extract.

See Med. Mag. No. 3. Dr. Percival's Eſſays, Med. and Exp. vol. i. ed. 2.

COLUMELLA. The clitoris, alſo the uvula, and the falling down of the uvula.

COLUMELLARES DENTES, i. e. Dentes canini.

COL. ET COLUM. ECPH. An abbreviation of Fabius Columna minus cognitarum rariumque ſtirpium Ecphraſis, 1, 2. Romæ, 1616. 4to.

COL. ET COLUM. PHYT. An abbreviation of Fabius Columna Phytobaſanos ſive Plantarum aliquot Hiſtoria. Neap. 1592.

COL. ET COLUM. INRECH. An abbreviation of Fabius Columna in Rechum in Hernandez. Romæ, 1649.

COLUMNÆ CORDIS. Theſe are ſmall, long, and round fleſhy productions in the ventricles of the heart. According to Le Dran, the baſis of the heart is alſo thus named.

COLUMNA NASI. The loweſt and fleſhy part of the noſe, which forms a part of the ſeptum.

COLUMNA ORIS, i. e. Uvula.

COLUMNÆ SEPTIPALATI. Theſe are the two arches on each ſide of the uvula. See PALATUM MOLLE.

COLUS JOVIS. A ſpecies of clary.

COLUTEA, called alſo ſenna pauperum, *colutea* veſicaria, ſenna Mauritanorum, pſeudo-ſenna, ſenna Europea. Baſtard ſenna. Botaniſts enumerate ſix ſpecies.

It is a buſh whoſe flowers are ſucceeded by large, ſwelled, thin bladders, flattiſh on the upper part, ſharper and boat-faſhioned underneath, with a crooked appendix at the end, full of black kidney-like ſeeds. It grows wild in Italy, and flowers in July. The leaves and ſeed purge violently both upward and downward. Miller's Bot. Off.

COLUTEA SILIQUOSA. See EMERUS.

COLUTEA MINIMA. A ſpecies of coronilla.

COLUTEA INDICA HERBACEA. See INDICUM.

COLUTEA. Milk-vetch. See POLYGALA.

COLUTEA SCORPIOIDES. See EMERUS.

COLUTEA HUMILIS. See EMERUS.

COLYMBADES. Olives pickled in ſalt. Some ſay, olives pickled, and ſwiming in their own oil.

COLYMBÆNA. A ſort of ſhrimp.

COLYMBETHRA. A ſort of baſon for ſwiming in.

COLYTEA. See SILIQUASTRUM.

COMA. In Botany, is the top of a branch, or flower, or plant, or of the leaves of trees. Raii Hiſt.

COMA, κωμα. In Galen's Exegeſis it is expounded by cataphora, and in his treatiſe of a *coma*, he ſays, that *coma* includes every cataphora, both the ſleepy and wakeful. By the word *coma* the author of Prorrheticon often expreſſes a lethargy. Some call the *coma* by the name typhomania, being ſuppoſed to conſiſt of a mixture of the phrenzy and the lethargy. It is the *coma* ſomnolentum of authors. In reality, it is a leſs violent degree of apoplexy, in which the loſs of ſenſation is not ſo conſiderable. See CAROS.

COMA AUREA. Goldy locks, alſo golden cudweed.

COMA. The hair of the head, whence

COMÆ. The tops of plants or the leaves of trees.

COMAROIDES. Barren ſtrawberry. See ARBUTUS.

COMARUS, i. e. Arbutus.

COMATA. Under this name, Dr. Cullen hath an order in his Noſology, in the claſs neuroſes. In this order he comprehends thoſe affections which have generally been called ſoporoſe diſeaſes; but (he ſays) they are moſt properly diſtinguiſhed by their conſiſting in ſome interruption or ſuppreſſion of their powers of ſenſe and voluntary motion, or of what are called the animal functions. Theſe (he adds) are uſually ſuſpended in the time of natural ſleep; but in all theſe diſeaſes, ſleep, or even the appearance of it, is not conſtantly a ſymptom.

COMA VIGIL. A diſeaſe, wherein the patients are continually inclined to ſleep, but ſcarce can. Blancard.

COMATOSE. Thoſe who have a ſtrong propenſity to ſleep.

COMBUSTIO and COMBUSTURA, from *con* and *uro*. See AMBUSTIO and CALCINATIO.

COMEDONES. A ſort of worms. See BOVINA AFFECTIO, and CRINONES.

COMETA, i. e. Adrachne.

COMETES. See AMYGDALOIDES.

COMETZ. Half a drop.

COMISDI. Gum arabic.

COMISTE. The epilepſy. This name aroſe from the frequency of perſons being ſeized with this diſorder while in the aſſemblies called Comitia.

COMITIALIS MORBUS, i. e. Comiſte.

COMITISSÆ PULVIS, i. e. Cort. Peruv. pulv.

COMITISSÆ PALMÆ, or Palmeri pulv. i. e. Magneſia alba.

COMMAGENUM. The name of an ointment mentioned by Galen. It is alſo called Syriacum unguentum.

COMMANDUCATIO. Maſtication.

COMMANSUM, i. e. Apophlegmaticus.

COMMELINA. A plant ſo called by father Plumier, in compliment to Dr. Commeline, profeſſor of botany at Amſterdam. Miller's Dict.

COMMEL. PLANT. USU. An abbreviation of Caſparus Commelinus Horti Medici Amſtælædamenſis Plantarum Uſualium Catalogus. Amſtel. 1724.

COMMEL. PRÆLUD. An abbreviation of Caſparus Commelinus Præludia Botannicæ, Lugd. Batav. 1715.

COMMEL. FLOR. MAL. An abbreviation of C. Commelius Flora Malabarica ſive Horti Malabarici Catalogus.

COMMEL. IN DIG. An abbreviation of Caſp. Commelinus Catalogus Plantarum Indigenarum Hollandiæ.

COMMENDATORIUS (BALS.) The balſam of the commander of Berne, i. e. Balſ. Traum.

COMMI. Gum. When alone, it ſignifies gum arabic. The κομμι λευκον mentioned by Hippocrates in his de Morb. Mulieb. is gum arabic.

COMMINUTIO. Comminution. From *comminor, to break* or *ſhiver to pieces.* It is the reduction of any ſolid body into finer particles by any means whatever.

COMMINUTION. Pulverization or trituration is the bare reduction of ſolid coherent bodies into ſmaller parts. It is of two kinds, viz. contuſion or pounding, and levigation or trituration.

Subſervient to pulverization, where extremely fine powders are required, two ſecondary motions are neceſſary, viz. ſearcing and elutriation: the firſt is the paſſing of any pounded matter through a ſearce of a proper degree of fineneſs; the latter is by diffuſing the powdered ſubſtance in a proper quantity of water; then decanting the liquor with the lighteſt part of the powder, &c. as directed in the preparation of crude antimony. See ANTIMONIUM.

In powdering any ſubſtance, care ſhould be taken to accommodate the ſubſtance to the inſtruments: ſuch things as will diſſolve metals ſhould be prepared in ſtone or glaſs mortars; very hard bodies will abrade ſoft marbles, to prevent then the mixture of the inſtruments made uſe of with the medicine that is prepared by them, ſuch mortars, ſtones for levigating on, &c. muſt be choſen as cannot be affected by the uſes they are employed in.

Light dry ſubſtances, reſins, roots of a tenacious texture, are more eaſily pulverized if the mortar is previouſly rubbed with oil; camphor and cortex require a little water; tough ſubſtances may be grated or raſped; hard minerals, as flint, calamine ſtone, &c. ſhould previouſly undergo an extinction, that is, ſhould be made red-hot and then quenched in water; the alcaline and calcareous ſtones need not this proceſs, for they would thereby be converted into lime.

Some metals, if heated to a proper degree, are rendered brittle, and then by agitation are eaſily powdered; of this kind is tin. This *comminution* of metals is called granulation.

Simple as this pharmaceutic operation is, its importance is conſiderable in medicine: reſinous purgatives, when well triturated, are more eaſily ſoluble in the animal fluids, and operate more briſkly with leſs irritation: antimony, finely powdered, diſcovers but little efficacy; but exquiſitely levigated, is a powerful alterative. Mercury, and many other medicines, owe their virtue to *comminution.*

Roots, and ſuch other articles as conſiſt of different parts, viz. a reſinous, ligneous, &c. ſhould be wholly powdered, and then the whole powdered ſubſtance ſhould be well mixed together, for without this precaution one part will be too active, and another too inert.

In levigating, ſome fluid muſt be added to the levigated matter. Earthy and other hard bodies that are not ſoluble in water, muſt firſt be finely powdered in a mortar, then levigated with water on a hard marble ſtone, and afterwards dried on a chalk ſtone.

Bezoar, on account of its colour, ſhould be levigated with ſpirit of wine.

COMMISURA. A ſuture, juncture, or joint.

COMMISSURES. The angles of the labiæ pudendæ above and below, or the point where the lips meet.

COMMOSIS. The firſt ſtratum of gummy matter with which bees line their hives. It alſo ſignifies that art which is employed in concealing natural imperfections with reſpect to beauty: this is diſtinguiſhed from the coſmetic art, which conſiſts in preſerving the beauty which is natural.

COMMUNICANTES FEBRES. According to Bellini they are two fevers which infeſt a perſon at one and the ſame time, the paroxyſm of one beginning as ſoon as the other ceaſes.

COMMUNIS SAL, i. e. Sal Marinus.

COMPASSIO. Compaſſion. In Noſology is the ſuffering of one part on account of an affection of ſome other part: this is called ſuffering by conſent.

COMPEBA. So Actuarius calls cubebs.

COMPEPER. A name in Myrepſus for cubebs.

COMPLEXUS. This muſcle runs obliquely, riſing from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the ſix inferior cervical vertebræ; and ſix, ſeventh, or eighth ſuperior dorſal vertebræ, it then directs its courſe upwards, and is inſerted into the concavity, below the tranſverſe line of the occiput, and bends the head back. It ſometimes receives a few ſlips from the ſpinal proceſſes of ſome of the vertebræ of the dorſum. The complexus being removed, we ſee the two recti and the two obliqui.

COMPLEXUS MINOR, called alſo maſtoidæus lateralis, and trachelo-maſtoidæus. When the ſplenius muſcle is removed, we ſee the *complexus* and the *complexus minor*; the *complexus* is nearer the ſpine, and the *complexus minor* is under the upper edge of the ſplenius; it is various in different bodies. Albinus deſcribes its originations twelve different ways: it riſes from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the three uppermoſt vertebræ of the back, and from the five lowermoſt of the neck, where it is connected to the tranſverſalis cervicis, by as many thin tendons, which unite into a belly, and run up under the ſplenius. It is inſerted into the middle of the poſterior ſide of the maſtoid proceſs, by a thin tendon. Its uſe is to aſſiſt the complexus, but it pulls the head more to a ſide. Innes.

COMPREHENSIO, i. e. Catalepſis.

COMPRESSUS, from *con* and *premo, to preſs together.*

COMPUNCTIO, i. e. Paracenteſis.

CONARIUM. The glandula pinealis is thus called from its ſhape being like that of a cone.

CONCAUSA. A cauſe which co-operates with another in the production of a diſeaſe.

CONCENTRANTIA. Abſorbents of acids are ſometimes thus named.

CONCENTRATIO. Concentration. To *concentrate* a body is to approximate its principal parts by a removing thoſe which keep them aſunder, and which are not proper to the body *concentrated.* This word is generally applied to the dephlegmation of acids, and particularly of the vitriolic by diſtillation, and of vinegar by congelation.

CONCEPTIO. Conception. After all the conjectures, enquiries, obſervations, &c. to diſcover this proceſs in nature, with many others, it is ſtill only to be reſolved into the divine contrivance. Dr. Berdoe, in his Enquiry into the Influence of the Electric Fluid, defines conception to be, "The firſt occult ſenſation by which the unformed being unites itſelf to its parent." He farther obſerves, that the fœtus is not perfected at once, but paſſes through different gradations of its exiſtence as follow:

"1ſt. The fecundating powers of the uterus are employed

ployed to collect the colliqirmentum, in which the gonè of Hippocrates is to eſtabliſh the rudiments of the future embryo. This firſt diviſion in the formation of the fœtus, is perhaps the primitive attractive power of the animated mucus, collecting together the firſt particles of the nervous ſyſtem to form the cicatricula, medulla oblongata, &c.

"The 2d diviſion is what Hippocrates calls cuèma, or the *conception*, and is what *conception* is above defined to be.

"The 3d diviſion in the formation of man was called embryon by Hippocrates; in this ſtate it conſiſts of a trunk without limbs, the expanding of which completes the embryo ſtate.

"The laſt diviſion is called cauros, paidion, fœtus, or child."

However ſecretly conception is effected, its effect on thoſe who are its ſubjects is very manifeſt by ſymptoms that immediately appear, particularly in the human ſpecies; all which are produced by a preternatural irritability being induced into the uterus, and indeed into the general habit.

See Malpighius, De Graaf, and Harvey; ſee alſo Berdoe's Enquiry, Kirkland's Treatiſe on the Child-bed Fever, Hamilton's Outlines.

CONCEPTUS. The very firſt rudiments of the fœtus in the uterus after conception.

CONCHA. A ſhell animal. Some confine this word to the ſhell, whilſt others intend by it the animal with its ſhell. Some uſe it only to ſignify fiſhes with two ſhells, the hiſtory of which ſort ſee in the Spectacle de la Nature, tom. i.

Sea *ſhell-fiſh*, when boiled, are eaten as wholſome food, and are alcaleſcent: their ſhells are abſorbent; if calcined are not ſo, but become a quick-lime, poſſeſſing a lithontriptic virtue.

CONCHA ANATIFERA. Theſe ſhell-fiſhes are thus called, becauſe it was fabulouſly ſaid that a ſpecies of duck was formed in them.

CONCHA ERYTHRÆA. See CONCHA VENEREA.

CONCHA LÆVIGATA, or Lævigatoria. A ſhell-fiſh of an oval form, with a very ſmooth ſhell, uſed by the Egyptians to ſmooth their linen, and by the Turks and Greeks to poliſh paper.

CONCHA FOSSILIS, or Lapidea. See CONCHITIS.

CONCHA MARGARATIFERA. This word belongs to every ſhell-fiſh in which pearls are found; but becauſe the beſt pearls are found in the Eaſt Indies, it is confined for the moſt part to the *concha* Indica magna, whoſe ſhells are moderately hollow, thick, and externally of a yelloviſh colour, rough, uneven, and not ſtriated; internally they are ſmooth, and ſhine like pearls. It is a ſpecies of oyſter, and is eaten raw or roaſted. It is principally found in the Perſian ſea. The ſhell of this fiſh is the mater perlarum.

CONCHA PERSICA. It is found in the Perſian ſea, and is of the bivalve kind.

CONCHA PICTORUM. So called from its ſhell being raſped down for mixing up colours as an ingredient.

CONCHA SAXATILIS. See CONCHITES.

CONCHA VENEREA, or Veneris. Venus's ſhell. It is an univalve wreathed ſhell having a ſmall longitudinal and denticulated chink or aperture in it. It is alſo called *concha* porcellana, from its aperture reſembling the mouth of an hog, and *concha* Cytheriaca, from Venus, who received the epithet Cytheræa from Cythera, a Grecian iſland.

As a medicine for theſe ſhells the cockle-ſhell may be ſubſtituted.

CONCHA AURICULÆ. See AURICULA.

CONCHA MATER UNIONUM. See MATER PERLARUM.

CONCHA STRIATA. The cockle.

CONCHA. A liquid meaſure among the Athenians, which contained half an ounce, or, according to ſome, three ſpoons full, and others again ſay five ſpoons full or ſix drams. Galen ſays that the *concha* magna was the ſame as the acetabulum, which of liquid contained an ounce and a half, and in weight fifteen drams; and that the *concha* minor was half an ounce of liquid, and five drams of weight.

CONCHÆ NARIUM INFERIORES, alſo called the inferior ſpongy laminæ of the noſe. They are ſituated in the naſal foſſæ, one in each ſide; they are ſuſpended like the ethmoidal *concha*, without reſting on any thing. The inferior edges are the moſt conſiderable of their three edges; they are rough, thick, a little rounded, and turned outwards, that is, toward the os maxillare. By their anterior ſuperior edge, they are joined to the anterior tranſverſe eminences of the os maxillare; their poſterior ſuperior edge is the longeſt, and is joined backwards to the ſmall tranſverſe eminence of the middle portion of the os palati. See Winſlow's Anatomy.

CONCHÆ NARIUM SUPERIORES. So Winſlow calls the inferior part of each lateral portion of the os ethmoides.

CONCHARUM ANTIFEBRILE. In Bates's Pharmacopœia it is thus directed: pour vinegar upon the muſcle ſhells, and macerate them for twenty-four hours, wipe off the external mucus, dry and reduce them to a powder, during which operation add a ſpoonful of carduus water, to prevent the light parts from flying off. A dram is a doſe as a febrifuge and diaphoretic.

CONCHIFOLIA, i. e Manga.

CONCHIS. Among the Romans it an entire bean wrapped up in its entire capſule.

CONCHITES. A cockle-ſtone. It is a ſtone reſembling a certain ſhell-fiſh.

CONCHOIDES. According to Breynius it is a bivalve ſhell-fiſh.

CONCHYLIA FOSSILIS. Foſſile ſhells. They are lithontriptic.

CONCIDENTIA. A decreaſe of bulk in the whole or any part of the body, or the ſubſiding of a humour.

CONCOAGULATIO. The coagulation, concretion, or cryſtallization of different ſalts, firſt diſſolved together in the ſame fluid.

CONCOCTIO. Concoction. It is generally underſtood to be that work upon the morbid matter, by the power of nature or aſſiſtance of art, as renders it fit for ſeparation from the healthy parts of our fluids, and to be thrown out of our bodies. But this doctrine, at leaſt in fevers, is doubtful, if not falſe. That morbid matter paſſes off from the blood in a crude ſtate, or in the ſtate it was firſt formed in, appears from the matter of the ſmall pox and meaſles, both which are effectual in inoculating, in whatever ſtate of the diſeaſe it is taken. And it is moſt probable that, in every infectious fever, the morbid matter, after aſſimilating ſome of the humours into its own nature, paſſes off in the ſame ſtate that it was in when the body was firſt diſordered by it. Farther, acrimony in the blood is not rendered mild by any proceſs in our frame; on the contrary, it is always expelled by ſome of the emunctories. And as to what is obſerved in pus, none of a kindly nature is formed whilſt the heat of the body much exceeds the degree that is proper to health; but in its ſtead there is an ichor.

Sydenham's notion of *concoction* was, that, "the *concoction* of the febrile matter means no more than a ſeparation of the morbific particles from the ſound."

See Kirkland on Fevers, p. 14, 27.

CONCREMATIO. See CALCINATIO.

CONCRETIO. In Chemiſtry is the condenſation of any fluid ſubſtance into a more ſolid maſs, importing the ſame as coagulation. In ſurgery it is the growing together of any parts which are ſeparate in a natural ſtate.

CONCURSUS. See SYNDROME.

CONCUSSIO. A concuſſion, from *concutio, to ſhake*. A jolt or ſhock of the brain by blows or falls.

Extravaſation and commotion, is what old writers, when they found no fracture or depreſſion of the ſkull, and yet the patient died in conſequence of the injury received, called a *concuſſion*. A *concuſſion* of the brain is a ſudden and a violent motion thereof, and of the pia mater, with ſuch a ſudden diſtenſion of their blood-veſſels, (occaſioned by a determination of their contained blood, both arterial and venal, into one direction by the force of the accident) as occaſions them to loſe their power of propelling their contents as formerly, or of continuing the circulation of the blood as before. Mr. Deaſe, in his Obſervations on Wounds of the Head, remarks, that the two carotid, and the two vertebral arteries,

teries, ſupply the brain with blood; that theſe arteries loſe their ſtrong elaſtic coats on entering the cavity of the cranium; that their capacities are enlarged, and their tunics become ſimilar to thoſe of veins. That elevation and deſcenſion we ſee, on expoſing the dura mater, and which correſponds to expiration, and to inſpiration, gives us room to imagine the brain is not always in ſo cloſe contact with this membrane, that it generally is ſuppoſed. From this diſpoſition, he adds, we can readily conceive, how eaſily the *concuſſion*, in conſequence of fractures or ſmart ſtrokes on the head, will be tranſmitted, ſo as to affect the veſſels of the pia mater and brain. And the degree may appear from a temporary ſuſpenſion of the faculties of the brain, to a total abolition of them, as happens when death enſues. Many of theſe caſes are not attended with any immediate alarming ſymptoms, and yet thoſe veſſels will ſuffer ſo much by the ſhock, as to be rendered, incapable, by their oſcillating powers being weakened, to continue the circulation; and which, after ſome time, if not reſtored, will infallibly lay the foundation of their future inflammation. When we conſider the infinite number of veſſels that run through this viſcus; the general communication that exiſts between them, we ſhall not be ſurpriſed that a great number may be obſtructed, or rather rendered incapable of the office of circulation, and the fluids be ſuſpended in them, and no immediate injury ariſe that will impede the functions of the brain, and, of courſe, the patient feel no preſent complaint. However, we know that our fluids cannot long exiſt in this ſituation, without being liable to degenerate from their original mild nature, and become a principle of irritation, which will excite the ſurrounding veſſels to quicker oſculations, ſo as to determine their fluids with redoubled velocity towards the point irritated; and of courſe an inflammation will ſucceed. Dr. Whytt, on the Motion of the Fluids in the ſmall Veſſels, p. 240, ſays, an inflammation is not owing to an increaſed force of the heart and large arteries, conſequent upon an obſtruction, as ſome ſay; but to an increaſed alternate contraction of the ſmall veſſels, whether this ariſes from ſome obſtructing matter overſtretching their fibres, or acrid matter irritating them. Mr. Schmucker, in his Chirurgical Obſervations, publiſhed at Berlin, deſerves to be conſulted on this ſubject. He obſerves, that in many caſes of wounds of the head, eſpecially in thoſe from gun-ſhots, which at firſt, and for many days after being inflicted, appear to be attended with no kind of danger, at laſt turn worſe, and frequently carry off the patients. He adds, that on opening the heads of ſuch patients after death, either pus was found diffuſed upon the pia mater, or a gelatinous ſemi-purulent kind of matter was obſerved. Moſt frequently the brain itſelf appeared perfectly ſound. Mr. Schmucker attributes the loſs of life in theſe caſes, chiefly to an affection of the tunica arachnoidea (i. e. upper lamina of the pia mater) and of different lymphatics. The contuſion occaſioned by gun-ſhot wounds, and ſimilar accidents, produces always, he ſays, an effuſion and ſtagnation of lymph, which in cachectic and debilitated ſubjects, is with difficulty abſorbed, and is commonly therefore either converted into pus or ichor.

It is often very difficult, when an accident from external violence happens to the inſide of the head, to know of what kind it is, and where its ſeat: in ſuch circumſtances conſider the ſymptoms; how the misfortune happened, with any other circumſtance that may throw light on the caſe; ſometimes the misfortune proves fatal only for want of knowing what part is injured.

The ſigns of a *concuſſion* do not always appear immediately after the injury is received. Mr. Pott remarks, that the ſymptoms attending a *concuſſion*, are generally in proportion to the degree of violence, which the brain itſelf has ſuſtained; and which, indeed, is cognizable only by the ſymptoms. If the *concuſſion* be very great, all ſenſe and power of motion are immediately aboliſhed, and death follows ſoon: but, between this degree, and that ſlight confuſion, (or ſtunning as it is called) which attends moſt violences done to the head, there are many ſtages. Sometimes a *concuſſion* produces the ſame kind of oppreſſive ſymptoms as an extravaſation, and the patient is either almoſt or totally bereft of ſenſe; at other times, no ſuch ſymptoms attend, but the patient gets no ſleep at all, hath a wild look, an eye much like that of a perſon who hath long watched through apprehenſion and anxiety; talks much, and very inconſiſtently; hath a hard labouring pulſe, ſome ſmall degree of fever, and ſometimes an inclination to vomit; if not retained, the patient will get out of bed, and act with a kind of frantic abſurdity, and appears in general much hurt by a ſtrong light. Stunning is a ſlight degree of commotion, which ſoon goes off. Mr. Deaſe, in his Obſervations on Wounds of the Head, ſays, that if the inſtrument with which the blow was given, was not heavy, nor the force very great, the patient, after a few minutes, perceives no complaint more than might be expected from a ſimple wound. If the patient be attended it is very ſeldom that the ſurgeon will be able to determine the firſt days, whether any farther injury has actually taken place or not. The wound digeſts as kindly, and the patient performs all the functions neceſſary to health, as well as before he received it. In ſuch as become afterwards affected, whether they underwent profuſe evacuations, or were entirely left to nature, it made ſo very little difference as to the time or manner in which they were firſt invaded by the ſymptoms that uſually attend an inflamed or ſuppurated ſtate of the parts underneath the cranium, that the variation could never be attributed to the treatment. The firſt ſymptoms that generally alarmed thoſe patients who were brought to the hoſpital, were ſlight ſhiverings, attended with an inclination to puke. In ſome, this was preceded by a languor, accompanied with more or leſs fever, and often with a dull pain in the head, and melancholy look. The wound, in ſome, put on the appearance Mr. Pott deſcribes in his book on Wounds of the Head, p. 63. But this was not always the caſe, not that infallible ſign of the inflammation and putrefaction of the dura mater he makes it; nor did this appearance often take place, until the fever and other ſymptoms were far advanced. In ſome, theſe ſymptoms made a rapid progreſs, ſo as to carry off the patient in a few days. In others, they ſeemed to advance more ſlowly, and were leſs ſevere although not leſs fatal. Mr. Deaſe goes on to obſerve, that he hath ſeldom ſeen theſe ſymptoms appear earlier than the eighth, or later than the ſixteenth or ſeventeenth day; between the eighth and the ſixteenth, being in general the period moſt to be dreaded. If the trepan was applied at any time after thoſe ſymptoms took place, the appearance of the dura mater was invariably this, either it was detached and in a ſtate of ſuppuration and ſloughy, or ſound in every reſpect. If the injury was confined to it, the operation was uſually ſucceſsful. If the patient died, I have ever found the cauſe of his death in the ſuppuration of the pia mater, or brain, but more generally both.

A violent blow on the head, not beating the head to the ground, nor againſt any hard body, moſt frequently cauſes a fracture or fiſſure, with but ſmall *concuſſion*; when a blow is given with ſuch violence as to knock the perſon down, and his head hits the ground, if the ſkull is not thereby broken, a *concuſſion* will be the conſequence. If the head ſtrikes againſt a hard immoveable body, in conſequence of a fall from a conſiderable height, a *concuſſion* with an extravaſation uſually follows, and generally death is the conſequence. A *concuſſion* of the brain ſeldom is attended, if ever, with extravaſation, unleſs when re-action follows the blow. A *concuſſion* with a fracture is leſs dangerous than one with a fiſſure, becauſe in the firſt caſe the extravaſation is leſs.

To diſtinguiſh betwixt a *concuſſion* and an extravaſation of and in the brain, is ſometimes extremely difficult, though in many inſtances, very eaſy. The firſt ſtunning or deprivation of ſenſe, whether total or partial, may be from either, and no man can tell from which; but when theſe firſt ſymptoms have been removed, or have ſpontaneouſly diſappeared; if ſuch patient is again oppreſſed with drowſineſs, or ſtupidity, or total or partial loſs of ſenſe, it then becomes moſt probable that the firſt complaints were from commotion, and that the latter are from extravaſation. But when, after ſeveral days from the accident, at which time the ſymptoms were inconſiderable, or ſoon paſſed off; the watchfulneſs above noticed, &c. attends, the caſe is clearly a *concuſſion*.

In thoſe who recover from a commotion of the brain, the office of ſome particular nerve or nerves is often deranged or deſtroyed; as a ſquint of one eye produced, which laſts for life; a diſtortion of the corner of the mouth; an incapacity of retaining the urine for a great length of time; and often a total incapacity through life of diſtinguiſhing by the ſmell the rankeſt leek from the ſweeteſt roſe.

The caſe diſcovered, bleeding and antiphlogiſtics ſhould be uſed, to prevent if not remove the inflammation; and if the injured part of the inſide of the head cannot be diſcovered, the chief dependence is on bleeding, purging, and ſweating.

Bleeding may be in the temporal artery, or in the jugular vein, though generally from the arm ſuffices.

Except there is a depreſſion of the ſkull, the trepan does not ſeem neceſſary. On this ſubject authors vary much.

Lenient purges, which operate with the leaſt irritation, are of ſingular efficacy; according to Job a Meek'ren and ſome others, they prevent an abſceſs forming itſelf in the liver, which ſometimes, when they are omitted, follow in conſequence of a *concuſſion* of the brain.

The diet ſhould be cooling and ſlender.

If great heat is perceived in the head, apply thereto an embrocation of oil, vinegar, and ſal ammoniac.

From Mr. Schmucker's view of the cauſe of the diſorder, is ſuggeſted the idea of aſtringent applications as proper; and he informs us, that he employed them with the greateſt advantage. The following he ſeems to prefer. ℞ Aq. pur. ℔ x. acet. acerim ℔i. ſal nitri ℥iv. ſal Ammon. crud. ℥ij. m. with this embrocation he orders the part affected to be frequently well bathed; at the ſame time that blood-letting is preſcribed, together with the internal uſe of nitre, ſtimulating injections and laxatives. In all the ſlighter affections of the head, the greateſt ſucceſs, he ſays, has been obſerved from ſuch a courſe; and, even in ſuch as have required the trepan, Mr. Schmucker thinks he has often ſeen it put in practice with advantage. In *concuſſions* of the brain, even without any external wound, cold epithems and fomentations, he ſays, are very ſerviceable, eſpecially if conjoined with ſtimulating glyſters, and the application of leeches to the temples. Mr. Schmucker farther obſerves in the ſame work, that violent *concuſſions* of the brain are often produced merely from the paſſage of cannon-balls near to the head, without any external affection being obſervable. In ſuch caſes, and in all ſimilar *concuſſions*, emetics, he ſays, are commonly attended with the beſt effects; venæſection, however, muſt always be premiſed to the uſe of theſe remedies.

Mr. Bromfield aſſerts the happieſt ſucceſs in theſe caſes from the uſe of Dover's ſweating powder; after bleeding, if required, he orders the bowels to be evacuated by means of a clyſter, and then a ſcruple of Dover's powder, the operation of which muſt be encouraged by putting the patient between blankets, and repeating it every twelve or twenty-four hours, according as the violence of ſymptoms require. As it is chiefly from the attenuating property of the opium that relief is expected, he uſes ſuch a proportion of the vin. antim. mixed with tinct. Theb. as will be needful to keep up a diaphoreſis when the violent ſymptoms are allayed, and until ſuch a freedom from complaint as needs no farther aid of the kind is brought about: of this he gives ten or fifteen drops every four or ſix hours. As oft as the violent ſymptoms return he hath recourſe to the powder: and ſuch was his ſucceſs, that in more than a hundred caſes he ſucceeded, and in two which were attended with fractures of the ſkull, cures were thus effected without the uſe of the trephine. Mr. Juſtamond ſays, that the trepan is never required, and that the beſt we can do, is to leave the patient entirely at reſt.

See Bohnium, in Renunciatione Vulnerum de Vibratione Cerebri; Berengarium de Commotione Cerebri; Monſ. Bertrandi's Diſ. on the Concuſſion of the Brain, in the 3d vol. of the Mem. of the Royal Acad. of Surgery; Wiſeman's Surgery, book v. ch. ix. obſ. x. Gooch's Caſes and Remarks, ed. 2. and Bromfield's Chirurgical Obſ. and Caſes, vol. i. ch. i. Deaſe's Obſ. on Wounds of the Head. Pott's Works.

CONDENSATIO. Condenſation. It implies a contraction of the cutaneous pores by means of cooling, drying, or aſtringent medicines. It is alſo an inſpiſſation of any ſort of fluid, whether in or out of the body: hence condenſantia medicamenta, are medicines that condenſe or inſpiſſate the juices.

CONDER. Frankincenſe or olibanum.

CONDIMENTUM. A condiment or preſerve. From *condio, to ſeaſon, pickle, or powder.* It ſignifies whatever procures ſweetneſs and a grateful taſte to any ſubſtance. But, in a more reſtrained ſenſe, that is called *condimentum* which is uſed in preparing aliments, whether with an intention of rendering them palatable or aſſiſting their digeſtion. See CONDITUM.

CONDIO. To embalm. The Latins call it *pollincio.* The practice of embalming is as as ancient as the firſt record of the character of phyſician. See Geneſis, ch. l. v. 2. In the Eaſt it is ſtill practiſed, but ſeems not ſo general as formerly. On this ſubject ſee Paré, Dionis's Surgical Operations, Gooch's Treatiſe on Wounds, p. 456, and Greenhill's Art of Embalming.

CONDITUM. Preſerves. They are made by ſteeping or by boiling recent ſimples (of the vegetable kind) firſt in water, then in ſyrup or a ſolution of ſugar. The ſubject is afterwards either kept moiſt in the ſyrup, or taken out and dried, that the ſugar may candy upon it: this laſt is the moſt uſual method. This art was formerly a branch of the apothecary's buſineſs, but now is wholly in the hands of confectioners.

The Latins and the latter Greeks meant by *conditum* a ſort of mulſum, that is, a wine impregnated with honey and aromatics.

CONDITURA, i. e. Condimentum, alſo condio.

CONDRILLA, i. e. Chondrilla.

CONDUCTIO. In Cœlius Aurelianus is a ſpaſm or a convulſion.

CONDUCTOR, from *conduco, to guide.* A conductor. It is an inſtrument uſed in ſurgery for directing a knife with when a ſinus is laid open. It is alſo a name of the inſtrument called a gorget, which is uſed in the operation of lithotomy.

CONDURDUM. A plant mentioned by Pliny, l. xxvi. c. 5. He alſo calls it herba ſolſtitialis flore rubro. Parkinſon thinks it is the vaccaria, which Boerhaave calls lychnis ſegetum rubra foliis perfoliatæ.

CONDYLE. See PROCESSUS.

CONDYLI. Knots in the bones about the joints of the fingers, which make them thicker.

CONDYLOIDÆ (APOPHYSES). Maxil. inf. See MAXILLA INFERIOR.

CONDYLOMA, κονδυλος, *a joint* or *tubercle.* A tumor ſo called from its reſemblance to a condyle, a joint bent, or a tubercle. It is a hard eminence, which ariſes in the folds of the anus, or a hardening or a ſwelling of the wrinkles there. Theſe tumors often happen in the orifice of the uterus, and other parts. It is variouſly deſcribed in authors; one ſays it is a tumor of the cuticle; another ranks it as an inſtance of ſarcoma. An anonymous French writer ſays, it is in general a fleſhy excreſcence which appears on the fingers, hands, feet, and principally about the anus, the perinæum, and the private parts of both ſexes. He adds, that warts, the tumors called ficus, mariſca, thymus, &c. are all but different inſtances of *condylomas.*

It generally proceeds partly from a fault in the quality and partly from a fault in the quantity of the fluids flowing there. At firſt it is named a tubercle, but when hardened a *condyloma.*

Authors abound with unneceſſary diſtinctions reſpecting tumors, &c. but all tubercles and fungi, whether within the verge of the anus or more outward, are all of the ſame nature, and are cured by the ſame method, whether called *condyloma,* ficus, fungus, criſta, or whatever elſe, and are tumors of the glandules of the part, which increaſing, like a polypus of the noſe, prove troubleſome, being often painful. Thoſe who are troubled with the piles have them very much. They often appear in the pudenda from the lues venerea.

If the roots are ſmall, a ligature may extirpate them; if broad they are beſt removed by a cauſtic, if care is taken that it doth not injure any other part.

See P. Ægineta, Celſus, Heiſter, Turner, Wiſeman.

CON-

CONDYLOMA CLAVUS. A corn.

CONDYLUS, A condyle. It is a knot in any of the joints, formed by the epiphyſis of a bone. In the fingers it is called the knuckle. In botany it ſignifies the joints of plants.

CONEION. In Hippocrates it imports the cicuta. It is ſaid to be thus named from κωνεω, *to turn round*; becauſe it produces a vertigo in thoſe who take it internally.

CONESSI, called alſo codago-pala, coneſſi-ſeca, and cadaga-pala. It is the bark of a ſmall tree growing in Ceylon and Malabar, and on the Coromandel coaſt, where it is called coneſſi. It is blackiſh outwardly, and covered more or leſs with a whitiſh moſs or ſcurf, which ſhould be ſcraped off. To the taſte it is gratefully auſtere and bitter. When powdered and made into an electary, it is commended in diarrhœas; half a dram may be taken three times a day. When uſed it ſhould be freſh powdered, for it ſoon loſes its medical qualities under any form of preparation. When taken to reſtrain an alvine flux, an emetic of ipec. ſhould precede its uſe. Thoſe with whom a diarrhœa is frequent in moiſt weather are much benefited by its uſe, if a doſe is taken morning and evening.

CONFECTA. Comfits or ſugar-plums. Seeds or other ſubſtances incruſted with ſugar. Theſe, when impregnated with purging ingredients, are given to children when they will not take the uſual forms of medicines.

CONFECTIO. A confection. In general it is any thing prepared with ſugar. In particular it is the ſame as conditum. Theſe articles are alſo called dry confects. The word *confectio*, when alone, ſignifies a ſoft electary. The dry confects are now a branch of the confectioner's buſineſs, though formerly a part in the apothecary's: they are dry ſubſtances, ſuch as the roots of eringo, &c. the peels of oranges, &c. which are incruſted with ſugar, and are called candied root or peel. As to the ſoft electaries, the London college preſcribes the following.

Confectio *Cardiaca*. *The Cordial* Confection.

Take freſh roſemary-tops, juniper-berries, of each a pound; the leſſer cardamom ſeeds freed from thier huſks, zedoary, and ſaffron, of each half a pound. Draw a tincture with about a gallon and a half of proof ſpirit; reduce by a gentle heat this tincture ſtrained, nearly to the weight of two pounds and a half; then finiſh the electary by adding the following ſpecies very finely powdered, viz. of the compound powder of crab's claws, ſixteen ounces; cinnamon, nutmeg, of each two ounces; of cloves, an ounce; of double-refined ſugar two pounds.

This is ſubſtituted for the confect or cordial of ſir Walter Raleigh, but, except for the ſaffron, it is no other than a carminative, and after being ſome time kept, is unfit for even this purpoſe.

Confectio *Damocratis*. *Damocrates's* Confection.

Take of cinnamon, fourteen drams; of myrrh, eleven drams; agaric, ſpikenard, ginger, ſaffron, ſeeds of treacle-muſtard, or of mithridate-muſtard, frankincenſe, Chio turpentine, of each ten drams; camel's hay, coſtus, or in its ſtead zedoary, Indian leaf, or in its ſtead mace, French lavender, long pepper, ſeeds of hart-wort, juice of the rape of ciſtus, ſtrained ſtorax, opoponax, ſtrained galbanum, balſam of Gilead, or in its ſtead expreſſed oil of nutmegs, Ruſſia caſtor, of each an ounce; poley mountain, water germander, the fruit of the balſam-tree, or in its ſtead cubebs, white pepper, ſeeds of the carrot of Crete, bdellium ſtrained, of each ſeven drams; Celtic nard, gentian root, leaves of ditany of Crete, red roſes, ſeeds of Macedonian parſley, the leſſer cardamom ſeeds freed from their huſks, ſweet fennel ſeeds, gum arabic, opium ſtrained, of each five drams; root of the ſweet flag, root of wild valerian, aniſeed, ſagapenum ſtrained, of each three drams; ſpignel, St. John's wort, juice of acacia, or in its ſtead Japan earth, the bellies of ſcinks, of each two drams and a half; of clarified honey thrice the weight of all the reſt. Diſſolve the opium firſt in a little wine, and then mix it with the honey made hot; in the mean time melt together in another veſſel the galbanum, ſtorax, turpentine, and the balſam of Gilead, or the expreſſed oil of nutmeg, continually ſtirring them round, that they may not burn; and as ſoon as theſe are melted, add to them the hot honey, firſt by ſpoonfuls, and afterwards more freely: laſtly, when this mixture is nearly cold, add by degrees the reſt of the ſpecies reduced to powder.

This was formerly called Mithridate, from Mithridates king of Pontus and Bithynia, who, after the example of Attalus of Pergamus, is ſaid firſt to have experienced the virtues of ſimples ſeparately, and then combined them. But it ſhould be noted that the original compound as prepared by this king, conſiſted of but a few ingredients. Serenus Samonicus ſays that when Pompey took the baggage of this prince, he was ſurpriſed to find that this antidote conſiſted only of only twenty leaves of rue, two walnuts, two figs, and a little ſalt. Of this he took a doſe every morning, to guard himſelf from the effects of poiſons.

CONFECTIO ALKERMES. See CHERMES.

CONFECTIO PAULINA. The confection called Paulina.

Take coſtus, or in its ſtead zedoary, cinnamon, long pepper, black pepper, ſtrained ſtorax, ſtrained galbanum, opium, Ruſſia caſtor, of each two ounces; of the ſimple ſyrup boiled to the conſiſtence of honey, an equal weight to thrice the ſpecies. Mix carefully the opium, firſt diſſolved in wine, with the ſpirit warmed; then to the ſtorax and galbanum, melted together, add by degrees the ſyrup while it remains warm; afterwards ſprinkle in the other ſpecies reduced to powder. See PAULINA CONFECTIO.

CONFERTUS, i. e. Athroos.

CONFERVA. A barren kind of moſs, deſtitute of little flowery heads, and even of thoſe bodies and tubercles which ſome other kinds are furniſhed with inſtead of them, and conſiſting only of round, ſmooth, and uniform leaves, or rather little ſtalks divided into fine capilaments. Ray, in his Synopſis, deſcribes three ſorts.

CONFIRMANTIA MEDICAMENTA. Medicines which reſtore or confirm the ſtrength of the body, or any part of it: or medicines which faſten the teeth in their ſockets.

CONFLUENTIA. A term uſed by Paracelſus to expreſs the agreement, conjunction, or confederation of the microcoſm with the ſtars, or of a diſeaſe with remedies.

CONFŒDERATIO, i. e. Confluentia.

CONFORMATIO. Conformation. Some diſeaſes are called morbi malæ *conformationis*, or organical diſeaſes; that is, which depend upon the ill *conformation* of the parts. Theſe, if external, may admit of a chirurgical cure, and proper exerciſe, regimen and medicines may ſometimes contribute much to the relief even of thoſe which are internal, or at leaſt may render them ſupportable.

CONFORTANTIA. Cordial.

CONFORTATIVA. Cordial.

CONFRICATIO. In pharmacy is the reducing of any eaſily friable ſubſtance to powder by rubbing it with the hands, as ſtarch, for inſtance: or it ſignifies the rubbing any ſoft and ſucculent vegetable with the hands, to expreſs the juice.

CONFRICATRICES, i. e. Tribades.

CONFUSÆ FEBRES. Bellini ſays he met with ſuch, and that they were two fevers attending at the ſame time, beginning and ending together, but ſo confuſedly as not to be diſtinguiſhed.

CONFUSANEUS PANIS. Bread made of meal, from which the bran hath not been ſeparated.

CONFUSIO. A diſorder of the eyes, which happens when, upon a rupture of the internal membranes which include the humours, they are all confounded together.

CONGELATI, or Congelatici, or Congelatio. Perſons afflicted with a catalepſis are ſo called.

CONGELATIO. Congelation. It is ſuch a change produced by cold in a fluid body, that it becomes condenſed; thus conglaciation is when a liquid is converted into ice.

Water is rarefied or expanded by *congelation*; but pinguious bodies and fixed metals are rendered more compact by it.

The condenſation of any liquor by ſetting it in a cold place is called *congelation*.

The ſtones produced in ſome caverns from the drops of of petrifying waters are called *congelations*.

CONGELATIVA MEDICAMENTA. Medicines which ſtop fluxions, inſpiſſate and dry.

CONGELATUS. Frozen, or froſt-bitten. Perſons thus affected by the cold are compared to cataleptic patients, but ſtill there is much difference between a catalepſy and a *froſt-bitten* caſe.

Cold braceth up the body when applied to it in a certain degree; upon this conſtriction being increaſed, the humours are carried in a larger quantity to the internal parts, and are principally accumulated in the head, they ſtagnate in the veſſels of the brain, and diſtend them: hence they produce a ſtricture in, or a compreſſion on the nerves that ariſe from the brain, which is the origin of a catalepſis, attended with an abolition of the ſenſes. The cold continuing, with its effects juſt mentioned, at length there is an extravaſation of the blood or ſerum in the head, by which the cerebellum is compreſſed, whence death enſues, which is uſhered in by a lethargy, ending in an apoplexy.

When a man is pierced with cold, ſo as to be benumbed, if he attempts to warm himſelf by the fire, pains are preſently produced in the part expoſed to the heat, and a mortification is too often the conſequence; juſt as is ſeen in frozen fruit, which if put into cold water that is near to freeze, it recovers, but if put into warm water, or in a warm place, it ſoon rots; and if men, when too ſeverely affected with cold, would firſt put the frozen part into cold water, or cover it with ſnow, until a ſenſe of warmth is perceived, or ſome degree of motion returns, at which time a little warm wine, mixed with camomile tea, might be drank, or either of theſe alone, and then proceed gradually to allow of warmth, a mortification would be avoided.

When travellers begin to be drowſy in the cold, they ſhould redouble their ſpeed to extricate themſelves from danger; for though their ſleepineſs is eaſy, it is often fatal.

The heat of our bodies, when in health, exceeds that of the ambient air, even in the hotteſt weather; whence a conſiderable degree of cold is required to freeze the ſoft parts of our bodies: it is becauſe our extremities are the coldeſt parts, that froſt always affects them ſooneſt. And when a mortification from cold approaches, Van Swieten obſerves, that the part affected by it is firſt pale, then red; this redneſs is attended with a troubleſome pain, and a violent itching; after this the colour becomes almoſt purple, and at laſt black.

That ſudden heat applied after extreme cold, ſhould produce the ſame ſymptoms and conſequences, will be readily underſtood by what follows. As water cools it condenſes, until it comes to the freezing point; but in the act of *congelation* it expands with a violence that nothing can reſiſt. When a perſon goes into the cold air, his fluids are gradually condenſed, the veſſels collapſe, and the ſkin is pale, the circulation again puſhes the blood into the arteries, whoſe contracted extremities allow it only to paſs ſlowly, and make the ſkin look red; alſo produces an itching, becauſe of the obſtruction that it meets with; the blood being puſhed from behind, whilſt the obſtruction is increaſed before, a livid colour is produced, and a tingling pain; at laſt the circulation being ſtopped, a gangrenous black finiſhes the ſcene, with a loſs of all ſenſation, the veſſels being ſtretched far beyond their natural dimenſions by the frozen juices. In this caſe, applying of cold water diſſolves the frozen juices, and condenſes them; thus the veſſels have room to contract, and are aſſiſted in ſo doing by the coldneſs of the water: after this, if warm diluting liquor is drank, a diaphoreſis is produced, and all danger is overcome; if warmth is applied at the firſt, the outer parts are quickly thawed, but the inner veſſels ſtill obſtructed, ſoon burſt by the rarefaction of their contents, and deſtruction to the part is inſtantly produced.

See Tiſſot's Advice to the People; Van Swieten's Com. on Boerh. Aph. 422, 427, 454; Med. Muſ. vol. i. p. 71.

CONGENERES. When ſpoken of muſcles, it imports thoſe which concur in the ſame action.

CONGENSIBUS QUIQUOAQUI CONGO, i. e. Cara.

CONGER, or Congrus. The conger-eel. It is a large ſea-eel. It is often called the ſea-ſerpent.

CONGESTIO. Congeſtion, or collection. From *congero*, *to gather into a heap*. A ſwelling which gradually ariſes, and takes time to ripen; in oppoſition to that bifluxion, which ſoon is formed, and ſoon terminated.

CONGIUS. See CONGER.

CONGIUS. A gallon. This is a very ancient meaſure, and is generally ſaid to have been equal to ten pints of wine, and nine of oil. The Athenian congius, or conchus, weighed nine pounds, and the Roman weighed ten, or contained ten Roman pints of wine. In the London and Edinburgh Diſpenſatories the gallon is only eight pints.

CONGLACIATIO, i. e. Coagulatio, or Congelatio.

CONGLOBATA GLANDULA. A conglobate gland, from *conglobo*, *to gather ſingly into a ball*. All the glands are either *conglobate*, or conglomerate. A *conglobate* gland is a little ſmooth body, wrapped up in a fine ſkin, by which it is ſeparated from all other parts, only admitting an artery, and a nerve to paſs in, and giving way to a vein, and excretory canal to paſs out. Of this ſort are the glands of the brain and the teſtes.

Under the title of *conglobate* glands Winſlow includes the lymphatic glands alone; and he calls all the other conglomerate. See Winſlow's and Keil's Anatomy.

CONGLOMERATA GLANDULA, from *conglomero*, *to heap up together*. A *conglomerate gland* is compoſed of many little conglobate glands all tied together, and wrapped up in one common membrane. Sometimes all their excretory ducts unite, and make one common pipe, through which the liquor of all of them runs, as the pancreas and parotids do. Sometimes the ducts uniting form ſeveral pipes, which only communicate with one another by croſs canals, and ſuch are the mammæ. Others again have ſeveral pipes, without any communication with one another, of which ſort are the glandulæ lachrymales & proſtatæ; another ſort is, when each gland hath its own excretory duct, through which it tranſmits its liquor to a bommon baſin, as the kidneys. See Winſlow's and Keil's Anatomy.

CONGLUTINANTIA. Healing medicines, from *conglutino*, *to glew together*.

CONIA. Lime. κονια, when joined with ςακτη, it imports lixivium, or ley of vegetable aſhes.

CONIA, κονια. Wine impregnated with fir. Dioſcorid. lib. v. c. xlviii.

CONIFERÆ ARBORES. Coniferous trees. They are ſuch as bear cones, as the cedar, fir, pine, &c.

CONILE, i. e. Myrrhis. So called from its reſemblance to κωνειον, hemlock.

CONIS, κονις, duſt; fine powder; aſhes; a nit in the hair; ſcurf from the head; and ſometimes, it ſignifies lime.

CONISTERIUM. See APODYTERIUM.

CONJUNCTA CAUSA. The conjunct cauſe, or the immediate cauſe. See CAUSA.

CONJUNCTA SIGNA. The pathognomonic ſigns of a diſeaſe are ſo called.

CONJUNCTIVA TUNICA. See ADNATA.

The *conjunctiva* is miſtakenly confounded with the adnata; they are two diſtinct coats, and both but partial coverings of the fore-part of the eye, though the *conjunctiva* is alſo ſpread over the inſide of the eye-lids.

The adnata, alſo called albuginea, is thus formed; five of the muſcles which move the eye, take their origin from the bottom of the orbit, and the ſixth ariſes from the edge of it; they are all inſerted by a tendinous expanſion into the anterior part of the tunica ſclerotica; which expanſion gives the whiteneſs peculiar to the fore-part of the eye. It lays betwixt the ſchlerotica and the *conjunctiva*.

The *conjunctiva* is a thin tranſparent membrane, which lines the inner ſurface of the eye-lids, and, at the edge of the orbit, has a fold, and is continued forward, over the anterior half of the globe of the eye. It is exterior to all the other coats of the eye, and connected with the albuginea, by means of a cellular ſubſtance; from which it may eaſily be ſeparated in the dead ſubject by diſſection. See Ware's Remarks on the Ophthalmy, &c. p. 5. ſome call it the Mucous Coat.

CONNA, i. e. CASSIA FISTULA.

CONACARPODENDRON. The ſilver-tree. It is a native

a native of the country of the Hottentots. Boerhaave mentions ten ſpecies. See Miller's Dict. vol. ii.

CONOIDES, from κωνος, *a cone*, and εἶδος, *ſhape*. See CONARIUM.

CONOIDES CORPUS. The glandula pinealis.

CONQUASSATIO. Conquaſſation. In pharmacy it is a ſpecies of comminution, or an operation by which moiſt concreted ſubſtances, as recent vegetables, fruits, the ſofter parts of animals, &c. are agitated and bruiſed, till partly by their proper ſucculence, or by an affuſion of ſome liquor, they are reduced to a ſoft pulp.

CONSERVA. A Conſerve. *Conſerves* are compoſitions of recent vegetable matters, and ſugar, beat together into one uniform maſs.

On account of the large quantity of ſugar contained in *conſerves*, it is obvious that their uſe in medicine can only be auxiliary to other more efficacious drugs. The *conſerves* of lavender, roſemary, orange and lemon peels, are the beſt of all others. A uſeful doſe may be taken of them.

Mucilaginous ſubſtances, if mixed with ſugar, become glutinous; aſtringents become ſoft; bitters are every way improper for this form; and lightly flavoured vegetables ſoon ſpoil: ſo none of theſe are proper to make *conſerves* with.

The general obſervations for the right making of *conſerves* are but few, as follows: 1. Leaves are to be picked from their ſtalks. 2. Flowers are to be ſeparated from their cups. 3. When the flowers or leaves are properly prepared, they muſt be beat into an uniform maſs, in a marble mortar, with three times their weight of powdered lump ſugar.

Orange peel may be raſped, or ground in a mill, and then beat up with the ſugar.

Roſes are to be ground before being beat up into a *conſerve*.

CONSERVATIO. In pharmacy, it is preſerving, pickling, or keeping from putrefaction, and evaporation, by the addition of ſome other ſubſtance.

CONSERVATIVA MEDICINA. That part of medicine which relates to the preſervation of health.

CONSILIGO. Setter-wort. See HELLEBORUS.

CONSISTENTIA. When uſed with reſpect to a diſeaſe, it imports the ſtate or acme thereof. When applied to the humours, excrements, or excretions, it imports their conſiſtence.

CONSOLIDA. Comfrey. Of this there are many ſpecies.

CONSOLIDA MAJOR, called alſo ſymphytum majus, and greater comfrey.

It is the ſymphytum officinale, or, ſymphitum foliis ovato-lanceolatis decurrentibus, flore purpureo. Linn.

It is a rough hairy plant, with large, ſomewhat oval, pointed leaves, producing on the tops of the branches ſpikes of white or purpliſh, pendulous, nearly cylindrical flowers, followed each by four ſhining black ſeeds. The root is thick and fleſhy, black on the outſide, and white within. It is perennial, grows wild in moiſt grounds, and flowers in May or June. There is a ſort with purple flowers, but it is rarely met with. The purple and the white flowers are but varieties of the ſame ſpecies.

The whole plant is uſed, but the root is the only part that deſerves much notice; it gives out to water by decoction about two-thirds of its weight of mucilage, that is almoſt void of ſmell and taſte, and ſimilar to that from the althæa, but more tenacious; whence in all the purpoſes for which the althæa root is uſed, the *comfrey* is to be preferred. This mucilage is its only medicinal principle. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works. Raii Hiſt.

CONSOLIDA ARVENSIS FLORE RUBRO PLENO. Common lark-ſpur, with a double flower.

CONSOLIDA AUREA. Dwarf ciſtus, ſee CHAMÆ CISTUS.

CONSOLIDA AUREA CORDI, i. e. Chamæ ciſtus.

CONSOLIDA MEDIA. The great daiſy. See BUGULA.

CONSOLIDA MINIMA. The common daiſy.

CONSOLIDA MINOR. See BRUNELLA.

CONSOLIDA REGALIS. See DELPHINUM. All the ſpecies called conſolida regalis are different ſpecies of lark-ſpur.

CONSOLIDA RUBRA, i. e. Tormentilla.

CONSOLIDA SARACENICA. See DORIA, VIRGA AUREA, and JACOBÆA.

CONSOLIDANS. Conſolidating. This is applied to medicines that produce new fleſh, from *conſolido*, *to make firm*.

CONSPERSIO, i. e. Catapaſma.

CONSPICILIUM, or Conſpicillum. A pair of ſpectacles.

Theſe helps to the ſight are with convex, concave, or plane glaſſes. The firſt magnifies the objects looked at, the ſecond diminiſhes them, and the third are called conſerves, being made of white or green glaſs, for preſerving the ſight.

It is a caution of importance not to uſe ſpectacles too ſoon; and, when they are begun with, not to change them too often, for it may be that in time none can be obtained that will ſuit.

Sometimes it happens, after the uſe of ſpectacles during ſome years, that the cryſtalline reaſſumes its proper form, ſo that they are no more required. See Martin's Eſſay on viſual Glaſſes.

CONSTANS. When applied to the ſtrength, or vital powers, it imports firmneſs, or a good condition.

CONSTELLATUM UNGUENTUM. It is an ointment made of earth worms, cleanſed, dried, powdered, and made into an ointment with the fat of boars or bears.

CONSTIPATIO. See CONSTIPATUS, STOMACHUS, ADSTRICTIO & OBSTIPATIO.

CONSTIPATUS. Coſtive. Dr. Cullen gives this diſorder the name of obſtipatio, which ſee. A perſon is ſaid to be *coſtive*, not only when the excretion from the inteſtines does not daily happen, but alſo when what is diſcharged is too hard to receive its form from the impreſs of the rectum upon it.

Hoffman ſays, that *coſtiveneſs* is generally owing to ſpaſms in the inteſtines themſelves, or as propagated by conſent, but various cauſes conduce to this habit, as an inert bile; acidity prevailing greatly in the firſt paſſages, coldneſs of the feet, ſitting much, eſpecially if the body is to be bent forwards, working with vigour, drinking but little, and that after a full meal, &c.

This habit of body is generally attended with head-ach, vertigo, diſagreeable taſte in the mouth, a diſreliſh of food, and as it is a ſure ſtep towards chronic complaints, hath, in different perſons, very various effects. In *coſtive* bodies, the moiſture which ſhould be diſcharged with the excrements is abſorbed into the conſtitution, and though a ſtrong perſpiration may diſcharge ſome part of it, yet the groſſer part remains by which much terreſtrial matter is lodged in the blood, which fails not to produce one diſorder or another, as it happens to be at laſt thrown on one or another part.

The coſtiveneſs peculiar to ſtudious people is much relieved by alkaline ſalts, or the ol. ricini. Artificers who ſit much, and work with their bodies leaning forward, are beſt relieved by the ſame.

In melancholic caſes, alkaline ſalts anſwer the beſt if long continued, for they leave no effects which tend to render the body coſtive.

Women during pregnancy are ſometimes coſtive from the preſſure of the child's head againſt the rectum. Early care ſhould be had to prevent an accumulation of feces by a due adminiſtration of the milder purges, for rugged ones are to be abſolutely rejected in this caſe.

Old people, from the weakneſs of their muſcles, have hard feces collected in the rectum; and notwithſtanding they take laxative medicines, which procure a diſcharge of what is thin, the indurated matter ſtill lodges except manual aſſiſtance is given.

Aloes given in ſmall doſes proves ſufficiently laxative, and this effect is continued longer after its uſe than is obſerved with reſpect to any other medicine; and when flatulencies are very troubleſome, if a little aſſa fœtida is joined therewith, more conſiderable relief may be expected.

Calomel very much prevents other purging medicines from leaving coſtiveneſs behind.

Habitual coſtiveneſs hath been much leſſened both by the cold and hot baths, alſo by early riſing and walking in the open air.

In the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. are two caſes of *coſtiveneſs*, which reſembled diarrhœas.

CONSTRICTIVA. Styptics.

CONSTRICTOR ALÆ NASI, alſo called depreſſor labii ſuperioris. Fallopius firſt deſcribed theſe, though Placentinus aſſumes the firſt diſcovery. They riſe fleſhy below the root of the nares, immediately above the gums of the dentes inciſſorii, and aſcending tranſverſely, are inſerted into the coats of the alæ naſi, and the ſuperior part of the upper lip.

CONSTRICTOR ANI. See SPHINCTER ANI.

CONSTRICTOR ISTHMI FAUCIUM. From the uvula two arches run down, and there is a cavity between them, where the tonſils are lodged. The anterior arch goes down to the baſis of the tongue, and is thus called; the other paſſes down the palatum molle, and goes to the pharynx, whence it is diſtinguiſhd by the name of palatopharyngæus.

CONSTRICTOR LABIORUM, i. e. Sphincter labiorum.

CONSTRICTOR MUSCULUS, i. e. Buccinator.

CONSTRICTOR PALPEBRARUM, i. e. Orbicularis palpebrarum.

CONSTRICTORES PHARYNGÆI. See PHARYNX.

CONSTRICTOR PHARYNGIS INFERIOR, i. e. Crico pharyngæi.

CONSTRICTOR PHARYNGIS MEDIUS, i. e. Hyo-pharyngæus.

CONSTRICTOR PHARYNGIS SUPERIOR, i. e. Cephalo-pharyngæus.

CONSTRICTOR VESSICÆ URINARIÆ. See DETRUSOR URINÆ.

CONSTRICTORII. Diſeaſes attended with conſtriction.

CONSTRINGENTIA. Aſtringents.

CONSUETUDO. Cuſtom.

In medicine this chiefly reſpects the non-naturals, and produces habits which ſometimes are pernicious. *Cuſtom* ſometimes increaſes the efficacy of applications, though ſometimes the contrary happens. When *cuſtom* hath formed an habit that is improper, it is beſt to remedy it by degrees. See Fordyce's Elements, part i. p. 58, &c.

CONSUMMATUM. The French call it conſommé. It is a *broth* ſo ſtrong as to concrete into a jelly when cold. Frequent mention is made of it in the French medicinal writers.

CONSUMPTIO, i. e. Phthiſis.

CONTABESCENTIA, i. e. Atrophia.

CONTAGIO. Contagion, or infection. Of diſorders from infection, ſome require an immediate contact with the bodies of the infected, as in the caſe of the lues venerea, and the ſmall-pox, as alſo the meaſles, which require at leaſt an approach within the reach of the effluvia from an infected body. In other inſtances the *infection* is ſpread by more general cauſes, ſuch as the air, diet, &c. Of theſe there are three kinds, which differ only in their being more or leſs in quantity, and are all curable by the ſame means, applied in different degrees. Theſe *infectious* effluvia ſpring from either fermenting vegetable fluids, putrifying animal or vegetable bodies, or mineral exhalations. And it is remarkable that each of theſe alike are deſtructive of flame.

It is by the deſtruction of the vital principle in us, that *infection* proves ſo fatal; it is thus that poiſons ſo ſoon deſtroy us.

According to the kind of effluvia and its degree, different diſeaſes are produced, e. g. where mineral exhalations prevail, nervous colics, nervous and intermittent fevers, peripneumonia, notha, &c. When putrid ones are diffuſed in the air, ſcurvies, plagues, gangrenes, &c. are the conſequence.

At every inſpiration theſe effluvia are taken into our bodies, and thus produce their ill effects. They are ſwallowed with our food, by which their quantity being increaſed, their power of action is alſo greater, poſſeſſing an aſſimilating property too, no wonder that deſtruction is ſo ſpeedy, as in many inſtances is obſerved. See MIASMA.

In ſhort, ſo ſimilar are the effects of *infection* and poiſon, that they may be conſidered as the ſame, differing only in their modes of communication. See VENENUM.

See on this ſubject Mead on Poiſons, eſſay the fifth, and Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic. Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. i.

CONTAGIOSI. Diſorders from infection, or contagious diſeaſes.

CONTEMPERANTIA, i. e. Temperantia.

CONTENSIO. It ſometimes is uſed to expreſs a tenſion or ſtricture.

CONTENTA. Contents. By theſe is underſtood any fluids contained within a ſolid part of the body.

CONTENTUS. Stretched.

CONTINENS FEBRIS. A continual or a continent fever, which proceeds regularly in the ſame tenor, without either intermiſſion or remiſſion. This happens rarely, if ever.

CONTINUA FEBRIS. A continued fever, attended with exacerbations, and ſlight remiſſions, but no intermiſſion.

CONTORSIO, from *contorqueo, to turn aſide*, Contorſion. In medicine this word hath various ſignifications. 1ſt, The iliac paſſion is thus named. 2dly, An incomplete diſlocation. 3dly, A diſlocation of the vertebræ of the back ſideways, or a crookedneſs of them. 4thly, A diſorder of the head, in which it is drawn to one ſide.

CONTRA-APERTURA. A counter-opening. This is ſometimes neceſſary in wounds made by puncture, or a bullet, &c. to diſcharge what is contained in them, or to prevent their growing fiſtulous. The circumſtances requiring this procedure are ſo various, as to demand the ſagacity of a ſurgeon, in order to a proper procedure: however, in general the opening is made by paſſing a trochar, or ſuch like inſtrument, to the bottom of the wound, directing its point to the neareſt ſkin, and continuing it through, ſo as to make the old and the new *aperture* one continued paſſage: or, ſecondly, by cutting through the ſkin, &c. directly upon the intruded body, or upon the button of the probe, which may be introduced to the bottom of the wound to direct the inciſion. See Petit, and Heiſter's Surgery.

CONTRACTURA. Contracture. An immobility of any of the joints, induced by a preternatural *contraction* of ſome of the muſcles deſtined in a natural ſtate to move them; or from ſome derangement of the oſſeous or ligamentous parts about the joint affected.

Dr. Cullen ranks this as a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſcineſiæ. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies. 1. Contractura primaria, from a rigid *contraction* of muſcles. 2. Contractura articularis, from rigidity of the joint.

Dr. Aitken obſerves that joint *contraction* (as he terms this diſorder) is moſt frequently ſymptomatic: and when it depends on muſcular *contraction* only, he adviſes the tepid bath, and deligation, and counteraction by weights, hung in due proportion, to oppoſe the *contraction*.

CONTRA-FISSURA. Contra-fiſſure. It is a crack in the ſkull, oppoſite to where the blow was given, e. g. the blow is received on the right bregma, and thereby a *fiſſure* is occaſioned in the left. See FISSURA.

CONTRAHENTIA. Medicines which ſhorten and ſtrengthen the fibres. Aſtringent medicines are generally reckoned the only medicines which do this.

CONTRAINDICATIO, i. e. Anten-deixis.

CONTRALUNARIS. An epithet given by Dieterichus to a woman who conceives during the menſtrual diſcharge.

CONTRA-VERMES, [SEM.] i. e. Santonicum.

CONTRAYERVA, called alſo Drakena, Cyperus longus odorus & inodorus Peruanus, dorſtenia, bezoardica radix, and counter-poiſon. It is the dorſtenia contrayerva, Linn.

This root was firſt brought into Europe about the year 1581, by Sir Francis Drake, whence its name Drakena. It is the root of a ſmall plant which is found in Peru, and other parts of the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. There are two kinds, the one placenta ovali, the other placenta angulari & undulata. That ſort which is generally brought to us is about an inch or two long, half an inch thick, full of knots, ſurrounded on all ſides with numerous long tough fibres, moſt of which are loaded with ſcaly knobs, of a reddiſh brown colour on the outſides, and pale within.

The

The tuberous parts of theſe roots is the ſtrongeſt, and ſhould be choſen for uſe. They have an agreeable aromatic ſmell; a rough, bitter, penetrating taſte; and, when chewed, they give out a ſweetiſh kind of acrimony.

They are diaphoretic and antiſeptic; of uſe in low nervous fevers, and thoſe of the malignant kinds; though taken freely they do not produce much heat.

By the aſſiſtance of heat, both ſpirit and water extract all their virtues, but carry little or nothing over with them in diſtillation; extracts made by inſpiſſating the decoction retain all the virtues of the roots.

The London college directs the following preparation.

Pulvis Contrayervæ *Compoſitus. Compound Powder of* Contrayerva.

Take of the compound powder of crabs-claws a pound and a half; of *contrayerva* root five ounces: mix and make them into a powder.

This powder was formerly made up in balls, and called lapis *contrayervæ*. It is excellent in the decline of ardent fevers, and through the whole courſe of low and nervous ones.

The rad. ſerp. v. in all caſes may be well ſubſtituted, for it excels the *contrayerva*. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Work, and Raii Hiſt.

CONTRAYERVA NOVA, or Mexican contrayerva. It was introduced into Europe after the above ſort, and is brought from Guiana, as well as from Mexico. The root is longiſh, about two fingers thick, externally rough, and of a browniſh colour, internally white, with a pith in the middle of a ſweetiſh aromatic taſte, and but little inferior to the ſort introduced before it.

CONTRAYERVA ALBA, i. e. Aſclepias.

CONTRAYERVA GERMANICA, i. e. Anthora and aſclepias.

CONTRAYERVA VIRGINIANA, i. e. Serpentaria Virginiana.

CONTRITIO. In pharmacy is the ſame as comminutio.

CONTUSA, from *contundo, to knock together*. Contuſed wounds, contuſions, or bruiſes. When any part is bruiſed one of theſe two are always conſequent, and commonly both happen together; either the ſmall blood-veſſels of the *contuſed* part are broken, and the blood they contained is ſpread about in the adjoining parts, or elſe without ſuch an effuſion of it, theſe veſſels have loſt their tone, their active force, and no longer contributing to the circulation, their contents ſtagnate. In either of theſe caſes, if nature, either with or without the aſſiſtance of art, does not remove the impediment, an inflammation comes on, followed by an imperfect unkindly ſuppuration, with putrefaction or gangrene. Beſide which there are peculiar ſymptoms from the injury done to a nerve, a blood-veſſel, or a bone.

In general the ſymptoms conſequent on *bruiſes* may be reduced to three claſſes, for

Firſt, They ariſe either from this, that when the ſolids are deſtroyed, and the humours diſcharged, thoſe functions are aboliſhed which depend upon a due and determinate motion of the fluids through the ſound veſſels. Or,

Secondly, That the diſcharged humours collected either in the natural or preternatural cavities of the body by their bulk and quantity preſs upon the adjacent parts, and either totally deſtroy or at leaſt diſturb their reſpective functions.

Thirdly, The humours thus diſcharged, may, by their continuance and ſtagnation in the cavities, acquire ſuch a degree of acrimony as to corrode and deſtroy the adjacent parts.

When the internal parts are *bruiſed*, and the external integuments are entire or confine the extravaſated fluid, the conſequence is, 1. An echymoſis, 2. A ſpurious aneuriſm, 3. A ſugillation, 4. Ulcers and gangrenes, 5. A caries, 6. A ſcirrhus, or a cancer.

Boerhaave obſerves that *contuſions* on fleſhy parts may produce ſuppuration, gangrene, palſy, or a contraction. On a large nerve, a palſy, atrophy, incurable inſenſibility, and a gangrene in all the parts below the injured part, this peculiarly may follow *contuſions* of the ſpine and its marrow. *Contuſions* of the viſcera, he juſtly obſerves, are often ſpeedily fatal, and no wonder, ſeeing how tender they are, and how little force may burſt their veſſels.

Contuſions from gun-ſhot wounds are not ſo dangerous from the deſtruction of the injured veſſels and the conſequences thereof, as from the general concuſſion that the whole body ſuffers from the air which is violently impelled againſt it, and from this concuſſion it is that moſt of the grievous ſymptoms proceed, which are conſequent on wounds or bruiſes from fire-arms.

In no caſe ſhould we be more cautious of pronouncing the event of any diſaſter than where a concuſſion or a *contuſion* happens, and where both may have occurred, the caution, if poſſible, ſhould be greater.

Bohinus de Renunciat. Vulner. § 2. cap. 1. gives the following caſe from Paaw: A man was ſtruck on the bregma; on examination no fracture was found nor fiſſure, and he continued vigorous during ten months after, when being ſeized with a vertigo he dropped down, and ſoon after died: on opening his cranium, in the place where the blow was received, the bones and membranes of the brain were putrid and fetid. Similar inſtances have occurred to others in their practice, and the ſame happening to any other bone, by affecting the marrow, may be as deſtructive as in the cranium. When *bruiſes* are received inwardly it is not eaſy to judge readily of the extent of injury done by them, and when the caſe becomes more manifeſt, it is too late to attempt relief.

In order to the moſt effectual relief, remedies muſt be uſed that diſſolve coagulated fluids, and that reſtore the tone of the veſſels.

For external uſe, where the ſkin is not much deſtroyed, a mixture of ſharp vinegar, with twice its quantity of water, may be applied frequently by means of linen cloths wrung out of it, and as often as they dry moiſten them again. Spirituous applications ſhould not be uſed, except where the ſole intention is to ſtrengthen the injured fibres; in ſlighter caſes a ſmall quantity of ſpirit may be mixed with vinegar, and uſed on the firſt reception of the *bruiſe*.

If on account of a tumour or wound a poultice is applied, the common bread poultice is the beſt.

If the *bruiſe* is conſiderable, and particularly if any internal part is affected, bleed as freely as the conſtitution will admit; direct a cooling liquid diet; let clyſters be repeatedly injected, if the lower belly be the ſeat of complaint; and, in all caſes, repeated gentle purging is of the greateſt advantage; of all the purging medicines perhaps none excel the volatile tincture of aloes.

The advantages of the tinct. thebaic externally as a reſolvent, of Dover's powder, and the anodyne antimonial drops recommended in the article Concussio, which ſee, deſerve the ſame attention when *contuſions* happen, and on the ſame principles.

See Bohinus de Renunciat. Vulner. Van Swieten's Comments on Boerhaave's Aphoriſms, Tiſſot's Advice to the People, Bilguer's Diſſertation on the Inutility of amputating Limbs, p. 69, 73.

CONTUSIO. A contuſion, from *contundo, to bruiſe*.

CONTUSURA. Bruiſes.

CONUS. A cone. The fruit of the pine, fir, or cedar tree. Or fruit with a broad baſis, and which gradually diminiſhes to a point. The trees which bear ſuch fruit are called *coniferous*. Dioſcorides ſays that κωνος is a name of liquid pitch.

CONUS FUSORIUS, alſo called Pyramis. A cone. It is a veſſel reſembling an inverted *cone*, made of braſs or iron, and is uſed for ſeparating reguluſes from their ſcoriæ; for while the fuſed mineral is pouring into the crucible it is ſtruck with a mallet, in order to produce a tremulous motion in it, by which the heavier parts fall to the bottom.

CONVALLARIA. The lilly of the valley.

CONVALLARIA POLYGONATUM. Solomon's Seal. See Polygonatum.

CONVOLUTA SUPERIORA (Ossa), i. e. Concha narium ſuperiora.

CONVOLUTA INFERIORA. The lower ſhelves of the noſe.

CONVOLVULUS. Of this kind of plant botaniſts enumerate nineteen ſpecies with ſcandent ſtalks, and nine with ſtalks that are not ſcandent, beſides the jalap, mecoachan, and turbith. The whole plant uſually abounds with a milky juice that is ſtrongly cathartic and cauſtic.

CON-

CONVOLVULUS MAJOR. Great white bind-weed, alſo called ſcammonium Germanicum, and ſmilax lævis offico.

CONVOLV. MINOR. Small bind-weed; alſo called helxine ciſſampelos, and ſmilax lævis minor.

Cantabrica; lavender-leaved bind-weed. Pliny ſays it is thus called becauſe firſt found in Cantabria, in Spain, in the time of Auguſtus. It is alſo called convol. minimus ſpicæ foliis, convolv. linariæ folio, and volvulus terreſtris.

This ſpecies flowers in June, grows wild in fields, and is commended againſt worms.

CONVOLVULUS SYRIACUS. See SCAMMONIUM.

CONVOLVULUS. A name of the quamoclit.

CONVOLVULUS, i. e. Iliaca Paſſio.

CONVOLVULUS AMERICANUS, i. e. Mechoacana and Jalapa.

CONVOLVULVS COLUBRINUS, i. e. Pareira brava.

CONVOLVULUS INDICUS RADICÆ TUBEROSA EDULI CORTICE RUBRO. Potatoes.

CONVOLVULUS INDICUS, i. e. Turbith.

CONVOLVULUS MARITIMUS, i. e. Braſſica maritima.

CONVOLVULUS MARITIMUS ZEYLANICUS, &c. Bintambaru.

CONVOLVULUS PERENNIS. The hop. See LUPULUS

CONVULSIO. A convulſion, or involuntary contraction of the muſcles; from *convello, to pull or haul together*.

Of *convulſions* there are different ſpecies, as the epilepſy, emproſthotonos, opiſthotonos, tetanus, &c. each of which may be ſeen under their names reſpectively. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs of neuroſes, and order ſpaſmi. See SPASMUS CLONICUS.

The brain and its expanſions, the nerves, are the ſeat of theſe diſorders. Primarily, any nervous part is the ſeat, as the ſtomach, and, as frequently as any other, the duodenum, which being irritated by its contents, *convulſions* are the conſequence.

Weakly habits with unpure juices are moſt ſubject to theſe affections: thoſe with choleric tempers, acute genius, and a delicate turn of mind, are all liable to attacks of this kind.

The immediate cauſe of *convulſions* is generally diſtinguiſhed from the immediate cauſe of an epilepſy (which yet is a ſpecies of *convulſion*) by being ſeated differently; or rather the *convulſion* and epilepſy are ſaid, to differ in that a ſpaſm of the coats of the medulla ſpinalis is the immediate cauſe of *convulſions*, while a ſpaſm in the dura mater is the immediate cauſe of the epilepſy. The mediate cauſes are paſſions of the mind, uneaſineſs in the ſtomach and bowels, or other nervous parts; and among the material cauſes are, worms, acrid medicines, a repulſion of morbid matter from the ſuperfices of the body inwardly, wounds, diſlocations, &c.

In infants, whoſe diſorders of this kind are ſymptomatic, an acrimony in the contents of the bowels is the general cauſe, though the pain excited by the teeth paſſing through the gums is alſo a frequent one.

Sometimes *convulſions* attack ſuddenly, at others their approach is indicated by certain ſymptoms; ſuch as coldneſs of the feet, or a ſenſe of formication, which alſo ſeizes the os coccygis, and like a cold vapour aſcends through the ſpine of the back; the left hypochondrium is affected with tenſive and flatulent pains, and a coſtiveneſs attends; the urine is thin and pale; tremors and various unuſual ſenſations are perceived, and in different patients other ſymptoms alſo attend, as the prelude to more violent ones. During the fit the motions are violent and involuntary, in ſome continuing longer, in others paſs off ſooner, and ſooner return; after the fit there continues in ſome a conſiderable languor, though in others this is not complained of; delirium, ſleepineſs, vomiting, or other ſymptoms ſometimes follow upon the departure of a *convulſive* paroxyſm, and there are caſes in which little or no ſenſible uneaſineſs is perceived on recovery from it.

Infants, while in that ſtate which ſo generally ſubjects them to *convulſive* diſorders, and particularly when diſpoſed thereto, are attended with a cough, vomiting, or diarrhœa; their features are at times diſtorted; a blueneſs appears about their eyes and upper lip, and twitchings or ſtartings are often obſerved, particularly a contraction of the fingers into the palm of the hand, and during the intervals of the fits they are drowſy. As death draws nigh the *convulſions* are more frequent.

Convulſions, as diſtinguiſhed from an epilepſy, ſhould not be confounded with thoſe that conſtitute the epilepſy, or are accompanied therewith.

Theſe diſorders often degenerate into a melancholy, or take off the patient by inducing an apoplexy.

The indications of cure are, to correct or to diſcharge the material cauſe, to allay the ſpaſm, and to ſtrengthen the nervous ſyſtem.

In the fit there can be but little done. The only caſes that require immediate aſſiſtance in the fit are, when it is ſo violent as to ſwell the neck, and that the face is red, and there ſeems to be danger of an apoplexy: alſo when *convulſions* ſeize pregnant women, and labour at the ſame time comes on; in this latter inſtance delivery muſt be haſtened as the only cure.

Dr. Bland thinks that *convulſions* in pregnant women, and during labour, have nothing peculiar in their cauſe from thoſe which happen to women differently ſituated; and though external agents, particularly violent affections of the mind, may ſometimes, as at other periods, excite them; yet this will rarely happen, unleſs there is ſome peculiar vice in the conſtitution, diſpoſing to them: and, from obſervation, he thinks, he is juſtified in ſaying, that the puerperal ſtate is far from favouring them; as women at that time may do and ſuffer, almoſt with impunity, what at any other time would be attended with the moſt ſerious conſequences. But whatever may be the cauſe, he obſerves, there is evidently in the fit, as in the apoplexy, a too rapid and dangerous determination of the blood to the head, which demands the moſt immediate and ſerious attention. To remedy this, blood muſt be immediately drawn, and, if poſſible, from the jugulars. The ſtate of the labour ſhould then be inquired into, and if the child is not too far advanced in the pelvis, it will be right to preſcribe a large ſtimulating glyſter to empty the bowels; and at the ſame time leſſen the determination to the head; this, if not ſufficient for the purpoſe, ſhould be aſſiſted by a few grains of jalap and calomel, or ſome other briſk purge. If the labour is far advanced, the *convulſions* will act upon the fœtus; and if there is no impediment, either from wrong preſentation, or diſproportion of the child to the pelvis, will, in a little time, ſafely expel it. If any obſtacle to delivery is found, the poſition of the child, if faulty, muſt be altered; or we ought to have recourſe to other neceſſary aſſiſtance, in the ſame manner as if *convulſions* were not preſent. In either way, the termination of the labour will frequently put an end to the *convulſions*. But if this is too haſtily performed, before the veſſels have been properly emptied, and the rapid motion of the blood in them diminiſhed, there will be danger from the torrent ruſhing too impetuouſly into the inteſtines or other abdominal viſcera, of inflammation in ſome of thoſe parts, inducing puerperal fever, and oftentimes death. But where the labour is not far advanced, after the exhibition of the glyſter and purgative, thirty drops of the tinct. theb. may be given and repeated, interpoſing occaſionally the glyſter or cathartic, as ſymptoms ſhall indicate. See Dr. Bland's Eſſays on the Treatment of Convulſions during Parturition.

Convulſions are ſometimes a ſymptom attending fevers, and may be produced by inanition, as when hæmorrhages, &c. have happened; alſo by repletition; irritation is moſt frequently their cauſe; in theſe caſes relief will moſt readily be procured by means adapted to remove it: the ſame method of relief as is laſt propoſed, when *convulſions* are a ſymptom of fevers, ſhould be attended to when they are cauſed by wounds; here warm oil, or the warmer kind of balſams applied to the injured part, are often a ſpeedy cure, where no ſtricture in the part remains unrelieved by manual operation: the cauſes of irritation are indeed various, and therefore different means will be required to affect this one end.

Convulſions in children from teething require the loſs of blood, particularly if the gums are ſwelled and painful; in this caſe bleeding is the grand ſpecific.

When

When depletion is the cauſe, cordials muſt immediately be adminiſtered, and a generous nouriſhing diet allowed.

If ſuppreſſed menſes or piles are the cauſe, their return muſt be promoted; here hot and acrid means ſhould be avoided, warm baths, with antiſpaſmodic and gentle anodynes, preferred.

Worms, producing this diſorder, are to be deſtroyed, and the preſent ſymptom relieved by clyſters of milk, ſweet and oily ſubſtances; calomel may be mixed with rhubarb and valerian, but irritating medicines muſt be ſhunned.

Irritating poiſons cauſe *convulſions*, which generally are fatal: however, demulcents and gentle opiates ſhould be tried.

The itch or other morbid humours being repelled, and producing this diſorder, will require abſorbents to correct the primæ viæ; and to relieve from the preſent ſymptom, antiſpaſmodics with cordials and gentle anodynes ſhould be uſed.

Other cauſes may produce the ſame complaint, and as in other inſtances, they muſt be inveſtigated, as the ſureſt way towards relief.

Muſk produces happy effects if given in doſes from a ſcruple to half a dram, as is inſtanced in a caſe related by Dr. Owen of Salop. See the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii. p. 183, &c. The cauſe was, a ſhock received from an electric machine; the quantity of muſk which he preſcribed at the firſt was half a dram every four hours.

Bleeding is only neceſſary in plethoric habits, and Hoffman ſays, that this operation ſhould not be performed until after the fit, for otherwiſe the diſorder will be protracted.

Laxatives are eſſentially neceſſary, as an open belly conduces to prevent and relieve this kind of affliction: of this kind of medicines, rhubarb, manna, and diuretic ſalt. are to be preferred.

Warm bathing, in many caſes of this kind, is followed with happy effects.

CONVULSIO CLONICA. Convulſion alternating with relaxation.

Clyſters, in which are from x. to xxx. drops of laudanum, give ſpeedieſt relief, when the inteſtinum rectum is affected with the ſpaſms.

Bliſters applied upon the part affected, are powerful means of relief. Dr. Whytt relieved a patient who complained of an alternate motion of the muſcles of his belly, by a bliſter applied thereon; and he ſays farther, that, when epilepſies ariſe from an uneaſy ſenſation in the arm or leg, a bliſter applied there is the moſt effectual remedy. And in the *convulſions* peculiar to children, as a drain, a bliſter may be highly uſeful.

Æther, in many inſtances, hath been uſefully applied for the removing of ſpaſmodic complaints.

See Aretæus, Proſper Alpinus's Preſages, Hoffman, Med. Muſ. vol. iii. p. 562. Van Swieten's Com. on Boer. Aph.

CONVULSIO INDICA. The ſame as Tetanus.

CONVULSIO A NERVI PUNCTURA. The ſame as Triſmus.

CONVULSIO SOLONIENSIS. The ſame as Raphania.

CONVULSIO TONICA. Convulſion, not alternating with relaxtion.

CONVULSIO UTERI. The ſame as Abortus.

CONYZA. Flea-bane. The leaves of this plant are generally glutinous and ſtrong ſcented, the cup of the flower is generally ſcaly and of a cylindrical form. The flower conſiſts of many florets, which are ſucceeded by ſeeds covered with a downy ſubſtance.

CONYZA MINOR FLORE GLOBOSO, alſo called pulicaria, after paluſtris parvo flore globoſo, conyza minima, conyza mediæ ſpecies flore vix radiato, and ſmall flea-bane.

The chief uſe of all the *flea-banes*, is to deſtroy fleas and gnats, by burning them ſo as to waſte away in ſmoak.

CONYZA MAS THEOPHRASTI, conyza major Dioſc. pulicaria, virga aurea major foliis glutinoſis & graveolentibus. Greater flea-bane.

Boerhaave mentions ten ſpecies, and Dale adds two more.

CONYZA MAJOR VULGARIS. See BACCHARIS.

CONYZA AQUATICA. See JACOBÆA.

CONYZA. See VIRGA AUREA.

CONYZA ÆTHIOPICA. African ſhrubby goldilocks.

CONYZA AFRICANA SENECIONIS, &c. A ſpecies of ſenecio.

CONYZA ALPINA. A ſpecies of doria.

CONYZA LINARIÆ FOLIO. German goldy-locks.

CONYZA PALUSTRIS SERRATIFOLIA. A ſpecies of doria.

CONYZOIDES. See SENECIO.

COOPERTORIUM, i. e. Cartilago thyroides.

COOSTRUM. The midle part of the diaphragm.

COPAIBA, i. e. Balſam capivi.

COPAIVA, i. e. Balſam capivi.

COPAL. The natives of America give the name of *copal* to all odoriferous gums which are tranſparent. It is a gum of the reſinous kind, brought from New Spain. Mr. Curtis, in his Catalogue of the Medicinal, &c. Plants in the London Botanic Garden, calls the plant that produces it, *copalifera*. Some think it is a mineral bitumen, analagous to amber. It is brought to us in irregular maſſes, ſome of which are tranſparent, and of different ſhades with reſpect to colour, from a light yellow to a deep brown. Some pieces are whitiſh and ſemitranſparent. In the inſide is found incloſed inſects and pieces of vegetable matter. To the ſmell it is more agreeable than frankincenſe. It differs from other reſinous bodies, in being difficultly diſſolved by rectified ſpirit of wine, and in yielding by diſtillation an oil, which, like the mineral petrolea, is indiſſoluble in the ſame ſpirit, in readily diſſolving in concentrated vitriolic acid, and eſſential oils, but not in expreſſed ones.

The chief uſe of this drug is for making of varniſh. It diſſolves in ſome degree by long digeſtion in ſpirit of wine, and if camphor is added, the ſolution is aſſiſted. Juncker ſays, that a mixture of ſpirit of ſal ammoniac, with the oil of ſpike or of turpentine, is uſed for its ſolution. Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

COPALLI QUAHVITH PALAHOCA. The tree which affords gum copal.

COPALXOCOTL TEPEACENSIUM. A tree mentioned by De Laet, much like the cherry-tree, whoſe fruit abounds with a glutinous juice: hence the Spaniards call it ceraſa gummoſa. Raii Hiſt.

COPAU. A ſort of wood reſembling the walnut tree; it grows in Braſil. It is called arbor Braſiliana juglandi ſimilis, nucibus carens. Raii Hiſt.

COPEIA. The name of a tree in Hiſpaniola, in America, whoſe leaf ſerves for paper, and of which the Spaniards there make cards. This tree affords a kind of matter of which a ſort of pitch is made. Raii Hiſt.

COPEIA AMERICANORUM. See COPEIA.

COPELLA. A cupel. See CUPELLA.

COPEY and COPELGA, i. e. Copeia.

COPHOS, κωφος, *deaf*. A ſort of toad mentioned by Nicander. It alſo ſignifies deaf, dumb, or both together. It is alſo uſed to expreſs a dulneſs of any of the ſenſes.

COPHOSIS. Deafneſs, dumbneſs, or dullneſs of any of the ſenſes.

COPIIBA BRASILIENSIBUS. It is a tall tree, growing in Braſil, but not remarkable for any medical virtue.

COPISCUS. A ſort of frankincenſe.

COPOS. Wearineſs. A gently warm bath ſooneſt relieves it; for what is wearineſs but an overſtretching or too great a tenſity of the fibres, occaſioned by uſing them too long or too violently? and muſt upon their being relaxed go off again. It is for the ſame reaſon that ſleep takes off wearineſs.

COPOVICH OCCASSOU. A tree mentioned by De Laet, which grows in the Weſt Indies; the leaves reſemble thoſe of the pear-tree; and the fruit called oumery, is like a large pear, and when ripe is eaten as a delicacy. Raii Hiſt.

COPRAGOGUM, from κοπρος, *dung*, and αγω, *to bring away*. The name of a gently purging electary, mentioned by Rulandus.

COPRIEMETOS, from κοπρος, *dung*, and εμεω, *to vomit*. A perſon who vomits up his excrements.

COPROCRITICA MEDICAMENTA, from κοπρος, *excrement*, and κρινω, *to ſeparate*, i. e. Eccoprotica.

COPROSTASIA. A conſtriction of the belly.

COPTARION. A medicine found in the ſhape of a very ſmall cake. Theſe were directed for diſorders of the aſperia arteria and lungs, and for many other intentions by the ancients. It is a diminutive from *copte*.

COPTE, from κοπτω, *to beat* or *pound*, becauſe it was formed by beating or pounding the ingredients into a paſte. It was the form of a medicine uſed by the ancients, generally made of vegetable ſubſtances, and applied externally, as on the ſtomach, &c. alſo given internally on many occaſions.

COPULA. A ligament.

COQUENTIA MEDICAMENTA. Medicines which promote concoction.

COR. In chemiſtry, ſignifies gold; and ſometimes an intenſe fire. In botany, it is the heart of vegetables, or their pith, ſee MEDULLA. Alſo the minute portion of any ſeed from which the root and bud ariſe. In anatomy, it is that viſcus in the breaſt called the heart.

The *heart* conſiſts eſſentially of two cavities; there being two *hearts* joined together in the human body, ſerving for two circulations of the blood, one through every part of the body, and one through the lungs. The right ſide of the *heart* is ſimilar to the left, excepting that both the auricle and ventricle have fewer muſcular fibres, and that the auricle receives blood from the venæ cavæ, and the ventricle throws it into the pulmonary artery.

The *heart* hath two motions, its ſyſtole and diaſtole. Harvey, and others ſay, that the ſyſtoles of the two auricules of the heart, the two ventricles, and the aorta and pulmonary artery, are reſpectively ſynchronous with each other. But Dr. Nichols, with great probability, thinks that the motion of the auricles are aſynchronous, and that the ventricles and arteries are likewiſe dilated and contracted at different periods of time.

The ſituation of the *heart* is in the middle of the cavity of the thorax, but rather incling to the left; on each ſide of it lie the lungs, looſe, playing upon the ribs and diaphragm, and attached at their roots to the *heart* by the pulmonary veſſels.

The *heart* is attached, on its lower ſide, to the diaphragm, by the pericardium, which is a membranous bag, incloſing the *heart* and all the parts belonging to it.

The figure of the *heart* is conoid, its baſe is irregular, becauſe of all the large veſſels fixed there. The human *heart* differs from thoſe of quadrupeds, which are round every where; the human rather repreſents half a cone, becauſe the under part which lies upon the diaphragm is flat.

The apex of the *heart* is to the left and forwards, its ſituation varies ſomewhat with the motion of the diaphragm, but that is very little, as it lies upon the tendinous part.

The body of the *heart* is compoſed of two large muſcular cavities, called ventricles, one to the right and forwards, the other to the left and backwards. Winſlow calls them anterior and poſterior.

At the baſis of the *heart* are two muſcular bags, called auricles, adjoining to the ventricles; they lie contiguous to one another below, but above they are diſtant, as the aorta and pulmonary artery lies betwixt them.

The *heart* hath a ſeptum divided into two, called ſeptum ventricularum, and ſeptum auricularum.

The right auricle receives the two venæ cavæ, one at the upper part, the other at the lower; the blood brought thither by the contraction of the auricle, paſſes into the right ventricle, from thence into the pulmonary artery, then through the pulmonary veins, into the left auricle, which propels it into the left ventricle, from whence it is ſent into the aorta, to be diſperſed all over the body, and at laſt is returned by the two cavæ to the right auricle.

The two cavæ go into the middle part of the auricle, each ſomething inclined inwards; the angle between them is partly filled up by the left auricle; there is a tranſverſe ridge upon the ſeptum auricularum, called tuberculum Loweri, which is placed there to hinder the current of the blood from each cava ruſhing directly againſt each other.

The right auricle hath an appendicle which ſerves to fill up the part between that and the aorta; for the ſame reaſon the left hath an appendage upwards, and to the left ſide, to fill up the ſpace between the pulmonary artery and the left ventricle. The whole of the cavity of the auricles internally is not ſmooth, but compoſed of faſciculi, running from one ſide to the other; this faſciculated texture obtains leſs in the left than in the right auricle; it is moſt obſervable in the appendages of the auricles, which no doubt is with a view to hinder the blood from concreting, as there it is moſt out of the way of the circulation.

Between the tuberculum Loweri, and the cava inferior, we ſee the foramen ovale, which runs upwards from the right to the left auricle: in the fœtus there is a valve which is looſe, but this valve in adults is connected to the ſeptum auricularum; ſometimes the foramen ovale is open during life.

The coronary vein opens into the right auricle, between the orifice of the cava inferior, and the paſſage into the ventricle.

The fibres of the auricle are ſo irregularly diſpoſed as to act as ſphincters, and hinder the regurgitation of the blood.

At the inſertion of the cava inferior is a valve called valvula nobilis, it is larger in the fœtus than in the adult; whoſe office is to hinder the blood from flowing back into the vein.

The right ventricle on its lower part lies on the diaphragm; on its upper part, it makes the larger part of the *heart*; this ventricle is thicker than the auricle, and the whole internal ſurface of it is faſciculated. It hath two orifices, one at the lower part, where it receives the blood, and one at the upper part, where it expels it: the auricular orifice is ſurrounded by a looſe membrane, which is notched into three parts, called valvulæ tricuſpides, which, though reckoned three, are really but one.

From the edge of the valves, we ſee certain fibres continued, called chordæ tendinæ, which, collected, make what are called the carnæ columnæ, and lead to the internal ſtructure of the *heart*: their uſe is to hinder the valvulæ tricuſpides from being inverted; and the faſciculi are of uſe to churn the blood, and are only in the middle to hinder this fluid from ſtagnating.

The other orifice, which leads into the pulmonary artery juſt at its beginning, is furniſhed with three ſemilunar valves, whoſe looſe floating edges lie towards the artery, whilſt the others are fixed to the ventricle. In order to make theſe valves catch more, each hath a little mamilla in its middle (to fill up the triangular ſpace which is left) called the corpus ſeſamoideum of Aurentius: theſe valves hinder the blood from regurgitating into the heart.

The left auricle lies rather on the back part, behind the baſis of the *heart*, and towards the left. It is ſituated below the bifurcation of the trachea and pulmonary artery. It is ſtronger than the other, and is ſmooth internally except at the little appendicle, becauſe the pulmonary veins being two on each ſide, the blood cannot ſtagnate. There are no valves on the orifices of the pulmonary veins. This auricle is ſtronger than the right, becauſe the left ventricle is ſtronger than the right, and therefore requires more force to open it.

The left ventricle is faſciculated. At the orifice between the auricle and the ventricle is a valve, called the valvula mitralis, which runs from the one to the other; it is fiſſured into two points, which are fixed to the auricles; and hang down looſe into the ventricles. The chordæ tendinæ, and columnæ carneæ, are the ſame as in the other, but much ſtronger. The orifice, by which it expels the blood, is ſituated in the middle of the ventricle, ſo the aorta riſes from the middle of the baſis of the *heart*. The larger flap of the valvula mitralis hangs down between the auricle and ventricle; and ſome imagine it ſerves as a valve to both the auricular and arterial orifices: but this is abſurd.

The coronary arteries are two. See CORONARIÆ ARTERIÆ.

The action of the left ventricle is to throw the blood into the aorta.

The foramina thebeſii are venal orifices, ſaid to open into all the cavities of the *heart*.

The fibres of the *heart* are muſcular; at each of the orifices

orifices is a tendinous ring, where the fibres of the ventricles begin, which go downwards to the apex, where they turn in, and run up on the inside, representing in perspective a figure of 8. There are some fibres common to both ventricles, which, as they compress them both, Dr. Hunter thinks is a proof of the ventricles being in action at the same time.

According to Lancisi, the nerves of the *heart* are both numerous and large. In each side there are inserted five pair, viz. from the par vagum, the superior intercostal pair, the vertebral pair, the inferior intercostal pair, and the phrænic pair.

See Winslow's Anatomy. Haller's Physiology.

CORACINE. An epithet for a sort of pastil, quoted by Galen from Asclepiades.

CORACINI LAPIDES. See CORACINUS.

CORACINUS. The crow-fish. It is found in the Nile, and other rivers in the Mediteranean sea. Certain bones found in its head are called Coracinilapides.

CORACOBOTANE, from κορακ, *a crow*, and βοτανη, *a plant*. A name for the laurus Alexandrina.

CORACO-BRACHIÆUS, (MUSCULUS), from κορακ, *a crow*, and *brachium, an arm*. It rises from the point of the coracoid process, and is inserted internally into the middle part of the os humeri. Riolanus gives it this name, and Arantius first took notice of it as belonging to the arm. Winslow calls it *coracobrachialis*. It hath been called perforatus Casserii, because this author first gave a particular account of it, and because it is perforated in the middle to give passage to a nerve. Spigelius calls it nonus humeri placentini.

CORACO HYOIDÆUS, called also Omo-hyoidæus, Omoplato-hyoidæus, and Costo-hyoidæus. It rises from the superior part of the upper costa of the scapula, and is inserted into the basis of the os hyoides, to pull it downwards and backwards.

CORACOIDES PROCESSUS. The beak-like process. Its name is from its likeness to a crow's beak. It projects from the anterior extremity of the upper costa of the scapula. This process is a little crooked, with its point inclining forwards: a ligament goes out on its superior part, to connect it to the acromion and clavicle. At the birth of children it is cartilaginous.

CORACOIDES MUSCULUS, i. e. Coraco-brachiæus. It is called *coracoides*, from κορακ, *a crow*, and ειδος, *form*, because it proceeds from the process which is formed like a crow's beak.

CORACOIDEUS, i. e. Coracobrachialis.

CORACOIDEUS PROCESSUS. See SCAPULA.

CORACUM EMPLASTRUM. The name of a plaster described by P. Ægineta.

CORALACHATES. A species of the achates, which resembles coral with respect to its colour.

CORALATUM. A name for the merc. præcip. rub.

CORALLINA. Called also Muscus Marinus, Muscus Maritimus, *Corallina* Anglica, *Corallina* Alba, Sea *Coralline*, and White Worm-seed.

It is a marine production, common on rocks and shells in shallow water, &c. It resembles a small plant without leaves, consists of several jointed branches, generally of a greyish colour, sometimes greenish yellowish, or reddish; of a brittle stony substance, friable betwixt the fingers, and crackling between the teeth. It hath commonly been supposed a vegetable, but late observations give us to believe that it is of animal origin. Its height is about two or three inches.

It ought to be entire; of a strong sea smell and salt taste. Worms will live in a strong infusion of it for several days, notwithstanding it is given in doses of ten grains or upwards, even to a dram, as an anthelminthic. By calcination in a strong fire it becomes true quick-lime. It consists of the same general nature as crabs claws, and other testaceous marine bodies. See Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

CORALLIUM, Coralium, or Corallum. Coral, It is also called lithodendron, or tree-stone.

CORALLIUM NIGRUM. Also called antipathes, lythophyton nigrum, antipathes, ceratophiton arboreum nigrum, pseudo-*corallium* nigrum, and black coral.

What is usually shewn for black *coral* is a woody, and not a stony plant.

CORALLIUM ALBUM RAMOSUM. Madrepora vulgaris, *corallium* officinarum oculatum, and white coral.

The best sort of white *coral* is brought from the Mediterranean, and is not porous, but solid.

CORALLIUM RUBRUM. Red Coral.

This is what hath been chiefly used in medicine. It is a hard, brittle, branched substance, resembling a plant without leaves, usually about the thickness of a goose-quill full of knots, sometimes streight, and sometimes variously bent, both externally and internally of a deep bright red colour. It is found adhering to rocks and other bodies in the sea, particularly in the Indian and Mediterranean seas, and in the Persian gulf. It has generally a covering of soft fungous matter, in which is a great number of cells, containing a milky liquor. This cortical part is separated easily whilst fresh and soft. *Corals* are supposed now to be of the animal kind.

Red *coral* contains some iron; its basis seems to be the same calcareous animal earth as that of *corralline* and other animal earths; it is possessed of the same pharmaceutic and medicinal properties with them, and no other.

The common testacea, coloured with dragon's blood, is sold for it; but by shaking this substitute in water, the fraud is discovered, for the colouring matter being separated, the other becomes white, whilst real *coral* is still red.

Oil of aniseeds, white wax, milk, or juice of citrons, all extract the red colour from *coral*.

Many preparations have formerly been made from red *coral*; but as the present practice justly rejects them, it is only farther observed, that chalk, *coral*, or oyster-shells, may be indiscriminately used.

CORALLODENDRON. It resembles a tree; the leaves are for the most part consisting of three lobes; the flowers are papilionaceous, and are succeeded by knobbed bivalve pods, which contain several kidney-shaped seeds.

Boerhaave mentions two species.

Arbor. *coral.* also called Arbor. *coral.* siliquosa, siliqua silvestris spinosa arbor Indica, arbuscula *corallii*, and the three-leaved American *coral* tree, with deep red flowers, commonly called in America the bean tree.

Arbor. *coral.* min. or the lesser three-leaved American *coral-tree*, with blacker seeds and spines.

Ray informs us, that the inhabitants of Malabar make sheaths for their knives and swords with the wood; that they use the wood with the bark for washing of their garments with, which they call saraffas, and of the flower they make the confection called caryl. The powdered leaves, when boiled with the mature cocoa-nut, consumes venereal buboes, and easeth pains in the bones. The juice of the leaves, taken with the oil sergelim, mitigates venereal pains.

CORALLOIDES. So called from their likeness to coral.

They are a dry juiceless substance, brittle, and ligneous, ramous, and furnished with apices: on the apices of the tops of the branches grow fungous tubercles, which contain many small seeds. Boerhaave enumerates nine species. They are said to be astringent, but are not of any note in medicine.

CORALOIDES FRUTICOSA PLANTA MARINA RECTIOR. It is the titanokeratophyton quod lithophyton marinus albicans.

CORALOIDES MINOR BULBIFERA, i. e. Dentaria heptaphyllos baccifera.

CORALLO FUNGUS. A species of fungus so called.

CORALLOIDES FLAVA. A sort of fungus.

CORCHORON, i. e. Anagallis

CORCHORUS. Called also melocia, melochia, and olus Judaicum nonnullis. It is an Egyptian plant, bearing pods with ash-coloured seeds. Raii Hist.

CORD. EUR. An abbreviation of Euricii Cordi botano logicon, sive Colloquium de Herbis.

CORD. An abbreviation of Valerii Cordi Historia stirpium.

CORDA, or Chorda. A CHORDE, which see.

CORDA TYMPANI. The portio dura of the seventh pair having entered the *tympanum*, it sends a small branch to the stapes, and another more considerable one, which runs across the *tympanum* from behind forwards, passes between

tween the long leg of the incus, and the handle of the malleus, then goes out at the ſame place where the tendon of the anterior muſcle of the malleus enters.

Dr. Monro thinks that the *chorda* tympani is formed by the ſecond branch of the fifth pair, as well as by the portio dura of the ſeventh.

It is called *corda tympani*, becauſe it croſſes the tympanum as a cord croſſes a drum-bottom.

CORDIALA. See CARDIACA.

CORDOLIUM. The heart-burn.

CORE. The pupil of the eye.

COREMATA. Bruſhes, or beſoms; but in P. Egineta it is uſed to ſignify medicines for cleaning the ſkin.

CORIANDRUM. Coriander. The coriandrum ſativum or coriandrum majus, fructibus globoſis. Linn. This plant is an umbelliferous one, with finely divided leaves; the lower ones are like parſley; the ſeeds are of a pale yellowiſh brown colour, they are ſtriated. The plant is a native of Italy, and is cultivated in ſome parts of England. It is annual, flowers in June, and ripens, it is ſaid, in July or Auguſt.

The leaves have a ſmall degree of an aromatic ſmell, mixed with a greater degree of what is offenſive. The ſeeds, when freſh, are alſo diſagreeable, but by drying they become grateful; to the taſte they are moderately warm and pungent. Mathiolus ſays they are antiſeptic. They are generally uſed as ſtomachic and carminative. Rectified ſpirit of wine takes up all their virtue, but water only partially extracts it. Diſtilled with water, a ſmall quantity of eſſential oil is obtained, which partakes agreeably of the quality of the ſeeds. Pure ſpirit carries off in evaporation a great part of their flavour. Raii Hiſt. and Lewis's Mat. Med.

CORIANDRUM MINUS TESTICULATUM. Smaller teſticulated coriander.

CORIANON, i. e. Coriandrum.

CORIARIA. See RHUS.

CORINDUM. A ſpecies of peas.

CORINTHIACÆ. See Vitis.

CORIS. See SYMPHYTUM PETRÆUM, and HYPERICUM.

CORIUM. See PELLIS and CUTIS.

CORIUM. A name of the dartos muſcle.

CORNACHINI PULVIS, i. e. Pulv. Scammoni C.

CORNEA. A coat of the eye, which is alſo called ſclerotica. It is the firſt coat which is proper to the eye; it is ſtrong, thick, and tendinous; its anterior part is diſtinguiſhed by the name of *cornea* tranſparens, or *cornea* lucida, and the poſterior part is called *cornea* opaca. Some call the tranſparent part *cornea*; and the poſterior part *cornea* opaca, and ſclerotica, or ſclerotis. The tranſparent part of this coat is elaſtic, the opake part is not. The opake part is made up of ſeveral laminæ cloſely connected, whoſe fibres run in different directions, and form a denſe, compact ſubſtance. The fore-part of this coat bearing a fancied reſemblance to tranſparent horn, takes the name of *cornea*.

The *cornea* conſiſts of two principle laminæ, an external and internal one, each of which is compoſed of thinner laminæ. The ſubſtance of the *cornea* is in ſome degree elaſtic, the better to fit the eye to the different magnitudes and diſtances of objects; it is alſo perforated with many ſmall holes, through which a fluid is ſuppoſed to be conſtantly diſcharged, but which ſoon evaporates.

The ſclerotica and *cornea* are furniſhed with arteries chiefly from a branch of the internal carotid. The nerves proceed chiefly from the ophthalmic branch of the fifth pair.

The *cornea* tranſmits the rays of light into the eye, and produces the firſt refraction of thoſe rays which are neceſſary to viſion.

The natural tranſparency of the *cornea* is liable to be obſcured by inflammation, or by humours affecting it, by abſceſſes and ulcers.

It ſeems more proper to conſider this coat of the eye as the ſclerotica, (which ſee) and the *cornea* only as its tranſparent part.

CORNELLUS. The cornelian ſtone.

CORNEOLUS, called alſo cornelus, ſardus, ſardius, corniola, ſardonyx, and the *cornelian* ſtone.

There are three ſorts, the red, yellow, and white; but the firſt only was uſed in medicine. It is a ſpecies of agate. Mr. Edwards obſerves in his Foſſilogy, that the name of *cornelian* is improperly given to any but the red coloured ones.

CORNESTA. A retort.

CORNI. The cornel-tree. The fruit is moderately cooling and aſtringent. The ſchagri-cottam is a ſpecies of cornel which grows in Malabar, the expreſſed juice of which, drank with ſugar, is cooling and aſtringent.

CORNICULA. An inſtrument of horn, which was uſed by the ancients for the purpoſe of a cupping-glaſs. The broad part was applied to the ſkin, and the oppoſite part ended in a point with a hole in it, through which, by ſucking, the ſkin was raiſed into the inſtrument.

CORNICULARIS PROCESSUS, i. e. Caracoides proceſſus.

CORNICULATÆ PLANTÆ. Plants which produce many diſtinct horned ſeed-pods, called ſiliquæ.

CORNIOLA. The cornelian ſtone.

CORNU CERVI. In chemiſtry, it is the beak of an alembic. In botany, the *cornu cervi* alterum repens is the naſturtium ſylveſtre, capſulis criſtatis; and *cornu cervinum*, is the coronopus hortenſis.

CORNU CERVI. The horn of the ſtag, or hart. The *horns* of the *hart*, or male red deer, is to be underſtood; but thoſe commonly uſed are the male or female of the common fallow deer.

Hart's-horn ſhaved, gives out to water, by boiling, a ſoft gelatinous matter, inſipid and flavourleſs, in quantity about one-fourth of the weight of the *horn*. This jelly is uſed as a nouriſhing diet, and to obtund acrimony. It is putreſcent, ſo ſhould be mixed with acids, as the juice of lemons, or with wine or ſpice, according to the different circumſtances of the patient. The Edinburgh college directs the following:

Jelly of Hart's-horn.

Boil half a pound of the ſhavings of *hart's-horn* in ſix pints of water to a quart; to the ſtrained liquor add one ounce of the juice of lemon, or of Seville orange, four ounces of mountain wine, and half a pound of ſugar, then boil again to a proper conſiſtence.

The *horns* of deer are uſed for obtaining a ſpirit, ſalt, and oil; but there is no obſervable difference betwixt one animal ſubſtance and another for this purpoſe, except that one affords more oil than another: hence the bones of oxen and other animals, the hoofs of horſes, the horns of oxen, ivory, blood, urine, ſoot, the white of eggs, the ſhells of tortoiſes, hair, ſilk, &c. all afford the ſame ſpirit, ſalt, and oil. See ALCALI.

Hart's horn is ſaid to be prepared philoſophically, when it is ſuſpended in a ſtill, while diſtilling any ſpirituous liquor, the *horn* being cut into thin ſlices, and placed in the neck of the ſtill, ſo as only to be affected by the vapours, thus it is rendered white and friable. This preparation was accidentally diſcovered at Dreſden, in Saxony, by Caſpar Pantzerus, an apothecary, and native of Pruſſia. At preſent it is boiled till the black part ſeparates, and then the inner white part is dried for uſe. Hoffman orders ſome alkaline ſalt to be put into the water when boiling, to make the black part ſoon ſoft. This proceſs frees the *horns* from their glutinous matter, and thus renders them friable.

By calcination the earthy part is obtained moſt pure and perfect, in quantity to about half the weight of the *horn*. The London college directs to burn pieces of *hart's-horn* in a potter's furnace, till they become perfectly white; it is then called calcined *hart's-horn*, and is to be powdered and levigated for uſe. As the intention of this operation is to burn out from the *horns* all that is volatile, and leave only the terreſtrious part, here therefore the heat cannot be too great; for the earth of *harts-horn* is not like that of coral, and the teſtacea convertible into quick-lime. The *horns* left after diſtilling the ſpirit, ſalt, and oil, are as proper as freſh ones. The calcined *hart's horn* is the pureſt of the animal abſorbent powders, but it is weakeſt in the abſorbent powder, and the moſt difficult of ſolution in acids. The earth of all bones is the ſame as the earth of *hart's-horn*.

Solutions of this earth in vegetable acids are reſtringent, and it is probable that it only checks fluxes by uniting with

with acid humours in the primæ viæ. The London college only directs the following decoction.

Decoctum Album. The White Decoction.

Take of burnt *hart's-horn* prepared, two ounces; of gum-arabic, two drams; of water three pints: boil the water away to a quart, and ſtrain it off. For this the following may be ſubſtituted.

Decoctum Cretaceum. Chalk Decoction.

Take of chalk ſubtilly powdered, two ounces; of gum arabic, half an ounce; boil in water three pints to two; pour off the liquor from the heavier parts that fall to the bottom.

If a little cochineal is added, it is called the red decoction.

Theſe decoctions are uſed as common drink in acute diſeaſes, attended with a diarrhœa, and where acrid humours prevail in the primæ viæ, and to this end chalk is to be preferred to the calcined *hart's horn*. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

CORNU UNICORNI. See UNICORNU.

CORNU FOSSILE. See UNICORNU.

CORNU CERVINUM, i. e. Coronopus.

CORNUA. Horny excreſcences, which ſometimes ariſe on ſome part of the body.

CORNUA UTERI. In comparative anatomy, the *horns* of the *womb*. The *womb* is ſo divided in ſome quadrupeds, as to form *corners* reſembling *horns*.

CORNUMUSA. A retort.

CORNUS. The cornelian cherry. That uſed in medicine is the cornus mas. Linn.

CORNUS FŒMINIA. The dog-berry-tree.

CORNUS HORTENSIS MAS. The cornelian cherry.

CORNUTA. A retort.

CORNUTIA. A plant ſo called from Cornutus, a phyſician at Paris, who publiſhed a hiſtory of Canada plants. Miller's Dict. vol. ii.

CORN. An abbreviation of Jacobus Cornutus, M. D. Canadenſium plantarum, &c. Hiſtoria.

COROCRUM. A ferment.

COROLLA. The petals of flowers.

CORONA. A crown. In botany it is a ſeries of ſmall beards, or rays, in diſcoide flowers.

CORONA CILIARIS. See CILIARE LIGAMENTUM.

CORONA IMPERIALIS. Crown Imperial.

It is a bell-ſhaped flower, and a fine ornament in gardens. Boerhaave enumerates thirteen ſpecies. In the petals is a juice that is very ſweet, which the Turks uſe as an emetic, but the whole plant is eſteemed poiſonous.

CORONA REGIA. The herb melilot.

CORONA SOLIS. Sun-flower. This flower is well known as an ornament in gardens. Boerhaave enumerates eighteen ſpecies. It is a native of Peru, and other warm countries of America. It is not known to poſſeſs any valuable medicinal qualities; though ſome take notice of it as heating, and an agreeable food. It produces a reſinous tear, which is its moſt active part. A gum alſo flows from it, but is copiouſly obtained, if the ſeed-veſſels are taken when ripe, and being cut ſmall, are boiled in water. The ſeeds are made into bread.

CORONA SOLIS RAPUNCULI RADICE. This ſpecies is uſed as food in Canada.

CORONA SOLIS PARVO FLORE TUBEROSA RADICE, i. e. Battatas Canadenſes.

CORONA TERRÆ. Ground-ivy.

CORONALE OS, i. e. Os Frontis.

CORONALIS SUTURA. The future upon the crown of the head.

CORONARIA [LIGAMENTA]. The coronary ligament of the radius is a ſort of ligamentary hoop, ſurrounding the circular circumference of the head of that bone, reaching from one ſide of the ſmall lateral ſigmoide, or tranſverſe cavity of the ulna, to the other in an arch, which is about three-fourths of a circle. It is nearly as ſolid as a cartilage. It connects the radius very cloſely to the ulna, yet admits of the pronation, and the ſupination of the arm.

CORONARIA VASA. Veſſels that ſurround the heart like a crown, i. e. Coronariæ arteriæ & venæ; alſo in the ſtomach. See CORONARIÆ ARTERIÆ & VENÆ.

CORONARIÆ ARTERIÆ & VENÆ. The coronary arteries and veins. The firſt branches which the aorta ſends off are the *coronary arteries* of the heart; they appear between the aorta and the pulmonary *artery*, run round the baſis of the heart and to the apex, giving branches chiefly to their repective ventricles. They frequently anaſtomoſe both at the baſis and apex. One of theſe runs anteriorly, the other poſteriorly on the heart, and ſometimes there are three. They are loſt in the ſubſtance of the heart.

The *coronary veins* of the heart are diſtributed on the ſurface of the heart, much in the ſame manner as the *arteries*; they riſe chiefly from the right auricle, and come out in the angle between the vena cava and the paſſage into the ventricle; one principal branch runs to the apex, whilſt the great trunk runs to the other parts. Dr. Hunter ſays, that the *coronary vein* of the heart opens into the right auricle, between the orifice of the cava inferior, and the paſſage into the ventricle, and is furniſhed with a ſemilunar valve, to hinder the blood from flowing back.

Mr. C. F. Wolf obſerves, in his paper in the Tranſactions of the Imp. Acad. of Sciences at St. Peterſburgh, that the great *coronary vein*, and the orifice by which it communicates with the right ſinus of the heart, were known to Galen, but Euſtachius ſeems to have been the firſt who noticed the valve with which this orifice is furniſhed. Since his time, Mr. Wolf ſays, anatomical writers have conſtantly ſpoken of this valve as being of a ſemilunar ſhape, but he aſſerts that its figure is oblong and narrow; and that it is a valve of its own kind, different from any other to be met with in the human body.

Theſe *arteries* and *veins* are alſo called cardiac.

The *coronary artery* of the ſtomach riſes from the cæliaca, goes firſt to the left-ſide of that organ, a little beyond the ſuperior orifice, round which it throws branches, and alſo to every part of the ſtomach near it: and theſe branches communicate with thoſe which run along the bottom of the ſtomach to the pylorus; afterwards it runs on the right ſide of the ſuperior orifice, along the ſmall curvature of the ſtomach, almoſt to the pylorus, where it communicates with the *arteria* pylorica, and turning towards the ſmall lobe of the liver, it gives off ſome branches to it; then it advances under the ductus venoſus to the left lobe of the liver, in which it is loſt near the beginning of the juſt named duct, having firſt given off ſome ſmall branches to the neighbouring parts of the diaphragm and omentum.

The *coronary* vein of the ſtomach, is ſometimes, a branch from the vena portæ ventralis, or from its principal branches. It ſometimes ſprings from the ſplenica. The coronaria ventriculi is ſo called, becauſe it ſurrounds the upper orifice thereof. It runs along the ſmall arch to the pylorus, and gives out branches to the ſides of the ſtomach.

CORONARIUM LIGAMENTUM. See JECUR.

CORONARIUS STOMACHICUS. The ramification of the nerves from the eighth pair near the upper orifice of the ſtomach.

CORONE. So the acute proceſs of the lower jaw-bone is called.

CORONILLA. This plant ſomewhat reſembles the ſcorpion ſena. The pod is compoſed of many parts, joined, as it were, by a ſort of articulation, each of which is turgid, with an oblong ſeed. Boerhaave takes notice of eight ſpecies, but no medical virtues are attributed to them.

CORONILLA INDICA, i. e. Indicum.

CORONILLA MONTANA. Leſſer ſcorpion ſena.

CORONA RUELLII, i. e. Ambroſia campeſtris.

CORONOID. See PROCESSUS.

CORONOIDUS APOPHYSIS ULNÆ. It is at the upper end of the *ulna*; it is prominent, and a little pointed, reſembling a broad ſhort beak. It is received into the anterior cavity above the pully, at the lower extremity of the os humeri, when the fore-arm is bent.

CORONOIDUS APOPHYSIS MAXILLÆ. See MAXILLA INFERIOR.

CORONOPUS, from κορωνη, a *carrion crow*, and πους, *foot*, the plant being ſaid to reſemble a *crow's-foot*. It is alſo called cornu cervinum, herba ſtella, ſtella terræ, and buck's-horn plantain.

Its flower and fruit are like thoſe of plantain, but its leaves are deeply cut. Its root is long and ſlender; many of its leaves lie flat on the earth in a circular manner, whence the name ſtella terræ, or ſtar of the earth. The leaves are downy, long, and narrow; the ſtalk is hoary; the ſeeds are ſmall, and of a dark brown colour. It grows on ſandy places and heaths, and flowers in June.

Its medical virtues are the ſame as thoſe of the other plantains. Botaniſts enumerate five ſpecies.

CORONOPUS RUELLII, i. e. Ambroſia campeſtris.

COROZONE CELIO, i. e. Sedum canarinum foliis omnium maximis.

CORPORA ALBACANTIA. See CEREBRUM.

CORPORA CAVERNOSA PENIS. The two bodies thus named, riſe by two diſtinct crura from the lower part of the oſſa pubis; after which they join, and are continued to the glans. They are ſeparated by a ſeptum, diſpoſed like the teeth of a comb, ſo that any fluid forced into one, diſtends the other. The two crura are connected to the ſymphyſis of the os pubis by the ligamentum ſuſpenſorium, which proceeds from the cartilage, and is diffuſed upon the ſheaths of the *corpora cavernoſa*. Towards the upper extremity of the *corpora cavernoſa* are ſeveral white ligaments, which ſeem to be placed there to hinder the *penis* from being over-much diſtended. In the axis of each *corpus cavernoſum*, an artery and a vein run, which enter near the union of the crura, and ramify throughout the ſpongy ſubſtance.

CORPORA FIMBRIATA. A border on the edge of the fornix in the brain is thus named.

CORPORA LOBOSA. See RENES.

CORPORA OLIVARIA. Two eminences on the medulla oblongata are thus named. Winſlow calls them *corpora olivaria*, which Willis calls corpora pyramidalia.

CORPORA PYRAMIDALIA. Two eminences on the medulla oblongata near the *corpora olivaria*. The ſpermatic veſſels have this name given them by ſome.

CORPORA STRIATA. Two prominences in the lateral ventricles of the brain. They got this name, becauſe by ſcraping them with a knife, we meet with a great number of white and aſh coloured lines alternately diſpoſed, and which are only the tranſverſe ſection of the medullary and cortical laminæ mixed together. See CEREBRUM.

CORPULENTIA. See OBESITAS & POLYSARCIA.

CORPUS CALLOSUM. If the falx is cut away from the criſta galli, and turned backwards, then the two lateral parts of the cerebrum are ſeparated, we ſee a longitudinal portion of a white convex body, which is a middle portion of the medullary ſubſtance of the brain: under the inferior ſinus of the falx, and alſo a little towards each ſide it is parted from the maſs of the cerebrum, to which it is ſimply contiguous from one end of that ſinus to the other; ſo that at this place the edge of the inſide of this hemiſphere only lies on the *corpus calloſum*, much in the ſame manner as the anterior and poſterior lobes lie on the dura mater. Both extremities of this medullary body terminate by a ſmall edge bent tranſverſely downwards. The ſurface of the *corpus calloſum* is covered by the pia mater; along the middle of its ſurface, from one end to the other, there is a kind of raphe, which hath on each ſide a white cord. The *corpus calloſum* covers the two lateral ventricles.

CORPUS GLANDULOSUM, i. e. Proſtatæ.

CORPUS MUCOSUM, i. e. Rete mucoſum.

CORPUS PAMPINIFORME. The ſpermatic chord.

CORPUS PYRAMIDALE. The ſpermatic chord.

CORPUS RETICULARE. See RETE MOCOSUM.

CORPUS SESAMOIDEUM. See COR.

CORPUS SPONGIOSUM URETHRÆ. The ſpongy body of the *urethra*. It is of the ſame ſubſtance as the corpora cavernoſa, and ſurrounds the *urethra*. That part which is next the proſtratæ is thick, but as it runs on it becomes ſmaller, and at the extremity forms the glans. That end next the proſtatæ, becauſe of it bigneſs, is called the bulb of the *urethra*; the other end forms the glans upon the extremities of the corpora cavernoſa.

CORPUS VARICOSUM. The ſpermatic chord.

CORRAGO. Borrage.

CORÆ. The temples.

CORRECTIO. Correction. This word, in pharmacy, ſignifies, firſt, that medicines which operate violently are corrected by adding ſomething which checks their action. Secondly, when ſome addition leſſens the noxious quality of a medicine. Thirdly, when nauſeous medicines are made more palatable.

CORRIGIOLA. According to Fuchſius, it is the ſame as polygonum mas.

CORROBORANTIA. Corroborants, or ſtrengthening medicines. Under this head are placed abſorbents, agglutinants, and aſtringents. Theſe give bulk and firmneſs to the ſolids, which are rendered neceſſary by the continual waſte which the actions of life occaſion. *Abſorbents* remove redundant moiſture, *aſtringents* contract the relaxed fibres, and agglutinants add ſubſtance, where a previous waſte renders a ſupply neceſſary.

CORRODENTIA. Corroſives, or corroding medicines. They are thus divided: 1ſt, The mild, ſuch as burnt alum, the aſhes of green wood, mercurius dulcis, merc. præcip. alb. & vitr. alb. 2d, The ſtrong, as merc. præcip. rub. colcoth. vitr. troch. de minio vigonis. 3d, The ſtrongeſt, as butyr. ant. lap. infern. merc. cor. alb. ol. tart. per deliq. & ol. vitrioli. Corroſives act by their acrimony, by which they deſtroy not only foreign ſubſtances adhering to animal bodies, but alſo the ſolids themſelves, provided they meet with any moiſture when applied to them; and particularly if ſo confined upon the part, as to have their actions excited by the heat of the body. In the two firſt caſes they are called catheretics; in the laſt, potential cauſtics. See CAUSTICA.

CORROSIO, from *corrodo, to eat away*. Corroſion. It is the acting on bodies by means of proper menſtrua, ſo as to produce new combinations, and a change of their form, without converting them to fluids. This depends on the ſame principles as ſolution. The ſubjects are uſually metals; and the modes are either, firſt, by immerſing the body to be *corroded*, in ſome fluid menſtruum, and this is called *corroſion* by immerſion: ſor, ſecondly, by expoſing it to the action of ſome vapour, and this is called cementation. There are other kinds of *corroſion*, as by ſprinkling the ſubject with ſome proper fluid, rubbing it with ſome dry ſubſtance, &c.

CORRUDA. Rock-ſparrow graſs.

CORRUGATOR COITERII. Volcherus Coiter firſt took notice of this pair of muſcles. They are thus called from their uſe, or from *con* and *rugo, to wrinkle*. Douglas calls them frontalis verus; others call them depreſſor ſupercilii, or frontalis muſculus. They riſe from the root, or upper part of the noſe on each ſide, and are inſerted tendinous into the ſkin of the eye-brows, and run obliquely upwards. They depreſs the eye-brows, and wrinkle the lower part of the forehead.

CORRUGATOR SUPERCILII, i. e. Corrugator Coiterii.

CORSÆ. The temples.

CORSOIDES, i. e. Amianthus lapis.

CORTALON. In Myrepſus, it is the ſame as groundſel.

CORTEX CARDINALIS DE LUGO. The cort. Peruv. was thus called, becauſe the cardinal Lugo had teſtimonials of above a thouſand cures performed by it in the year 1653.

CORTEX CARYOPHYLLATUS, i. e. Caryophillus.

CORTEX CARYOPHYLLOIDES, i. e. Caſſia Caryophillata.

CORTEX CULITLAVVAN, alſo called culilavvan. It is a hot aromatic bark found in New Guinea, of ſimilar virtues to the *cortex* maſſory.

CORTEX ELATERII. See THURIS.

CORTEX MAGELLANICUS. See WINTERANUS CORTEX.

CORTEX MASSORY. It is a warm aromatic bark, found in New Guinea. It is alexipharmac, carminative, and ſtomachic. The inhabitants powder it, then mix it with water, to anoint their bodies with in cold wet weather. It is alſo uſed againſt pains and gripes.

CORTEX PERUVIANUS. The Peruvian bark; alſo called cinchona, china chinæ, kinkina, chinchina, quinquina, quinaquina, holquahuilt, cortex patrum, cortex Peruanus, cortex cardinalis de Lugo, and the jeſuit bark. The powder of this *bark* hath been ſold under various

tions names, as pulvis comitiſſæ, pulv. patrum & jeſuitarum, Berlin powder, &c.

It is the *bark* of a tree which grows in Peru, according to the account given of it by Mr. Arrot, a ſurgeon, who lived a long time there. It is the cinchona officinalis, or cinchona panicula brachiata, (vel arbor febrifuga Peruviana, Linn. Peruvian jeſuit bark-tree. There are four ſorts of this bark viz. the reddiſh, yellowiſh, whitiſh, and the curling; the two firſt are the beſt, the curling is from young trees. Mr. Condamine ſays, that the tree is called caſcarilla, and is very different from the quinquina.

Its virtues were diſcovered by the Indians about the year 1500. A lake near a town in Peru was ſurrounded by theſe trees, which were torn up by an earthquake, and falling into the adjacent water, they rendered it bitter. An Indian, urged by his thirſt during a fever, under which he laboured, drank of this water, becauſe no other could be had; however, obſerving that he ſoon recovered, he related the caſe, and others were alſo cured. On this enquiry was made, and to the trees it was found that the water owed its virtue; then it was ſoon diſcovered, that the *bark* alone poſſeſſed the medicinal quality. In 1640, a Spaniſh ſoldier was quartered in an Indian's houſe, and being ſeized with an ague, his landlord, moved with compaſſion, told him of a cure, and with the ſame he cured his companions. At length the vice-queen, wife of the count de Cinchon, then vice-roy of Peru, was ſeized with an intermitting fever; this ſoldier cured her alſo; hence the name Cinchona and Comitiſſæ. After this, father de Lugo brought a parcel of it to Rome, and from him alſo it received the name of cort. card. de Lugo. From Rome it was ſpread into France and England, and at length became general. By way of eminence it is called THE BARK.

This *bark* is brought in pieces of different ſizes, ſome rolled up in ſhort thick quills, and others flat; the outſide is browniſh, and generally hath a whitiſh moſs ſpread on it; the inſide is of a yellowiſh, reddiſh, or ruſty iron colour. The beſt ſort is bitter, reſinous, breaks cloſe and ſmooth, is friable betwixt the teeth, pulverizes eaſily, when powdered is of a cinnamon colour, but rather paler; and, according to the opinion of ſome, as the ſureſt teſt of its goodneſs, it hath a muſty kind of ſmell, and at the ſame time ſo much of the aromatic, as not to be diſagreeable. The inferior kinds, when broken, appear woody, and in chewing ſeparate into fibres. That which is called female bark, is redder in the inſide, it is alſo thicker, and on the outſide more white and ſmooth, is weaker to the ſmell and taſte than the above, and, in medical virtue, greatly inferior.

The variety of diſorders in which the *bark* can be uſed to advantage may ſeem to entitle it to the character of an univerſal medicine; in many diſeaſes it is a ſoveregn remedy, and every practitioner, in proportion as his knowledge of its qualities increaſes, finds he can ſtill employ it in a larger extent of caſes. To ſtrengthen the ſolids, ſeems to be in all caſes its primary operation; its ſalutary effects, however variouſly they appear, are the conſequence of this general power. In all diſorders where the *bark* is uſeful, other medicines of the aſtringent, or bitter kinds, or combinations of them, have alſo been of ſervice, though not equally with the *bark*, if it is given in ſubſtance, for it acts by the whole of its ſubſtance; its virtue is in it as a mixt, none of its parts anſwering ſo well as the whole, that is, the *bark* itſelf.

Some are intimidated from the uſe of the *bark*, though manifeſtly indicated, becauſe of their apprehenſions of its aſtringency: for example, in aſthmas it is forbid, though an ague requires it; but it is ſafe in all diſorders when there is a fair remiſſion of the fever, and the pain that may attend it. The truth is, the *bark* is not very aſtringent, the prejudices on that account hath very little foundation. It is ſafely given juſt before the acceſſion of the cold fit in agues, and in general if the pulſe of an adult does not exceed ſeventy ſtrokes in a minute, it is ſafe and uſeful. So far from cauſing obſtructions, it, in many inſtances, reſolves thoſe already formed; in many glandular tumours, in ſcrophulous diſeaſes, and venereal phymoſes, &c. this medicine is a powerful remedy; it hath long been given to women, ſucceſsfully, to the quantity of a dram every three hours, two days after delivery, without leſſening the lochia; during the natural flux of the menſes it hath been frequently given, without in the leaſt interrupting them; in the confluent ſmall-pox its uſe does not leſſen the ſpitting: whence it does not ſeem probable, that the *bark* is ſo powerful an aſtringent as to obſtruct either any natural or critical diſcharge; ſo that when on other accounts it is indicated, its adminiſtration is ſafe. If ever injury was derived from its uſe in any caſe in which it is adapted to relieve, a too late, and not too early adminiſtration, muſt be blamed; from its aſtringency it never can endanger.

As a febrifuge it was firſt and principally celebrated, and in this character it maintains its reputation. In every kind of fever it is the chief dependence: in the ardent, if given when they intermit, it effects a cure; in the lower kind its uſe is earlier, and its effects as ſalutary. All diſorders which appear in the form of intermittent yield to its power.

Its antiſeptic power is a diſcovery of later date; but in this reſpect its credit is eſtabliſhed. It is not by acting on the ſolids that it increaſes the ſtrength of the fibres, but by increaſing the craſſamentum of the blood and its adheſion, and it is thus that it reſiſts a putrid ſtate and diſpoſition in our bodies.

Abſceſſes and ulcers that diſcharge a ſanies inſtead of pus, are ſoon reduced to a healing ſtate on taking the *bark*; the ſanious and bloody matter in variolous puſtules ſoon change their appearance on its uſe, and only need be with-held, if the difficulty of breathing ſhould be increaſed by it. The glandular tumors are reſolved by it, and in inflammatory ones it promotes a laudable ſuppuration.

Moſt ſymptoms that attend a ſtrumous habit yield to the efficacy of the bark, except that when the bones are affected; and when pain attends tumors of this kind, from their being ſituated in the neighbourhood of tendons and membranes, it increaſes the uneaſineſs.

In almoſt every caſe from a lax fibre, the *bark* is of ſervice, either as a principal or an auxiliary remedy.

In nervous aſthmas, joined with fetids, the *bark* is greatly advantageous after expectoration hath removed all tenſion in the lungs; and in humoural aſthmas, if there is a ſediment in the urine, a moiſt ſkin, and a weak pulſe, it is both uſeful and ſafe.

In many inſtances the external application of the *bark* anſwers in a good degree its internal uſe. In the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. ii. are inſtances of cures effected by quilting it in waiſtcoats which were worn next the ſkin.

Again, it ſhould be noticed, that as a judicious uſe of this medicine is of extenſive benefit, ſo an improper one may be productive of as ill effects; for, although it is a febrifuge, its uſe in ardent fevers is during their intermiſſion only; when the fibres are tenſe its uſe is not required, as to increaſe their firmneſs is its primary effect; conſequently in all diſeaſes ariſing from or attended with tenſe fibres, the *bark* is obviouſly improper. Though the *bark* is a powerful antiſeptic, yet in thoſe gangrenes that are attended with a fulneſs of the pulſe from a ſanguine plethora, it ſhould not be admitted of; its excellency is in thoſe mortifications where the blood is poor, and that take their riſe from this poverty.

In all caſes where the *bark* is depended on for the cure, the doſes ſhould be as large and their repetition as frequent as the ſtomach will eaſily admit of; in moſt caſes its efficacy will be improved by ſome ſuitable auxiliary, as in groſs habits, purging with calomel, rhubarb, or jalap, ſhould precede its uſe; in bilious, and when heat is complained of, nitre ſhould be joined with it; in lax habits with thin and poor blood, aromatics and chalybeats, bitter and warm diaphoretics, greatly aſſiſt it; and if obſtructions are ſuſpected in the abdominal viſcera, the ſal diureticus will be a proper adjunct.

Various are the preparations of the *bark*; but when the ſtomach will bear it, the powder, if very fine, is the moſt agreeable and the moſt uſeful; in caſe of averſion to the powder, the next beſt preparation is the infuſion in cold water, prepared as follows.

Infuſion of the Bark.

Take one ounce of bark in fine powder, and twelve ounces of ſoft water; add the water, by a little at a time,

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continuing to triturate it for about ten minutes in a marble mortar; then let them ſtand together, without ſubjecting them to any heat for three quarters of an hour, and ſtrain. The elegancy and ſtrength of this preparation is increaſed by the addition of a ſmall quantity of French brandy during the triture. This infuſion is ſooner prepared, is as ſtrong, as alſo more agreeable than the decoction: it may be taken in doſes of two and three ounces.

In boiling, the reſinous matter of the *bark* is haſtily ſeparated by the heat, but is not properly diſſolved by the water; hence in cooling it begins to ſeparate, renders the liquor turbid, and at length falls to the bottom: but when macerated in cold water, the medicinal parts are gradually ſeparated and extracted together, and are retained by the water in a ſtate of perfect ſolution. For weak ſtomachs no preparation excels this.

Dr. Saunders relates the following experiment, and his obſervations on it, in his obſervations on the ſuperior efficacy of the red Peruvian *bark*. A decoction of both red and common Peruvian *bark* was prepared by taking an ounce of each, and boiling them in a pint and half of water, to one pint; the former had greatly the ſuperiority in ſtrength and power. A pint of freſh water was added to each decoction; the boiling ſtill continued till that quantity was evaporated. The decoction of the common Peruvian *bark* ſeemed gradually to loſe its ſenſible qualities, while that of the red *bark* ſtill retained its own. The ſame quantity of water was added as before to each, and the decoction repeated until a gallon of water was exhauſted; at the expiration of which time, the common Peruvian *bark* was rendered almoſt taſteleſs; the red *bark* ſtill retaining nearly its former ſenſible qualities. This experiment proves, that the common practice of boiling the *bark* is hurtful to its powers.

Next to this infuſion in water, an infuſion in Rheniſh wine may be preferred; and the next to it, a tincture drawn with good French brandy. In ſcrophulas, the ſhell lime-water is a good menſtruum for the *bark*, and in caſes where relaxation ſimply demands the uſe of the *bark*, the lime-water made with ſtone-lime ſhould be preferred.

The diſguſtful taſte of the *bark* is covered by liquorice, or orange-peel, or a ſmall quantity of winter's bark.

The college of London directs an extract and two tinctures from the *bark*.

Extractum Corticis *Peruviani molle & durum. Extract of Peruvian* Bark *both ſoft and hard.*

Take of *bark* reduced to powder, one pound; of water ten or twelve pints; boil for an hour or two, and pour off the liquor, which will be red and tranſparent; but as ſoon as it grows cold it becomes yellow and turbid; boil the *bark* again in the ſame quantity of freſh water as before, repeating theſe boilings till the liquor remains tranſparent when cold: then evaporate all theſe decoctions, ſtrained and mixed together, to the proper conſiſtence over a gentle fire, with due care to avoid burning.

This extract is to be prepared under a double form; one of the conſiſtence of a pill; the other hard enough to be reduced to powder.

The extract is not ſo ſtrong of the *bark* as is imagined; beſides, it is hardly poſſible to make it without ſome degree of empyreuma, and the advantage of its form no way compenſates for the expence and trouble in preparing it. Ten grains of the hard extract is computed to be equal to half a dram of the *bark* in powder.

Tinctura Corticis *Peruviani ſimplex. The ſimple Tincture of the Peruvian* Bark.

Take of the Peruvian *bark*, four ounces; of proof ſpirit, a quart; after digeſtion ſtrain the ſpirit off.

This is an agreeable preparation, but as it is too heating if a large doſe is given, it would be better to add twice the quantity of the *bark* to this quantity of ſpirit, and then the *bark* would be given more plentifully in each doſe of tincture.

Tinctura Corticis *Peruviani Volatilis. Volatile Tincture of the Peruvian* Bark.

Take of the Peruvian *bark*, four ounces; of ſpirit of ſal ammoniac, a quart. Digeſt without heat in a cloſe veſſel, and then ſtrain the ſpirit off.

The London college orders the ſpirit. ſal. ammon. cum ſal. tart. ppt. but as it extracts but little of the virtue of the *bark*, either the ſpirit ſal. ammon. cum calc. viv. ppt. or the ſpt. ſal. ammon. dulc. ſhould be uſed; either of them obtains a ſtrong tincture from the *bark*, and they do not form a jelly like the ſpirit which the college directs.

In the year 1782, Dr. Saunders, phyſician to Guy's hoſpital, publiſhed his Obſervations on the Superior Efficacy of the Red Peruvian Bark. This publication may be referred to, as not only the firſt on this ſubject, but alſo containing many other important hints reſpecting the practice of medicine. The following few extracts are here ſubjoined.

The red Peruvian *bark* is in much larger and thicker pieces than the common Peruvian *bark*. It evidently conſiſts of three different layers. The external is thin, rugged, and frequently covered with a moſſy ſubſtance, and of a reddiſh brown colour; the middle is thicker, more compact, and of a darker colour: in this appears chiefly to reſide its reſinous part, being extremely brittle, and evidently containing a larger quantity of inflammable matter than any other kind of *bark*. The innermoſt hath a more woody and fibrous appearance, of a brighter red than the former. The intire piece breaks in that brittle manner deſcribed by writers on the materia medica, as a proof of the ſuperior excellence of the *bark*. In reducing it to powder, the middle layer, which ſeems to contain the greateſt proportion of reſin, will not give way to the peſtle ſo eaſily as the other layers; this ſhould be particularly attended to when it is uſed in fine powder. Its flavour is chiefly diſcoverable, either in powder or ſolution, is evidently more aromatic, and has a greater degree of bitterneſs than the common *bark*.

It is highly probable, that it is the *bark* of older trees than that which is called quill bark; that it is from the trunks and larger branches of them; and that a more particular care may be taken in collecting and drying it; whence its ſuperior qualities.

The taſte and flavour of the red *bark* is more difficultly evolved, and is therefore at firſt not ſo obvious, from the cloſeneſs of its texture, and from the reſinous coat being ſo well defended, and incloſed between other two layers. It is evidently heavier than any other kind of *bark*, and ſeems to have been prepared and dried with greater attention, its original appearance and form being better preſerved.

The red *bark* is ſo much warmer than the other, that it would ſeem to anſwer all the purpoſes derived from the union of cordials, aromatics, ſerpentaria, and the like, ſo much recommended in the obſtinate quartan intermittents of elderly people.

By the teſtimony of many practitioners it appears, that intermitting fevers are more ſpeedily and effectually cured, either by infuſion, decoction, or powder of the red *bark*, than by thoſe of the common *bark*; and this alſo by leſſer quantities or doſes of the former than of the latter. Dr. Saunders ſays, that from the numerous trials he hath made with it, in intermitting fevers, and other diſeaſes, he is diſpoſed to conclude that it need be employed only in half the quantity we generally recommend of the other *bark*.

The infuſion, decoction, and tincture, made with red *bark*, are conſiderably ſtronger than thoſe from the ſame quantity of common *bark*; and it is ſaid to have afforded more than twice the quantity of extract, than is obtained from the ſame portion of common *bark*.

In an infuſion of the red *bark*, the ſpirit of vitriol loſt its acidity more perfectly than in an infuſion of the *bark* before in uſe. A decoction of the red *bark* keeps perfectly good, during more than a month in the ſummer ſeaſon; whilſt that of the common *bark* is ſenſibly changed in a few days. In the decoction of the red *bark*, the powder which is ſeparated during the cooling of it, remains intimately diffuſed through the liquor, ſo that it continues loaded and turbid whilſt at reſt: in the decoction of the common *bark*, it ſeparates, and eaſily ſubſides to the bottom.

See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works, Percival's Eſſays Med. and Exp.

CORTEX WINTERANUS SPURIUS, i. e. Canella alba.

CORTICALIS SUBSTANTIA. The cortical ſubſtance of the brain.

CORTUSA, i. e. Sanicula.

CORU CANARICA, Luſitanis herba Malabarica. It is a dwarf tree, reſembling that of the quince. The bark of the tree, if wounded, diſtils a copious milky juice, which is much uſed in Malabar againſt alvine fluxes. Raii Hiſt.

CORUSCUS, i. e. Auriculus muris.

CORVINUS LAPIS. A ſtone ſaid to be found in India, called by the inhabitants cocaote. It is remarkable for making a noiſe like thunder when heated.

CORYCOMACHICA. See CORYCUS.

CORYCUS, κορυκος. A ſmall ball made of leather, and ſtuffed with bran, or ſand, or other materials; it was ſuſpended by a ſtring about the height of the navel of the perſon who uſed it. When people were too fat they took it in both hands and puſhed it from them, and receding as it returned, they received it into their hands, and ſo continued the exerciſe.

CORYCUS. See SPHÆRISTICA.

CORYLUS. See AVELLANA.

CORYMBAS, or Corymbe. The ivy-tree.

CORYMBUS. A cluſter of flowers or fruit ſtanding on pedicles, which are ſo diſpoſed as to form a ſphere. The ivy is of this ſort.

CORYPHE. κορυφη. The vertex.

CORYZA. Celſus tranſlates this by gravedo. Cœlius Aurelianus by catarrhus. Hippocrates comprehends the catarrh in the word *coryza*. It is ſuch a mucous diſtillation from the noſe as happens by a cold. Dr. Cullen uſes it as ſynonymous with catarrh.

CORYRA CATRRHALIS, i. e. A catarrh from cold.

CORYZA PHLEGMATORRHAGIA, i. e. A catarrh from cold.

CORYZA FEBRICOSA, i. e. A catarrh from cold.

COS, called alſo cotes, novaculæ, lapis Naxius. The whetſtone.

The *whetſtone* is of three kinds: the hone, the gritſtone, and the black *whetſtone*.

COSCULIA. The grains of chermes.

COSMET. Antimony.

COSMETORGES. A word invented by Dolæus to expreſs the ſenſitive ſoul.

COSMIANAS ANTIDOTUS. The name of an antidote in Marcellus Empiricus.

COSMOS. In Hippocrates it is the order and ſeries of critical days.

COSSI. Worms that breed among planks; alſo tubercles in the face. See VARUS.

COSSIUS. A ſpecies of teredo.

COSSUM. A malignant ulcer of the noſe, mentioned by Paracelſus.

COSSUS, i. e. Teredo.

COSTA PULMONARIA. Hawk-weed.

COSTA HERBA. Hungarian hawk-weed.

COSTÆ. The ribs. The *coſtæ* (as if they were cuſtodes or guards, Littleton ſays, from *conſto*, on account of their firmneſs to the heart and lungs) are generally twelve on each ſide, though ſometimes there are but eleven, at others thirteen are found: their extremities next the vertebræ are rounder and ſtronger than thoſe which join the ſternum; the upper edges are more round than the lower, which are depreſſed internally for lodging the intercoſtal veſſels and nerves; this channel is not obſervable at either extremity, which is a plain direction to perform the operation for the empyema rather towards the ſides of the thorax than at either extremity.

The *ribs* are articulated at each extremity, of which the poſterior is doubly joined to the vertebræ; for the head is received into the cavities of two bodies of the vertebræ by ginglymums, and the larger tubercle is articulated to the tranverſe proceſs of the inferior vertebra by arthrodia, by which means they are properly guarded againſt luxations.

They are divided into true and falſe; the true are the ſeven ſuperior, whoſe cartilages are joined to the ſternum; theſe ribs include the heart, lungs, &c. The falſe are five inferior, whoſe cartilages are not joined to the ſternum; unto all theſe the diaphragm is connected; and within them the ſtomach, liver, ſpleen, &c. are contained.

The cartilages of the falſe *ribs* are only connected to one another by a membrane which covers them; the two laſt are joined to the vertebræ by a round head, and their cartilaginous extremities are loſt in the interſtices of the muſcles, by both which circumſtances they become more moveable than the other *ribs*.

The upper *rib*, contrary to the reſt, is flat upwards and downwards, that it may not incommode the lungs, and to leave room for the ſubclavian veſſels and muſcle.

The anterior extremity of each *rib* is lower than the poſterior; therefore, when elevated, the cavity of the thorax will be encreaſed in its diameter backwards and forwards, and the middle part of the ſuperior ridge is lower than the poſterior part; thus, when elevated, the diameter of the thorax will be laterally increaſed.

The *ribs* are but little uſed in ſleep, reſpiration being then carried on by the diaphragm and intercoſtal muſcles.

COSTÆ. In botany, the nerves and leaves, or the long tough ſtrings which run either acroſs or lengthways through them are called their *ribs*.

COSTALES NERVÆ, i. e. Dorſales nervæ.

COSTO-HYOIDÆUS, i. e. Coraco-hyoidæus [muſculus].

COSTUS, Coſtus Arabicus. Linnæi. alſo called *coſtus* Indicus, amarus dulcis Orientalis, tſianakua. Sweet and bitter *coſtus*.

It is a root which is brought from the Eaſt-Indies; it is about the ſize of a finger, of a pale greyiſh colour outwardly, and yellow within. An Arabian, a bitter and a ſweet ſort were formerly diſtinguiſhed; but now there is but one ſort known, and it is rarely met with.

The root of *coſtus* is recommended as being ſtomachic, diaphoretic and diuretic; it impregnates the urine with a violet ſmell. On evaporating a decoction of this root, almoſt all its ſmell is diſſipated; but a bitter extract is obtained almoſt to two thirds of the root. The ſpirituous extract is but ſmall in quantity. Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

COSTUS CORTICOSUS, i. e. Canella alba.

COSTUS HELENI FACIE OFFICINARUM. Sweet and bitter coſtus.

COSTUS HORTORUM, i. e. Balſamita mas.

COSTUS HORTORUM MINOR, i. e. Ageratum.

COSTUS NIGRA. See CINARA.

COSTYLE. The ſocket of the hip-bone.

COTARONIUM. A word coined by Paracelſus. It implies a liquor into which all bodies, and even their elements, may be diſſolved.

COTES. See COS.

COTHON. In Galen it ſignifies a veſſel in which to burn cadmia.

COTINUS. Among the antients it ſignified the word olive-tree; but amongſt the moderns it is the Venice or red ſumach.

COTIS. According to ſome it is the back part of the head, but others ſay it is the hollow of the neck.

COTONASTER. A name for the cratægus folio oblongo ſerrato utrinque virente. See alſo SORBUS.

COTONEA. The quince.

COTONEASTER. A ſpecies of meſpilus.

COTONIUM, i. e. Bombax.

COTTI VINI. A name of ſome thick and luſcious Italian wines, made ſo by boiling the muſt of poorer ſorts of wines.

COTTYPHUS. The merula or cook-fiſh.

COTULA. See COTYLE.

COTULA. It is a plant whoſe leaves reſemble thoſe of camomile. Boerhaave mentions ſix ſpecies; but they are not of any repute in medicine.

COTULA FLORE LUTEO RADIATO, i. e. Buphthalmum.

COTULA. Bugs; alſo a twelve ounce meaſure. See CYATHUS.

COTULA FŒTIDA. May-weed or ſtinking camomile. It is the anthemis cotula. Linn.

COTYLA. See CHAMÆMELUM and COTYLE.

COTYLA. Is any deep cavity in a bone, in which any other bone is articulated; but it is generally uſed to expreſs the cavity which receives the head of the thigh bone. It alſo ſignifies a deep ſinus ſurrounded with large lips, or any cavity like the glene, but deeper.

COTYLE, Cotyla, or Cotula. Among the ancients it was a drinking cup, or any thing which had a cavity, as the hollow of the hand. Among the Greeks it was a meaſure, and is the ſame as the hemina of the Romans, which held nine or ten ounces.

COTYLEDONES. Cotyledons. Certain glandular bodies adhering to the chorion of ſome animals, are called *cotyledons*; but no ſuch ſubſtances are obſerved in the human chorion.

In botany it is the part wherein the nutritious juices of the new plant are prepared. In ſome plants there is but one *cotyledon*, but in moſt there are two, which become the ſeminal leaves; hence the diſtinction betwixt monocotyledonous and diocotyledonous plants.

COTYLEDON, alſo called umbilicus veneris, cotyledon major, kidney-wort, navel-wort, and wall penny-wort.

Its whole appearance reſembles houſe-leek; the root thick, knotted, and hath many ſmall fibres ſpringing from it. It grows on old ſtone walls and buildings, and flowers in May. The leaves are cooling, aſtringent and diuretic; but is not much uſed. Botaniſts enumerate eleven ſpecies, nine of which are called African navel-worts. Raii Hiſt.

COTYLEDON. A name of a ſpecies of ſaxifrage.

COTYLEDON MARINA. See ANDROSACE.

COTYLEDON PALUSTRIS. Marſh penny-wort.

COTYLEDON STELLATA. A ſpecies of houſe-leek.

COTYLEDUM, i. e. Craſſula.

COUHAGE. See PHASEOLUS.

COUM, i. e. Colchicum, Chionenſe floribus pitillariæ inſtar teſſallatis foliis undulatis.

COURADI. See PAIANELI.

COURAP. The modern name for a diſtemper very common in Java and other parts of the Eaſt-Indies. It is a ſort of herpes or itch on the arm-pits, groins, breaſt, and face; the itching is almoſt perpetual, and the ſcratching is followed by great pain, and a diſcharge of matter, which makes the linen ſtick ſo faſt to the ſkin as not eaſily to be ſeparated without tearing off the cruſt. *Courap* is a general name for any ſort of itch, but this diſtemper is thus called by way of eminence. It is ſo contagious that few eſcape it. For the cure, gentle and repeated purging is uſed, and externally the ſublimate in a ſmall quantity is a good topic. See Bontius de Med. Ind.

COURBARIL. The American name of the tree which produces gum anime. This tree is called the locuſt-tree. It grows in many parts of the Weſt-Indies.

COURBARIL (REZIN), i. e. Gum anime.

COURONDI. It is a tall evergreen tree which grows in the Eaſt-Indies; its juice and the kernels of its fruit are aſtringent. Raii Hiſt.

COUROS. So Hippocrates called the child in the womb when perfected there. See CONCEPTIO.

COUROY-MOELLI. A ſhrub growing in ſandy places in the Eaſt-Indies: the bark and root boiled in milk are eſteemed as an antidote againſt the poiſon of ſerpents. Raii Hiſt.

COUSCOUS. The African name of a ſort of paſte made of the flour of millet, into which ſome fleſh is infuſed, and into which, when eaten, a ſmall quantity of lalo is alſo put. It is much uſed as food about the river Senegal.

COUTON. A tree which grows in Candia: it reſembles the walnut-tree. Bauhine calls it arbor vinifera *coutou* jugiandi ſimilis. When this tree is wounded, an agreeable liquor flows out, which reſembles Orleans wine.

COVALAM, called alſo cucurbitifera trifolia, &c. beli, ſeu ſcrifole Bengalenſium, &c.

It is a tall tree, growing in Malabar and in the iſland of Ceylon: its fruit is ſhaped like an apple, the outer rind is thin and green, under it is a woody one, incloſing a viſcid yellowiſh moiſt ſubſtance, of a ſweetiſh acid taſte, in which are long flat white ſeeds; it is turgid, with a gummy pellucid juice. This fruit is aſtringent whilſt it is unripened, but when ripe, it is of a delicious taſte. The bark of the tree ſtrengthens the ſtomach, and relieves in hypochondriac langours. Raii Hiſt.

COUVRE CHEF (LE GRAND.) See RICÆ.

COUVRE CHEF (EN TRIANGLE). See RICÆ.

COWPERI (GLANDULÆ.) Before the hymen we obſerve an orifice on each ſide from Cowper's glands, which lie upon each ſide of the perineum, and ſerve the ſame uſe as in the male.

COXA, i. e. Femur.

COXÆ DOLORES, i. e. Sciatica.

COXÆ OSSA, i. e. Oſſa innominata: ſome call the iſchium thus.

COXENDIX, i. e. Iſchium: ſome call the oſſa innominata by the name of coxendix.

COZTIECZOCOTL. The fruit of a ſpecies of macaxocotlifera.

CRABRO. The hornet. It is alſo called tenthredo.

CRAB YAWS. A name in Jamaica for a kind of ulcer on the ſoles of the feet, with hard callous lips, ſo hard that it is difficult to cut them. The ungt. cœrul. fort. is their cure.

CRADE. In Hippocrates it is the branch of a fig-tree.

CRÆCA MAJOR. See VICIA.

CRÆPALE. Galen ſays it is a diſorder of the head produced by exceſſive drinking of wine.

CRAMBE. A cabbage; but botaniſts diſtinguiſh it therefrom. Boerhaave ſays its ſeed-veſſels are unicapſular, divided into two parts, and contain an oblong ſeed. The ſpecies are, the braſſica maritima, and the *crambe* Orientalis dentis leonis folio erucaginis facie.

CRAMBEION. Erotian ſays it is an old Sicilian word for hemlock; but in Hippocrates it ſignifies a decoction of cabbage.

CRAMPUS. So Helmont calls the cramp. This complaint is often very troubleſome; it is not uſually dangerous, though inſtances have occured, in which, paſſing from the limbs to the bowels, the patient hath with difficulty recovered. It ſeems to be a kind of convulſion; it occaſions a ſudden, painful rigidity of the muſcles affected, but it ſoon goes off: it principally affects the fingers, hands, feet, or legs.

In the Med. Muſ. vol. iii. is an inſtance of a cure effected by drinking a glaſs of tar-water every night and morning. For preſent relief, the readieſt cure is to take hold of a roll of brimſtone, which preſently breaks, and thus the patient is eaſed.

CRANEIA. The cornelian cherry-tree.

CRANGON, alſo called ſquilla *crangon*, and the prawn. It is a ſea ſhell-fiſh of good nouriſhment.

CRANIUM. The ſkull. It is that part of the head which is covered with hair; beſides the os frontis, it conſiſts of the two parietalia, the two temporal, the occiput, the os ethmoides, and os ſphenoides. See CAPUT. As to its medicinal virtues they differ not from thoſe of other bones.

CRANTERES, i. e. Dentes ſapientiæ.

CRAPAUDINA, i. e. Buſonites.

CRAPURTINÆ, i. e. Buſonites.

CRAPULA, i. e. Cræpale.

CRAPULA. A ſurfeit. A diſorder from ſomething taken into the ſtomach, and occaſioning a ſickneſs, or at leaſt a loathing of that to which the diſorder was owing; though ſometimes it ſignifies a plethora, from indolence, and full but improper feeding, in which caſe perſpiration is defective, and eruptions form themſelves in the ſkin; but this is only an allowed impropriety; properly it is an inſtance of that ſpecies of cholera morbus, which is called cholera accidentalis.

A *ſurfeit* from animal food, as muſcles, putrid fleſh, &c. is beſt remedied by the uſe of vegetable acids, which may be taken diluted with water, a vomit being premiſed, and this, even though a vomiting and purging both attend.

When an exceſs of feeding is the cauſe, the primæ viæ being evacuated, and the nature of the plethora attended to, that the load may be properly evacuated, the indication of cure will be, to recover the perſpiratory diſcharge, conſiſtent with which, diuretics may be uſed, but the increaſe of any other evacuation would interfere with the principal deſign.

CRASIS, from κεραννυμι, *to mix*. The temper of the blood peculiar to every conſtitution.

CRASPEDON. A diſorder of the uvula when it hangs down in the form of a thin oblong membrane. See Aretæus de Cauſis & Signis Acut. lib. 1. cap. 8.

CRASSA ARTERIA, i. e. Aorta.

CRASSA INTESTINA. The large inteſtines.

CRASSAMENTUM. So the red globules in the blood are called: in their due proportion conſiſts the health and life of a man. See CALIDUM INNATUM.

CRASSENA. A term of Paracelſus, by which he would ſignify certain ſaline putrefactive and corroſive particles, which produce ulcers and tumours of various forms.

CRASSULA, called alſo faba craſſa, faba inverſa, telephium, fabaria, anacampſeros, cotyledum alterum, ſcrofularia media vel tertia, acetabulum alterum. Common orpine, or live-long. The ſort uſed in medicine, is the ſedum telephium. Linn.

It is a plant with unbranched ſtalks, which are cloathed with thick, fleſhy, oval leaves, but producing no leaves immediately from the root; the flowers ſtand in form of umbels on the top of the ſtalk, and are followed each by three or four, or ſix pods full of ſmall ſeeds: the root is irregular and knobby. It is indigenous in England, and perennial.

Common *orpine*, with the leaves ſlightly or not at all ſerrated, grows in hedges and ſhady grounds, hath reddiſh or whitiſh pentapetalous flowers. The leaves are anti-inflammatory, but their power ſeems too inconſiderable for a place in practice.

CRASSULA MINOR. See SEDUM.

CRATÆGUS. The wild ſervice tree.

CRATÆGUS ALPINUS. The white beam-tree.

CRATÆOGONUM, i. e. Melampyrum.

CRATEVÆ SIUM. Water-creſſes.

CRATIBULA. The iron bars or grate which covers the aſh-hole in chemical furnaces.

CRATICULA. i. e. Cratibula.

CRATICULARIS. Bread broiled on the hearth or on a gridiron; from *craticula*, a gridiron.

CREA. The ſpine of the tibia or the ſhin.

CREBER. Frequent. It is applied to reſpiration, and to the pulſe when the intervals betwixt each inſpiration, or each pulſation of the artery, are ſhort.

CREMASTER, from κρεμαω, *ſuſpendo, to ſuſpend*. Theſe muſcles are alſo called ſuſpenſorii. Dr. Hunter ſays they ariſe from the inſide of Poupart's ligament on each ſide, run down to the perforation where the ſeminal cord comes out, and being expanded over it, makes part of the tunica vaginalis communis. The courſe of this muſcle being ſo very oblique, makes the ſpermatic cord ſeem much more than it really is. Their uſe is to draw up and ſuſpend the teſtes.

CREMER. The name of a diſtemper endemical in Hungary, which ſeems to be a ſort of crapula. It is cured by drinking a ſmall quantity of any cordial water.

CREMNOI. The lips of ulcers, alſo the labiæ pudendæ, from κρημνος, *a precipice*, or *ſhelving-place*.

CREMOR, χυμος, or χυλος. It is the expreſſed juice of any grain; alſo the ſtrained juice of any grain, particularly of barley boiled till it be ſo ſoft as to paſs through a ſtrainer (ſee PTISANA), and laſtly, it is the cream of milk. See CHYLUS.

CREMOR CALC. VIV. The cream or flour of quick-lime is the pinguious ſubſtance floating on the top of new-made lime-water, which when taken off and dried becomes inſipid.

CRENA, or crenated. Leaves are ſaid to be ſuch, as are cut about the edges into ſeveral obtuſe ſegments. They differ from ſerrated leaves in that theſe latter have more acute inciſures.

CREPATIO. In pharmacy it is the cracking or burſting of any ſeed in boiling, and this is to be underſtood when ſeeds are directed to be boiled ad crepaturam.

CREPATURA, i. e. Crepatio. In Paracelſus it is an inteſtinal hernia.

CREPINUM. Paracelſus means by it tartar.

CREPITATIO, i. e. Decripitatio.

CREPITUS, or crackling of the joints.

This may happen either from a defect of ſynovia, or a diſpoſition of cretaceous matter, as in the gout. Mr. Sharp recommends, in order to the cure, a frequent uſe of fomentations, rubbing the joint with the ungt. cœrul. and to adminiſter purges now and then.

A diſcharge of air from the anus, when attended with a noiſe, is thus called.

CREPITUS LUPI. Puff-balls.

CRESPINUS. The barberry tree.

CRESPULUM. In Myrepſus it is the herb called ox eye.

CRESSIO. Water-creſſes, alſo called cardamon.

CRETA. Chalk. Kentman mentions fifteen ſorts; but the only one now uſed in medicine is the white *chalk*.

CRETA ALBA. So called becauſe the beſt was formerly found in Crete (now Candia); it is alſo called terra *Creta*, and *Creta Candida*.

It is now found in moſt parts of the world. It is a pure white mineral calcareous earth, of different degrees of hardneſs; it crumbles between the fingers, and ſtains them white; alſo readily diffuſes itſelf in water, and as ſoon ſubſides again; it ſticks to the tongue without any aſtringency. It is met with both in the form of ſtones and in powder.

The beſt is that which is perfectly white, ſoft, cloſe, and ſolid, equal and uniform when broke, free from ſand and other bodies, and that is rather agreeable than inſipid to the taſte. Many other earths are of a ſimilar nature, but this being the pureſt is preferred.

It does not diſſolve in the vitriolic acid, but readily in all others, even totally in vinegar. The vitriolic acid precipitates it from all other acids, and forms with it a ſelenites. It is convertible into quick-lime; with borax it melts into a tranſparent glaſs. The ſolutions of it in acids are bitter.

Chalk is employed as a remedy againſt the heart-burn, and other diſorders that have acidity in the primæ viæ for their cauſe. Dr. Slare aſſerts from experiments, that it abſorbs acids ſooner, and more powerfully, than crab's-eyes, calcined hartſhorn, or coral. Some uſe it when finely powdered, to ſprinkle on eryſipelatous inflammations. When *chalk* is ſaturated with an acid, it becomes ſubaſtringent, otherwiſe it hath no ſuch property; hence *chalk* given when acidity prevails in the ſtomach, ſometimes produces coſtiveneſs. Two drams for a doſe, and repeated at proper intervals, have often effected a ſpeedy cure, both in a diarrhœa and a dyſentery; but this effect was owing to its abſorbing thoſe acrid juices whoſe ſtimuli cauſed the morbid excretion. When milk turns ſour on the ſtomach, a ſcruple of *chalk* may be given with each half pint. When on any account a free uſe of *chalk* is required, if the belly is inclined to coſtiveneſs, laxative medicines ſhould now and then be taken, otherwiſe concretions will be formed in the bowels, or the mouths of the lacteals will be clogged, and a maraſmus will be the conſequence.

Chalk ſhould be finely powdered, and ſeparated from its groſſer parts by elutriation: Boerhaave prefers it to the C. C. C. for making the white decoction with. Bates formerly uſed to boil half a pound of *chalk* in three pints of water to a quart, after which he juſt permitted the groſſer parts to fall, and poured off the yet turbid fluid for uſe. And the London College directs the following julep:

Julepum e Creta.

Take of the whiteſt *chalk* prepared, one ounce; of double refined ſugar, ſix drams; of gum arabic, two drams; of water, a quart, mix.

See Dale; Lewis's Mat. Med. Dict. of Chem. Newmann's Chem. Works.

CRETA NIGRA. Balck chalk, alſo called humus nigra pictoria, and atramentum ſciſſile. It is a light, earthy, flakey, ſubſtance, uſed for drawing black lines on paper, and for mixing with oil or water for the painter's uſe, but hath no known medicinal qualities. Dale calls black lead by the name of *creta nigra*.

CRETA NONEFFERVESCENS, non effervеſcent chalk. In foſſilogy it is ranked as a genus of earth, whoſe characters are, that it is of a cloſe texture, eaſily reduced, and generally rubbing on being touched, into a fine ſubtile powder, which very much colours the hands. See Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy. The Rotten Stones, Tripolies, &c. are ſpecies.

CRETA RUBRA. See OCHRA and RUBRICA.

CRETA SELINUSIA, called alſo terra ſelinuſia. The beſt is of a ſhining white friable appearance, and readily diluted with a fluid. It is drying and aſtringent.

CRETA CIMOLIA. Tobacco-pipe-clay.

CRETA FULLONICA. Fuller's earth.

CRETHMON. Samphire.

CREVIS. The cray-fish.

CRIBRATIO, Cribration, or ſearching. In pharmacy it is the paſſing of powders and pulps through a ſieve.

CRIBRIFORME (Os) i. e. Os ethmoides.

CRIBROSUM (Os) i. e. Os ethmoides. From cribrum, *ſieve*.

CRICELASIA. The driving a ring or circle. Driving a hoop was one of the ancient gymnaſtics: this hoop was as high as the breaſt of the perſon who uſed it. It was commended for rendering the limbs pliable, and for ſtrengthening the nerves.

CRICO-ARYTÆNOIDÆI (Musculi). Muſcles of the larynx, whoſe office is to open the glottis. They riſe from the cricoid cartilage, and are inſerted into the arytænoid.

CRICO-ARYTÆNOIDES LATERALIS. They lie laterally upon the upper edge of the cricoid cartilage, and are inſerted into the lower part of the ſide of the arytænoid. They ſerve to dilate the glottis.

CRICO-ARYTÆNOIDES POSTICUS. They lie upon the back part of the cricoid cartilage, and are inſerted into that knob which ſtands on the back part of the baſis of the arytænoid cartilage, near the angle of the baſis, one on each ſide. They open the larynx, and are called by Caſſerius, par cucullare.

CRICOIDES. κρικος, *army*, and ειδος, *a form*, the name of the annular cartilage belonging to the larynx.

CRICO-PHARINGÆI. Theſe muicles ariſe from the lower part of the ſide of the cricoide cartilage. They ſeem to be appendices of the thyro-pharyngæi, ſhewing no other marks of diſtinction but theſe inſertions, and a ſmall difference in direction, becauſe as they run backward they deſcend a little; for this reaſon Winſlow ſays, he hath ſometimes looked on them as one, and called them thyro-*crico*-pharyngæus. The loweſt of theſe muſcular fibres, he ſays, make a complete circle backwards, between the two ſides of the baſis of the cartilago cricoides; this circle is the beginning of the œſophagus, and has been thought by ſome to form a diſtinct muſcle, called œſophagus. Sometimes there is another faſciculus of fibres detached from the thyro-pharyngæus, and inſerted laterally in the thyroid gland, for which reaſon I call it muſculus thyro-adenoi-dæus.

Innes calls it the conſtrictor pharyngis inferior; and deſcribes it as follows. It ariſes from the ſide of the thyroid cartilage, near the attachment of the ſterno-hyoidæus and thyreo-hyoideus muſcles; and from the *cricoid* cartilage, near the *crico-thyroidæus*. This muſcle is the largeſt of the three, and is inſerted into the white line, where it joins with its fellow, the ſuperior fibres running obliquely upwards, covering nearly one half of the middle conſtrictor, and terminating in a point; the inferior fibres run more tranſverſely, and cover the beginning of the œſophagus. Their uſe is to compreſs that part of the pharynx which they cover, and to raiſe it with the larynx a little upwards. See Pharynx.

CRICOS κρικος, *a ring* or *circle*. Hippocrates calls the annular cartilages, which forms the aſperia arteria, thus.

CRICOTHYROIDÆI. Certain muſcles of the larynx, which ſhut up the glottis. They riſe from the anterior and lateral part of the *cricoid* cartilage, and are inſerted into the lower edge of thyroid cartilage. Some call theſe *crycothyroidæus* anticus.

CRIDONES. Worms which breed in the ſkin.

CRIMNODES, of κριμνον, *bran*. An epithet for urine, which depoſits a *branny* ſediment.

CRIMNON. Dioſcorides deſcribes it as being a coarſe ſort of meal produced from zea and wheat, of which they make pulſe. Galen ſays that κριμνα are the largeſt particles of torrified barley, which have eſcaped due contuſion in the mill.

CRINATUM, from κρινον, a *lilly*. An epithet of thyoniama, or ſuffumigation, mentioned in P. Ægineta.

CRINEDONES. See Capillares.

CRINES. See Capillus and Capilares Vermiculi.

CRINITUS, from *crinis*, a *hair*. An epithet of plants, whoſe roots abound with capillaments, or ſmall fibres, like *hairs*.

CRINOMYRON, from κρινον, a *lilly*, and μυρον, an *ointment*. Ointment of lillies, conſiſting of *lillies* and ſome other aromatics. It was alſo called Ægyptium album, and ſuſinum.

CRINON. A lilly.

CRINONES. Ambroſe Paré mentions this diſeaſe as follows "The mention of dracunculi calls to my memory another kind of abſceſs, altogether as rare. This our Frenchmen name *cridones*, I think, a *crinibus*, i. e. from *hairs*. It chiefly troubles children, and pricks their back like thorns. They toſs up and down, being not able to take any reſt. This diſeaſe ariſeth from *ſmall hairs*, which are ſcarce of a pin's length, but thoſe thick and ſtrong. It is cured with a fomentation of water more than warm, after which you muſt preſently apply an ointment made of honey and wheaten flour; for ſo, theſe *hairs* lying under the ſkin, are allured and drawn forth; and being thus drawn, they muſt be plucked out with ſmall mullets."

In the Hiſtory of the Royal Medical Society at Paris, for the year 1776, is a paper as follows on this ſubject, by Monſ. Baſſignet. This diſeaſe, which is ſaid to be peculiar to the town of Seyne and its neighbourhood, attacks almoſt all the new-born children. Authors call it crinons, or comedons. In the place itſelf it is called *cées*, a corruption of *ceddès*, a provincial word that ſignifies a briſtle. It appears in many caſes within twelve hours; in others not till a month after birth, and ſometimes, though rarely, at a more advanced age, of even twelve or more years. The ſymptoms are deſcribed to be a violent itching, which is increaſed by the heat of the bed, and prevents ſleep; a continual agitation; impoſſibility of ſucking, the child's tongue not being able to accommodate itſelf to the nipple; and, laſtly, a hoarſeneſs, and gradual extinction of the voice. Of all theſe ſymptoms the laſt is conſidered as the moſt certain, ſo that by the weakneſs of the child's cries, and the alteration in its voice, they judge of the degree of the diſorder. As ſoon as it is obſerved they proceed to the cure, which conſiſts of frictions by women of the country, who are ſo accuſtomed to this diſeaſe, that they ſeldom call in either a phyſician or a ſurgeon. Theſe frictions are made on different parts of the body, according to the three ſtates of the diſeaſe, which are ſometimes diſtinct, at others complicated. In the firſt, to a diminution of voice is joined an inability to ſuck. This, we are told, requires frictions at the upper part of the ſternum, neck, cheeks, and about the jaws, and temples. If the child's tongue is at liberty, and yet he is ſtill unable to ſeize the nipple, his arms or fingers at the ſame time feeling tenſe, this is the ſecond ſtate of the diſeaſe, and requires frictions on the fore-arm. The third is known only by the change in the voice, and is cured by rubbing the arms, ſhoulders, back, and calves of the legs. The mode of friction is as follows: the woman wets her hand with ſaliva, and rubs the ſkin of one of the child's arms; for inſtance, along the tenſor muſcles, till ſhe feels a conſiderable roughneſs. She then quits this arm and begins with the other, rubbing always in ſmall circles, and conſtantly in the ſame direction. Nothing particular is obſerved in the ſkin previous to theſe frictions. Some of the moſt experienced women, however, ſpeak of a ſort of tenſion which gives way to rubbing. In many caſes where this practice hath been neglected, the child, it is ſaid, has been carried off by convulſions or diarrhœa. In ſome ſubjects, a ſpecies of dark, rough hairs, not longer than the tenth of an inch, and in others, little ſubſtances reſembling very fine red hair, not quite ſo rough as the former, and furniſhed with a minute bulb at their extremity, appear on the ſkin, and terminate the diſeaſe. This circumſtance it is that gives name to the diſeaſe. To what is above ſaid, a caſe is related of a girl ten years old, who after having been for ſome time ill, and taking different medicines, at length tried frictions as above deſcribed, and theſe brought out a prodigious quantity of dark coloured, rough hairs, after which ſhe got well.

Mr. Loppy, in his Tractatus de Morbis Cutaneis, treats on this diſeaſe. See the London Medical Journal, vol. ii. p. 289. &c. See alſo Bovina Affectio, above.

CRIOGENES. An epithet for certain troches mentioned by Paulus Ægineta, and which he commends for cleanſing ſordid ulcers.

CRIP-

CRIPSORCHIS. Concealed teſticles. This is when the *teſticles* are yet detained in the abdomen, or have not made their deſcent into the ſcrotum. See TESTES.

CRIOMYXUS. An epithet for perſons abounding with mucus in the noſe.

CRISIMOS. Critical.

CRISIS, from κρινω, *to indicate*. The termination or change of a diſeaſe either by recovery or death.

Hippocrates firſt eſtabliſhed the doctrine of *criſiſes*, and *critical* days; the reaſon why in his time this exactneſs about *criſiſes* happened was, becauſe they committed fevers to themſelves, and did nothing to diſturb the procedure of nature, ſo that the diſorder always kept the ſame type. A *criſis* only reſpects acute diſeaſes, and more particularly continual fevers. Now the phyſician is called in to give ſome aſſiſtance, *critical* days are not a ſubject of attention, the type of the diſorder, or the *criſis* being accelerated or retarded by the efficacy of what is adminiſtered.

Aſclepiades and Celſus deny that diſeaſes have their *critical* days; and Langius ſays, "if a *criſis* is to be expected, medicine is ſuperfluous."

The word *criſis* is not confined to this ſignification, for ſometimes it means the excretion of ſomething noxious from the body: or the ſecretion of the noxious humours in a fever, for the word κρινειν, ſignifies alſo to ſeparate, or as it were to paſs through a ſieve, &c.

Thoſe who are obſervant of *critical* days, conſider crudity is that ſtate of the morbid matter wherein it is too viſcid, or other ways unfit for a regular ſeparation from the ſounder juices; concoction, as that works upon the morbid matter by the power of nature, or aſſiſtance of art, which renders it fit for ſeparation from the healthy part of our fluids, and to be thrown out of our bodies; *criſis*, is the actual diſcharge of the morbid matter, whether brought on by the power of nature, or by medical aid; and the *critical* day is, the time that this diſcharge happens.

Perhaps the fallacy of this may be ſeen into by adverting to the article CONCOCTION, already noticed.

In favour of this ſubject, ſee Hippocrates, Galen, P. Ægineta, and Fernelius; on the other ſide, ſee Aſclepiades, Celſus, Langius, and Faber.

CRISPATURA, Criſpature. Curling. In medicine it is a ſpaſmodic contraction of the membranes and fibres.

CRISPINUS. The barberry-tree.

CRISTA. The name of a tubercle about the anus and pudenda; they are ſo called on account of their form. The cauſe and cure are the ſame as the condyloma, which ſee.

CRISTÆ CLITORIDIS, i. e. Nymphæ.

CRISTA GALLI. In botany it is the name of ſeveral ſpecies of the alectorolophus.

CRISTA GALLI FŒMINIA. Yellow rattle.

CRISTA GALLI. In anatomy, it is an eminence riſing from the upper part of the os ethmoides, to which the beginning of the falciform proceſs is attached. It is called *criſta galli*, from its ſuppoſed reſemblance to the *comb* of a *cock*.

CRISTA PAVONIS, i. e. Poinciana flore pulcherimo.

CRISTA PAVONIS CORONILLÆ FOLIO, i. e. Braſilium lignum.

CRITERION, i. e. Criſis.

CRITHAMUM, i. e. Crithmum.

CRITHE. Barley; and from its ſimilitude, a ſort of tubercle on the eye-lid is thus named; this tumour is called alſo a ſtye; when ſmall it is ſeated on the edge of the eye-lid, but when large it ſpreads further. When they do not ſuppurate they become wens. They are apt to diſappear and return. If there is inflammation, endeavour to ſuppurate it with the white bread poultice: if it is hard, deſtroy it with a mixture of equal parts of hog's lard and quickſilver. If the lower eye-lid is affected, the tumor is more frequent on its inſide, and then is beſt if diſſected, or to make way for it outwardly by applying a cauſtic on the ſkin juſt upon it. See St. Yves on Diſorders of the Eyes. See HORDEOLUM.

CRITHMUM, called alſo fœniculum marinum; herba Sancti Petri, fœniculum maritimum minus, crithmum marinum, ſampire, paſpier, and ſamphire.

It grows wild on rocks, and in maritime places; the leaves reſemble thoſe of fennel, but the ſegments are thicker and ſhorter; to the taſte they are warm and bitter, to the ſmell ſomewhat like ſmallage. They are aperient and diuretic. Its chief uſe is as a pickle.

There is another ſpecies called crithmum vel fœniculum marinum majus odore apii & baticulæ.

CRITICA SIGNA. Thoſe ſigns which are taken from the criſis of a diſeaſe, as to recovery or death.

CRITICI. Critical fevers. Thoſe which terminate with a lateritious ſediment in the urine.

CRITMUM, i. e. Crithmum.

CROCIDE CONFECTIO. The name of a confect commended by Nicolaus Myrepſus for the colic.

CROCINUM. Oil of ſaffron. It is mentioned by Dioſcorides as conſiſting of olive oil, myrrh, and a ſmall quantity of *ſaffron*.

CROCODES. An epithet for certain troches in P. Ægineta.

CROCODILION. The globe-thiſtle. This name is given to the carline thiſtle, the eryngo, the echinopus major, &c.

CROCODILUS TERRESTRIS. See SCINCUS.

CROCOMAGMA. Dioſcorides informs us, that it is prepared of the ungt. crocinum, and ſpices preſſed and made into troches.

CROCUS. Saffron; called crocus ſativus, crocum, crocus autumalis ſativus: becauſe of its golden colour the chymiſts call it aroma philoſophorum, by contraction aroph; others have called it ſanguis Herculis, and aurum vegetabile; for its extraordinary efficacy in ſome diſeaſes, it is entitled rex vegetabilium, and panacea vegetabilis; from its power of exciting laughter it hath the appellation of hortus lætitiæ, and medicina triſtitiæ. Beſides theſe, various other names are to be met with in different authors. Its name of *ſaffron* is from the Arabian word zaffaran, or zahafaran.

Saffron is a bulbous rooted plant; its leaves are ſhaped like thoſe of graſs; the flower is of a purpliſh blue colour, is cut deep into ſix ſegments; in the middle of the flower, among the ſtamina, ariſes a piſtil, which is divided at the top into three fleſhy filaments; the upper part of theſe filaments is of a deep orange red colour, and are the *ſaffron* of the ſhops. The plant is perennial, the flowers blow in September. Boerhaave enumerates twenty-eight ſpecies. The officinal *crocus* is the crocus ſativus vel crocus ſpatha univalvi radicali corollæ tubo longiſſimo, Lin. Sp. Pl. 50. Var.

The filaments of the *ſaffron* flowers are carefully ſeparated, and moderately dried in a kiln, and when no farther manufactured are ſold under the name of hay *ſaffron*. But the greateſt part of this article is, after being dried to a certain degree, preſſed into thin cakes.

It is cultivated in France, Spain, Auſtria, Hungaria, &c. but the beſt is produced in England, and may be diſtinguiſhed from all others by the greater breadth of its blades; the beſt is in long broad filaments, of a deep red colour, without any yellow parts, moderately dry, yet flexible and ſoft to the touch, difficultly pulverable, of a ſtrong and agreeable ſmell, eſpecially at a diſtance; affecting the eyes ſo as to draw tears from them, and of a pungent and ſomewhat bitteriſh taſte; it readily impregnates the hand with its ſmell, and ſtains the moiſt hand with a deep yellow colour,

As a medicine it is eſteemed an agreeable aromatic, is of a warm pungent bitteriſh taſte; it is alſo an anodyne, antiſpaſmodic, cordial, and attenuant. Boerhaave ranks it among narcotic poiſons, and in caſe of an imprudent doſe being taken, he orders a vomit and acidulated draughts. It is often a very powerful emenagogue, and in this intention requires caution in its uſe, as ſome patients are more extraordinarily affected by it than others; in diſorders of the lungs it hath been ſo eſteemed as to obtain the name of anima pulmonum. In coughs it is highly commended; and Cammerarius ſays, that a ſcruple of *ſaffron*, with half a grain of muſk, is of conſiderable efficacy in aſthmas.

Rectified ſpirit of wine, proof ſpirit, wine, vinegar, and water, all extract the whole virtue and colour of *ſaffron*. About three parts in four of the *ſaffron* are taken up by each of theſe menſtrua, and what remains undiſ-

diſſolved is inodorous, inſipid, and of a pale clay colour.

Tinctures drawn by acid liquors ſoon loſe their fine colour; the watery and the vinous tinctures ſoon fade too, and precipitate part of the diſſolved *ſaffron*; but thoſe made with proof or rectified ſpirit will keep good during many years.

In diſtillation water is ſtrongly impregnated with its flavour; and if the quantity of *ſaffron* is large, a ſmall portion of a fragrant and very pungent eſſential oil may be collected, which, according to Vogel, amounts to about a dram and a half from ſixteen ounces. The remaining decoction, inſpiſſated to an extract, retains all the virtues of the *ſaffron*, except the cordial one. The ſpirituous extract retains much of the cordial quality.

The dearneſs of *ſaffron* ſubjects it to many artifices, by which it is adulterated, but the beſt method of avoiding them is to purchaſe only the ſort called hay *ſaffron*.

The London college directs the following preparation from *ſaffron*:

Syrupus Croci. *Syrup of* Saffron.

Take of *ſaffron* wine a pint; of double refined ſugar twenty-five ounces, which diſſolve in the wine ſo as to make a ſyrup.

Vinum Croceum. Saffron *Wine*.

Take of *ſaffron* one ounce; of Canary wine, one pint; mix. Infuſe without heat, and ſtrain. This *wine* is preferred for this uſe, becauſe the more aceſſant wines ſooner loſe the fine colour. The doſe may be a tea ſpoonful five or ſix times a day.

See Lewis's Mat. Med. Raii Hiſt. Plant. Neumann's Chem. Works.

CROCUS ANTIMONII. See ANTIMONIUM.

CROCUS INDICUS. Turmeric.

CROCUS ITALICUS. See SISIRRHINCHIUM.

CROCUS MARTIS. See FERRUM.

CROCUS METALLORUM, i. e. Croc. antim.

CROCUS SARACENICUS. The flower of baſtard ſaffron.

CROMMYON, or Cromyon. An onion.

CROMMYOXYREGMIA. Acid and fœtid eructations reſembling the taſte of onions.

CROPIOT. A ſmall fruit mentioned by Cluſius, like the Ethiopian pepper, containing a ſmall black ſeed.

CROTALARIA. It hath ſingle leaves, in which it differs from reſt-harrow; and the pods are turgid, in which it differs from Spaniſh broom. Boerhaave mentions five ſpecies; but it is not remarkable for medicinal virtues.

CROTAPHI. The temples.

CROTAPHITES, i. e. Temporalis muſc. from κροταφος, *time*, or elſe κρουω, *to beat*, as the pulſe.

CROTAPHIUM. A pain in the head near the temples.

CROTON. The plant riſinus. According to Foeſius, it ſignifies in Hippocrates, the bronchia of the lungs expectorated.

CROTONE. A fungous excreſcence on trees, but by a metaphor, it is applied to excreſcences and fungous tumours on the perioſteum.

CROTAPHOS. Pain in the temples.

CROTON. A name of the ſeeds from which the ol. ricini is obtained.

CROUP. See SUFFOCATIO STRIDULA.

CROUSMATA. This word is met with in Myrepſus, and is tranſlated by defluxions, rheums; but Fuchſius thinks it ſhould be red, ρευματα.

CRUCIALES, (LIGAMENTÆ.) They riſe from the inſide of each condyle, and are attached to the femur. They give ſtrength to the joint, and limit its motion.

CRUCALIS INCISIO. An inciſion in the form of a croſs.

CRUCIALIS. In botany, is the herba cruciata hirſuta.

CRUCIALIS. Gallii ſpecies. A ſpecies of croſs wort.

CRUCIATA. Croſs wort. So called becauſe its leaves are diſpoſed in the form of a croſs. Boerhaave divides the ſpecies into ſpicated and verticulated.

CRUCIATA VULGARIS; alſo named *cruciata* hirſuta, crucialis Gallii ſpecies. Gallium latifolium flore luteo, mug-weed and croſs-wort.

The roots are ſlender and creeping, the branches hairy; about a foot high; at the joints of the ſtalk are placed four round pointed leaves that are hairy, and have foot ſtalks; the flowers are ſmall and yellow, each followed by two ſmall round black ſeeds. It grows in hedges, and the ſides of fields, and flowers in July. The leaves and tops are commended for promoting expectoration. Raii Hiſt.

CRUCIBULUM, alſo called tigillum catinus fuſorius, or crucible. It is an earthen veſſel, made for enduring the greateſt degree of heat, generally wider above than below, and of a round, or triangular figure. Calcined bones are equal, if not ſuperior, to any other materials for making them of; ſome are made of equal parts of the beſt potter's-clay dried, of plumoſe alum, and of baſtard talc, finely powdered, and made into a paſte with whey, and then baked as other pottery wares are. Chalk cut into the form of a *crucible*, then ſteeped in linſeed oil for twenty-four hours, anſwers many purpoſes very well; ſome uſe the powder of common tiles, and an equal quantity of chalk; theſe are mixed with linſeed oil, and then baked. Various other materials, and modes of combining them, may be ſeen in Pott's Diſſertation on *Crucibles*, and in the Dict. of Chem.

CRUDITAS. Crudity. It is applied to unripe fruits, to raw fleſh, undigeſted ſubſtances in the ſtomach, humours in the body which are unprepared for expulſion, and to the excrements. See CRISIS.

CRUENTA SUTURA. See SUTURA.

CRUNION. The name of a diuretic compound medicine deſcribed by Ætius.

CRUOR. Blood extravaſated and congealed, from κρυω, *frigus*. Sometimes it means the blood in general, and ſometimes the venal only.

CRUPINA. The bearded creeper, called alſo cyanus pulchro ſemine centaurii majoris, chondrilla Hiſpanica, chondrilla rara purpurea, crupina belgarum. It hath no known medical virtues.

CRUPINA, i. e. Calcitrapa.

CRURA CLITORIDIS. The two ſpongeous bodies that form the clitoris, before their union are thus called. See CLITORIS.

CRURA MEDULLÆ OBLONGATÆ. The two largeſt legs, or roots, of the medulla oblongata, which proceed from the cerebrum.

CRURÆUS, Cruræus, or Cruralis, from *crus*, *a leg*. The *crureus*, the vaſtus externus, and vaſtus internus, may be conſidered as one muſcle. See VASTUS INTERNUS.

The *crureus* muſcle covers almoſt all the fore-ſide of the os femoris, between the two vaſti. The tendons of the *crureus*, rectus anterior, and of the two vaſti, unite into one, and are inſerted into the ſide of the patella, in the edge of the ligament of that bone, and in the adjacent lateral part of the head of the tibia. They extend the leg.

CRURALES ARTERIÆ. The crural arteries.

The external iliac arteries paſs out of the belly under the inguinal glands, and there take the name of *crural*; they run over the heads of each os femoris, turn under the *crural* vein, preſently after paſſing out of the abdomen: here it is not covered with any muſcles, but preſently it plunges betwixt the ſartorius, vaſtus internus, and triceps muſcles, and is covered by them all the way to the lower part of the thigh. A little above the internal condyle of the os femoris it perforates the tendon of the triceps, and runs to the poſterior part of the thigh, down the ham, and there takes the name of poplitea. In the courſe of theſe arteries, they give out the pudicæ extern. and other branches to the different muſcles of the thigh.

CRURALIS. The nerve which paſſes from the loins into the thigh is thus called. The ſecond lumbar nerve joins the third, and that again communicating with the fourth, they produce this *crural* nerve, which paſſing under Poupart's ligament, runs on the fore-part of the thigh upon the iliacus internus muſcle; it diſperſes itſelf into many branches, one of the principal of which accompanies the vena ſaphena all the way to the ankle.

CRURALIS VENA. The external iliac vein, going out from under the ligamentum Fallopii, on the inſide of the

the iliac artery, is there called *crural*. About an inch below its paſſing out of the abdomen, it ſends off a large branch, called the ſaphena; after which it ſinks in between the muſcles, and is diſtributed to all the inner parts of the lower extremity, accompanying the *crural* artery to the toes. In its deſcent down the thigh, it runs behind the *crural* artery; when it hath arrived into the lower part of the thigh, its ſituation is between the *crural* artery, and the inner condyle of the os femoris, and juſt above the ham it takes the name of poplitea.

CRUREUS. See CRURÆUS.

CRUS. The leg. It includes the whole of the lower extremities from the os innominata to the toes, viz. the thigh, *leg*, and foot. It ſometimes ſignifies only the thigh, and by ſome it is alſo confined to that part between the knee and ankle.

CRUSTA. The ſhell of a lobſter, crab, craw-fiſh, prawn, or ſhrimp; alſo the name of a ſcab, or ſcurf, upon a diſeaſed part, or an eſchar; or a ſort of cruſt or cream which coagulates on the ſuperficies of any liquor, as upon blood, urine, or upon fermentable liquors during one ſtage of their fermentation.

CRUSTA LACTEA. See ACHOR.

CRUSTACEA. Cruſtata and μαλακοστρακα, are animals which have their external parts firm and hard, but contain a fleſhy ſoft ſubſtance within; or which being covered with ſlender cruſts or ſhells, are deſtitute of bones internally, which have their heads furniſhed with horns and other appendages, which have eight feet obliquely bended, and two arms called claws, notched like a forceps. Pliny comprehends all cruſtaceous animals under the name of crabs. Linnæus claſſes them among inſects without wings, under the generical name of crabs.

CRUSTATA. See CRUSTACEA.

CRUSTOSI LAPIDES. See ARDESIA.

CRUSTULA. Sometimes this word ſignifies an ecchymoſis.

CRUSTUMINA PYRA. Pears much admired by the Romans, and mentioned by Columella, lib. v. c. x. Rhodius takes it be the bergamot pear, but from its hiſtory his notion ſeems not probable.

CRUSTUMINATUM. A ſort of rob made of the juice of apples and pears, boiled up with honey and rain water. Aetius gives directions for making it.

CRUX CERVI. The bone of the ſtag's heart.

CRYMODES, from κρυος, *cold*. An epithet for a fever, wherein the external parts are *cold*.

CRYOXA. Erotian ſays it is a kind of pot-herb.

CRYPSORCHIS. When the teſticles are hid in the belly, from κρυπτω, *to hide*, and ορχις, *a teſticle*. See PARORCHIDUM.

CRYPTÆ, from κρυπτω, *to hide*. Hollow places, like cavities, containing ſome fluid. See FOLLICULUS.

CRYPTOGAMIA. The 24th of Linnæus's claſſes of plants. They are ſo called from the obſcurity of their manner of impregnation. Their parts of generation are obſcure. The moſſes, muſhrooms, and fearns, are of this ſort. In ſome of them, as in the fearn, the ſeeds are found on the back of the leaves of the plant.

CRYPTOMETALLINÆ. Cryptometallines. Thus a claſs of foſſils are named. The characters are: foſſile bodies having no appearance of metals, yet containing them in ſuch a quantity, that they may be called metallic bodies, or ores of metals. This claſs is divided into three orders, whoſe names and characters are as follow. Order 1. *Cryptometalline* ſtones; theſe are *cryptometalline* foſſils, whoſe component parts do not imbibe water, and which fall not into a looſe maſs, nor, when gently rubbed between the fingers, are diviſible, after they have been ſoaked a ſufficient time in water; not figured, nor ſhining and gloſſy, nor tranſparent. Inſtances of this kind are ruddle, ſome ochres, &c. Order 2. *Cryptometalline* earths; theſe are *cryptometalline* foſſils, whoſe component parts imbibe water, and which either fall down into a looſe maſs, or, when gently rubbed between the fingers, are diviſible, after they have been ſoaked a ſufficient time in water. Inſtances of this kind are, maſticot, ſmit, ſome ochres, &c. Order 3. *Cryptometalline* gloſſes; theſe are *cryptometalline* foſſils, which are tranſparent or ſubtranſparent; or which reſembles par cryſtal, or pure fluor of any kind, or which are figured or nearly ſo; or which have a perfectly gloſſy ſhining appearance; the name of gloſs being applicable to any one of theſe ſtates. Inſtances of theſe are bruſh iron ore, lapis lazuli, realgar, orpiment, &c. See Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

CRYPTOPYICA (ISCHURIA). A ſuppreſſion of urine, from a retraction of the penis within the body.

CRYSORCHIS. A retraction, or retroceſſion, of one of the teſticles.

CRYSTALLI. Eruptions about the ſize of a lupin, white, and tranſparent, which ſometimes break out all over the body. See CHRYSTALLINÆ.

CRYSTALLINA HUMOR. The cryſtalline humor of the eye; from χρυσαλλος, *ice*; which comes from, κρυος, *cold*, and ελλομαι, *to grow together*.

Immediately behind the aqueous humour is ſituated the *cryſtalline*; it is tranſparent, of the colour of cryſtal, and therefore is thus called. It is ſituated between the aqueous and vitreous humours, its anterior part being oppoſite to, and very near the pupil; its poſterior part is lodged in a cavity, formed for its reception in the middle and fore-part of the vitreous humour: the figure of the *cryſtalline* is that of a lens, convex on both ſides, but rather more ſo poſteriorly. The *cryſtalline* is the leaſt, but of the moſt firm conſiſtence of the three humours of the eye. It is more firm in the middle than in the ſides; and, in time, is apt to change both in its conſiſtence and colour, growing ſtill more firm, and becoming yellowiſh. It is inveſted with a denſe, firm membrane, which is rather looſely connected to it; it is perfectly tranſparent, but when injected, appears furniſhed with an immenſe quantity of blood veſſels. In the fœtus there appears a branch of the artery that paſſes through the axis of the optic nerve, which comes through the vitreous humour, and ramifies through the capſula of the *cryſtalline* in a radiated manner; this is much larger in the fœtus, and ſtronger, than in adults; theſe branches go to the tips of the proceſſus ciliares, and are there imperceptible. The *cryſtalline* humour is membraneous, and conſiſts of many coats incloſed in one another, the whole of which are contained in a capſula, formed by a continuation of the covering of the vitreous humour. This capſula is called ARANEA, which ſee. The *cryſtalline humour* produces a ſecond refraction of the rays of light; the firſt refraction, which is produced by the cornea and the aqueous humour not being ſufficient to bring them to a focus at the retina.

CRYSTALLINÆ. Cryſtallines. The Italian phyſicians call them taroli. They are puſtules filled with water, are tranſparent, and, on that account, receive the name of *cryſtallines*. They are one of the worſt ſymptoms attendant on a gonorrhœa. They are lodged on the prepuce without pain, and though cauſed by coition, have nothing of infection attending them. The cauſe is ſuppoſed to be a contuſion of the lymphatic veſſels in the part affected. Dr. Cockburn, who hath deſcribed this caſe, recommends for the cure a mixture of three parts of lime-water, and two of rectified ſpirit of wine, to be uſed warm, as a lotion, three times a day.

CRYSTALLINÆ MANUS. In Hippocrates, are hands ſo cold as to ſeem frozen.

CRYSTALLINUM. White arſenic.

CRYSTALLINUS HUMOR. See CRYSTALLINA HUMOR.

CRYSTALLION. In Oribaſius, it is a name for the pſyllium.

CRYSTALLIZATIO. Cryſtallization. It is the operation in pharmacy, uſed for reducing ſalts to their proper ſpecific form; the ſalts then appearing like *cryſtals*, gives this name to the operation. All the alcaline ſalts are excluded from this operation, for fixed ones never aſſume this form, and the volatile fly off before a pellicle can be diſcovered. Some of the neutral kind, particularly thoſe of which certain metallic bodies are the baſis, are as incapable of *cryſtallization* as any other ſort of ſalt, except ſome other ſubſtance be added, with which the water hath a greater affinity. Different ſalts alſo require different quantities of water to diſſolve them; hence, if a mixture of two ſalts be diſſolved in one fluid, they will begin to ſeparate at different times of the evaporation: upon this foundation ſalts are freed not only from their impurities, but alſo from one another; that which requires the moſt water to diſſolve in, ſhooting firſt.

All ſalts when diſſolved in ſuch a quantity of water as

is not ſufficient to keep them in that ſtate, and prevent their coaleſcence, do form themſelues into ſimilar figures of a peculiar kind, each according to its ſpecies. The nature of ſaturation, and the variation of the ſolvent power of hot and cold water, which are principles on which this operation depends, ſee in the articles SOLUTION and MENSTRUA. The end of *cryſtallization* is, to render the ſalts pure and diſtinguiſhable, as well by freeing them from feculence, and giving them their proper form, as by ſeparating each kind from every other.

The manner of *cryſtallizing* ſalts is, to make a ſaturate ſolution of them in boiling water; (hot water diſſolves more ſalt than it can ſuſpend when cold), then put the ſolution into a proper veſſel, and let it ſtand ſtill in a cool place till the *cryſtals* are formed; this requires ſome days. When *cryſtals* are formed, the remaining ſolution, called the mothers, muſt be poured off, and what the *cryſtals* retain muſt be drained from them, which is done on a paper, then dried; the mothers may be evaporated to dryneſs, or kept for the ſame purpoſe again.

If ſalts are diſſolved in too much water, evaporate until the ſalts ſhew a diſpoſition to concrete, even from the hot water, by forming a pellicle on the ſurface. If large, and the moſt perfect *cryſtals* are required, remove the ſolution from the fire before the pellicle appears, otherwiſe the ſuddenneſs of the *cryſtallization* will diminiſh the perfection of the *cryſtals*. In this caſe evaporate until ſome drops of the liquor let fall on a cold glazed plate, diſcovers cryſtalline filaments; when this mark of ſufficient exhalation appears, remove the veſſel from the fire into a leſs warm, but not cold place; cover it with a cloth, to prevent the acceſs of cold air, and thus leave it till *cryſtals* are formed. If the ſalt is pure, no more is neceſſary, but if not, filtration will be required, previous to the ſolution being left for the ſeparation of its contents.

In *cryſtallizing* large quantities, ſticks are placed acroſs in the veſſels, on which the ſalts forming, are taken out in a more perfect figure, and with leſs trouble, than when they adhere in thicker concretions to the ſides and bottoms of the veſſels.

Sudden cooling, or ſhaking the veſſel with either of them, prevent the ſalts from being properly and regularly formed.

Care ſhould be taken that the ſubſtances of the veſſels are ſuch as not to endanger corroſion.

The figures of ſalts cannot be deſtroyed; for if they are comminuted ever ſo ſmall, yet upon *recryſtallization*, they form themſelves again into their proper ſhapes. Common ſalt diſcovers quadrilateral pyramids, with ſquare baſes, or nearly cubes. Sugar diſcovers the ſame pyramids, with oblong and rectangular baſes. Alum hath ſix ſides, ſupported with an hexagonal baſe. *Cryſtals* of vitriol reſembles iſicles, among which are ſome polygons. Sal ammoniac reſembles the branches of a tree, or feathers. Salt of hart's-horn reſembles a quiver of arrows. Glauber's ſalt reſembles both ſea ſalt and vitriol. Nitre appears in priſmatical columns, or are hexagonal priſms. Salt of tin repreſents a ſtar, its lines radiating from the centre to the circumference.

Salts retain in *cryſtallization* a portion of water, and on this their *cryſtalline* form ſeems much to depend. Nitre contains about one-twentieth of its weight of water; alum one-ſixth; ſea-ſalt one-fourth; borax, green vitriol, and the bitter purging ſalts, from one-third to one-half.

Rectified ſpirit of wine diſſolves ſome ſalts, aſſiſts the *cryſtallization* of others, and is neceſſary for ſeparating any oily matters therefrom.

See Boerhaave's Chemiſtry; Dictionary of Chemiſtry; Neumann's Chemical Works.

CRYSTALLUS. Cryſtal. Called alſo rock cryſtal. It is a tranſparent colourleſs ſtone, generally of an angular figure; but Neumann ſays, that it is ſometimes found in rivers of a roundiſh form; when angular, they are for the moſt part of the form of an hexagonal column, terminated by a pyramid, with the ſame number of ſides; hard, ſo as to ſtrike fire with ſteel; becoming white, opake, and friable by repeated ignition, and extinction in water, to which it communicates nothing by being quenched in it; it is not ſoluble in any acid, or other ſaline menſtruum, either in its natural ſtate, or when calcined; it is fuſible with vitrefactive fluxes into nearly colourleſs glaſs. It ſeems to be the baſis of all the precious ſtones; it is the hardeſt of all ſtones that are not ranked precious. Neumann obſerves, that the maſſes are generally ſmall, though ſometimes they are large. In the Breſlau Collection for the year 1725, there is an account of one piece weighing more than four hundred pounds weight; and in the Imperial Collection at Vienna is a vaſe two ells long. Pieces of ſtraw, &c. have been found incloſed in pieces of *cryſtals*.

Cryſtals are liable to be coloured by metallic vapours, which they receive from different mines; thus, when contiguous to copper mines, their colour is green or blue; to lead, yellow; iron, red, &c.

It is ſuppoſed, that *cryſtals* and ſpars are formed by ſaline corpuſcles, with which the ſurrounding earth, or porous ſtone abound, and which are gradually carried along by the moiſture or vapours that ſoak through the pores, till they come to ſome cavity, and there being ſtopped by the diſcontinuance of the earthy or ſtony ſubſtance, they collect together in drops, and, as they dry and harden, they of courſe, by their mutual attraction, form themſelves into *cryſtalline* figures. This conjecture is countenanced by the ſituation in which theſe ſubſtances are found, which is always in the cavity of ſome rough ſtone, or ſome cavern of the earth, into which moiſture can deſcend.

As to its medical uſe, from its abſolute inſolubility in the human ſtomach, all pretenſions thereto are rejected. See Hill's Nat. Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

CRYSTALLUM MINERALE, i. e. Sal prunel purified by ſolution, and cryſtallization.

CRYSTALLUS PHILOSOPHORUM. See AZOTH.

CRYSTALLOIDES TUNICA, i. e. Aranea.

CTEIS, i. e. Pubes, or pecten. Ctenes, in the plural number, implies thoſe teeth which are called inciſores.

CTESIPHONTIS MALAGMA. A plaiſter deſcribed by Celſus.

CUBARIS. A wood-louſe.

CUBEBÆ, Cubebs; alſo called piper caudatum. Piper cubeba, vel piper caudatum, vel piper foliis oblique ovatis, ſ. oblongis venoſis acutis, ſpica ſolitaria pedunculata oppoſiti folia, fructibus pedicellatis, Linn. They are dried berries of an aſh-brown colour, generally wrinkled, greatly reſembling pepper, but furniſhed each with a ſlender ſtalk. They are brought from Java, and other different parts of the Eaſt Indies. They are a warm ſpice, agreeable to the ſmell, and ſomewhat pungent to the taſte. Their qualities reſemble thoſe of pepper, but are much milder. Diſtilled with water, they yield a ſmall quantity of eſſential oil, which poſſeſs moſt of their virtue. An extract made with rectified ſpirit of wine poſſeſſeth all their virtues, for the odorous principle does not exhale with ſpirit.

Chuſe ſuch as are found, large, ſmooth, plump, and heavy; for if they are wrinkled they were gathered before they were ripe. See Raii Hiſt. Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

CUBEBIS, i. e. Fagara major.

CUBIFORME, [os] i. e. Cuboides [os].

CUBITALIS ARTERIA. The cubital, or ulnar artery, parting from the radical about a finger's breadth below the bend of the arm, ſinks in between the ulna and the upper parts of the pronator teres, perforates the palmaris longus and radiæus internus; near the carpus it lies juſt under the integuments, is continued on the inſide of the os piſiforme, runs before the anular ligaments acroſs the palm, and forms an arch which anaſtomoſes with that of the radial; whence theſe arteries go to the finger and thumb, one running on each of the fingers. In its courſe it ſends off various branches.

CUBITALIS. The nerve called alſo the ulnar nerve. See CERVICALES. Cheſelden deſcribes the cubital nerves as being two in each arm, the upper paſſing over the upper extuberance of the os humeri, and runs on to the thumb and the three next fingers by its branches, which ſpread when it approaches the thumb; the inferior, which paſſes under the inner extuberance of the os humeri, and runs on to the ring and little fingers.

CUBITALIS. Muſculus, i. e. Anconæus.

CUBITALIS EXTERNA & INTERNA, (VENA.) See BASILICA VENA.

CUBITI PROFUNDA (VENA.) Sometimes from one and ſometimes from another of the branches, called Mediana.

Mediana. A branch goes out on the inſide of the fore-arm which is thus named.

CUBITUS, from *cubando*, becauſe the ancients uſed to lie down on that part at their meals, i. e. ULNA, which ſee, or the elbow, or the fore-arm from the elbow to the wriſt. See BRACHIUM.

CUBITUS. A cubit meaſure. In botany it is eighteen inches; ſo the ſtalks of plants are named cubitalis, bicubitalis, &c. according to their height.

CUBOIDES, from κυβος, *a cube*, and ειδος, (Os.) Called alſo cubiforme, quadratum, grandinoſum varium, teſſaræ, multiforme. This bone is ſituated immediately before the os calcis; on its fore-ſide it ſuſtains the os metatarſi of the little toe, and that toe next to it. The oſſification of this bone is ſcarce begun at the birth.

CUCI. The fruit of the cuciophoron, which is improperly ranked as a palm-tree, called palmæ facie cucio phora. It is a round, oblong, Indian fruit, of the ſize of a ſmall fiſt, yelloviſh, of a ſweet agreeable taſte, and with a hard nucleus.

CUCIOPHORON. The tree which bears the fruit called cuci.

CUCOS. The kernel of the fruit of a ſpecies of palm-tree; the fruit is the ſize of a cherry.

CUCUBALUS PLINII, i. e. Cucubalum.

CUCULATUM MAJUS. Brandy, or ſpirit of wine.

CULI FLOS, i. e. America, and cardamine.

CUCULARIS MUSCULUS, called alſo trapezius. It ariſes by a ſtrong round tendon, from the lower part of the protuberance in the middle of the os occipitis behind; and by a thin membranous tendon, which covers part of the ſplenius and complexus *muſcles*, from the rough curved line that extends from the protuberance towards the maſtoid proceſs of the temporal bone; runs down along the nape of the neck, where it ſeems to ariſe from its fellow, and covers the ſpinous proceſſes of the ſuperior vertebræ of the neck, but ariſes from the ſpinous proceſſes of the two inferior, and from the ſpinous proceſſes of all the vertebræ of the back, adhering tendinous, to its fellow, the whole length of its origin. It is inſerted, fleſhy, into the poſterior half of the clavicle, tendinous and fleſhy, into the acromion, and into almoſt all the ſpine of the ſcapula. Its uſe is to move the ſcapula, according to the three directions of its fibres; for the upper deſcending fibres draw it obliquely upwards; the middle tranſverſe ſtraight fibres draw it directly backwards, and the inferior aſcending fibres draw it obliquely downwards and backwards. Where it is inſeparably united to its fellow in the nape of the neck, it is named ligamentum colli, or nuchæ. Innes. It is obſerved by Douglas, that Galen divides this *muſcle* into two, viz. the ſuperior and the inferior. The firſt he calls the trapezia; and to the ſecond, later anatomiſts have given the name of *cucullæ*, from whence they are both commonly named *cucullares*. Its upper part, from the os occipitis to the ſpinal proceſs of the laſt vertebra colli, is inſeparably united to its fellow of the other ſide.

CUCULLATA. See SANICULA.

CUCULLATÆ FLORES. Cucullate flowers. See LABIATE FLOWERS.

CUCULLUS, i. e. Cucupha.

CUCULUS. The cuckow, or cuckoo. The ſtomach of this bird reaches from its ſtomach to its vent. It is not for want of affection, truly ſpeaking, that the *cuckoo* leaves its egg for other birds to hatch, but from the poſition of its ſtomach. In other birds the ſtomach is near the back, and all the inteſtines are beneath it, from whence it is eaſy for them to incubate their eggs, as well as their young ones; but in the *cuckoo* the ſtomach is under the inteſtines, which in incubating would ſubject it to pain.

CUCUMERARIA, i. e. Momordica.

CUCUMERINA INDICA. See MOMORDICA.

CUCUMIS. The cucumber. The *cucumber* hath a flower conſiſting of one leaf, which is bell-ſhaped, and expanded towards the top, and cut into many ſegments, of which ſome are male, others female. The beſt fruit is long, and of a deep green. This plant is annual and raiſed from ſeed, the beſt of which is long, thick, and with a thin rind.

CUCUMIS HORTENSIS, Cucum. vulgaris, cucumi ſativus. or garden cucumber.

The ſeeds of this ſpecies are the only part uſed in medicine; they have uſually been preſcribed in a mixture of equal portions with themſelves of the ſeeds of the citrul, the gourd, and pumpion, under the general name of the greater cold ſeeds. The ſeeds of all theſe plants are ſimilar in their medical properties. The fruit of the *cucumber* is cooling and agreeable food in hot, bilious diſpoſitions. Formerly the ſeeds were beat into an emulſion with other ingredients, but now are rarely called for in practice, the almond emulſion ſuperceding their uſe.

CUCUMIS AGRESTIS, called alſo *cucumis* aſſininus, elaterium offic. The wild or ſquirting cucumber. The fruit from whence the elaterium of the ſhop is obtained, is the momordica elaterium, or momordica pomis hiſpidis, cirrhis nullis. Linn. This fruit is watery, hairy, and almoſt of an oval ſhape, about two inches in length: when ripe, it burſts on being touched, and throws out with violence its whitiſh juice and black ſeeds. It is ſown in our gardens annually, but is found wild in many other countries. From the circumſtance of its burſting with violence, the Greeks call it elaterion, which ſignifies the elaſtic power of the air, derived from ελαυνω, *to ſhake*, or *exagitate*. Elaterion alſo ſignifies any purging medicine, particularly thoſe that act with violence, as does the juice of wild *cucumber*; whence another reaſon for calling it by this name. All the parts of the wild *cucumber* are purgative; the fruit is the moſt ſo, and the root more active than the leaves. The juice of the fruit hath an unpleaſant ſmell, and a durable nauſeous bitter taſte: on ſtanding a few hours, it ſeparates into a thick part, which falls to the bottom, and a thin watery fluid, which floats above; the thick fæcula, when dried in the ſun, or any other gentle heat, is a ſtrong irritating but ſlow cathartic, and often operates likewiſe upwards; it remarkably raiſes the pulſe, and ſeems to excite a feveriſh ſtate for a time; it is therefore only uſed in cold phlegmatic conſtitutions, as in dropſies.

The London college directs the following method of preparing elaterium.

Slit ripe wild *cucumbers*; and paſs the juice, very gently preſſed, through a very fine hair ſieve into a glazed veſſel; ſet it by ſome hours, till its thicker part ſhall have ſubſided; then pour off as much of the thin part of the juice as can conveniently be done by inclining the veſſel, and draw away the reſt by the filtre; let the thicker part which remains, be covered over with a linen cloth, and dried either in the ſun, or by a gentle fire.

N. B. Filtre here meant is a twiſt of linen thread or cotton laid over the edge of the veſſel, one end touching the liquor within, and the other hanging without ſo long that the liquor imbibed by the thread may drip from it, till all the moiſture is drained away.

Care ſhould be taken not to preſs the *cucumber*, ſo as to force out any of the pulpy part, for thus the preparation will be proportionably weakened. Two or three grains are a full doſe of this medicine, though five grains have been given, and good effects only were obſerved. An extract made with wine from the roots is equally uſeful with this fecula, called elaterium.

Elaterium is mentioned as a purging medicine by Hippocrates; ſometimes it occaſions great uneaſineſs in the bowels, if a too large doſe is given; in which caſe, acids and mucilages are the proper antidotes. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

CUCUMIS ÆGYPTIO. Chate or Egyptian cucumber. It is more white, ſoft, and round, than our garden *cucumber*, but of ſimilar qualities with it.

CUCUMIS CANADENSIS. See SICYOIDES.

CUCUMIS GALENI, i. e. Melo vulgaris.

CUCUMIS PUNICUS CORDI, i. e. Balſamina.

CUCUPHA, called alſo cucullus, pileolus, byrethrum, byrethus. An odoriferous cap for the head. It is made like what is called the *ſkull-cap* for children, of either ſilk or linen; it is double, and between its ſides are put cephalic aromatic drugs in powder; ſometimes they are mixed with cotton, to keep them equally diſperſed; theſe ſpices are alſo ſprinkled with ſome ſuitable eſſential oil, or ſpirit, or vinegar; then the *cap* being ſowed round its edges, it is placed next the head, and another over it. When half of the ſkull, or only a particular part of it is to be applied, it is called a *ſemi-cucupha*. The ingre-

dients ſhould be renewed when their virtue is worn off. The proportions of the ſpecies are uſually as follow: of roots, an ounce; of leaves, two or three hands full; of flowers, two or three pugils; of gums, one or two drams; of powders, one ounce; the whole rarely exceeds four ounces. *Cucuphas* act by the exhalations from the ſpices they contain. They are apt to render the patient diſagreeably ſenſible of all changes of weather.

CUCURBITA, Cucurbita lagenaria, Linn. The gourd. It is a large fruit, growing on a plant; its ſeed is one of the four cold ſeeds mentioned in the article CUCUMIS.

CUCURBITA. A cupping-glaſs. See CUCURBITULA.

CUCURBITA. A cucurbit. It is a chemical veſſel, ſo called from its reſemblance to a gourd, for it gradually ariſes from a wide bottom, and terminates in a ſmall neck. Some call it vas urinale, becauſe it is ſhaped like a glaſs in which urine is inſpected; though ſome are ſhallow and wide mouthed. It is uſed in diſtillation, with a head, &c. and then it conſtitutes a ſort of alembic: it is alſo uſed in digeſtions, with a blind alembic fitted to it.

Cucurbits are made of glaſs, earthen ware, or of metals, according to the reſpective uſes in which they are engaged: the earthen ones are called canthari figulini; the copper ones are lined with tin, and are called veſicæ diſtillatoriæ.

The broader the bottom, and the narrower and longer the neck, the more difficulty its contents are diſtilled, ſo that the leſs obedient any ſubject is to the fire, the narrower the bottom, and the ſhorter the neck ſhould be, and vice verſâ.

It is a blind *cucurbit*, when another ſmall *cucurbit* is placed on with its neck in the neck of the larger. The leſſer are called ſeparatory *cucurbits*. If its belly is ſpherical, and its neck long and cylindrical, it is called a matraſs or a bolt-head.

The length of the neck is ſuch, that ſcarce any of the liquor aſcends to its mouth, the cold external air repelling it before it arrives there, and it falls again to the bottom of the veſſel. Thus the digeſtions of menſtruums, with the ſubſtances to be reſolved in them, are conveniently carried on without any loſs. Beſides theſe advantages, the long necked *cucurbits* are ſingularly uſeful in ſeparating pure alcaline and volatile ſpirits and ſalts from water, oil, and volatile earth.

Cucurbits are more uſed for digeſting and ſubliming than for diſtilling. See Dict. of Chem.

CUCURBITA. See BOCIA.

CUCURBITA, i. e. Ricinus major.

CUCURBITA VERUCCOSA. A ſpecies of melopepo.

CUCURBITIFERA TRIFOLIA INDICA FRUCTUS PULPA CYDONII ÆMULA, i. e. Covalam.

CUCURBITULA. A cupping-glaſs. Formerly this inſtrument was made of horn, or ſome kind of metal. It is of great antiquity, being mentioned by Hippocrates. Different names have been given to them, according as they were uſed, with or without ſcarifications, as leves, arentes, ſiccatæ, &c. The ancients had them with narrow mouths, for drawing more forcibly, and with wider mouths for drawing more gently.

Dry *cupping* is when the glaſſes are uſed without ſcarifying. Sanguineous or wet, is when ſcarifications are made.

The preſent mode of applying a *cupping-glaſs* is to convey ſome light ſubject into it while flaming, that the air may be expelled by the heat before the flame expires; the glaſs ſhould be applied to the ſkin whilſt the flame continues; it then adheres with a ſtrong attraction. The uſe of dry *cupping* is to invite a humour to the place where the glaſs is applied, in order to the removing it from another. The operation ſhould be repeated until the part becomes red, and is in pain.

When ſcarification is uſed with *cupping*, the part ſhould firſt be dry *cupped* until it appears red; then make the inciſions with the ſcarificator; if ſcarifications are to be made in ſeveral parts, begin below and proceed upwards, or the blood will incommode the operator; the ſcarifications made, the air muſt be excluded from the glaſs by burning ſomething in it, as above-mentioned, and then applying it: a little ſpirit of wine is as neat and effectual as any thing for the pabulum of the flame. The perſſure of the external air preſſes the glaſs forcibly to the ſkin, and the glaſs being emptied of its air by the fire introduced in it, powerfully attracts the blood. The operation ended, wipe the part with a ſponge dipped in warm water, and to ſtop the bleeding, a little ſpirit of wine may be applied by dipping a linen rag therein, and applying it over the ſcarifications.

This operation does not ſeem to be neceſſary, except when blood cannot be obtained by opening a vein in the uſual manner. Celſus, lib. ii. cap. 11, ſays, that "*cupping* is needful when the body is to be relieved in ſome acute diſorder, and yet the ſtrength does not admit of a loſs of blood from the veins." It is true, that the flow diſcharge of blood by *cupping* does not leſſen the vital heat ſo much as the ſame quantity of blood does when ſuddenly taken away by opening a vein; but in ſuch caſes, as Celſus ſuppoſes, other more eligible means of relief may be made uſe of with leſs fatigue to the already enfeebled patient, and more to his advantage.

The blood extracted by ſcarification and *cupping*, Hoffman ſays he often examined, and found to be the ſame with that from the veins; if ſo, there appears no other advantage from *cupping* than what ariſes from opening a vein, except what may happen from the flow diſcharge of the blood in the firſt method of extracting it, and the relief of the part only; whence the complaint is local.

Some extol *cupping* in apoplexies, epilepſies, and ſome kind of convulſions, becauſe they ſay that the ſpaſms are increaſed by the ſpeedier diſcharge of blood which is conſequent in phlebotomy.

See Cœlius Aurelianus, Celſus, Morgagni, Hoffman and Haller.

CUDU PARITI. A ſhrub which grows in Malabar: it flowers all the year long. The leaves are anodyne when externally applied. The fruit checks a dyſentery. Raii Hiſt.

CUEMA, κυημα. The conception, or rather, as Hippocrates ſignifies by this word, when the complete rudiments of the fœtus are formed.

CUIETE. A name of the arbor cucurbitifera Americana folio ſubrotundo.

CUIPOUNA. A tree growing in Braſil. Raii Hiſt.

CULBICIO. A ſort of ſtrangury, or rather heat of urine.

CULEUS, or Culleus. A Roman meaſure containing twenty amphoræ: ſometimes it ſignifies a leather ſack.

CULILAVVAN, i. e. Cort. culitlavvan.

CULILAWAN, i. e. Cort. culitlavvan.

CULINARIA SAL. The culinary or alimentary ſalt. It is generally called common *ſalt*, becauſe of common uſe in culinary preparations; but the ſea *ſalt* ſeems, from its univerſality in the world, to be more properly the common *ſalt*. Sea *ſalt* conſiſts of this culinary *ſalt* and the *ſalt* uſually called Epſom *ſalt*, or *ſal* cath. amar. When *ſea* water, or a ſolution of the *ſal* gem. are evaporated, the firſt cryſtals that are formed are the culinary *ſalt*, which when ſeparated from the remaining brine, and the evaporation is continued, the ſucceeding cryſtals are not of the culinary kind, but the bitter purging *ſalt*, of the ſhops. The conſtituents of the *culinary ſalt* are, the ſpirit uſually called ſpt. *ſal* marin. and a mineral alcaline *ſalt*. See SAL MARIN.

CULITLAWAN, i. e. Cort. culitlavvan.

CULLEUS. The largeſt liquid meaſure among the Romans. See CULEUS.

CULMEN, i. e. Culmus.

CULMUS. The ſtalk or blade of corn or graſs. Culmiferous plants have a ſmooth jointed ſtalk, are uſually hollow, and at each joint wrapped about with ſingle narrow ſharp pointed leaves, and their ſeeds are in chaffy huſks, as wheat, barley, &c.

In graſſes and corns, the *culmus* or ſtalk correſpond to the caudex or trunk of trees; ſo that it generally denotes that part between the root and the ear or panicle: but botaniſts differ in their diſtribution of plants into culmeniferous.

CULMUS. The ſtubble of corn remaining after the ears are cut off.

CULTER.

CULTER. The third lobe of the liver.

CULUS. The anus.

CUMANA, called alſo gacirma. An Indian tree, like that of the mulberry tree; its wood is ſo hard that it ſtrikes fire like a flint.

CUMANDA GUACU, and Cumandu Guara. Two ſpecies of a large ſort of kidney-bean.

CUMBULU, called alſo nux Malabarica unctuoſa flore cucullato. A tall tree growing in Malabar, the root of which is uſed in a decoction with rice for common drink in fevers.

CUMINOIDES. Wild cumin. Called alſo cuminum ſylveſtre, paſtinaca tenuifolia Cretica, and daucus odoratus Creticus.

This plant grows in Crete: the ſeeds only are in uſe; they are carminative. Raii Hiſt.

CUMINUM. Cumin. According to Miller this name is derived from κυειν, *to bring forth*; becauſe it is ſaid to be efficacious in curing ſterility. It is alſo called cyminum and fœniculum Orientale. It is the *cuminum* cyminum, or *cuminum* Ægyptiacum ſativum, ſemine longiore. Linn.

This plant reſembles fennel, but is much ſmaller; produces longiſh, ſlender, plano-convex ſeeds, of a browniſh colour, with yellowiſh ſtriæ. It is annual, a native of Egypt and Ethiopia; it is cultivated in Sicily and Malta, from whence it is brought to us.

Theſe ſeeds are bitteriſh to the taſte and warm; have an aromatic but diſagreeable flavour. Water takes up much of their ſmell by infuſion, but not much of their taſte. Diſtilled with water, they afford a pungent oil, which partakes much of the flavour of the ſeeds. Rectified ſpirit extracts their whole virtue; the ſpirituous extract is very warm, moderately pungent, and not a little nauſeous.

Theſe ſeeds are carminative and ſtomachic, but too ungrateful for the ſtomach; externally they are diſcutient and antiſeptic.

The London college directs the following preparations, in which theſe ſeeds are a part.

Cataplaſma e Cymino. *Cataplaſm of* Cumin.

Take of *cumin* ſeeds, half a pound; bay-berries, the leaves of water germander dried; Virginia ſnake-root, of each three ounces; of cloves, one ounce; with honey equal to thrice the weight of the ſpecies powdered; make a cataplaſm. This is a ſubſtitute for the theriaca Londinenſis.

Emplaſtrum e Cymino. *The* Cumin *Plaſter.*

Take of Burgundy pitch, three pounds; yellow wax, *cumin* ſeeds, carraway ſeeds, and bay berries, of each three ounces. The pitch and wax being melted together, ſprinkle into them the reſt reduced to powder, and ſtir all well together. See Miller's Dict. Lewis's Mat. Med. Raii Hiſt.

CUMINUM SILIQUOSUM. Codded wild cumin. It grows in Spain, flowers in May, and produces the ſame effects, as a medicine, as the poppy.

CUMINUM PRATENSE. See CARUM.

CUMINUM SYLVESTRE. See CUMINOIDES.

CUMINUM CORNULATUM. See HYPECOUM.

CUMINUM ALNORUM, i. e. Alſnicium.

CUNEALIS SUTURA. The future by which the os ſphenoides, or cuneiforme, is joined to the os frontis.

CUNEIFORME (Os). From *cuneus*, a wedge. A name of the os ſphenoides, from its being wedged between the other bones.

CUNIFORME (Os). The third bone of the firſt row in the wriſt. It is ſo called from its appearing like a wedge ſticking between the two rows.

CUNEIFORME OS EXTERNUM, or Chalcoideum externum of the tarſus. At its poſterior edge it joins the os naviculare and os cuboides; it ſupports the metatarſal bone of the toe next the little one, and that next the great one, and of the middle toe. The os *cuneiforme* medium vel minium, is ſtill more wedge-like than the former; it ſuſtains the metatarſal bone of the toe next to the great one. The os *cuneiforme* internum, and maximum; it ſuſtains the os metatarſi of the great toe. All theſe are cartilaginous at the birth of children.

CUNILA. See SATUREIA.

CUP. HORT. CATH. and Hort. Cath. Cup. An abbreviation of Franciſcus Cupanus Hortus Catholicus.

CUP. HORT. CATA. SUPP. i. e. Hortis Catholici Supplementum Primum.

CUP. HORT. CATH. A. i. e. Supplementum Alterum ad Hort. Cathol.

CUPELLA, called alſo capella, catellus cinereus, cineritium, patella, or teſta probatrix, exploratrix, or docimaſtica. A *cupel* or teſt.

Theſe are veſſels uſed for ſeparating baſer metals from gold or ſilver; they are made of earth, and are hollowed like a diſh: they reſiſt every degree of fire that is needful to keep any metal in fuſion; they alſo retain theſe metals when fuſed. The aſhes of bones or of plants, that have been calcined, are the propereſt for making them with; though Cramer prefers thoſe made with plaſter: whichever of theſe materials are choſen, they muſt be perfectly calcined, then levigated, after which, they muſt be formed into a paſte, and moulded into their proper form, and burnt in a potter's furnace. See various directions concerning them in the Dict of Chem.

CUPEROSA. Copperas.

CUPHOS. Light. When applied to aliments, it imports their being eaſily digeſted; when to diſtempers, that they are mild.

CUPRÆ AQ. See Æs.

CUPRESSUS, called alſo cypariſſus. The cypreſs-tree. The *cupreſſus* ſempervirens. Linn. It is a tall ever-green tree, native of the warmer climates, bearing male and female flowers on the ſame branches; the leaves are ſlender, and ſo are the branches, which ſpread ſo as to form a cone, the apex of which is the top of the tree; the fruit is a kind of nut, as large as a walnut; it is aſtringent. The flowers have an agreeable odour, and have been uſed in conjunction with ſome other ingredients for making an oil by infuſion with olive oil, which was named oleum Cyprinum.

There are three ſpecies of this tree.

CUPRESSINUM. Cypreſs wine. See CEDRINUM.

CUPRI RUBIGO. Verdegriſe.

CUR. POST. An abbreviation of curæ poſteriores.

CURA AVENACEA. A decoction of oats and ſuccory roots, in which a little nitre and ſugar were diſſolved, was formerly uſed in fevers, and was thus named.

CURASLAVENTIA. See AURANTIUM.

CURCAS. The Barbadoes nut. See CATAPUTIA.

CURCUMA. Turmeric; alſo called crocus Indicus, terra merita, Cyperi genus ex India, cannacorus radice crocea, manjella kua, cypira, and kaha. The Portugueſe call it ſaffran de terra: the name *curcuma* is Arabian: the Arabians call every root of a ſaffron colour by this name, *curcuma*. There are two ſpecies, the long and the round rooted, but the firſt is the beſt, and the ſort in uſe. It is the *curcuma* longa, or *curcuma* Indica foliis conceolatis, nervis lateralibus numeroſiſſimis. Lin. Indian long-rooted turmerick.

The root is the only part in uſe; it is ſmall, tuberous, and knotty; it is brought from the Eaſt-Indies: externally it is greyiſh coloured, but internally it is of a deep lively yellow, which tends to red: a longiſh and a round ſort are mentioned by ſome authors, but the firſt only is brought to us.

It hath a ſlight aromatic and bitteriſh taſte, and ſomewhat diſagreeable ſmell. It gives out its virtues both to water and to ſpirit. By diſtillation with water a ſmall quantity of eſſential oil is obtained; and from the remaining decoction a bitter extract is obtained by evaporating it. The ſpirituous extract retains nearly the whole virtue of the root.

It is a powerful remedy in obſtructions of the viſcera, particularly the abdominal; it is alſo much uſed in icteric and uterine diſorders. The doſe may be from a ſcruple to a dram. The powder is often mixed with yellow peas, ground fine. The roots ſhould be choſen of the largeſt ſize, freſh, compact, heavy, not eaſy to break, of a lightiſh yellow without, and a deep reddiſh yellow within.

It is chiefly conſumed by the dyers. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

CURIMENTOS. So the Portugueſe call ſome pains in the limbs, which are relieved by a warm bath made with an aſtringent bark produced in the Brazils.

CURMI. Dioſcorides ſays it is a drink made of barley,

ley, which is uſed inſtead of wine; ſuch a liquor is uſed in Iberia and Britain, which is prepared of wheat. This is ale.

CURSUMA, or Curtuma, i. e. Chelidonium minus.

CURURU. See BUFO.

CURURU APE. A ſcandent tree, which grows in Braſil, and bears pods with ſeeds like beans. Theſe ſeeds deſtroy fiſh.

CURUTU PALA. A ſhrub which grows in Malabar; the bark of the root boiled in water cures a diarrhœa, and boiled, taken with, it cures a dyſentery.

CUSCUTA, called alſo caſſutha, cuſcuta major, caſſuta, dodder, and dodder of thyme. The cuſcuta Europæa, Linn. It is of the number of plants called paraſitical; it hath no leaves, it grows on *thyme*, conſiſts of a number of ſlender juicy filaments, producing here and there ſmall heads of white or reddiſh flowers, which are followed by roundiſh capſules full of minute ſeeds. A large kind, known by the name of hell-weed, is common in heaths upon furzes, nettles, &c. this hell-weed deſtroys the vegetables which afford it nouriſhment, whence its name; it is alſo called the devil's guts.

The *dodders* are ſuppoſed to partake of the virtues of the plant on which they grow. It is hardly known in practice, but is recommended as a reſolvent, deterſive and diuretic.

Dodders are found on almoſt all plants. Raii Hiſt.

CUSPIDATUS. Pointed. In botany it is when the leaves of a flower end in a point.

CUSPIS. Properly the point of a ſpear; but it is applied to the glans penis. It is alſo the name of a bandage.

CUSTOS OCULI. An inſtrument to preſerve the eye in an operation.

CUTAMBULI. A name of a ſort of worms either under the ſkin or upon it, which by their creeping cauſe uneaſineſs and pain.

CUTANEI MUSCULI, i. e. Platyſma myhoides.

CUTANEUM OSSIS COCCYGIS (LIGAMENTUM). It goes out anteriorly from the extremity of the os coccygis: it is ſlender, and divides into two portions at the oriſice of the anus, which runs into the membrana adipoſa, and are inſerted in the ſkin on each ſide of the anus by a kind of expanſion, and continuing to divaricate, they are loſt on the two ſides of the perinæum.

CUTANEUS, i. e. Sphincter ani.

CUTANEUS. The nerve ſo called. See CERVICALES.

CUTANEUS INTERNUS [NERVUS]. It riſes from the union of the ſeventh cervical, and firſt dorſal pairs, it runs over the other brachial nerves, and paſſes down on the inſide of the arm, between the muſcles and integuments; it divides into two branches, which accompany one another as far as the inner condyle on one ſide of the vena baſilica, being covered by the ramus medianus of that vein; then runs down towards the wriſt, where it ſpreads, and on the beginning of the palm of the hand. The other branch runs backward along the integuments, and down to the little finger.

CUTICULA. The ſcarf-ſkin. The Greeks call it epidermis, becauſe it is placed upon the true ſkin as a covering. It is as large as the true ſkin, and more compact; it is full of pores for the evacuation of what tranſpires through it from the body, though the beſt glaſſes do not enable us to diſcern them; it hath neither blood-veſſels nor nerves, therefore it is void of ſenſe. Dr. Hunter ſays it is an organized body, though its organization cannot be demonſtrated: Leuwenhoeck aſſerts much with reſpect to the pores which he ſays he diſcovered in it; but to what he hath ſaid it ſufficeth to refer the reader.

The integuments, or the univerſal covering of the body, are, the *cuticle*, the rete mucoſum, the cutis, and the membrana cellularis; beſides theſe, the old anatomiſts reckoned the membrana communis muſculorum, which is not now reckoned in the number; and the paniculus carnoſus, which is only found in brutes. The rete mucoſum is added by the moderns.

The whole ſurface of the ſkin is covered by the rete mucoſum, and the rete mucoſum with the *cuticle*, ſo that the *cuticle* is the moſt external.

The *cuticle* does not, in general, extend ſo far as the ſkin does, though upon the belly it ſtretches conſiderably, without loſing its thickneſs. Its origin is obſcure, and its generation ſurpriſingly ſudden. Friction looſens it, but ſoon a new ſtratum ariſes.

The *cuticle* is continued, not only over all the external parts of the body, but alſo in all the cavities thereof, where the air can arrive; as in the mouth, œſophagus, aſpera arteria, inteſtines, &c. where it is called the epithelion: in theſe places there is no *cutis*, but there are innumerable papillæ. No nerves nor veſſels can be demonſtrated to exiſt in it.

In examining the pores, the *cuticle* ſeems to inſinuate itſelf into them, to complete the excretory tubes of the cutaneous glands. The foſſulæ of the hairs have likewiſe the ſame productions of the *cuticle*, and it ſeems to give a ſort of coat to the hairs themſelves.

The beſt method of ſeparating the *cuticle* for examination is to macerate it in water.

The *cuticle* is a medium betwixt the ſkin and the ſubjects of feeling, and moderates the impreſſions, which, without it, would be too painful. It alſo moderates the perſpiration, which, without it, would be too copious.

The colour of the cutis differs in different perſons, and alſo in different parts of the ſame perſon; but it is to the difference in the rete mucoſum that complexions are ſo oppoſite to one another. See the Obſervations of Dr. Monro of Edinburgh on the Epidermis, in the Edinburgh Med. Eſſays.

In the ſecond volume of the Medical Muſæum, is a remarkable inſtance of a young man loſing the uſe of his hands, by the *cuticle* there being thickened and hardened in an extraordinary degree. He was a dyer, and by frequently cleaning braſs wire in the mixture which is uſed for dying Saxon colours, which conſiſts of the oil of vitriol, tartar, alum, &c. this complaint was gradually produced. His hands were quite ſtiff from the hardneſs of the *cuticle* on their palms, and on the inſide of the fingers; the *cuticle* there appeared like parchment full of chaps; and on endeavouring to ſtraighten the fingers by force, blood ſtarted from every joint of them. As the acid ſeemed to contribute much to the diſeaſe, the following emollient liniment was ordered. ℞ ol. olivar. ℥ ii. lixiv. ſalis alkalin. fix. ℥ ii. m. f. linim. With this he rubbed his hands frequently, particularly before going to bed; and to prevent the liniment from being too ſoon rubbed off he wore gloves. In about four days the ſkin ſeemed a little ſoftened, and his fingers did not ſuffer ſo much by endeavouring to ſtretch them out. He complained that the liniment occaſioned much ſmarting, whence the following was directed with a view to abate the acrimony of the alkaline ſalt. ℞ ol. olivar. ℥ i. lixiv. ſalis alkalin. fix. ℥ ii. vitel. ovr. N°. ii. f. linim. This was uſed as the other. This mixture was uſed, in three days it was leſs troubleſome, and produced further evidence of relief: the hardened *cuticle* began to peel off, and a new flexible one appeared underneath; many of the chaps were healed, and he began to have ſome uſe of his fingers. He continued the laſt preſcribed liniment about two months, and then, to prevent a relapſe, he uſed the following. ℞ exung. porcin. ℥ ii. vitelli unius ovi, & ol. lavend. gut. v. in f. liniment. With this he rubbed his hands every night at bed-time; and on continuing it about a month, he obtained a perfect cure. Except three doſes of purging phyſic, he took nothing inwardly as a medicine during the cure.

CUTICULARIS MEMBRANA. The dura mater.

CUTICULOSUS, i. e. Sphincter ani.

CUTILIÆ. Certain cold fountains in Italy, mentioned by Celſus and Pliny, which were uſed in baths.

CUTIO. A wood-louſe.

CUTIS. The ſkin. It is a ſtrong, thick, univerſal, covering of the external parts of the body, immediately above the adipoſe membrane. It is compoſed of a cloſe texture of fibres of various kinds, and alſo of veins and arteries, variouſly diſpoſed; where there are large orifices, it terminates by being gradually loſt. Its inner ſurface is moulded upon the outer ſurface of the membrana adipoſa, whoſe membranous part being produced, forms the *ſkin*.

The *ſkin*, on its outſide, is unequal: this is occaſioned by the miliary glands, and the bulbs of the hair. It is naturally contracted, but when it is ſwelled it is ſmooth. Upon its ſurface we obſerve the papillæ pyramidales, which are longer in ſome parts than in others, as in the fingers, where they are called villi, and appear in rows, each having two ranks contiguous; theſe are the organs of touch. Oppoſite to the joints, the *ſkin* is formed into plicæ, to admit of a free motion. Its whole ſurface, outwardly, is covered with the rete mucoſum, and the cuticle.

The *ſkin* is thickeſt between the ſhoulders, and on the back part of the neck. Dr. Hunter ſays, that when the *ſkin* is once deſtroyed, it is never regenerated, and that the cicatrix is hardened fleſh.

When the *ſkin* is deſtroyed, the edges ſtretch conſiderably to form a covering, but after that a cicatrix completes the healing.

The outer ſurface is furniſhed with ſmall eminences, called papillæ pyramidales, and the inner ſurface with the miliary glands. Fewer papillæ appear on the *ſkin* of the belly than elſewhere; the anterior portion of it is not only thinner and more compact than the poſterior, but it hath this likewiſe peculiar to it, that it may naturally be very much increaſed in breadth, to an extraordinary degree, without loſing any of its thickneſs, in proportion to what it gains in breadth; aud it is generally more difficult to pierce the *ſkin* of the belly with pointed inſtruments than it is on the back.

Though the beſt glaſſes cannot aſſiſt us to ſee pores in the cuticle, the naked eye can diſcern them in the *ſkin*. The *ſkin* is the ſeat of many diſeaſes, and on theſe Dr. Turner hath profeſſedly writ. See his Diſeaſes of the Skin.

CYAMUS. A bean. See FABA. It alſo ſignifies a wood-louſe in the form of a bean.

CYANUS. The blue-bottle. Of this plant Boerhaave enumerates twenty-two ſpecies. That uſed in medicine is the centaurea cyanus, Linn.

CYANUS MAJOR, called alſo cyanus montanus; verbaſculum cyanoides, great blue-bottle.

CYANUS MINOR, alſo called baptiſecula, battiſecula, cyanus ſegetum. Blue-bottle, or corn-flower.

The latter of theſe two is the moſt noted, but not as a medicine, to which character this kind of plants have but little pretenſion, but for the fine blue colour obtained from its flowers. It is a greyiſh green plant, generally growing among corn; the flower is large, and of a deep blue colour. It is annual, and produces flowers during moſt of the ſummer months. If theſe flowers are haſtily dried, they keep their colour longer than any other blue ones. They neither give their colour to ſpirit nor water. They are ſaid to be in a ſmall degree diuretic.

In the Gentleman's Magazine for March, 1748, p. 122, is a proceſs for producing a fine blue colour from theſe flowers.

The *cyanus* orientalis major moſchatus, i. e. ſweet ſultan, or ſultan-flower, is ſomewhat cordial.

CYANUS. A ſpecies of ſerratula.

CYANUS ÆGYPTIA. Egyptian bean. See FABA.

CYANUS LAPIS, i. e. Lazuli lapis.

CYANUS PULCHRO SEMINE CENTAURII MAJORIS. Bearded-creeper.

CYAR. Properly, the eye of a needle; but it is uſed to ſignify the orifice of the internal ear.

CYASMA. Brown ſpots in the lips, forehead, and hands of pregnant women.

CYATHISCUS, from κυαθος, a *cup*. The hollow part of a probe, formed in the ſhape of a ſmall ſpoon, as in an ear-picker.

CYATHUS, κυαθος, a *cup*, from the verb χυειν, *to pour out*. It was a common meaſure among the Greeks and Romans, both of the liquid and dry kind. It was equal to an ounce, or the twelfth part of a pint. The ſextans was two ounces; the quadrans, three ounces; the triens, four ounces; the quincunx, five ounces; the ſemis, ſix ounces; the ſeptunx, ſeven ounces; the bes, eight ounces; the dodrans, nine ounces; the dextans, ten ounces; the deunx, eleven ounces; the as, ſextarius, or cotula, twelve ounces. The *cyathus* was made with a handle like our punch-ladle. The Roman topers were uſed to drink as many *cyathi* as there were Muſes, i. e. nine; alſo as many as there were letters in the patron's name. Thus, they had modes of drinking ſimilar to the modern health-drinking, or toaſting. Pliny ſays, that the *cyathus* of the Greeks weighed ten drams; and Galen ſays the ſame; though elſewhere he ſays, that a *cyathus* contains twelve drams of oil, thirteen drams and one ſcruple of wine, water, or vinegar, and eighteen drams of honey. Galen ſays, that among the Veterinarii the *cyathus* contained two ounces.

The modern *cyathus* is ℥ j. ß.

CYBITOS. The cubitus.

CYBOIDES. See CUBOIDES.

CYCEON, from κυκαω, *to mix*. It is a mixture, of the conſiſtence of pap, made with wine, honey, flour, and cheeſe. This name was given to ſome piſans; alſo a kind of ſallad in which cheeſe was mixed.

CYCIMA. Litharge.

CYCLAMEN. Sow-bread.

CYCLISCUS, from κυκλος, a *circle*. An inſtrument formerly uſed in the operation of the trepan.

CYCLISMUS. A troche. Alſo a ſort of circular rugine.

CYCLOPION. The white of the eye, from κυκλοω, *to ſurround*, and ωψ, the *eye*.

CYCLOS. A circle. Hippocrates uſes this word to ſignify the cheeks, and the orbits of the eyes.

CYCLUS METASYNCRITICUS. It is a long protracted courſe of remedies, perſiſted in with a view of reſtoring the particles of the body to ſuch a ſtate as is neceſſary to health.

CYCNARION. A collyrium mentioned by Galen and P. Ægineta. It was ſo called becauſe its colour reſembled that of a ſwan.

CYDAR. Tin.

CYDONATUM. A preparation of quinces with an addition of aromatic, deſcribed by P. Ægineta.

CYDONIA. The quince-tree. Alſo called cotonea, mala cotonea majora et minora, malus *cydonia*. It is the pyrus *cydonia*, or pyrus *cydonia* ſylveſtris, fol. integerrimis, floribus ſolitariis. Lin. The wild quince-tree.

Botaniſts enumerate five ſpecies.

The *quince-tree* is low, a native of the rocky banks of the Danube, and is common in our gardens. Its fruit reſembles in ſhape ſome ſorts of round pears; it hath an agreeable and ſtrong ſmell, an auſtere acid taſte; its expreſſed juice is cooling and reſtringent, is uſeful in nauſeas, ſickneſs of the ſtomach, and ſometimes relieves vomiting; by boiling it loſes its aſtringency. The ſeeds abound with a mucilaginous ſubſtance, which they give out to boiling water. One dram of them makes ſix ounces of mucilage, about the conſiſtence of the white of egg. It is the moſt agreeable of all the mucilages, but is apt to become mouldy in a ſhort time.

The London college directs the following.

Take of *quince* ſeed, a dram; of water, ſix ounces; boil with a gentle fire, till the water grows ropy, like the white of egg; then ſtrain through a linen cloth.

Formerly a ſyrup was made of the juice of the fruit; and a conſerve, called marmalade, jelly, miva cydoneorum, or dyacydonium; but it is now an article in the confectioner's buſineſs only. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Raii Hiſt.

CYDONIA EXOTICA, i. e. Covalam.

CYEMA, i. e. Cuema.

CYGNUS REGINÆ. A collyrium deſcribed by Aetius.

CYITES, i. e. Lapis ætites.

CYLICHNE. A ſmall veſſel or box for holding medicines; a gallipot, or pill-box.

CYLINDRUS. The cylinder. The fruit of plants are termed cylindrical when they reſemble a column.

CYLLOS, from κυλλοω, *to make lame*. In Hippocrates, it is one affected with a kind of luxation which bends outwards, and is hollowed inward. Such a defect in the tibia is called cylloſis, and the perſon to whom it belongs is called, by the Latins, Varus, and is oppoſed to Valgus. Blæſius is one whoſe legs are bent the other way.

CYLLŒSIS. See CYLLOS.

CYMA. By a figure this name is applied to the tops of plants which the Latins call turio and aſparagus.

CYMBÆ (Os) i. e. Scaphoides (Os.)

CYMBALARIA, alſo called Linaria. Ivy-leaved toad-

toad-flax, or ivy-wort. It grows on old walls in Italy and Switzerland. It hath the ſame virtues as the navel-wort. See ſeveral ſpecies of *cymbalaria*, under the article Linaria.

CYMBALARIS CARTILAGO, i. e. Cartilago Cricoides.

CYMBIFORME. See Scaphoides. From *cymba*, a *boat*.

CYMIA. A veſſel in the ſhape of an urinal.

CYMINUM, i. e. Cuminum.

CYNADONTES, from κυων, a *dog*, and ὀδους, a *tooth*. Dog-tooth.

CYNANCHE. κυναγχη. A ſpecies of *quinſy*, in which the tongue is inflamed, and ſwelled ſo that it hangs out beyond the teeth. Aretæus ſays, it is thus named from dogs either being ſubject to it, or elſe when in health they hang out their tongues at times. Cœlius Aurelianus ſays, that the voice of a patient in a *quinſy* reſembles that of a dog or of a wolf. See Lycanche. Or perhaps the word *cynanche* is derived from κυων, a *dog*, aud αγχω, *to ſuffocate*; for when dogs are hanged, becauſe their bodies are not heavy enough to make a ſtrong compreſſion of the rope, they ſtruggle long, with their eyes turgid, their tongues hang out of their mouths, &c. and becauſe a ſet of ſimilar ſymptoms affect the patient in a ſpecies of *quinſy*, this name is given to it. *Cynanche* is Dr. Cullen's generic name for *quinſy*. See Angina.

CYNANCHE EPIDEMICA. Anginoſa. The mucous quinſy. See Scarlatina Anginosa.

CYNANCHE EXANTHEMATICA, i. e. Scarlatina.

CYNANCHE GANGRÆNOSA. The putrid quinſy.

CYNANCHE PAROTIDÆA, i. Mumps.

CYNANCHE STRIDULA, i. e. Suffocatio ſtridula, or croup.

CYNANCHE ULCEROSA. The putrid quinſy.

CYNANCHICA MEDICAMENTA. Medicines appropriated to the cynanche.

CYNANTHEMIS. A name of the cotula fetida.

CYNANTHROPIA. from κυων, a *dog*, and ανθρωπος, a *man*. A kind of melancholy delirium, in which the perſons affected believe they are changed into dogs, and in conſequence thereof endeavour to act like them. Or, according to ſome, the hydrophobia.

CYNAPIUM. Leſſer hemlock.

CYNCHNIS. A ſmall veſſel to hold medicines in.

CYNICUS. Canine. Certain convulſions, called cynic ſpaſms.

CYNIPHES. in Helmont, ſignifies flies or gnats.

CYNNIA. Cymia, or Carora. A veſſel in the ſhape of an urinal.

CYNOBOTANE, i. e. Cotula fœtida.

CYNOCEPHALION. A ſpecies of antirrhinum.

CYNOCOCTONUM. Wolf's-bane.

CYNOCOPRUS, from κυων, a *dog*, and κοπρος, *dung*, i. e. Album græcum, or the White dung of a dog.

CYNOCRAMBE, i. e. Mercuriales.

CYNOCTONUM, i. e. Aconitum.

CYNOCYTIS. The dog-roſe.

CYNODECTOS. Bitten by a mad dog.

CYNODES. Canine.

CYNODESMION, from κυων, a *dog*, and δεω, *to bind*, or from κυνη, the *yard of a man*, and δεω, *to tie*. A ligature by which the prepuce is bound upon the glands. Sometimes it ſignifies the lower part of the prepuce.

CYNODONTES, from κυων, a *dog*, and ὀδους, a *tooth*. The canine teeth.

CYNOGLOSSUM. Hounds-tongue. Botaniſts enumerate nine ſpecies.

CYNOGLOSSUM MAJ. VULG. Lingua Canina. Greater hounds-tongue. It is the cynogloſſum officine, Linn.

It is a biennial plant; it produces, the firſt year, large, ſoft, tongue-ſhaped, long pointed leaves: the ſecond year, a thick branched ſtalk, with pointed leaves joined to it, without pedicles; on the tops of the branches are dark purple flowers, which are followed by four flat ſeeds: the root is oblong, and of a dark brown or blackiſh colour on the outſide, but white within. It grows in ſhady places, and flowers in June.

The roots have a rank, but not very ſtrong ſmell, like thoſe of the narcotic plants, which in drying is moſtly diſſipated; but thoſe that happen to grow on dry ground have very little ſmell.

CYNOGLOSSUM MONTANUM MAJUS. Cerinthe. Honey-wort. Of this ſpecies Boerhaave enumerates eight different ones.

CYNOGLOSSUM MARITIMUM. Cerinthoides argentea flore pulchre cœruleo. Bugloſſum marinum incanum flore cœruleo. Echium marinum.

Their medical effects, if they poſſeſs any, are very little known.

CYNOGLOSSUM MINUS ALBUM, &c. A ſpecies of omphalodes.

CYNOGLOSSUM MONTANUM MAJUS. See Cerinthe.

CYNOLOPHIA. Pollux calls theſe certain aſperities of the vertebræ, and beginning of the ſpine of the back.

CYNOLYSSA. The ſame as lyſſan, or as hydrophobia.

CYNOMORON. A name of the cynocrambe, in P. Ægineta.

CYNOMOJA. A name of the pſyllium in Oribaſius.

CYNAPTICON, i. e. Dacneron.

CYNOREXIA. The ſame as bulimia emetica. See Boulimus.

CYNORRHODON, from κυων, a *dog*, and ῥοδον, a *roſe*, i. e. cynoſbatos.

CYNOSBATOS. Alſo called cynorrhodon, roſa canina, Linn. roſa ſylveſtris vulgaris, roſa ſylveſtris inodora. The dog-roſe, or hip-tree. It is one of the largeſt plants of the roſe-kind, grows wild in hedges, and flowers in June. The fruit is made into a conſerve, as follows.

Conſerva Fructus Cynoſbati. *Conſerve of* Hips.

Take of the pulp of ripe *hips*, one pound; of double-refined ſugar, twenty ounces: mix them into a conſerve.

The *hips* are to be ſplit, and the hairy ſeeds carefully picked out; and then, when the fruit is mellowed by ſtanding a few days, it muſt be paſſed through a hair ſieve, and to the pulp the ſugar muſt be added.

CYNOSORCHIS. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of orchis.

CYON. A dog. Alſo the inferior parts of the penis and prepuce.

CYOPHORIA, from κυημα, the *fetus*, and φερω, *to carry*. Geſtation. It is ſpoken of a woman with reſpect to her pregnancy.

CYPARISSUS, i. e. Cupreſſus.

CYPERI. See Gramen Cyperoides.

CYPEROIDEA GRAMINA. See Gramen Cyperoides.

CYPERUS. A plant with graſs-like leaves, and triangular ſtalks, bearing tufts of flowers on their top, which are followed by a triangular ſeed.

CYPERUS LONGUS, Linn. Cyp. odoratus radice longa. Cyperus panicula ſparſa ſpecioſa. The ordinary ſweet cyperus, or Engliſh galangale. It hath a long ſlender root, crooked and knotted, on the outſide of a blackiſh brown colour, and white within; it grows in marſhy places, and thoſe in England are as good as the foreign ones.

The root hath an agreeable aromatic ſmell, and a bitteriſh taſte; both water and ſpirit take up its virtues; by diſtillation a very ſmall quantity of eſſential oil is obtained. This long root is ſomewhat aromatic, but moſt noticed for its aſtringency.

CYPERUS ROTUNDUS. Cyp. Creticus, vel Syriacus. Round-rooted cyperus. This plant hath ſeveral roundiſh roots, about the ſize of wallnuts, connected by fibres, rough, and ruſty-coloured on the outſide, of a yellow white within. It is a native of the Eaſt Indies, and grows wild in ſome other countries. The roots have the ſame ſmell and taſte as the long ſort have. This ſort is moſt noted for its aroma; but they may be uſed indifferently. Raii Hiſt.

CYPERUS AMERICANUS, i. e. Sanctæ Helenæ.

CYPERUS ESCULENTUS. Sweet cyperus, or ruſh-nut.

CYPERUS LONGUS ODORUS. A name of the contrayerva.

CYPERUS NILOTICUS, i. e. papyrus.

CYPHI. A compoſition of ſixteen ingredients, ſuch

as honey, raiſins, cardamum ſeeds, &c. It was much uſed in the Egyptian ſacrifices, and hence the troches, called trochiſci cypheos.

CYPHOMA. The ſame as cyphoſis.

CYPHOSIS. From κυφόω, *to bend*. A kind of gibboſity, an incurvature of the ſpine of the back, when the vertebræ incline preternaturally outwards.

CYPIRA. Turmeric.

CYPRESSUS. See CUPRESSUS.

CYPRINUM (OL.) See CUPRESSUS.

CYPRUS See PHYLLAREA folio liguſtri.

CYPRUS DIOSCOR, i. e. Eaſtern privet.

CYPRUS GRÆCORUM, i. e Liguſtrum.

CYPSELE, or Cypſelis. The ear-wax.

CYRÆNIA. In Rulandus it ſignifies the feces of ſaffron infuſed in oil.

CYRBASIA. Properly the tiara, or cap, worn by the Perſian monarchs. Hippocrates uſes this word in his Treatiſe of the Diſeaſes of Women, in deſcribing a ſort of covering which he directs for the breaſts.

CYREBIA. The huſks of barley, or of other corn, which fall off while they are torrifying, or when ſoaked in water.

CYRENAICUS LIQUOR, i. e. Gum Benjamin.

CYRENAICUS SAL, i. e, Sal ammoniacus.

CYRENAICUS SUCCUS, i. e. Laſerpitium.

CYRONES. See PHTHIRIASIS.

CYRSEON. The podex or anus.

CYRTOIDES. Gibbous.

CYRTOMA. Any preternatural tumour or gibboſity, from κυρτός, *bump-backed*. In Vogel's Noſology, it ſignifies a particular flatulent tumour of the belly.

CYRTONOSUS, The rickets.

CYSSAROS. The podex or anus, or inteſt. rectum. κυρτός is the breech.

CYSSITES, i. e. Lapis Ætites.

CYSSOTIS. Inflammation of the anus.

CYSTEOLITHOS, from κύστις, *the bladder*, and λίθος, *a ſtone*. The ſtone in the bladder.

CYST-HEPATICI DUCTUS. See DUCTUS Hepatico Cyſtici.

CYSTICÆ ARTERIÆ. The cyſtic arteries. The hepatic artery having advanced behind the ductus hepaticus towards the veſicula fellis, to which it gives two principal branches, called arteriæ cyſticæ.

CYSTICÆ VENÆ. A branch from the vena portæ ventralis; they run along the veſſicula fellis, from its neck to the bottom, and as they are often only two in number, they are called *cyſticæ* gemellæ.

CYSTIRRHAGIA. Diſcharge of the blood from the urinary bladder. It is always a ſymptomatic diſorder.

CYSTICAPNOS. African climbing bladder fumitory.

CYSTITICA (ISCHURIA). A ſuppreſſion of urine from inflammation of the bladder.

CYSTICUS DUCTUS, or Ductus Veſicularis. The neck of the gall-bladder is formed by the contraction of its ſmall extremity, and this neck bending afterwards, produces a narrow canal called the *ductus cyſticus*. It conveys the gall from the gall-bladder to the duodenum.

CYSTIDES. Encyſted tumors, and thoſe whoſe ſubſtance is included in a membrane.

CYSTIS. A bag. It is applied to any receptacle of morbid humours, κύστις, *a bag*.

CYSTINX. A ſmall bladder.

CYSTITIS. Inflammation of the urinary bladder. Mezerey names it *cyſtiphlogia*. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ and order phlegmaticæ, and obſerves two ſpecies. 1. *Cyſtitis* a cauſis internis. 2. *Cyſtitis* a cauſis externis. See INFLAMMATION.

CYSTIPHLOGIA, i. e. Cyſtitis.

CYSTOTOMIA. A cutting of the bladder in the operation for the ſtone.

CYSTOLITHICA. (ISCHURIA.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from a ſtone in the bladder.

CYSTOPHLEGICA. (ISCHURIA). A ſuppreſſion of urine from a palſy in the bladder.

CYSTOCELE. A hernia formed by the protruſion of the urinary bladder.

CYSTOPTOSIS. The inner membrane of the bladder protruding through the urethra.

CYSTOPHLEGMATICA. (ISCHURIA.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from abundance of mucus in the bladder.

CYSTOPASTICA (ISCHURIA.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from a ſpaſm, in the ſphincter of the bladder.

CYSTOTHROMBOIDES. (ISCHURIA.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from grumous blood in the bladder.

CYSTOSPYICA. (ISCHURIA.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from purulent matter in the bladder.

CYSTOPROCTICA. (ISCHURIA.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from pain in the bladder, cauſed by indurated feces, wind, inflammation, abſceſs, &c. in the rectum.

CYSTOTOMIA. A cutting of the bladder, in the operation of the ſtone.

CYTHION. A collyrium mentioned by Celſus.

CYTINIFORMES. See CYTINUS.

CYTINUS. It generally ſignifies the flower of the true pomegranate; but ſometimes it is uſed to ſignify the cups of flowers which expand after the ſame manner; they are alſo termed cytiniforme.

CYTISO-GENISTA. Common broom.

CYTISUS. Bean trefoil.

Boerhaave mentions ſixteen ſpecies.

CYTISUS ALPINUS, alſo called laburnum, anagyris non fœtida. Bean trefoil tree. The leaves are ſaid to cool and diſcuſs; a decoction of them is diuretic.

CYTISUS SPINOSUS, alſo called aſphalathus altera, &c. acacia, cytiſo Spartium aculeatum. Trefoil accacia. Its juice is aſtringent.

Pſeudo-cytiſus. The hairy ſhrub trefoil. None of the ſpecies are in much uſe. See Dale and Ray.

CYTISUS SCOPARIUS VULG. Common broom.

CYTISUS INCANUS SILIQUIS FALCATIS, i. e. Medicago.

CYZICENUS. An epithet of a plaſter deſcribed by Galen, and commended for ulcers and wounds of the nervous parts.

D.

D A P

D In the chemical alphabet, ſignifies vitriol.

DABURI, i. e. Achiotl.

DACETON, from *δακνω, to bite*. An epithet for ſuch animals as hurt by biting.

DACHEL. So Boerhaave calls the palma major.

DACNERON, from *δακνω, to bite*; biting. An epithet for a collyrium in Trallian, alſo called oxydorcia, & cynopticon.

DACRYDIUM, i. e. Diagridium.

DACRYODES, from *δακρυ, a tear*. In Hippocrates it is a ſanious ulcer.

DACRYOMA. A coalition of one or more of the puncta lachrymalia.

DACRYOPŒOS. An epithet for ſuch things as cauſe the tears to flow, ſuch as onions, &c.

DACTILETUS. The hermodactyl.

DACTYIDEUS, i. e. Lap. lyncis.

DACTYLETHRAI. A machine ſhaped like a finger, and introduced into the ſtomach to excite a vomiting.

DACTYLION. Web-fingered.

DACTYLIOS. A troche.

DACTYLOTHECE. So Paré calls an inſtrument which he uſed in ſome caſes of injury done to the fingers.

DACTYLUS. the date. In Boerhaave it is the palma major. It is alſo a name of the blatta byzantia; and, among the Greeks, it is the ſame meaſure as digitus among the Latins. See ONYX.

DACTYLUS IDÆUS, i. e. Belemnites.

DACTYLUS PALMULA, called alſo palma major, palma dactylifera, the great palm tree, or date tree. It is cultivated in the ſouthern parts of Europe; its fruit is oblong, larger than an acorn, and includes a ſtone. The beſt dates come from Tunis. Chuſe thoſe that are ſoft, large, and not much wrinkled, of a reddiſh yellow colour on the outſide, and a whitiſh membrane between the fleſh and the ſtone. They are moderately aſtringent, yet are eaten as food in Africa.

DAMASCENA PRUNA NOSTRATA. See PRUNUS GALLICA.

DÆDALUS. Quickſilver.

DAITIDES. Galen ſays it is great torches; but by a metaphor it ſignifies heads of garlic.

DALE. An abbreviation of Sam. Dalei M. L. Pharmacologia.

DALECHAMP. LUGD. An abbreviation of Hiſtoria Generalis Plantarum Dalechampio Elaborata.

DALECHAMPIA. So Father Plumier calls a plant growing in Martinico, in honour of J. Dalechampius. See Miller's Dict. vol. ii.

DALIGTHRON. A name of the thalictrum.

DÆDION. A diminutive of *dais*, a *torch*. It is a kind of peſſary.

DAMASCENA PRUNUS. See PRUNUS FRUCTU MAGNO DULCIATRO-COERULEO.

DAMASCENÆ PASSULÆ VEL UVÆ. The largeſt kind of grapes.

DAMASONIUM. The ſtarry-headed water-plantain. German leopard's bane. See alſo ALISMA and HELLEBORINE.

DAMESONIUM. Doria's wound-wort. See DORIA.

DAMNATA TERRA, i. e. Caput mortuum.

DANAIS, i. e. Conyza.

DAPHNE. In botany, it is a genus of the octandria monogynia. It is alſo a name for the bay-tree, and of the mezereon.

D A U

DÆMONIS. Ordure, aſphaltus.

DÆMONIA. Melancholy ſuppoſed from poſſeſſion of demons.

DÆMONOMANIA. The melancholy which is ſuppoſed to ariſe from poſſeſſions of demons, &c.

DAIS, or das, or tæda. Particular parts of the mountain pine are cut into proper lengths, &c. and are uſed as torches. See TÆDA.

DAPHNELÆON, from *δαφνη*, the *bay-tree*, and *ελαιον, oil*. The oil of *bay-berries*. When *bay-berries* are full ripe, they are boiled in water, and their oil, as it appears on the ſurface thereof, is ſcummed off, and is the green oil of *bays*, which is bitter, acrid, and uſeful as a topical application in palſies, and other nervous diſorders.

DAPHNITIS. A name for the beſt pieces of Caſſia.

DAPHNOIDES. Spurge-laurel.

DARATOS. Unfermented bread.

DARCHEM. A name of the beſt cinnamon.

DARSINI. The Arabian name for the ordinary ſort of true cinnamon.

DARSIS, from *δερω, to excoriate*.

DARTA. A tettar, ring-worm, or the itch.

DARTOS, from *κυρας, leather*, or a *pelt*. Dartos. A Greek name derived from its raw or excoriated appearance, and not from its uſe in contracting the ſcrotum. See WARNER on the Teſticles, p. 2. One of the coats which forms the ſcrotum, is called the *dartos* muſcle; but Dr. Hunter ſays that no ſuch muſcle can be found, and Albinus takes no notice of it in his tables.

DAS. See DAIS.

DASYMMA. i. e. Trachoma, from *δασυς, rough*.

DASYS. Denſe, thick, cloſe, or rough. An epithet for a tongue that is parched in a fever. Applied to reſpiration, it ſignifies a breathing as if the lungs had not room to expand. Thoſe who labour under this denſity of breathing are called cerchodes.

DATURA, and Datyra. See STRAMONIUM.

DAUCITES VINUM. Wine in which is the ſeeds of daucus.

DAUCUS. The carrot. Boerhaave reckons up ſeven ſpecies.

DAUCUS VULGARIS, called alſo daucus ſylveſtris, paſtinaca tenuifolia, ſtaphylinus, Græcorum vel ſylveſtris. Wild carrot, or bird's-neſt. This is the ſort, the ſeeds of which are uſed in medicine. It is the daucus carota, or daucus ſylveſtris tenui folius, ſeminibus hiſpidis, petiolis ſubtus nervoſis, Linn. The wild carrot, or bird's neſt.

DAUCUS CRETICUS, called alſo myrrhis annua, daucus foliis fœniculi, tenuiſſimis, candy carrot, or carrot of Crete. It is the athamanta Cretenſis of Linn.

That which is called *carrot* of Crete, is often brought from Germany, &c. the beſt is large, freſh, ſound, and of an acrid taſte.

The *wild carrot* is common in many uncultivated parts of England, and flowers in June. The ſeeds are ſimilar in their taſte and ſmell to thoſe of the Cretan *carrot*, but weaker; however they are ſubſtituted for them; and, if infuſed in ale or wine, they give out all their virtues, which are diuretic, antiſcorbutic, carminative, and lithontriptic. Half a pound of the ſeeds may be infuſed in five or ſix gallons of ale, and a pint of the clear liquor may be drank three times a day. The ſeeds of the *wild carrot* have in many inſtances been uſeful in the ſtone and gravel, particularly in the latter, when accompanied with great pain and coffee-coloured or bloody urine.

The ſeeds ſhould be gathered in Auguſt. They ſeem to force a little, but not to endanger any thing. Half an ounce of the ſeeds may be put to half a pint of boiling water, and the infuſion drank with ſugar and milk, as, or inſtead of tea, for breakfaſt, and again in the afternoon. Gouty people who are afflicted with the gravel, are much relieved by it. Some experience relief from this infuſion in a few days; others are longer, even to twelve months, before they perceive any ſenſible effect from it, but after that have been happily rewarded for their perſeverance.

DAUCUS SATIVUS. The common garden-carrot. The roots when ſcraped ſmall, and made up into a poultice, take off the diſagreeable ſmell which attends ulcerated cancers. The raw *carrot* may be ſcraped or grated, then made into a cataplaſm with cold water, and applied to any kind of fetid ulcers. See Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 183, 358, &c. Lewis's Mat. Med.

DAUCUS. A name of ſome ſpecies of myrrhis.

DAUCUS ALSATICUS. A ſpecies of oreoſelinum.

DAUCUS ANNUUS MINOR. Hedge parſley. See CAUCALIS.

DAUCUS MACEDON. See APIUM.

DAUCUS MONTANUS. See OREOSELINUM. It is alſo a ſpecies of ſeſeli.

DAUCUS ODORATUS CRETICUS, &c. WILD CUMIN.

DAUCUS PALUSTRIS, i. e. Alſnicium.

DAUCUS PEREGRINUS. See APIUM.

DAUCUS PETROSELINI VEL CORIANDRI FOLIO. See APIUM.

DAUCUS SELENOIDES. See OREOSELINUM.

DAUCUS SEPIANIUS, i. e. Antriſcus.

DAUCUS TERTIUS DIOSC. See APIUM.

DAULONTAS FRUTEX. An American ſhrub, which Lemery ſays poſſeſſes the properties of camomile, and its berries relieve in aſthmas, &c.

DAUPHINY SAL. It is the ſalt obtained from an earth in the province of Dauphiny in France. It is a natural ſal. Glaub.

DAURA. So Paracelſus calls black helebore.

DAVERIDON. Oil of ſpike.

DEARTICULATIO, i. e. Abarticulatio, vel diarthroſis.

DEASCIATIO, i. e. Apoſceparniſmus.

DE BOOT. An abbreviation of Anſelmi Boetii de Boot, Gemmarum & Lapidum Hiſtoria, &c.

DEC. The abbreviation of decad.

DEBILITATES. Diſeaſes from deficiency, as blindneſs, want of appetite, &c.

DEBUS. So Paracelſus calls a medicine which is given againſt anger.

DECAMYRON. In Oribaſius it is a compoſition made of ten aromatics.

DECANDRIA. The tenth of Linnæus's claſſes of plants. In it are one ſtile, and ten filaments in each flower.

DECANTATIO. Decantation. The ſeparating of a clear liquor from a ſediment, by pouring it gently.

DECIDENTIA. Some change in diſeaſes, whereby they are prolonged. See alſo CATAPTOSIS.

DECIDUA, from the Latin, *de*, *from*, and *cado*, *to fall*. Falling, fading once in the year. Thoſe things that fall away, as leaves off trees. In botany, *deciduous* plants are ſuch as caſt their leaves in winter, and is applicable to trees, ſhrubs, and herbaceous vegetables. From this Dr. Hunter calls the ſpongy chorion by the names *decidua* and *caduca*, both which words ſignify falling off. Dr. Hamilton obſerves that the membranes (ſpeaking of thoſe which contain the fetus during pregnancy) conſiſt, externally, of two layers of the ſpongy chorion, called *decidua*, and *decidua reflexa*; internally, of the true chorion and the amnion. They form a pretty ſtrong bag, commencing at the edge of the cake, going round the whole circumference, and lining the internal ſurface of the womb. The membrana *decidua*, or that lamella of the ſpongy falſe chorion, which is in immediate contact with the uterus, is originally very thick and ſpongy, and exceedingly vaſcular, particularly where it approaches the placenta. At firſt it is looſely, as it were, ſpread over the ovum; and the intervening ſpace is filled with a quantity of gelatinous ſubſtance. It gradually becomes more and more attenuated by ſtretching, and approaches nearer to the interior lamella of the *decidua*, called *decidua reflexa*: and about the fifth month the two layers come in contact, and adhere ſo as to become apparently one membrane. The *decidua reflexa*, in its ſtructure and appearance, is ſimilar to the former, being rough, fleecy, and vaſcular, on its external ſurface; internally, ſmoother, and perforated with a number of ſmall foramina, which are the orifices of veſſels that open into this internal ſurface. In advanced geſtation, it adheres intimately to the former membrane, and is with difficulty ſeparated when the double *decidua* comes off entire; but the outer lamella more commonly adheres to the uterus after the placenta and other membranes are expelled, and is afterwards caſt off with the cleanſings. The *decidua reflexa* becomes thicker, and more vaſcular as it approaches to the placenta, and is then blended with its ſubſtance, conſtituting the cellular or maternal part of the cake, as it is termed by Dr. Hunter. The other or more internal part belongs to the fœtus, and is ſtiled the fœtal part of the placenta. The double *decidua* is opake in compariſon of the other membranes; the blood-veſſels are derived from the uterus, and can be readily traced into it. Dr. Hunter ſuppoſes that the double *decidua* lines the uterus nearly in the ſame manner as the peritoneum does the cavity of the abdomen, and that the ovum is incloſed within its duplicature as within a double night-cap. On this ſuppoſition the ovum muſt be placed on the outſide of this membrane, which is not very readily to be comprehended; unleſs we adopt Signor Scarpa's opinion, and ſuppoſe it be originally entirely compoſed of an inſpiſſated coagulable lymph.

Dr. Ruyſch called this exterior coat the tunica filamentoſa; more modern authors, the falſe or ſpongy chorion. But Dr. Hunter found the ſpongy chorion to conſiſt of two diſtinct layers; that which lines the uterus he ſtiles membrana caduca, or *decidua*, becauſe it is caſt off after delivery; the portion which covers the ovum, *decidua reflexa*, becauſe it is reflected from the uterus upon the ovum, forming the connecting medium between them. The portion which covers the ovum is a complete membrane, like the true chorion and amnios: but that which immediately lines the uterus is imperfect or deficient, being perforated with three foramina, viz. two ſmall ones, correſponding with the inſertion of the tubes at the fundus uteri; and a larger ragged perforation oppoſite to the orifice of the womb. See Dr. Hamilton's Outlines; Dr. Hunter on the gravid uterus.

DECIMANA. An erratic kind of fever which returns every tenth day.

DECLINATIO. It is when a diſeaſe abates. In Avicenna it is an imperfect diſlocation.

DECLIVIS. The muſc. obliq. deſcend. abdom.

DECOCTA. It is water that hath been boiled, and is cooled by the help of ſnow.

DECOCTUM ALBUM. See CORNU CERVI.

DECOCTUM RUBRUM. See CORNU CERVI.

DECOCTIO. See COCTIO.

DECOLORES. Diſeaſes which diſagreeably change the colour of the ſkin.

DECREPITATIO, vel Crepitatio. The crackling noiſe which common ſalt makes when ſubjected to the fire.

DECURTATUS PULSUS. A weak pulſe, or a deficient one. If it fails, and revives by turns, it is called decurtatus reciprocus.

DECUSSORIUM. An inſtrument with which to depreſs the dura-mater after trepanning, qui a deculit membranam, or from its extremity being grooved, decuſſatim.

DECOLATIO. It is when a part of the cranium is cut off with the teguments in a wound of the head.

DEFECTIVI. Diſorders from the body being partially or in general defective in its vital powers: it is ſynonimous with adynamiæ.

DEFECTIO ANIMI. A fainting, or ſwooning.

DEFENSIVA. In Paracelſus they are cordials.

DEFENSIVUM. An epithet for ſome ſurgical topics which repel.

DEFERENTIA VASA. Immediately beneath the tunica albuginea are lodged the teſticles, the tubili of which run on to form the epididymus; when becoming

larger, they unite, and form the *vas diferens*, which aſcend in the ſpermatic cord behind the blood-veſſels, and having got through the abdominal rings, are reflected downwards, and paſſing on the back of the bladder, between that and the ureter, go on the inſide of the veſicula ſeminalis, to its anterior end, where they unite with the veſicula, and for the union of theſe with the veſiculæ ſeminales, two ducts are formed and continued, which gradually approaching each other, they become contiguous at the notch, in the baſis of the proſtrate gland, and terminate in a ſmall duct on each ſide of the caput gallinaginis, in the urethra. At a diſtance from the veſiculæ ſeminales, the *vas deferens* is hardly capable of admitting an hog's briſtle; but as it approaches the veſiculæ, it grows larger both externally and internally, and becomes cellular and tortuous.

DEFIXUS. Impotent with reſpect to venereal deſires.

DEFLAGRATIO. See CALCINATIO.

DEFLUVIUM. A falling off of the hair.

DEFLUXIO, from *defluo, to flow down*. A defluxion. The flowing down of humours upon any inferior part, as in a catarrh, &c.

DEFORMATIONES. Diſtortion of particular parts, and other deformities.

DEFORMES. Synonimous with cachexia. It ſignifies diſeaſes occaſioning external deformity of the body.

DEFRUTUM, from *defervendo*. It is muſt, or the juice of grapes, boiled to the conſumption of one half, before it is permitted to ferment into wine.

DEGLUTITIO, from *deglutitio, to ſwallow*. The act of ſwallowing. In *ſwallowing*, the morſel is collected on the upper ſurface of the tongue, is ſqueezed againſt the bony palate, and then carries the palatum molle backward and upward; the pharynx meets it, the tongue keeps cloſe up to the palatum molle, the rimula of the larynx is ſhut, and the bolus is forced down the œſophagus.

A difficulty of *ſwallowing* may be cauſed, 1ſt, by ulcers of the œſophagus, in which caſe there will be frequent vomitting of blood, and other kinds of matter; 2dly, a ſcirrhous bronchocele; 3dly, a thickening of the mucus in the œſophagus; 4thly, indurations of the œſophagus; 5thly, a fungus in the œſophagus; 6thly, a facculus formed by ſome hard ſubſtance lodging a little time in the œſophagus, and weakening its coats; 7thly, by ſpaſms; 8thly, foreign bodies ſticking in their paſſage to the ſtomach; 9thly, tumors preſſing againſt the ſide of the œſophagus.

Mr. Warner relates a ſingular caſe of difficult *ſwallowing*, in which the œſophagus, beſides being otherways diſeaſed, was ulcerated in its internal ſurface. Though a ſimilar one may no more admit of a cure than that which he relates, yet its inſertion here may extend the advantage he propoſed in firſt publiſhing it, viz. to enable others to form a juſt prognoſtic, though not an agreeable one; and alſo prevent the adminiſtering of many uſeleſs applications, in a caſe that does not admit of much relief. The caſe is as follows: a young woman, aged twenty-five, was admitted into Guy's Hoſpital, on account of a difficulty in *ſwallowing*, with which ſhe had been afflicted for ſome months; there was not any thing appeared outwardly, that could lead to the diſcovery of the malady, but ſhe complined of a particular tightneſs in *ſwallowing*, juſt below the back part of the cricoid cartilage. The part affected was too low to be looked into, but it was eaſily diſcovered by conveying down the throat a bit of ſpunge, faſtened upon whale-bone, and dipt in ſweet oil, which, though very ſmall, could not be made to paſs beyond it. She at length became incapable of taking any nouriſhment, and died ſoon after. After death, her neck was opened, and upon taking out the œſophagus, it appeared conſiderably thickened about an inch in length, juſt below the cricoid cartilage. Upon opening the œſophagus lengthways, its coats appeared ſo contracted in the diſeaſed part, as to be only juſt capable of admitting a paſſage to a common probe. The internal coat of the œſophagus was in part ulcerated, and beſmeared with matter. All the adjacent parts were found and well.

When a bronchocele is the cauſe, whatever its ſtate be, as it admits of but little relief, or none, there is no relief for the difficulty of ſwallowing cauſed by it, further than that which the bronchocele admits of.

Hoffman takes notice of difficulty of *ſwallowing* from a thickening of the mucus in the œſophagus. He ſays, a mucous matter not unfrequently concretes, during the night, in the fauces and gullet, and is afterwards with difficulty brought up. This proceeds, not from the aſpera arteria, or the pharynx, or the pituitary tunic of the noſe, but from the glands of the œſophagus itſelf, irritated by acrid, acid, or hot exhalations from the ſtomach. In ſuch caſes, he obſerves, that, warm aromatics, and ſpirituous medicines, muſt neceſſarily do harm, by further inſpiſſating the lymph, and rendering the humors in this part more acrid. He recommends diluents and mineral waters as the principal remedies; and relates a caſe, in which a cure was effected by abſtinence from a more generous diet, and the uſe of a ſoft and ſlender one; drinking ſthe Egra waters, omitting ſuppers, and taking a doſe of a nitrous powder in a draught of cold water, at bed-time.

Indurations happening in any part of the œſophagus, is amongſt the cauſes of a difficulty of *ſwallowing*; an inſtance of which is already noticed. Theſe tumors rarely admit of relief. In the London Medical Journal, vol. iii. p. 157, is the following caſe, extracted from the Hiſtory of the Royal Medical Society in Paris, for the year 1776. A young lady, aged ſixteen years, after being troubled for about three months with a ſpaſmodic cough, began to have a difficulty of *ſwallowing*, which increaſed ſo faſt, that after a very ſhort time ſhe became incapable of taking any nouriſhment by the mouth; ſo that for the ſpace of three months, life was ſupported ſolely by glyſters. Mercurial and other frictions were employed, but without any effect. At length M. Macquart reflecting on the caſe, and conjecturing that an encyſted tumor exiſted in the œſophagus, and that it might probably be now in a ſtate of ſuppuration, he reſolved to adminiſter ſome ſubſtance, which, by its weight, might occaſion a rupture of the ſac. For this purpoſe, he preſcribed an ounce of crude mercury, mixed with the yolk of eggs, to be ſwallowed every three hours. This remedy was taken; and the patient ſoon after ſhe had ſwallowed the ſecond doſe, brought up a conſiderable qantity of pus. From this moment, ſhe was able to ſwallow broth; and by proper care recovered. When ſcrophulous indurations happen about the œſophagus, the ungt. cœrul. rubbed on the neck, over the induration, or ſmall doſes of the merc. dulc. ſexties ſublim. hath often been of ſingular efficacy, eſpecially if uſed early after the attack of the diſorder. If the caſe is of more conſiderable duration, the mercurials ſhould be given ſo as to excite and ſupport a moderate ptyaliſm for ſome time.

In the London Medical Obſervations and Inquiries, vol. iii. p. 85, is the hiſtory, &c. of a caſe, in which *deglutition* was obſtructed, from a preternatural dilatation of a bag formed in the pharynx. This inſtance was produced by a cherry ſtone lodging in the throat, which was returned three days afterwards by a fit of coughing; the part where it had lodged gradually gave way, and retained a part of the food which was taken at each meal; this circumſtance increaſing, no aliment at length could paſs into the ſtomach, but all returned without cauſing either pain or ſickneſs. It is propoſed, if a ſimilar caſe ſhould occur, to paſs a tube into the œſophagus, and through it, to inject a due quantity of broth; by which, life may be continued many years, and the enlargement of the ſac, from the food preſſing into it, will be thus totally prevented.

Deglutition produced by ſpaſms. See ŒSOPHAGUS.

Tumors preſſing againſt the ſides of the œſophagus. When theſe cauſe a difficulty of *ſwallowing*, relief can only depend on the diſſolution, or extirpation of ſuch tumors: if theſe cannot be effected, whatever can be thought of to palliate may be tried.

Foreign bodies ſticking in the paſſage to the ſtomach, is no unfrequent cauſe of this diſorder; to remove which, is the chief intention of cure. Many are the contrivances for theſe ends, but it would often be better to leave the caſe to nature, than to deal roughly with a part

ſo

ſo irritable as the œſophagus is, as it is often neceſſary to bring back the ſubject *ſwallowed*. If the ſubſtance can be reached with the fingers, or with a forceps, attempts to extract it may be made. When pins, fiſh-bones, or ſuch-like bodies, ſtick acroſs the gullet, ſome adviſe to preſs a crotchet (i. e. a wire with its end turned up like a hook) below theſe bodies, and then to turn it ſo as to bring them up with it. Pins, and ſuch-like ſharp bodies, when they have ſtuck in the throat, have been returned by *ſwallowing* a piece of tough meat tied to a ſtrong thread, and then pulled up again. If the detained body may more ſafely be puſhed down, puſh it on by means of the probang; that is, a flexible piece of whale-bone, with a piece of ſpunge ſecured to its end. It hath frequently happened, that though indigeſtible bodies have been *ſwallowed*, no inconvenience hath ariſen therefrom. If the bodies cannot be eaſily moved up or down, endeavours ſhould not be continued long, leſt the œſophagus ſhould become inflamed. Whilſt other means are uſed, it is recommended that the patient ſhould frequently *ſwallow* ſome ſoftening liquid, as barley water, or milk and water, or ſuch like; and if he cannot *ſwallow*, an aſſiſtant may now and then inject the like through a crooked tube that will reach into the gullet: thus, not only abatement of inflammation is ſecured, but if when the injection is uſed, it be ſomewhat forcibly puſhed, it proves more ſucceſsful in looſening the obſtruction, than all attempts with inſtruments. When endeavours fail, and the body is left in the part, treat the patient as if labouring under an inflammatory diſeaſe; bleed, direct a low diet, apply a poultice round the patient's neck: the ſame treatment will be required, if an inflammation takes place in the part, though the obſtructing body be removed. A proper degree of agitation hath ſometimes ſucceeded in removing the obſtructing body, better than inſtruments. Thus, a blow on the back hath often forced up a ſubſtance that ſtuck in the gullet: but this is ſtill more proper and efficacious, when the ſubſtance falls into the wind-pipe; in this caſe, vomiting and ſneezing are to be excited. Pins which have ſtuck in the gullet, have been diſcharged by riding on a horſe or in a carriage. If the gullet is ſtrongly contracted, ſo that the patient cannot *ſwallow*, he may be ſupported by means of glyſters until relief is obtained. If there is danger of ſuffocation, the operation of bronchotomy may be had recourſe to. If an indigeſtible ſubſtance is forced into the ſtomach, the patient ſhould live on a mild, ſmooth diet, conſiſting chiefly of farinaceous matters, as puddings, ſoops, &c. carefully avoiding all irritating and heating things; and thus proceed until the required relief is obtained.

In the London Medical Obſervations and Inquiries, vol. iii. p. 7. is an account of a quill being ſwallowed, and extracted by means of a probang, with a thread or two paſſing from one end to the other, and faſtened to the ſponges which were connected with each end of this inſtrument.

In the Medical Muſæum, vol. ii. are ſeveral inſtances related of different bodies ſticking in the œſophagus, and the methods by which they were relieved. In the ſame volume it is obſerved, that many bodies, whoſe bulk and figure permit them to paſs eaſily through the inteſtines, are not much to be dreaded when they arive at the ſtomach, though they have paſſed the œſophagus with difficulty. Pieces of money of various ſizes have paſſed by the anus in a few days; pieces of lead, as bullets, &c. have done the ſame, though ſometimes they have been detained for years.

In the London Medical Tranſactions, vol. iii. p. 30, is an account of a crown-piece which a man ſwallowed; ſome time after, and on another account, an emetic was given him, but without any effect with reſpect to the crown-piece; but ſome weeks after he was taken with a ſickneſs and vomited ſeveral times, and in vomiting, brought up the crown piece without any pain, after its laying in his ſtomach from the 12th of March, 1771, to the 26th of November, 1772.

See Warner's Caſes in Surgery. Medical Muſeum, vol. ii. Haller's Phyſiology. London Med. Tranſ. vol. i. p. 165. ii. p. 90. iii. p. 30. Percival's Eſſays Med. & Exp. vol. ii. p. 141. Gooch's Caſes, vol. ii. p. 108. Lewis's Tranſlation of Hoffman's Practice of Medicine, vol. ii. p. 147, &c. London Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii. p. 7, &c. 85, &c.

DEGMOS, from *δακνω, to bite*. A biting pain in the orifice of the ſtomach, ſuch as is perceived in the heart-burn, &c.

DEHEB, or Dehebeb. Gold.

DEHENE. Blood.

DEHENES. Ink.

DEHENEZ. Roman vitriol.

DEJECTIO. A diſcharge of the excrements by ſtool. On prognoſtics from this evacuation, ſee Proſper Alpinus's Prefaces.

DEJECTORIA. Purging medicines.

DEINOSIS, from *δεινοω, to exaggerate*. Exaggeration. Hippocrates uſes this word with reſpect to the ſupercilia, where it imports their being enlarged.

DELACRYMATIVÆ, Delacrymatives. Medicines which dry the eyes by firſt diſcharging tears; ſuch are onions, &c.

DELAPSIO. A falling down of the anus uterus, or inteſtines; from *delabo, to ſlip down*.

DELATIO, i. e. Indicatio.

DELETERION, from *δηλεω, to injure*. Pernicious, or poiſonous.

DELIGATIO, from *de* and *ligo, to tie*. The application of bandages. The principal bandages are:

1. The uniting *bandage*, uſed in rectilinear wounds, made with a double headed roller, with a longitudinal ſlit in the middle, of three or four inches long. After dreſſing the wound, compreſſes ſhould be applied on each ſide of it, ſo as to preſs from the bottom to the lips of the wound, before the roller is applied, which by having one head paſſed through the ſlit, an opportunity will be given of drawing the lips of the wound together. The whole muſt be managed ſo as for the *bandage* to act equally. When wounds are ſtitched, this *bandage* ſupports the ſtitches, and prevents their tearing.

2. The retentive *bandage*. It is uſually the ſingle headed roller. It ſhould be applied, firſt on one ſide oppoſite to the wound, and brought round, ſo as to bring the lips of the wound cloſer. The contrary manner ſeparates the lips.

3. The expulſive *bandage*. It is a ſingle headed roller; it ſhould be applied by making the preſſure gradually leſs, by ſmall and even edgings, from the bottom of the wound to its orifices.

4. The tailed *bandage*. It is a linen cloth two or three times folded, and long enough to wrap, at leaſt, once and a half round the limb to which it is applied, and broad enough to ſpread farther than the injury extends. At each end, two notches are to be cut, deep enough to admit of the *bandages* wrapping cloſe about the limb; the notches ſhould be at equal diſtances, and, if the cloth is folded twice, each end will have nine ſlips, called tails; the two ends being alike ſlit, it is the eighteen tailed *bandage*. In many caſes, this *bandage* is more commodious than the roller, as it admits of viewing the limb, and dreſſing the wound without moving.

5. The triangular *bandage*. It is generally a handkercief doubled into that form. In common caſes it is uſed on the head, alſo as a ſupport to the teſticles when ſwelled, &c.

6. The nodoſe *bandage*. It is a double headed roller, made of a fillet four yards long, and about an inch and a half broad; it muſt be reverſed two or three times, ſo as to form a knot upon the part which is to be compreſſed; as when an hæmorrhage from a wound is to be ſtopped.

7. The quadrangular *bandage* is about three feet ſquare, or a little longer than broad. The French call it le grand couvre chef.

8. The capeline, or reflex *bandage*. It ſhould not be full four inches broad, ſometimes narrower, ſix or eight yards long. It muſt be ſo applied as to be ſmooth and even upon the part in neceſſary circulars and reflexers.

There are variety of other *bandages*; but the occaſion, and the genius of the ſurgeon, will generally beſt ſuggeſt in particular caſes, what mode of applying the *bandage* will be the moſt proper.

Beſides the above-named, there are the circular or annular, that is, when the upper rounds come exactly over the

the under. The obtuſe, or aſcia; the French call it doloires; it is when the rounds aſcend or deſcend upon each other in the form of a ſcrew. The repent; the French call it rampant; it is when the *bandage* is applied to the part affected, in rounds, ſeparate, and at a little diſtance from each other. The reflex, or reflected: the French call it renverſee; it is when the *bandage* muſt be inverted, and turn back as in thoſe applied to the legs, and where the part is of different thickneſſes. The expellent, or as the French call it, the expulſive *bandage*, is when it is applied to the legs to repel a ſwelling there, in which caſe it is applied firſt to the feet, and rolled upwards. The ſcapulary and napkin, is a piece of cloth four or ſix fingers broad, with a ſlit in the middle to paſs the head through, and long enough to reach from the bottom of the ſternum over the ſhoulders, and down the back, as low as the ſternum is before.

Whatever directions may be given concerning *bandages*, they fall ſhort of enabling a perſon dexterouſly to apply them; ſeeing them applied, and alſo being exerciſed in the application of them, are eſſentially neceſſary. See figures of *bandages*, and directions as circumſtantial as words perhaps can expreſs, in Heiſter's Surgery. Pott's Works.

DELIQUATIO. To melt. See SOLUTION.

DELIQUIUM, from *deliquo*, *to ſwoon*. This word ſignifies the ſame as LIPOTHIMIA, which ſee; alſo the ſolution of any body when expoſed to the air, as in making the ol. tart. per deliq.

DELIRIUM, from *deliro*, *to rave*, or *talk idly*. When the ideas excited in the mind do not correſpond to the external objects, but are produced by the change induced on the common ſenſory, the patient is ſaid to be *delirious*. The Greeks call it paraphreneſis. In the Engliſh there is no word for it, except light-headedneſs be admitted.

In madneſs, reaſon is deſtroyed; in fooliſhneſs, which the Greeks call moroſis, reaſon is defective; and in a *delirium*, reaſon is vitiated.

The paraphreneſis, or *delirium*, differs from a madneſs, in not being perpetual, which happens in *deliriums* without a fever.

Galen ſays, that *deliriums* are cauſed by the heat and acrimony of the fluid, but principally by yellow bile. See his de Sympt. Cauſ. lib. ii. Many other writers ſay that the bile is the cauſe. Dr. Shebbeare, in his Theory and Practice of Phyſic, attributes this diſorder to either an exceſs, or a defect of vital heat. As to preſages from *deliriums*, in theſe and many other caſes, no great danger is to be apprehended, whilſt the pulſe, the appetite, and reſpiration, are favourable.

DELIRIUM MANIACAM, i. e. Mania.

DELIRIUM MELANCHOLICUM, i. e Melancholia.

DELOCATIO, i. e. Luxatio.

DELPHINIUM, called alſo conſolida regalis, calcatrippa, delphinum majus, five vulg. Garden lark-ſpur, or lark's-heels.

It is a plant very common in our gardens, though not uſed with us in medicine. Boerhaave mentions nineteen ſpecies. It is annual; the flowers have a ſpur or heel behind them, whence their name. Raii Hiſt.

DELPHINUM PLATANI FOLIO. A name of the ſtaphis agria.

DELPHYS. The uterus.

DELTA. The name of the letter D in the Greek; alſo the external pudendum muliebre.

DELTOIDES MUSC. The deltoid muſcles, from Δ, the Greek D, and εἶδος, *likeneſs*. Some call theſe muſcles triangulares, others name them humerales. They riſe from the anterior edges of the extremities of the clavicles, which join the acromions; from the acromions, and from the ſpines of the ſcapulæ, and are inſerted into the middle of each os humeri reſpectively. They move the arm forward, upward and backward.

DEMENTIA. Madneſs, or a delirium.

DEMETRIOS, i. e. Cerealia.

DEMOCRATIS THERIACA. A theriaca deſcribed by Ætius.

DEMOTIVUS LAPSUS. Sudden death.

DEMULCENTIA MEDICAMENTA. Demulcent medicines. They are ſuch medicines as ſheath the acrimony of the humours, and ſo render them mild. Emollients are alſo *demulcents*; for they both obtund ſharp humours, and ſoften rigid fibres.

Demulcents are of two kinds, viz. general, which involve all kinds of acrids indiſcriminately, or ſpecificals, obtunding only a particular kind of acrimony.

The general ſort are, 1ſt, All oily bodies obtained by the expreſſion of fruits, or formed by boiling certain ingredients in water; the oil diſtilled from wax, and all animal fats. 2dly, All inſipid inodorous plants that yield no oil, taken in the form of emulſions, infuſions, decoction, &c. 3dly, All ſeeds from which an oil may be expreſſed. 4thly, The viſcid inſipid gums. 5thly, All the ſucculent and concreſcent parts of ſound animals (except the bile and urine) and all their glutinous parts.

The ſpecific demulcents, 1ſt, All terreſtrial abſorbents, which take up acids, and prevent their effects as ſuch; beſides theſe, the teſtaceæ, corals, crabs eyes, iron filings, &c. by theſe the corroſive mercury, and ſuch like poiſons, may be appeaſed. 2dly, All acids, with reſpect to alcalies. 3dly, All alcalies with regard to acids. 4thly, Ardent ſpirits, with regard to acids.

DEND. An abbreviation of dendrographia.

DENDE. The ſpecies of ricinus, called abelmoluch.

DENDR. An abbreviation of dendrographia, or dendrologia.

DENDROIDES. Plants that reſemble trees; they are alſo called arboreſcent.

DENDROLIBANUS. Roſemary.

DENDROMALACHE, i. e. Malva arboreſcens.

DENODATIO. Diſſolution.

DENS. A tooth. The teeth are uſually ſixteen in each jaw; they are divided into the body which is above the gum, and the root, or fang, which is within the ſocket of the jaw; the neck is the line of diviſion between the root and the body. They are made up of a boney ſubſtance and an enamel.

The enamel covers only the body of the *tooth*, i. e. that part which is out of the gums, as far as to its neck; it is not bone, for it is not vaſcular, nor capable of being injected: further, if animals are fed with madder, the boney part of the tooth will be injected, but the enamel will remain unaltered; or ſteep the enamel in a weak acid, and it will all become a powder; whereas when bone is thus ſteeped, a ſoft griſtly part remains.

Each root is hollow for the admiſſion of veſſels and nerves to paſs into the ſubſtance of the *teeth*, but theſe cavities grow leſs as we advance in years.

Oſſification begins in the body of a *tooth*, and is continued to the root, and there are as many points of oſſification as there are tubercles in the *tooth*. The long part of the *tooth* is the hardeſt part in the body, except the enamel which covers the *teeth*. Mr. John Hunter ſuſpects that the *teeth* when full grown, are not ſimply bone. He obſerves, that bones are tinged with the colouring matter of madder when they are complete and perfectly grown, if the animal is fed for a time with this root; and *teeth*, whilſt growing, receive this tinge, but not when they are perfected; in all other bones this red colour is in time carried out of them by abſorption, and they return to their original colour, but when a *tooth* hath had this colour given to it, which muſt be while it is growing, when it is perfected it never loſes it, which ſhews their want of the abſorbent ſyſtem, and therefore, moſt likely, of the vaſcular alſo. The rickets do not affect the *teeth*; for we never find them grow ſoft like the other bones, but they remain perfectly hard: laſtly, in old age, the other bones become brittle and waſte, but the *teeth* never do.

The *teeth* are divided into three claſſes, viz. the inciſores, canini, and molares. The inciſores, called alſo *dentes lactei*, and *dentes riſorii*, are the four anterior *teeth* in each jaw; they appear the firſt. The canini, or *dentes oculares*, are one on each ſide of the inciſores, in each jaw. The molares are five on each ſide of both jaws: Cicero calls them genuini. Sometimes, before twenty years of age, and ſometimes at five or ſix and twenty, the laſt of the grinders appear, and are called *dentes ſapientiæ* and *dentes genuini*. Mr. John Hunter divides and names them as follow; viz. from the ſymphiſis of the jaw on each ſide, are two INCISORES, which ſee. One Cuſpi-

tatus;

datus. See CANINI DENTES. Two, bicuſpides. See MOLARES. And, three, molares, the laſt of which is the *dens ſapientiæ*. See MOLARES.

The inciſores, canini, and the two firſt of the grinders, are formed at the birth, and are thoſe teeth which are ſhed. They uſually cut or appear about the ſeventh month, and are ſhed about the ſeventh year. The ſecondary *teeth* are formed in ſockets of their own, which are ſituated below the other ſocket. The three *dentes molares* on each ſide, do not come through the gums until all the firſt ſet of *teeth* are ſhed; then they come through with the ſecond ſet, and are never ſhed. Some people never have the *dentes ſapientiæ*. At three years of age, or thereabout, a child hath its firſt ſet of *teeth*, which are twenty.

There are generally as many protuberances on the body of the *teeth* as there are roots; but theſe latter ſometimes grow together, at other times they are divaricated, eſpecially on the upper jaw, where, not having a ſufficient depth, becauſe of the maxillary ſinus, they ſpread and are extracted with greater difficulty than thoſe on the lower jaw.

The fifth pair of nerves ſupply the *teeth* with branches, which are wrapped up with the blood veſſels by means of a membrane, and running under the *teeth*, enter into their cavities. From an attention to the fifth pair of nerves, and the parts to which they are diſtributed, many of the phenomena attendant on diſorders of the *teeth* may be accounted for. Mr. Moſs obſerves, in his Eſſay on the Management of Children, &c. that the *teeth*, when a child is born, are lodged in the ſockets in the jaw bones, and are covered with, and inveloped by a thin membrane that is very irritable, and ſenſible of pain. viz. the periоſteum of the *teeth*; ſo that when the *teeth* begin to grow, and emerge from their receſſes, or ſockets, they muſt neceſſarily diſtend, perforate, and force their way through this membrane, which, when upon the full ſtretch, from its ſenſibility, gives great pain, and occaſions fevers, ſtartings, and all the ſymptoms which happen during the time of breeding the *teeth*. As ſoon as this membrane is completely divided in that part by the *tooth*, or *teeth*, which then happens to be riſing, the child is relieved for the preſent, from the fever and other complaints, but which are ſubject to return upon the ſucceſſive riſing of the other *teeth*.

Diſorders in the *teeth* depend chiefly on a caries in them; an inflammation in the membrane which covers their roots, &c. and a defluxion of humours on the ſaid membrane: when a *teeth* is carious it often occaſions a fetid breath, and the air paſſing into, or any warm or cold ſubſtance touching it, pain is excited: relief is often obtained by filling the carious part with maſtich; but the beſt method is to extract the *tooth*. In caſe of an inflammation in the membrane which ſpreads itſelf about the roots of the *teeth*, bleeding or purging, according to the ſtate of the conſtitution, will be needful; warm barley water may alſo be held in the mouth, and ſuch other general methods may be uſed as are found to be uſeful in other inflammatory diſorders When a defluxion of humours give riſe to complaints in the *teeth*, purging will be peculiarly uſeful; bliſters may be applied behind the ears or on the back, and horſe-raddiſh or pellitory root may be held between the gums and cheeks, to excite a diſcharge of ſaliva. Beſides theſe general cauſes, a morbid quality induced into the general habit may give riſe to diſorders in the *teeth*, as happens in ſcorbutic and venereal patients, in which caſes, the method of cure will conſiſt in freeing the conſtitution from theſe kinds of complaints.

The tartareous cruſt which is ſecreted from the blood and lodged on the *teeth*, is ſpeedily removed by touching it with the ſpt. ſal. marin. and then waſhing it off with water.

On the *teeth*, and their diſorders, ſee Mr. John Hunter's Natural Hiſtory of the Human Teeth; Euſtachius de Dentibus, Hoffman de Dent. eorum Morb. & Cura; Hurlock on Breeding of Teeth; Brooks's, or the London Pract. of Phyſic.

DENS CABALLINUS, i. e. Hyoſciamus.

DENS CANINUS. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of the panicum.

DENS CANIS. Dog's tooth. Boerhaave mentions five ſpecies. The flower is ſhaped like that of a lily: the root is long, fleſhy, and formed ſomewhat like the *tooth* of a dog: the leaves reſemble thoſe of the cyclamen. The dried roots are commended as anthelminthic, but are not uſed with us.

DENS LEONIS, alſo called taraxacum, urinaria, piſs-a-bed, and dandelion. It is the leontodon taraxacum, or leontodon calyce ſquamis interne reflexis, foliis runcinatis denticulatis lævibus. Linn. It is a low plant, with long, narrow, deeply indented leaves, lying on the ground; among which ariſes a ſingle, naked, hollow pedicle, bearing a large, yellow, floſculous flower; the flower is followed by ſmall ſeeds, covered with a tuft of long down: the root is oblong, ſlender, yellowiſh, or brownith on the outſide, and white within. It is perennial, common in uncultivated places, and flowers from April to the end of ſummer.

The roots, ſtalks, and leaves, abound with a milky juice, that is bitteriſh, but of no particular flavour. They are mildly detergent, and aperient, but more powerful than the cichoreum ſylveſtre. Boerhaave highly commends it as a reſolvent. But the more immediate and ſenſible operation of this plant is to looſen the belly, and promote urine, which it does without heating.

As neither the plant nor its preparations keep well, the beſt method of uſing it is as a part of diet, and to eat the roots as freſh as they can be had.

Boerhaave takes notice of twelve ſpecies. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

DENS LEONIS. A name of the auricula muris.

DENS LEONIS. Foliis integris, &c. Hungarian hawkweed.

DENS SERPENTIS, i. e. Gloſſopetra.

DENSITAS. Denſity. It is that property in any body which is oppoſite to rarity, whereby it contains ſuch a quantity of matter under ſuch a bulk. But in medical writings, *denſeneſs* ſometimes means frequency, and is applied to the pulſe, and to reſpiration.

DENTAGRA, from *ὀδους, a tooth*, and *ἀγρα a ſeizure*. It is uſed both to ſignify the gout in the *teeth*, and an inſtrument for drawing them.

DENTALE. See DENTALIUM.

DENTALE VIRIDE STRIATUM, i. e. Entalium.

DENTALIS LAPIS. It is the tartareous matter which is formed about the teeth in the likeneſs of a ſtone.

DENTALIUM, i. e. Entalium.

DENTALIUM, alſo called dentale, autalis, tubulus dentalis, and tooth-ſhell. It is the ſhell of a ſmall ſea-fiſh; it is oblong, ſlender, and of a whitiſh, greeniſh, or reddiſh colour, about two inches long, ſtriated, and marked with two or three bands about it. As a medicine, the oyſter-ſhell may be ſubſtituted for it.

DENTARIA, called alſo coralloides, ſeptifolia, ſet-foil-toothwort, and coral-wort. This plant hath a long pod, full of round ſeeds; when this pod is ripe, its valves are twiſted into a ſpiral form, and diſcharge the ſeeds with violence. The root is ſquamous, fleſhy, and denticulated. It flowers in April. The root is drying and aſtringent.

DENTARIA. A name of the orobanche, and of the plumbago.

DENTARPAGO. The inſtrument called dentagra.

DENTATA. So the ſecond vertebra of the neck is called. It is remarkable for its proceſs, which is called proceſſus dentatus, which plays in the hollow of the anterior arch of the vertebra above it, (called Atlas). From the ſides of the proceſſus dentatus, the ligaments go off to attach it to the atlas, and from its point a ſtrong one is ſent out to the os occipitis.

DENTATA. Dentated. In botany, a dentated leaf is one that is notched at the edges, with a number of blunt points reſembling teeth.

DENTELLARIA, i. e. Plumbago.

DENTES COLUMELLARES. In Varro and Pliny, they are the ſame as Varro elſewhere calls dentes canini.

DENTES GENUINI. Cicero calls the molares thus; but they are the teeth called ſapientiæ.

DENTES LACTEI, i. e. Dentes inciſores.

DENTES OCCULARES. Eye-teeth. See DENS. They are thus named, becauſe that extracting them is ſuppoſed to injure the eyes.

DENTES RISORII, i. e. Dentes inciſorii.

DENTICULATA. A name of the moſchatellina foliis ſumariæ bulboſæ.

DENTICULATUS. In botany, the ſame as dentates.

DENTICULI ELEPHANTIS. See ENTALIUM.

DENTIDUCUM, i. e. Dentagra.

DENTIFRICIUM, from *dentes tricare, to rub the teeth*. Dentifrices. Medicines for cleaning the teeth. The moſt effectual *dentifrices* are the mineral acids, the beſt of which is the ſpt. ſal. marin. next is the ſpt. vitriol. But the ſpt. nitri ſhould never be uſed, for it deſtroys the enamel of the teeth.

DENTILLARIA. Lead-wort.

DENTISCALPIUM, or Dentiſcalpra. An inſtrument for ſcraping off the cruſt which is formed on foul teeth. In Oribaſius, it is an inſtrument for ſeparating the gums from the teeth.

DENTITIO. Dentition, or breeding of teeth. Sauvage, in his Syſtem of Noſology, makes this a ſpecies of Odontalgia. Cullen makes *dentitio* ſynonymous with odaxiſmus; but does not admit it as a diſeaſe. See ODAXISMOS.

Children often ſuffer much uneaſineſs from the cutting of their *teeth*. Yet *teething* is not properly a diſeaſe. Whatever dangerous ſymptoms may occaſionally attend this proceſs of nature, they are owing to ſome accidental diſorder attendant on the child. Plenitude is generally the morbid habit, which is productive of fatal conſequences during *dentition*. In this caſe, bleeding, and a frequent repetition of ſolutives, muſt be uſed. If a morbid acrimony in the blood is attendant, the pain will be increaſed, which attends this ſtate; in which caſe, alteratives adapted to the caſe muſt be preſcribed.

If there is much fever, and a *tooth* is ready to cut, an inciſion may be made in the gum, to remove its tenſion.

A troubleſome cough is oft an attendant on *teething* children; in which caſe, a plaſter of Burgundy pitch, applied to the nape of the neck, is of conſiderable ſervice. A freſh one may be applied when the firſt begins not to adhere.

When children are vigorous, they cut their *teeth* earlier; weakly children, particularly thoſe that are diſpoſed to the rickets, are later before their *teeth* appear. Mr. J. Hunter ſays, that weakneſs and diſeaſe in the body does not affect the *teeth*.

A ſlavering, or a diarrhœa, are favourable ſymptoms during the time of cutting the *teeth*. Children attended with theſe ſymptoms, are rarely diſturbed with any of the violent diſorders, ſuch as convulſions, &c. See Hurlock's Treatiſe on Dentition. Mr. John Hunter's Nat. Hiſt. of the Human Teeth.

Hoffman obſerves, that the *teeth* appear in ſome in the ſeventh month, in others later, as in the ninth, or even the twelfth; the fore-teeth are generally cut firſt, from the friction of the nipple; next, the eye *teeth*; and, laſtly, the grinders. In ſome, this proceſs gives but little uneaſineſs; in others, it is accompanied with very troubleſome ſymptoms. In difficult *dentition*, the child is preternaturally hot, cries immoderately, ſtarts in his ſleep, often applies his hand to his mouth, ſucks with eagerneſs, and even bites the nipple. The gums ſwell, and look whitiſh and reddiſh; the ſaliva is copiouſly diſcharged, and often hangs viſcid from the mouth; the belly either coſtive or over looſe. Sometimes acute fevers; convulſive and epileptic motions; diſtortions of the jaws, and other violent ſymptoms are joined, different in different ſubjects, according to the difficulty of the eruption of the *teeth*, or the ſenſibility of the child. Amongſt the prognoſtics, he ſays, that thoſe who are plethoric, ſleepy, coſtive; alſo thoſe who are ſeized in *dentition* with a cough, who are of great ſenſibility, or an hereditary paſſionate diſpoſition, have the moſt to fear. Hippocrates obſerves, that thoſe who are attacked by the acute fever, eſcape convulſions; and that the *teething* is eaſieſt in winter. The principal indications of cure are, to abate the pain and inflammation, and to ſoften and relax the gums. If the belly is not naturally lax, it ſhould be kept ſo. A ſpontaneous looſeneſs is ſalutary, and ſhould not be checked; if it is, convulſions, and other threatening ſymptoms, are then much more apt to ſucceed.

Moſs, in his Eſſay on the Management of Children, &c. remarks, that the time of cutting the firſt *teeth* is uncertain; it ſometimes happening in the third or fourth month; at others, not until the ſixteenth or eighteenth; but that, in general, it it about the ſeventh or ninth. He adds, that there are two ſtages or periods of *teething*, which it becomes needful to attend to: the firſt is the time of breeding; and the ſecond, the time of cutting the *teeth*. The firſt, or breeding the *teeth*, commonly begins about the third or fourth month; it may be known by a copious diſcharge of ſaliva from the child's mouth taking place; its being pleaſed with having its gums rubbed with a finger, or other harder ſubſtance; its becoming more fretful, &c. If now there is great heat, thirſt, fever, a dulneſs and drowſineſs, with frequent ſtartings when aſleep, it will be neceſſary to procure a few ſtools, and to keep the bowels lax, if they are not already ſo; if a looſeneſs at this time attends, though it is ſomewhat ſevere, it ſhould not be checked. The griping which ſometimes attends this looſeneſs, is generally abated by the uſe of a little magneſia. When the drowſineſs, ſtarting, and feveriſhneſs abovenamed comes on, bleeding with leeches will be ſingularly uſeful. Two leeches may be applied to the feet every, or every other day, until theſe ſymptoms abate. During the thirſt, if the children crave ſweetened drinks, liquorice may be boiled in the water which is given, as it does not increaſe this troubleſome ſymptom. After the bleeding, bliſters behind the ears or on the back are not to be omitted. The antimonial emetics ſhould be repeated now and then until the fever is removed. Should convulſions come on, the above treatment will be alſo well adapted to relieve. A diſcreet uſe of anodynes are an important addition in this inſtance. The ſecond ſtage or period of *teething*, is that of cutting the *teeth*; this uſually begins about the ſeventh or ninth month: in this, the ſymptoms and management are in general the ſame as thoſe of the firſt period. That it may be noted, that a child who a little before was pleaſed with having his gums rubbed, will now ſeldom ſuffer any thing hard to touch them; for when a *tooth* is upon the point of coming through the gum, the gum is exceeding ſore, and ſenſible of pain from the lighteſt touch. It may be known that a *tooth* is near cutting, when the gum, in one particular part, where a *tooth* or *teeth* may be expected to come, appears fuller and more diſtended than uſual, and than the other parts of the gums are; the gum in that part looks red and inflamed at the bottom or baſe, but is paler or whiter at its point or edge; and when the *tooth* is very near cutting, the edge of the gum ſeems as if it had a flat, white bliſter upon it, and appears thicker and broader than the edges of the gums are in other places: at this time, if any alarming ſymptoms come on, cutting the gum over the edge of the approaching *tooth* will be a ſpeedy and often an effectual means of relief. Sometimes though, in cutting the gum, the ſymptoms abate, the *tooth* does not appear until ſome days, or perhaps weeks after; nay, ſometimes the gum heals, and the former uneaſy ſymptoms return; which, for their relief, require the cutting to be repeated, and that ſeveral times before the *tooth* will completely appear. It is a miſtaken notion, that repeated cutting the gum, renders it harder, for the contrary happens; on which, ſee Mr. John Hunter's Practical Treatiſe on the Diſeaſes of the Teeth, p. 121.

DENTO. One whoſe teeth are prominent to a great degree, or who is full-mouthed.

DENTODUCUM. The inſtrument called dentagra.

DENUDATIO. Denudation. It is ſpoken of bones that are laid bare by the fleſh being torn off them.

DEOBSTRUENS, *de* priv. and *obſtruo, to obſtruct*. Deobſtruent. They are ſuch medicines as open obſtructions. They are the ſame as aperients.

DEOPPILANTIA. Deoppilatives, i. e. Deobſtruents.

DEPART. In chemiſtry, it is a method of refining, or ſeparating gold from ſilver, by means of aqua fortis. It is alſo called quartation.

DEPASCENS (Ulcus.) Depaſcent ulcer. i. e. Phagedæna, and herpes miliaris.

DEPERDITIO, i. e. Abortus.

DEPETIGO. A kind of itch, in which the ſkin is rough.

DEPHLEG-

DEPHLEGMATIO. Vinous ſpirits are ſaid to be dephlegmated, or rectified, when well freed from their watery parts.

DEPILATORIUM. Depilatory. Medicines which take off the hair, ſuch as quick-lime, orpiment, &c. There are three kinds of *depilatory* medicines; 1. The pſilothra, or *depilatoria*, by way of eminence; 2. Thoſe which thin the hair; and, 3. Thoſe which are corroſive, and extirpate the hair.

DEPILIS, i. e. Athrix.

DEPLUMATIO. An affection of the eye-lids, with a callous tumour, which cauſes the hair to fall off. Ætius ſays it is a diſorder of the eye, conſiſting of a madaroſis and ſclerophthalmia.

DEPREHENSIO, i. e. Catalepſis.

DEPRESSIO. A depreſſion. In ſurgery this word generally ſignifies particularly a ſinking inwards of ſome part of the ſkull, which happens from an external violence by which the bone is fractured. This injury is expreſſed by ſome by the words impreſſio, introceſſio.

In this caſe, the ſame ſymptoms may attend as are obſerved in an extravaſation within the ſkull, and are cauſed by the ſame means, viz. mechanical preſſure; they differ widely from thoſe of a concuſſion of the brain. See CONCUSSIO.

Dr. Hunter ſeems to think, that it is almoſt impoſſible to raiſe a *depreſſion* of this kind, becauſe the fracture is more extenſive in the inſide than the outer one, and the ſpiculæ can never be brought exactly to fit each other. However, as according to Hildanus and Van-der-Weil, ſome ſkulls have been ſo ſoft as to be *depreſſed* without being fractured, ſucceſs may be expected at leaſt in ſome caſes; and where the bones are ſoft and yielding, they may be raiſed by means of a ſtring faſtened to an adheſive plaſter, which may be applied to the *depreſſion* after ſhaving the part. But after all, if their elevation was eaſily practicable, it would be unwarrantable, in general, to be contented with mere elevation; for all the ills attending and following ſimple fractures, are more likely to happen from *depreſſed* pieces of bone; therefore, removing the *depreſſed* pieces, is the only right intention to be purſued.

DEPRESSOR, from *deprimere*, *to pull*, or *draw down*. In anatomy, a name applied to ſeveral muſcles, becauſe they *depreſs* the parts they are faſtened to.

DEPRESSORES ALÆ NASI. The depreſſors of the wings of the noſe. They ariſe from the upper jaw bone outwardly, where the gums cover the ſockets of the dentes inciſores and canini, and are inſerted into the root of the *wing of the noſe*, advancing up the ſide of the *wing* a little way; they pull the *alæ* downwards.

DEPRESSOR ANGULI ORIS. A name given by Albinus to the depreſſor labiorum communis. It riſes from the outer part of the lower edge of the lower jaw, at the ſide of the chin, and is continued outwardly, to the greater zygomaticus, to the naſalis of the upper *lip*, and thence into the outer part of the orbicularis, where it ſurrounds the upper lip at the corner of the *mouth*. It extends and joins the elevator of the corner of the *mouth*.

DEPRESSOR COSTARUM. They are ſo ſimilar to the levatores longiores as to need no farther deſcription, only (as their name imports) their office is the reverſe of the other.

DEPRESSOR EPIGLOTIDIS. It riſes from the ligament on the thyroid cartilage on its fore part on each ſide, and is inſerted in the *epiglottis*, near its baſis, on each ſide.

DEPRESSOR LABIORUM COMMUNIS, i. e. Depreſſor anguli oris.

DEPRESSORES LABII INFERIORIS, alſo called quadratus. They ariſe fleſhy on each ſide of the chin, march obliquely, and croſſing each other, they terminate together in the whole edge of the *lip*, where it grows red.

DEPRESSOR LABII SUPERIORIS, called alſo triangularis. It riſes from the ſockets of the inciſores, runs to the ſuperior part of the *upper lip*, and ſome fibres run on to the noſe.

DEPRESSORES MAXILLA INFERIOR. See DIGASTRICUS and PLATYSMA MYOIDES.

DEPRESSOR OCULI, called alſo humilis, rectus inferior, and rectus deprimens, muſculus inferior. It riſes tendinous from the back part of the ſocket, cohering in ſome meaſure with the covering of the *optic* nerves, and is inſerted into the fore part of the ſclerotica, after running under the *eye*.

DEPRESSOR SUPERCILII, i. e. Corrugator Coiterii

DEPRESSORIUM. An inſtrument which is uſed for depreſſing the dura mater after the operation of the trepan.

DEPRIMENS, i. e. Depreſſor. It is alſo a name of the depreſſor oculi.

DEPURATIO. Depuration. It is the freeing of any fluid from all heterogeneous matter or feculence. This operation is of three kinds: 1ſt, Decantation, which can only take place where a difference is in the ſpecific gravities of what conſtitutes the mixture; whence that which is the heavieſt falls to the bottom, and the lighter part is ſeparated from it by decantation or pouring off: when fluids are to be ſeparated from oils, a tritorium, or ſeparatory glaſs, is uſed. 2dly, Deſpumation; this is performed by adding the whites of eggs, or other ſuch viſcid matter, to the fluid to be clarified, and, after a perfect commixture, making them coagulate by means of heat, and thus carrying to the ſurface all the heterogenous matter; the impurities are then, with the concreted viſcid matter, ſeparated with a ſpoon. This is alſo called clarification. 3dly, Filtration, percolation, or colature; it is performed by paſſing, without preſſure, the fluid to be purified through ſtrainers of linen, flannel, or paper, which retaining the feculence, permits only the clearer fluid to paſs through.

When flannel is uſed, it is commonly formed into a cone, called Hippocrates's ſleeve, and its baſe is hung on three props, with the cone downwards; it is then filled with the liquor, which gradually drops from the apex: it is generally uſed when the matter muſt be paſſed through whilſt hot.

When paper is uſed for filtering through, it muſt be ſupported by fitting it to a funnel, or by laying it on a linen ſtrainer, in a ſieve, or other ſuch like convenience. When paper is fitted to a funnel, ſtraws ſhould be placed here and there betwixt them.

Diſtillation and ſublimation are practiſed in the caſe of ſpirits and ſalts with a view to *depuration*, and the operation is called in theſe caſes rectification.

DEPURATORIA FEBRIS. Depuratory fever.

A name given by Sydenham to a fever which prevailed in the years 1661 and 1664. He called it *depuratory*, becauſe he obſerved that nature regulated all the ſymptoms in ſuch a manner as to fit the febrile matter for expulſion in a certain time, either by a copious ſweat, or a free perſpiration. See Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham's Works.

DERAS. Δέρας, a ſheep-ſkin. The title of a book in chemiſtry, treating of the art of tranſmuting baſe metals into gold. It is wrote on ſheep-ſkins.

DERBIA, i. e. Impetigo.

DERMA, Δέρμα, i. e. Deras.

DERIVATIO. Derivation. In medicine it is when a humour which cannot conveniently be evacuated at the part affected, is attracted from thence, and diſcharged elſewhere; thus, a bliſter is applied to the neck to draw away the humour from the eyes.

The doctrine of *derivation* and revulſion ſo much talked of by the ancients is, in their ſenſe of theſe terms, wholly exploded. By revulſion they meant the driving back of the fluids from one part to another. The only rational meaning of the word revulſion, as here applied, can have is, the preventing too great an afflux of humours to any part, either by contracting the area of the veſſels, or diminiſhing the quantity of what flows from them; the firſt of theſe intentions is anſwered by the application of repellents to the part; the laſt by bleeding and other evacuations: thus, any medicines promoting the ſecretions, may be ſaid to make a revulſion, and in this ſenſe *derivation* can only be underſtood.

DERMATODES, from Δέρμα, a *ſkin* or *leather*, and εἶδος, *likeneſs*. Leather-like. An epithet of the dura mater.

DERTRON. Fœſius ſays it is the abdomen or omentum; Linden and Coronarius ſay it is the ſmall inteſtines.

DESCENSIO. It is ſpoken of the gentle and moderate motion of the body, or of the humours downwards.

The

The chemists call it distillatio per descensum when the fire is applied to the top and all round the vessel, whose orifice is at the bottom, and the vapours consequently driven there. Liquifying salts by exposing them to the air, as in making the ol. tart. per deliq. is also a sort of distillatio per *descensum*.

DESCENSUS, i. e. Descensio.

DESCENSORIUM. The furnace in which the distillatio per descensum is performed.

DESESSIO. Celsus uses this word for sitting on a close-stool.

DESICCATIO. Drying. The chemists also refer it (though improperly) to calcination.

DESICCATIVUM. Deliccative, from *desicco, to dry*. In pharmacy it is applied to such topical medicines as *dry* up the humours flowing through a wound. See EPULOTICA.

DESIDIA OBLIVIO, i. e. Lethargy.

DESIPIENTIA. The symptomatic phrenitis.

DESME, from δέω, *to tie or bind*. This word occurs in Moschion, and signifies the same as maniplus, fasciculus.

DESMIDION. It is a diminutive of *desme*, so signifies a small handful.

DESMOS. In Hippoc. de Fract. this word signifies an affection of the joint after a luxation, in the manner of a tye or ligature, whereby they are rendered incapable of bending or stretching out. It proceeds from inflammation.

DESPUMATIO, from *despumo, to scum*. Despumation. See DEPURATIO.

DESQUAMATIO, from *de, privative*, and *squama, the scale of a fish*. To take off scales. By a metaphor it is applied to a foul bone, the laminæ of which rise like *scales*: it is the same as exfoliation. Sometimes it signifies the same as abrasio.

DESQUAMATORIUM. An epithet of a trepan, called also exfoliativum, for a brading part of the cranium.

DESTILLATIO, i. e. Distillatio.

DESUDATIO. See EPHIDROSIS.

DESUDATIO. Desudation. A profuse sweat succeeded by an eruption of pustules, called sudamina, hidroa, or heat-pimples.

DESURRECTIO, i. e. Desessio.

DETENTIO, i. e. Catalepsis.

DETERGENS, from *detergeo, to wipe off*. Deterging. The same as abstergens. See ABSTERGENTIA. *Detergents* differ only in degree of efficacy from vulneraries. They have more subtil parts, and so are more fit to mix with, to attenuate, and wear away the contents of abscesses and ulcerations, and such viscid humours as adhere to and obstruct the vessels.

DETERIORATIO. Deterioration. The impairing or rendering a thing worse; it is the opposite of melioration.

DETERSORIUM. The apartments at baths where the sweat was scraped off.

DETERSORIUS. The same as absterstive. See ABSTERGENTIA.

DETONATIO. Detonation, from *detono, to make a great noise*. In chemistry it is that noise and explosion which any substance makes upon the application of fire to it. It is also called fulmination; but *detonation* is a less degree of thundering noise; it is a crackling noise, and less explosive than the fulminating noise. See CALCINATIO. As nitre is the cause of most explosions, the word *detonation* hath been appropriated chiefly to the inflammation of the acid of this salt with bodies containing phlogiston; and it is frequently given to those inflammations of nitrous acid, which are not accompanied with explosion. See Dict. of Chem.

DETRACTIO. See CATHÆRESIS.

DETRAHENS QUADRATUS, i. e. Platisma myoides.

DETRACTOR AURIS, i. e. Abductor auris.

DETRITIO. See RHACOSIS. In a general sense it is taken for trituration, from *detero, to rub off*.

DETRUSOR URINÆ, from *detrudere, to thrust or squeeze out of*. Douglas divides the muscular covering of the bladder into two distinct muscles; the longitudinal fibres he calls the *detrusor urinæ*, which he describes as arising from the prostate gland going round the fundus, and being lost in the gland again; the oblique fibres he calls constrictor, and describes it as running obliquely under the other. But Dr. Hunter says, it is plain that there are no other regular muscles, and this distinction is merely artificial.

DEUNX. An eleven ounce measure or weight. See CYATHUS.

DEURENS FEBRIS, i. e. Causos.

DEUSTIO. See ENCAUMA.

DEUTERIA. A poor kind of wine, which the Latins call lora. Also, adhesion of the placenta.

DEUTERINAS, i. e. Deuteria, from δεύτερος, *secundus*.

DEUTERION. The secundines.

DEVALGATUS, i. e. Blæsus.

DEXAMEME. Any receptacle, but particularly the labrum or solium, that is, a deep bason in which bathers might swim. It was also called colymbethra and embasis.

DEXTANS. A ten ounce measure or weight. See CYATHUS.

DIA, διά. The beginning of several terms in medicine; and when the name of any thing begins with these three letters they signify composition, and the word with which they are compounded is the chief thing in the composition.

DIABACANU, from *bacanon*, a principal ingredient in it. An hepatic remedy mentioned by Trallian.

DIABEBOS. The ankle bones. Hippocrates uses this word.

DIBESASA, from διὰ and βήσσα, *wild rue*. The name of a preparation, in which is *rue*.

DIABETES, from διαβαίνω, *to pass off or through*. That disorder in which what is drank suddenly passes off, and is evacuated almost crude. Or it is an excessive discharge of crude urine, exceeding the quantity drank. Boerhaave, in his Institutes, says, it is a frequent copious discharge of lacteous urine, in conjunction with an extraordinary thinness of the humours.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of disease in the class neuroses, and order spasmi. He notices two species, 1st, Diabetes mellitus, when the urine hath the colour, odour, and taste of honey. 2d, Diabetes insipidus, when the urine is limpid, and not sweet. Dr. Home defines it to be an extraordinary increase of the urine as to its quantity, and that of a sweetish taste; attended with perpetual thirst, and a dry skin, which for the most part is also scaly.

Lommius says that the seat of this disorder is in the kidnies; but this does not appear to be the case, and some difficulty attends the ascertaining it.

Youth is scarcely attended with this disorder: its most frequent subjects are those in the decline of life, who have been subject to a liberal use of wine in their youth, and who are also employed in the more violent kinds of business.

The causes are generally said to be, a relaxtion of the renal duct; too great a tenuity of the fluids; or obstructed perspiration: but perhaps, on maturer consideration, a defect of vital heat, and the concurrence of such accidents as determine the serum to the kidnies, are the real causes. The discharge is not a truly urinous one, no more than that through the skin in a hectic fever is of a truly perspirable kind.

Besides the frequent and too copious discharge of urine, it is generally insipid, though sometimes a sweetness both to the smell and taste is observed in it; thirst, an hectic heat, a weak but quick pulse, a gradual wasting of the flesh, and, after some time, an anasarcous tumidness comes on. Dr. Lister observes that it is slow in its approach; that in the beginning the mouth is dry, the saliva white and frothy, and an unusual heat is perceived in the bowels. If by accident the urine is suddenly checked, there follows a swelling of the loins, scrotum, legs and feet; and what urine is discharged passes off with pain, and thus death is soon ushered in.

The sweetness of the urine (which symptom is not constant, but generally when it does attend it only appears towards the end of the disease, or when death seems near at hand) is owing to the chyle passing unaltered into it, which,

which, as Dr. Morton obſerves, gives a ſweetneſs to the matter expectorated in the laſt ſtage of a phthyſis.

When recent, and the conſtitution of the patient not much injured, a cure is ſometimes effected; but if of long ſtanding, and there is a debilitated or otherwiſe diſordered habit, no hope of relief can be encouraged.

The general indications of cure are, 1. To increaſe the craſſamentum of the blood; and 2. To divert or reſtrain the preternatural diſcharge.

The diet ſhould be the ſame as in an hectic fever, viz. animal ſubſtances, ſuch as broth made of beef, ſhell-fiſh, milk often, and in ſmall quantities; and jellies; barley-water, in which the root of comfrey is boiled, and lime-water, may be the common drink.

Moderate exerciſe on horſeback, and dry friction of the whole body, aſſiſt in promoting perſpiration; and which, when excited, peculiarly tends to divert the diſcharge through the kidnies.

When unquenched lime is mixed with the ſerum of blood, it generates thoſe ſalts that are neceſſary to the true urinary diſcharge; and if lime-water is drank as freely as the thirſt requires it, its efficacy exceeds that of Briſtol water in the cure of a *diabetes*, notwithſtanding the latter is eſteemed as a ſpecific: but, in order to this advantage from lime-water, it muſt be drank while the heat continues, which it poſſeſſes from the lime being quenched in the water.

At proper intervals, during the uſe of lime-water as above directed, the elix. vitr. cort. Peruv. limat. mart. and whatever can improve the craſis of the blood, may alſo be adminiſtered.

A flannel ſhirt may be worn to ſolicit a diſcharge through the ſkin. The tincture of cantharides is ſaid by Dr. Morton, to be a ſpecific in this complaint. Others prefer the ſerum aluminoſum, made as ſtrong as the ſtomach will bear it, and direct half a pint to be taken night and morning. With others, the vitr. cœrul. gr. ſs. given twice a day, diſſolved in any agreeable liquor, is moſt depended on. When the means firſt propoſed are unſucceſsful, recourſe may be had to theſe, or ſuch other means as experience may ſuggeſt. Rhubarb is found to be of ſingular advantage, and from the ſucceſs which follows on the uſe of antiſpaſmodics, joined with other means, a ſpaſm in the ducts, through which ſome other excretions are conveyed, rather than an irritation in the kidnies, may be a principal cauſe of this malady.

See Aretæus, Lommius, Boerhaave, Sydenham, Liſter, Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic, Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii. p. 274, &c, vol. v. p. 298. Buchan's Domeſtic Medicine; Brooks and London Practice of Phyſic.

DIABOLUS METALLORUM. A name of tin, becauſe when incorporated with other metals, they are not reduced but with the greateſt difficulty.

DIABOLI INTESTINA, i. e. Dodder.

DIABOTANUM, from *βοτανη*, an *herb*. The name of a plaſter prepared of herbs.

DIABROSIN. See Anastomosis.

DIABROSIS, i. e. Anabroſis. Alſo a corroſion, either by any medicine or humour, from *διαβρωσκω, to eat through*.

DIACADMIAS. The name of a plaiſter, whoſe baſis is cadmia.

DIACALAMINTHES. The name of an antidote whoſe baſis is calamint.

DIACARCINON, from *καρκινος*, a *crab* or *crayfiſh*. The name of an antidote prepared of theſe kinds of fiſh.

DIACARYON, from *καρυον*, a *wall nut*. Rob of wallnuts.

DIACASSIA, i. e. Electarium e caſſiâ.

DIACASTORIU, from *καστορεον caſtor*. A name of an antidote whoſe baſis is caſtor.

DIACATHOLICON. Sometimes it is called catholicon, from *δια, of*, and *καθολικος, univerſal*. The univerſal purge. Originally it was preſcribed by Nicolaus, and was an electary, which he propoſed as a purge ſuited to carry off all kinds of humours.

DIACELTATESSON. A name given by Van Helmont to a purging preparation of antimony. It is alſo a term in Paracelſus; he ſeems to mean a vomit excited by Mercury. According to ſome, this word ſignifies quickſilver diſſolved in alcaheſt.

DIACENOS, from *κενος, empty, void*. An epithet of porous bodies, ſuch as ſponge, pumice ſtone, &c.

DIACENTAURION. So Cœlius Aurelianus calls a preparation which is the ſame as the pulv. arthrit. ducis Portlandii.

DIACENTETON. The name of a collyrium in Celſus. It is ſo called from *κερας*, a *horn*, becauſe burnt hartſhorn is a principal ingredient.

DIACHALASIS, from *διαχαλαω, to be relaxed*. This word was formerly uſed to ſignify the opening of the ſutures of the cranium.

DIACHALCITIS. The name of a plaſter whoſe baſis is the chaleſtis.

DIACHEIRISMOS, from *χειρ*, a *hand*. It is any manual operation.

DIACHELIDONIUM, from *χελιδων*. A ſwallow. A preparation of ſwallows.

DIACHETON, i. e. Rhodium.

DIACHOREMA. All ſorts of excretions from the body, but more properly and frequently thoſe by ſtool.

DIACHORESIS. See Diachorema.

DIACHRISTA, from *χριω, to anoint*. In P. Ægineta, it ſignifies medicines that are applied to the fauces, palate, uvula, and tongue, to abſterge phlegm.

DIACHRYSU, from *χρυσος, gold*. The name of a plaſter mentioned by Galen, which was uſed when limbs were fractured.

DIACHYLON, from *δια, ex*, and *χυλος*, a *juice*. An emollient digeſtive plaiſter made of certain juices. This name is given to very different compoſitions for plaiſters, and is now the empl. commune of the London Diſpenſatory.

DIACHYLON COMPOSITUS, i. e. Empl. mucilag.

DIACHYSIS, from *χυω, to fuſe or melt*. Fuſion.

DIACHYTICA. In Dioſcorides, are medicines that diſcuſs, or diſſolve.

DIACHYTOS. An epithet of wine prepared of grapes that have been dried ſeven days, and were preſſed on the eighth.

DIACINEMA, i. e. Diacinema from, *διακινεω, to move*. A ſlight diſlocation.

DIACISSU. An acopon in Mar. Empericus is thus named from *κισσος, ivy*.

DIACLISIS, from *διακλαω, to break off*.

DIACLYSMA, from *κλυζω, to waſh out*, or *rinſe*. It generally ſignifies a gargariſm.

DIACOCCYMELON, from *κοκκυμηλον*, a *plum*. The ſame as diaprunum.

DIACOCHLACON, from *κοχλακες, flints*. An epithet of milk in which red hot flints have been extinguiſhed. Such milk is ſudorific.

DIACODIUM, from *δια, ex*, and *κοδεια*, a *poppy head*, i. e. Syr. e meconio.

DIACOLOCYNTHIDOS PILULÆ. Alex. Tralian's compoſition which bears this name is called pil. de nitro in the Auguſtan Diſpenſatory: they conſiſt of aloes, colocynth, nitre, &c.

DIACOLOCYNTHIS, from *colocynth*, which is the chief ingredient in the preparation.

DIACOMERON. The name of an antidote in Myrepſus.

DIACOPE, from *διακοπτω, to cut through*. A deep cut or wound, or the cutting off any part.

DIACOPRÆGIA, from *κοπρος, dung*, and *αιξ*, a *goat*. A preparation with *goat's dung* againſt diſorders of the parotids and ſpleen.

DIACORALIUM ALEXANDRI. A preparation of, or in which is corallia, i. e. male pimpernel. But the *diacoralium* of the London Diſpenſatory hath its name from the coral that is in it.

DIACRISIS, from *διακρινω, to judge or diſtinguiſh*. The judging of diſeaſes and ſymptoms. It is alſo a name for delphinum in Oribaſius.

DIACROCIUM. A name in Platerus for the elect. de ovo.

DIACROCU, from *κροκος, ſaffron*. The name of a dry collyrium in P. Ægineta, in which is *ſaffron*.

DIACURCUMA, from *curcuma*. A word which Fuchſius thinks Meſue uſed for ſaffron. A name of ſeveral antidotes in Myrepſus, of which ſaffron is an ingredient.

DIACYDONIUM. Marmalade of quinces.

DIADAPHNIDON, from *Δαφνις*, the *bay-tree* or *bay-berry*. The name of a drawing plaſter prepared of *bay-berries*.

DIADELPHIA. The ſeventeenth of Linnæus's claſſes of plants; in it is one ſtyle, and the filaments unite ſo as to form two bodies.

DIADEXIS, i. e. Metaſtaſis.

DIADOCHE, i. e. Diadexis.

DIADOSIS, from *Διαδίδωμι, to diſtribute*, or *diſſipate*. In medicinal authors it ſignifies to remit, though ſometimes it means the diſtribution of the aliment over all the body.

DIÆRESIS, from *Διαιρεω, to divide or ſeparate*. It is any ſolution of continuity.

DIÆRETICA, from *Διαιρεω, to divide*. Corroſive medicines.

DIÆTA. Diet. Though this word is often confined to what we eat and drink, yet Galen and moſt other medical writers include in it the whole of what are called the non-naturals. On this ſubject ſee Galen, whoſe work is the baſis of what hath been writ ſince his day; ſee Hoffman, Arbuthnot, and others, on the non-naturals.

DIAGLAUCIUM. The name of a collyrium recommended by Scrib. Largus. It is thus named from Glaucium, which according to Dioſcorides is the juice of a certain herb.

DIAGNOSIS, from *Διαγινωσκω, to diſcern* or *diſtinguiſh*. The diagnoſtics, or the ſigns of a diſeaſe. They are of two kinds, viz. the adjunct, and pathognomonic; the firſt are common to ſeveral diſeaſes, and ſerve only to point out the difference between diſeaſes of the ſame ſpecies; the latter are thoſe which always attend the diſeaſe, and diſtinguiſh it from all others.

DIAGRYDIUM, quaſi *Διαγρδιον*. A preparation of ſcammony. See SCAMMONIUM.

DIAHERMODACTYLU. A purging medicine, whoſe baſis is the hermodactyls.

DIAHEXAPALA, or Diahexapte, i. e. Laurus.

DIAION. The name of a paſtil in Myrepſus. Violets are its chief ingredient.

DIAIREOS. An antidote in Myrepſus in which is orris root.

DIALACCA. An antidote in Myrepſus, in which is the lacca.

DIALAGOOU. The name of a medicine, in which is the dung of a hare.

DIALEPSIS, from *Διαλαμβανω, to interpoſe*, or from *Διαλειπω, to leave a ſpace between*. To intermit. The ſame as apolepſis. Hippocrates means by it the ſpace left in a bandage for a fracture in which the dreſſings are applied to wounds.

DIALIBANON. A name of ſeveral medicines in which frankincenſe is an ingredient.

DIALOES. A compoſition in which is aloes.

DIALTHÆA. The name of an ointment in Myrepſus, from which the ointment of althæa, now in uſe, ſeems to have been taken.

DIALYSIS, from *Διαλυω, to diſſolve*, or *render languid*. A diſſolution of the ſtrength, or a weakneſs of the limbs. Alſo a diſcontinuity or diviſion of a part.

DIALYTICA. A ſolution of continuity, as in fractures, wounds, &c.

DIAMARENATUM, from *amarenæ*. Red ſub-acid cherries. Schroder has two compounds in which cherries are the baſis.

DIAMARGARITON. An antidote in which pearls are the chief ingredient.

DIAMASCIEN, i. e. Flos æris.

DIAMASSEMA, from *Διαμασσομαι, to chew*. A maſticatory.

DIAMBRÆ PIL. i. e. Pil. aromat.

DIAMBRÆ SPECIES, now called ſpecies aromaticæ. The preſcription is originally Meſue's, and had its name from the ambergreaſe which was in the compoſition.

DIAMELON. The name of a compoſition in which is quinces.

DIAMISYOS COLLYRIUM. A collyrium in which miſy is an ingredient.

DIAMNES. An involuntary diſcharge of urine, and that inſenſibly. This word is uſed by Joh. Anglicus.

DIAMORON. A preparation of mulberries and honey.

DIAMOSCHU. The name of an antidote in which is muſk.

DIAMOTOSIS, from *μοτος, lint*. The introduction of lint into a wound or ulcer.

DIANA. In chemiſtry is the ſilver of the philoſophers. It is alſo a name of ſilver.

DIANANCASMAS, from *ανανκη, force* or *neceſſity*. The forcible reſtitution of a luxated part into its proper place. Hippocrates calls an inſtrument thus, which is intended for reſtoring a diſtorted ſpine.

DIANDRIA. The ſecond claſs of Linnæus's claſſes of plants; in it there are one ſtyle and two filaments in each flower.

DIANTHON. The name of an antidote in Galen, from which it is probable that the ſpecies of *dianthus* was taken, which is thus made: ℞ Flor roriſm. ℥ i. roſar. R. & rad. glych. ā ā ʒ vi. caryoph. arom. ſpic. nard. nuc. moſch. rad. galangal. cort. cinnam. rad. zedoar. lign. aloes, ſem. card. min. ſem. anethi, ſem. aniſi, & macis ā ā ℈ iv. m.

DIAOPORON, from *οπωρα, autumnal fruit*. A compoſition in which are quinces, medlars, and ſervices.

DIAPASMA. See CATAPASMA.

DIAPEDESIN. See ANASTOMOSIS.

DIAPEDESIS, from *Δια, through*, and *πηδαω, to leap*. The tranſudation of blood though the coats of an artery.

DIAPENCIA. Rulandus ſays it is the alchimilla.

DIAPENSIA, i. e. Sanicula.

DIAPENTE. A compoſition ſo called becauſe it conſiſts of five ingredients. It is thus made: ℞ Rad. gentian. Ariſtol. Long. vel Rot. Raſ. Eboris; bac. laur. & myrrh. ā ā p. æq. m. f. pulv. Meſſue is ſaid to be its author, but Vegetius deſcribes it before.

DIAPEPEREON. An antidote mentioned in Galen.

DIAPHÆNICON. The name of an electary for purging off phlegm, &c.

DIAPHILEDONU. The name of an antidote in Myrepſus.

DIAPHLYXIS, from *Διαφλυζω, to moiſten*. In Galen's Exegeſis it is expounded by effuſions or ebullitions.

DIAPHŒNICON, from *φοινιξ*, a *date*. A medicine made of dates.

DIAPHORA, from *Διαφερω, to differ*. Difference. In medicine it comprehends the characteriſtic marks and ſigns which diſtinguiſh one diſeaſe from another. It alſo ſignifies a corruption of food in the ſtomach; and then is an inſtance of dyſpepſia, which ſee.

DIAPHORESIS, from *Διαφερω*, of *Δια, through*, and *φερω, to carry*. It is an elimination of the humours through the pores of the ſkin.

DIAPHORETICA. Diaphoretics. Medicines which promote perſpiration. *Diaphoretics*, called alſo perſpiratives, differ from ſudorifics, in that the former only increaſe the inſenſible perſpiration; the latter excite a ſenſible diſcharge through the ſkin, which is called ſweat. See SUDORIFICS.

One half of a ſudorific is generally a due doſe for a diaphoretic.

Hoffman obſerves, that *diaphoretics* are the beſt edulcorants, or ſweetners of the blood and humours.

DIAPHRAGMA. The *diaphragm*, from *Διαφραττω, to make a partition*, or *incloſure*; of *Δια, through*, and *φραττω, to cloſe*; or, from *Διαφραζω, interſepio*; becauſe it divides the cavity of the thorax from that of the abdomen. It is alſo called the midriff. Cœlius Aurelianus calls it the diſcrimen thoracis & ventris, becauſe it ſeparates the thorax from the belly. Pliny calls it the præcordia, becauſe it ſtands, he ſays, like a wall to defend the heart. Hippocrates, with many of the antients, call it *φρενες*; they alſo gave the name of *diaphragma* to the ſtrait places of the fauces, betwen the mouth and the œſophagus, terming it, by way of diſtinction the *diaphragm* by the œſophagus. Galen and Rufus Epheſius call the cartilaginous partition between the noſtrils and the *diaphragm* of the noſe. But the only part which is now called *diaphragma*, is that which ſeparates the thorax from the belly.

The *diaphagm* is compoſed of two muſcles; the ſmall one riſes by two tendons, called cruræ, from the ſecond lumbar vertebra, and receives a ſlip from the firſt vertebra of the loins, and from the ligament which joins the laſt

laſt rib to the vertebra; the two cruræ then run upwards and grow fleſhy. The large muſcle riſes from the inſide of the margin of the thorax, all round, from the falſe ribs to the xiphoid cartilage; its fibres ſhoot forwards, and form that triangular appearance called the centrum tendinoſum, or centrum nervеum. Winſlow calls it the middle aponeuroſis, or aponeurotic plane of the *diaphragm*: Meſſrs. Le Gare and de Bordeu call it centre phrenique. There is a notch between the cruræ of the leſſer muſcle, where the aorta paſſes. In the larger muſcle are two holes, one in the tendinous part, for the vena cava, which is ſituated there, becauſe, as the tendon is not capable of being contracted, the circulation will not be interrupted; the other hole is for the œſophagus, and is ſituated in the fleſhy part, which ſeems to be for this reaſon: that, as the *diaphragm* in its action preſſeth on the ſtomach, it might cauſe an evacuation of its contents, unleſs at the ſame time it was to ſerve as a ſphincter to the œſophagus, by reducing its cavity from an oval figure to a narrow ſlit; wherefore the *diaphragm* acts in this caſe as an antagoniſt to the abdominal muſcles, which contradicts that opinion, that vomiting is occaſioned by their joint action. From conſidering the attachment of the *diaphragm*, it will be ſeen that its action will be to render itſelf flat, and thereby to enlarge the cavity of the thorax; but if we regard it as acting round the viſcera as round the pully, we may conceive how it both depreſſes the viſcera, and raiſes the ribs; at the ſame time, ſtill more enlarging the cavity of the thorax. The veins are large, and go directly to the vena cava. The arteries are ſometimes immediately from the aorta, and ſometimes from the cœliac; a few twigs are received alſo from the lumbals and adipoſe. The nerves are from the plexus cervicalis on each ſide, and from the ſecond pair of the vertebræ.

In inſpiration, the *diaphragm* deſcends towards the belly; this is its proper motion, which, as a muſcle, is contraction. In expiration it is relaxed and drawn upwards, forming a concavo-convex figure, the concave ſide being towards the belly. It aſſiſts in the expulſion of the excrements and fœtus. It is in perpetual motion, and ſeems to have other and more important uſes in our conſtitution than as yet are clearly ſeen into. See Berdoe's Enquiry, p. 27 and 126.

DIAPHRAGMA. A name of the ſeptum ſcroti.

DIAPHRAGMATICÆ ARTERIÆ. The diaphragmatic arteries. They are alſo called the phrenic arteries. As ſoon as the aorta gets through the *diaphragm*, it ſends off two arteries thereto; though ſometimes the *diaphragmatic* arteries are branches of the cœliac, and ſometimes the right *diaphragmatic* artery riſes from the lumbar artery. The *diaphragmatic* arteries generally appear on the under ſide of the *diaphragm*, very rarely on the upper; they give ſmall branches to the glandulæ renales, and to the fat which lies on the kidneys; theſe latter are called adipoſæ. Beſides theſe capital *diaphragmatic* arteries, there are other leſſer ones from the intercoſtales, mammariæ internæ, mediaſtinæ, pericardiæ, and cœliacæ.

DIAPHRAGMATICÆ VENÆ. The diaphragmatic veins. They ſpring from the vena cava inferior juſt as it deſcends through the *diaphragm*: they appear generally on the lower ſide of the *diaphragm*. The left branch runs much upon the pericardium.

DIAPHRAGMATICÆ SUPERIORES VENÆ. The upper diaphragmatic veins. The right comes anteriorly from the root of the biſurcation, near the mediaſtina, and is ſpread about the pericardium: the left from the left ſubclavian.

DIAPHRAGMITIS. Inflammation of the diaphragm. In Cullen's Noſology, it is ſynonymous with pleuritis.

DIAPHTHORA, from διαφθειρω, *to corrupt*. In Hippocrates it ſignifies the corruption of the fœtus. An abortion.

DIAPHYLACTICOS, from φυλασσω, *to keep*. Preſervative or prophylactic.

DIAPHYSIS. An interſtice, a partition, or whatever intervenes between things. Galen explains it to be a nervous and cartilaginous protuberance in the middle of the joining of the os tibiæ with the os femoris, which enters that large ſinus, and makes a ſeparation between the lower heads and proceſſes of the os femoris, which are inſerted into the ſinus of the os tibiæ. This ſubſtance only appears in recent ſubjects. In other places, the diaphyſis is ſpoken of as a cavity, chink, &c. for the reception of ſome other part.

DIAPISSELÆON. A compoſition in which is liquid pitch as a chief ingredient.

DIAPLASIS, from πλασσω, *to form*; or from διαπλασσω, *to put together*, or *faſhion*. Confirmation. It ſignifies the replacing a luxated or fractured bone as near as may be to its proper ſituation.

DIAPLASMA. An unction or fomentation applied all over the body, from διαπλασσω, *to ſmear over*.

DIAPNE. An involuntary diſcharge of urine.

DIAPNOE, from διαπνεω, *to perſpire*. Perſpiration, from δια, *through*, and πνεω, *to breathe*.

DIAPOREMA, from διαπορεω, *to be in doubt*. Anxiety in diſtempers. The ſame as alyſmus.

DIAPRASIUM, from πρασιον, *horehound*; one of its ingredients.

DIAPRINUM. The name of two compoſitions in which are prunes: both are purging electaries. The elect. lenitiv. is uſed in their ſtead.

DIAPSORICUM. The name of a collyrium in Marcellus Empiricus.

DIAPTERNES, from πτερνα, *the heel*. A medicine made of the heels of animals and cheeſe.

DIAPTEROSIS, from πτερον, *a feather*. The cleaning of the ears with a feather.

DIAPYEMA, from πυον, *pus*. An abſceſs or ſuppuration.

DIAPYEMATA. Suppurating medicines.

DIAPYETICA. Suppurating medicines.

DIARRHODOMELI. The name of a compoſition of ſcammony, juice of roſes, &c.

DIARIA FEBRIS. A diary fever. It is the ſame as ephemeris. It is an inſtance of the ſynocha.

DIARHOCHÆ. The interſtices betwixt the circumvolutions of bandages.

DIAROMATICUM. A medicine compoſed of aromatics.

DIARRHAGE. A fracture in particular of the temple bones.

DIARRHODON. A name of many compoſitions in which roſes are an ingredient.

DIARRHŒA, from διαῤῥεω, *to flow through*; δια, *through*, and ῥεω, *to flow*. It is when the inteſtines are ſolicited to a too frequent diſcharge of their contents. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſis, and order ſpaſmi. He notices ſix ſpecies. 1. *Diarrhœa crapuloſa*; when the excrements are more fluid and more copious than is natural. 2. *Diarrhœa biliоſa*; when very yellow feces are copiouſly diſcharged. 3. *Diarrhœa mucoſa*; when the diſcharges abound with mucus. 4. *Diarrhœa cœliaca*; when the excrements are chylous, appearing milky. 5. *Diarrhœa lienteria*; when the aliment ſoon paſſes through, and but little altered. 6. *Diarrhœa hepatirrhœa*; when the diſcharges are crude and ſerous, and attended with very little pain. If attended with pain, it is ſometimes called a colic. When the evacuations are fluid, but partly indigeſted, it is called cœliacopaſſio. When the aliment is carried through the bowels, and ejected in an indigeſted ſtate, or nearly ſo, the diſorder is called lienteria. Theſe are only different degrees of the ſame diſorder.

Thoſe who have been rendered weak or irritable by a hot ſeaſon, or ſultry clime, or by being expoſed to a putrid vapour, are peculiarly liable to this diſeaſe.

The immediate cauſe is irritation in the inteſtines; but the cauſes of this preternatural irritation are numerous; the moſt frequent, are an undue uſe of purgatives, acidity, or putreſcency of the aliments; acrid bile; pus ſecreted from abſceſſes, and carried to the inteſtines; a laxity of the glands of the inteſtines; obſtructed perſpiration; putrid vapours; a tranſlation of the morbid matter of other diſeaſes to the inteſtines; paſſions of the mind, &c.

Whatever other ſymptoms occaſionally attend a *diarrhœa*, beſides a too copious and too frequent diſcharge of the inteſtines, they are not proper to it, but are accidental. The loſs of appetite, and of ſtrength, are conſequences of the exceſſive evacuations, or of ſome other attending

tending diſorder, ſickneſs, pain, &c. which in many caſes attend, are rather conjuncts with, than conſtituents of this morbid excretion. The diſcharges are various in different patients, and alſo in the ſame at different times. If there is a defluxion of watery humours, the looſeneſs is moſt urgent by night and after ſleep; if a diſorder in the meſentery or ſtomach is the cauſe, the diſcharges are mucous, and made chiefly in the day. An offending bile, when too freely emptied into the inteſtines, diſturbs in the night more than in the day. In violent caſes, ſkins appear in the ſtools like the coats of the inteſtines; theſe are pieces of the cuticle, which lines the rectum, &c. and in this diſorder is ſeparated and thickened, then caſt out of the body.

While the patient's ſtrength is but little affected by a *diarrhœa*, it may be generally looked on as a ſalutary, rather than morbid evacuation; but ſometimes if neglected, or ill-treated, a dyſentery is the conſequence, and the cure is difficult. When paſſions are the cauſe, the cure is alſo tedious. Fevers ſometimes terminate in *diarrhœas*, in which caſe, if they abate in a day or two, their effects are ſalutary; but if they continue, they ſometimes prove fatal. When a looſeneſs abates and returns, accompanied with a fever, it is generally troubleſome, and ſometimes much danger attends it. Copious, as well as frequent, diſcharges, ſubject the patient to fainting. If a ſpontaneous vomiting comes on upon a long continued purging, it proves generally a cure. Bilious diſcharges ceaſe on the acceſſion of deafneſs; as, on the contrary, a deafneſs often hath its ſolution upon the diſcharge of bile. Acid eructations, which do not begin with the diſorder, but come on afterwards, are favourable indications. The loſs of appetite, and hickuping, are bad. A moiſt ſkin, and a ſediment in the urine, are ſymptoms of the moſt favourable kind.

The diet may be preparations of rice, and the white decoction may be the common drink, or camomile-tea.

When unattended with pain, fever, or other violent ſymptoms, the ſtomach may be cleared with a few grains of ipecac. and, after it, a draught may be given of the tinct. rhab.

If any further aſſiſtance ſeems neceſſary, whatever kind of ſymptoms attend, a perſpiration, excited by ſuch ſmall doſes of ipecac. pulv. as will not ſolicit the ſtomach to a diſcharge, ſeems to be a ſpecific. To children it may be given in a clyſter, which muſt be repeated three or four times a day, each containing eight or ten grains of this powder. Adults may take two or three grains in a powder or draught, and repeat it two or three times a day, as the caſe may require.

A ſuppreſſion of the evacuations, by means of aſtringents, or of opiates, before the pulſe fails, is improper; but the ipecac. may be uſed at all times with ſafety and advantage; a warm bath, or any other external method of promoting perſpiration, contributes much to the aſſiſtance of the ipecacuhana. To this end, opiates are the beſt internal aids; but when their uſe is forbid, the baths, or flannels wrung out of warm water, may be wrapped round the legs and thighs, and the patient at the ſame time duly guarded from cold.

When a *diarrhœa* is chronical, moderate exerciſe in a dry warm air is beneficial; Sydenham commends riding on a horſe; but a carriage is more proper, as it defends more from the moiſture of the atmoſphere, and ſtrengthens the bowels in a greater degree: in this caſe, beſides ſmall doſes of pulv. ipec. aromatics and chalybeats ſhould be adminiſtered, and a moderate uſe of diuretics, in ſome inſtances, are uſeful.

If a teneſmus is troubleſome, ℞ Enem. ex amyl. cum tinct. Theb. gut. xx. ad xxx. vel ſpt. vin. Gallic. ℥ i. m. & repet. pro re nata.

When obſtructed perſpiration is the cauſe, the ſtools are uſually ſerous: in this caſe, bleeding ſometimes is required before other means can be uſed with proper advantage.

When an acrid bile produces a *diarrhœa*, a few grains of nitre will be a neceſſary addition in each doſe that is given, to reſtrain the diſcharges.

When a *diarrhœa* attacks child-bed women, it is a threatening ſymptom, and if it continues above two or three days is very dangerous. In this ſituation, a clyſter with ſtarch and Thebaic tincture, ſhould be injected, and immediately after it the columbo root may be given by way of infuſion in boiling water; a tea-cup full may be given after each evacuation. It is ſafe and efficacious, like the ipecac. whether a fever attends or not, and like it may be adminiſtered in thoſe early ſtages in which aſtringents are often forbid.

When grief or other paſſions give riſe to this diſorder, the cure is difficult; the affections of the mind are a check to perſpiration, and powerfully counteract every means of exciting it. In ſuch a caſe, the feet muſt be kept warm, vomits and purges omitted, except very mild ones, and antiſpaſmodics, with moderate doſes of laudanum, muſt be perſiſted in for the cure. Small doſes of the tinct. Theb. in draughts of valerian tea, will be proper.

The *diarrhœa* which attends infants during dentition, is much relieved by the following: ℔ Pulv. rad. columb. ℈ i. ad. ʒ i. magneſ. alb. ℈ ii. ad. ʒ ii. aq. menth. fi. ℥ iv. m. detur cochl. parv. 2da, vel 4ta, vel 6ta, quaq. hora.

Aſtringents are only indicated when the exorbitant diſcharges endanger life; and when theſe are admitted, logwood, and its preparations, are to be preferred. The cort. ſimaroub. is ſingularly efficacious; the biſtort and tormentil roots are powerfully ſo: but alum, which is ſo uſeful in hæmorrhages, is not of great advantage here.

If flatulencies are very troubleſome, the following bolus may be repeated every three or four hours. ℞ Extr. lign. campech. ℈ i. ſpulv. cort. eluther. gr. x. fyr. q. ſ. bol.

In ſcorbutic, arthritic, and other diſeaſed habits, a *diarrhœa* is often a conſequence of the peculiar acrimony of the humours, affecting the inteſtines; in which caſes, to correct the morbid quality of the fluids, or to remove them to a leſs dangerous ſituation, will conſtitute the cure. Here regard muſt be had to the original diſorder.

Infants that have not the breaſt, are ſometimes ſo diſordered by watery ſtools, attended with gripes, that all the uſual methods of relief are but vain endeavours; when this happens, a freſh breaſt will as rarely fail to cure, and therefore ſhould not be neglected. The ſtools attending theſe tender patients, are ſometimes green as well as watery, and generally uſher in convulſions. The eaſieſt and moſt effectual management is to give three, four, or ſix drops of the vin. ant. or more, if neceſſary, to provoke a vomiting, and repeat it every four, ſix, or twelve hours, until the colour and conſiſtence of the ſtools are amended. While the ſtools are ſour and green, three or four drops of lixiv. tart. may be given at proper intervals, or the mixture above preſcribed, with magneſ. alb. and R. columb.

See Aretæus, Lommius, Sydenham, Fordyce's Elements, part. ii. Dr. Pye's Obſervations on the Uſe of Ipecac. in the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. i.

DIARRHŒA URINOSA, i. e. Diabetes, and diarrhœa mucoſa.

DIARRHŒA STERCOROSA, i. e. Diarrhœa crapuloſa.

DIARRHŒA CHOLERICA, i. e. Cholera morbus.

DIARRHŒA VULGARIS, i. e. Diarrhœa crapuloſa.

DIARRHŒA LACTENTIUM, i. e. Diarrhœa mucoſa.

DIARRHŒA PITUITOSA, i. e. Diarrhœa mucoſa.

DIARRHŒA SEROSA, i. e. Diarrhœa mucoſa.

DIARRHŒA CARNOSA, i. e. Dyſenteria.

DIARROIA EX OURE, i. e. Diabetes.

DIARTHROSIS, from *δια, per*, and *αρθρον, a joint*. It is that ſpecies of articulation which is moveable, alſo called abarticulatio & dearticulatio. Different authors vary in their diviſions thereof, but Dr. Hunter reckons it to conſiſt of three ſpecies: 1ſt, The enarthroſis, or ball and ſocket, which is when a large head is received into a deep cavity. 2dly, Arthrodia, which is, when a round head is received into a ſuperficial cavity. Theſe two kinds admit of a motion on all ſides. 3dly, The ginglymus, which is when the parts of the bones mutually receive, and are received. This kind of articulation only admits of flexion and extenſion.

DIASAPONIUM. An ointment in which ſoap is a principal ingredient.

DIASATYRION. An electary, in which is ſatyrion.

DIASCILLION. So M. Empiricus calls the vinegar and oxymel of ſquills.

DIASCINCI. A name for mithridate.

DIASCORDIUM. So called from the ſcordium in it. It is now called elect. e ſcordio. Hieronymus Fracaſtorius firſt preſcribed it; and it is alſo called confectio Fracaſtorii.

DIASENA. It is an antidote in Myrepſus, containing ſenna; but is very different from the pulv. e ſenn. now in uſe.

DIASERICOS. A compoſition in which ſilk is an ingredient.

DIASMYRNON, or Diaſmyrnes. A name of ſeveral collyria, in which are myrrh, σμυρνη.

DIASOSTICA, from σωζω, to preſerve. That part of medicine which relates to the preſervation of health.

DIASPERMATON. A name of two malagmas which are compounded of ſeeds.

DIASPHAGE. An interſtice. Hippocrates expreſſes by it the interval betwixt two branches of a vein.

DIASPHYXIS, from σφυζω, *to ſtrike*. The pulſation of an artery.

DIASTASIS, from ϛιστημι, *to ſeparate*. It ſignifies the diſtance betwixt the fractured ends of bones receding from each other, alſo the interſtice which is naturally betwixt the radius and the ulna. Sometimes it ſignifies that diſtention of the muſcles which happens in convulſions. When this word is applied to the ſtomach, it means an effort to vomit; and when uſed with reſpect to the pulſe, it is the ſame as diaſtole. Some ſignify by it a luxation.

DIASTEATON, from στεαρ, *fat*. The name of an ointment, in which are the fats of a ſtag, ſwine, gooſe, and hen.

DIASTOLE, from διαστελλω, or δια, and στελλω, *to contract, to ſtretch*. In anatomy it imports the dilatation of the heart, auricles, and arteries. In the diaſtole, the artery is enlarged both in length and breadth. The heart hath two motions, viz. its *diaſtole*, and its ſyſtole. In the ſyſtole, the elaſtic coats of the arteries only act by reſtoring themſelves. The *diaſtole* is performed almoſt inſtantaneouſly, the ſyſtole more gradually, inſomuch, that the latter employs two-thirds more than the former. When the heart begins to vibrate, the *diaſtole* is the firſt motion.

DIASTOMOTRIS. It is uſually joined with μυλη, *a probe*, and implies any dilating inſtrument, as a ſpeculum oris, ſpeculum ani, &c.

DIASTREMMA, from διαστρεφω, *to diſtort*, [or *turn aſide*. A diſtortion of the limbs.

DIASTROPHE; i. e. Diaſtremma.

DIASULPHURIS EMPLASTRUM. This is a preſcription of Rulandus's, but it contains only a very ſmall proportion of ſulphur with wax, &c.

DIATASIS, from διατειναω, *to diſtend, to ſtretch out*. The extenſion of a fractured limb, in order to its reduction.

DIATECOLITHU. An antitode in which is the lap. Judaic, which is called τηλεκιθος.

DIATERETICA, i. e. Dieta.

DIATESSARON, δια, εκ, and τεσσαρες, *four*. A compound ſo called becauſe made of four ingredients, viz. gentian, bay-berries, myrrh, and the root of birth-wort, in equal quantities.

DIATETTIGON. The name of an antidote, in which are graſs-hoppers.

DIATHESIS, from διατιθημι, *to diſpoſe*. An affection or a diſpoſition, as when the blood is inclined to ſome faulty ſtate.

DIATRAGACANTHI SPECIES. See GUM TRAGAC.

DIATRINSANTALON. A confect, in which is the wood called ſanders.

DIATRION PIPEREON SPECIES. A powder preſcribed by Galen, which chiefly conſiſts of peppers.

DIATRITARII, & Diatritos. An abſtinence during three days was one of the points in practice by which the firſt methodics diſtinguiſhed themſelves from other phyſicians. This term of three days they called *diatritos*, and not the abſtinence itſelf; and from this circumſtance the methodics had the name of *diatritarii*. On the third day they gave ſuch medicines as they thought of importance, and not before. Cœlius Aurelianus gives the name *diatritos* not only to the ſpace of three days, but to the third day in particular alſo.

DIAULOS, from δις, *twice*, and αυλη, *a ſtation*. A kind of exerciſe in which the perſon runs a ſtraight courſe forwards and back again.

DIAZOMA. A name of the diaphragm, from δια, and ζωννυμι, *to ſurround*.

DIAZOSTER. A name of the twelfth vertebra of the back. It is ſo called from ζωστηρ, *the belt*, which lies upon it.

DICENTETON. The name of a collyrium deſcribed by P. Ægineta.

DICHALCON. A weight equal to one-third of an obolus.

DICHASTERES. The dentes inciſorii.

DICHOPHYIA. It is a diſtemper of the hairs, and is, when they ſplit or grow forked; from διχα, *double*, and φυω, *to grow*.

DICOCTA. Water firſt heated, then cooled with ſnow.

DICOTYLEDON. See COTYLEDON.

DICRÆUS. Bifid.

DICROTUS, from δις, *twice*, and κρουω, *to ſtrike*. An appellation of a pulſe, in which the artery ſeems to ſtrike double. Dr. Solano firſt obſerved it, and it is conſidered as a certain ſign of an approaching critical hæmorrhage from the noſe. It alſo called a rebounding pulſe.

DICTAMNITES. A wine medicated with dittany.

DICTAMNUS. Dittany.

DICTAMNUS ALBUS, called alſo fraxinella, white or baſtard dittany, or fraxinella. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies. It is a plant with leaves reſembling thoſe of the aſh-tree, but much ſmaller, and more juicy. On the tops of the ſtalks are long ſpikes of purpliſh and white flowers, which are followed by pods with black ſeeds in them. It is perennial, and grows wild on the mountains in France, Italy, &c. It is the *dictamnus albus*, or *dictamnus fiore albo*. Linn.

The roots are whitiſh; their cortical part freed from the pith and ſmall fibres, are dried and rolled up, and in this form are brought to England. The young roots which are about the ſize of a quill are the beſt. When freſh, they have an agreeable ſmell, which is all diſſipated in drying. They are conſiderably bitter, and this quality is taken up both by water and by ſpirit; and on inſpiſſating, the tincture remains in the extract. They are not much uſed, though commended as an anthelmintic, aperient, and uterine medicine. The doſe may be from ʒ i. to ʒ i.

DICTAMNUS CRETICUS, called alſo origanum Creticum, dictamnus verus, dittany of Candy, or of Crete. It is the origanum *dictamnus*. Linn. It is a ſmall, ſhrubby plant, with ſquare ſtalks, and roundiſh leaves, that are covered with a thick, white down; the flowers are in ſpikes of a purpliſh colour. It is perennial, a native of ſtony grounds in Greece, and the iſland of Candy. It bears the ordinary winters of our clime. Thoſe we have from abroad, however ſuperior whilſt freſh to our own produce, are hardly ſo good when we receive them.

Whilſt the leaves are in perfection, they are warm and aromatic, have an agreeable ſmell, and a hot biting taſte, reſembling that of the thymus citratus. The garden pennyroyal is of the ſame quality, but not quite ſo ſtrong (tho' in general far better than the dittany, which we receive from abroad). Both water and ſpirit take up the virtues of this plant. If a large quantity is diſtilled at once with water, a ſmall portion of eſſential oil is obtained, which is of a yellowiſh colour, of an highly pungent, aromatic taſte and ſmell; it congeals in the cold into the appearance of camphor; the remaining decoction, when inſpiſſated, is a bitteriſh, diſagreeable maſs, but deſtitute of the flavour and warmth of the herb. The ſpirituous extract poſſeſſes all its virtues. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

DICTYOIDES, from δικτυον, *a net*, and ειδος, *like to*. Net like. A name of the rete mirabile.

DIDYME. The orchis-root.

DIDYMÆA. The name of a cataplaſm mentioned by Galen.

DYDIMI. Twins. A name of the teſticles; alſo of the eminences in the brain, called teſtes.

DIDYNAMIA. The fourteenth of Linnæus's claſs of plants; in it is one ſtyle; but the filaments are of different lengths; two of them of the ſame length are longer than the reſt.

DIECBOLION, i. e. Ecbolion. A medicine cauſing abortion.

DIELECTRON. The name of a troche, in which is amber (ηλεκτρον.).

DIEMEAC. A term in Paracelſus. It ſignifies a kind of ſpirit, which he ſays reſides in ſtones.

DIENER, i. e. Diemeac.

DIERVILLA. The name of a plant, ſo called by Tournefort, from Mr. Dierville, a ſurgeon, who brought it from Acadia. It is not remarkable for any medical property. See Miller's Dict. vol. ii.

DIETA. See Diæta.

DIEXODOS, from δια, and εξοδος, *a way by which any thing paſſes*. In Hippocrates, it is the deſcent or paſſage of the excrements by the anus.

DIFFLATIO. Tranſpiration.

DIGASTRICUS, i. e. Biventer, from δις, *twice*, or *double*, and γαστηρ, *a belly*.

DIGESTIO. Digeſtion. In ſurgery it is the diſpoſing an ulcer, or wound, to ſuppuration, by the application of proper remedies.

In pharmacy, it is the ſubjecting of bodies, included in proper veſſels, to the action of a gentle heat. The term *digeſtion* is often uſed for maceration, and in this caſe, the proceſs is without heat: where this circumſtance is not expreſſed, *digeſtion* always implies the uſe of heat. In ſome caſes, *digeſtion* is uſed to produce a change in one ſingle body, as in mer. precip. per ſe; in others, to promote ſolutions, or other combinations. Circulation is a mode of *digeſting*. The veſſels generally uſed are matraſſes, or Florence wine flaſks, either of which may be converted into circulatory veſſels; alſo by inverting the neck of one into the neck of the other. The operation is generally performed in a ſand bath, by which the degrees of heat may be regulated according to the intention of the operator; this heat never ariſes ſo as to make the matter boil. *Digeſtion* is uſed for making tinctures, wines, elixirs, &c.

In the animal œconomy, it is the converſion of aliment into chyle, and then into blood. By *digeſtion*, the ſpecific differences of all ſubſtances are aboliſhed; the blood formed from different kinds of aliment, whether uſed ſingly, or together, does not ſenſibly differ in its properties, provided that the organs of *digeſtion* be ſufficiently powerful to convert them into blood. *Digeſtion* in the ſtomach alone is capable of converting our food into chyle, and the power of animal *digeſtion* can alone aſſimilate it into our own nature.

When the aliment is converted into chyle by being digeſted in the ſtomach, it is carried into the duodenum, where, mixing with the bile, the nutritious parts are ſeparated, and the reſt is conveyed through the inteſtines, to be caſt out as excrement. The thinner part of the chyle being ſeparated from the groſs, is conveyed by the lacteal veſſels into the receptacle of the chyle, and thence into the left ſubclavian vein, where it begins its circulation with the blood.

Boerhaave obſerves, that many cauſes concur in the proportion of *digeſtion*; as the aids of cookery; the action of maſtication; the mixture of ſaliva with what we eat, and of other juices in the œſophagus and ſtomach; the motion of the diaphragm and abdominal muſcles; and, laſtly, in the duodenum, the mixture of bile, and the pancreatic juice.

Haller denies that any kind of fermentation takes place in the ſtomach in order to *digeſtion*; and ſeems to attribute the greateſt effects, in order to the diſſolution of our aliment, to the ſeparation of the air therein contained, and the action of the bile.

From the experiments of Reaumur, and Pere Bertier, it appears that the ſtomachs of granivorous animals *digeſt* their contents partly by trituration, and carnivorous ones principally by ſolution in a proper fluid. Theſe are further confirmed by Mr. John Hunter, in his late publication on Digeſtion of the Stomach after Death, which ſee. See alſo Haller's Phyſiology, and Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic.

DIGESTIVUM, (Sal. Sylvii.) i. e. Sal marin. regenerat.

DIGITALIS. Purple fox-glove. *Digitalis* purpurea, or *Digitalis* calycinis foliolis ovatis acutis, corollis obtuſis: labio ſuperiore integro. Linn. Boerhaave mentions eleven ſpecies. It is a hairy plant with ſerrated leaves; a thick angular ſtalk, on which are numerous purple, tubulous flowers (which are compared with the finger of a glove) hanging downwards, in a row along one ſide, each on a ſhort pedicle; the flower is followed by an oblong pointed capſule, full of ſmall angular ſeeds. It is biennial; grows wild in woods and on heaths, and flowers in June, July, and Auguſt. It grows only in gravelly ſoils.

The leaves are bitteriſh and naufeous to the taſte; they give out their virtue both to water and to ſpirit. Boerhaave thinks them too acrid for internal uſe; but Dr. Alſton of Edinburgh ſays, that though this herb is not now in uſe, it is almoſt of as great efficacy as any which the Indies produce. Dr. Hulſe recommends an ointment made of it by boiling in butter, for dreſſing ſcrophulous ulcers with that run; he at the ſame time directs gentle purging two or three times a week.

DIGITALIS. A name of the ſeſamum.

DIGITALIS MINIMA, i. e. Hedge-hyſſop.

DIGITATED. Digitated leaves are compound leaves divided into ſeveral parts, all of which meet together at the tail, in form of a hand.

DIGITELLUS. A name of ſeveral funguſes, many of which are ſpecified in Dr. Martyn's tranſlation of Tournefort. They are of no note in medicine.

DIGITIUM. A ſort of contractura, by which the joint of a finger is fixed. Alſo a whitlow; and a pain with waſting of a joint of the finger.

DIGITUS. A finger. The thumb and the four *fingers* are each compoſed of three bones; thoſe of the *fingers* are formed alike, but thoſe of the thumb are much thicker and ſtronger, in proportion to their length, than thoſe of the *fingers*, which is a neceſſary contrivance, as they counteract all the four *fingers*. The firſt joint of the *fingers* is arthrodia, the two laſt are ginglymus. The different parts of the *fingers* are called phalanges; the firſt phalanx is the largeſt, and the laſt the leaſt.

DIGLOSSON, from δις, *double*, and γλωσσα, *a tongue*. A name of the laurus Alexandrina, becauſe that above its leaf there grows another leſſer leaf, reſembling a tongue.

DIGNOTIO, i. e. Diagnoſis.

DIGYNIA. One of Linnæus's ſubdiviſion of the claſſes of plants, and is when there are two ſtyles in the flower.

DIHÆMATON, from αιμα, *blood*. The name of an antidote, in which is the blood of many different animals.

DIHALON, from αλς, *ſalt*. A plaſter prepared of ſalt and nitre, and adopted to foul ulcers.

DIIPETES. In Hippocrates it is applied to ſemen, and ſignifies a ſudden, or immediate defluxion.

DIKALEGI. Tin.

DILATATIO. A dilatation. Sometimes it is uſed for diaſtole.

DILATATORES ALARUM NASI. Dilators of the noſtrils. They are ſmall, thin muſcles, having a double order of fibres decuſſating each other. They riſe from the interior and inferior parts of the oſſa narium, and are ſoon inſerted to the ſuperior parts of the alæ. They pull up the alæ, and dilate the noſtrils.

DILATATORIUM. A ſurgical inſtrument for dilating any part.

DILL. CAT. GISS. An abbreviation of Joannes Jacobus Dillenius Catalog. Plant. Sponte, Circa Giſſam Naſcent.

DILL. H. MUSC. An abbreviation of Joannis Jacobi Dillenii Hiſtoria Muſcorum.

DILUENTIA. Diluents. They are whatſoever on being mixed with a fluid, renders its parts more fluid. They produce their effect by dividing each part into ſmaller parts, and then are called attenuants, or ſimply by mixing therewith, in which caſe, the *diluent* muſt be a fluid, more fluid than that with which it is mixed, and muſt

muſt retain its fluidity after mixture. Theſe three properties are in water only; and the diluting property of water is increaſed only by fire.

DILUTUM. Diluted. Sometimes this word ſignifies an infuſion.

DILYTÆA. In Myrepſus, it is the fat of ſome animal, but of what is unknown.

DINICA, from δινεω, *to turn round.* Medicines againſt a vertigo.

DINOS. A vertigo.

DIOBOLON. The weight of ʒ i. It is alſo called gramma.

DIOCLES CARYSTIUS. He was the next celebrated phyſician to Hippocrates. The Athenians honoured him with the title of Hippocrates the ſecond. He propoſed the ſwallowing of a ſmall ball of lead as a remedy in the iliac paſſion; he diſtinguiſhed this diſorder into the ileus and chordapſus, which laſt he ſuppoſed to be a diſordar of the large inteſtine. The next to Diocles is Praxagoras.

DIOCRES. The name of a paſtil in Myrepſus.

DIODOS, i. e. Diexodos.

DIŒCIA, [PLANTA], i. e. A plant in which the male and female parts of generation are upon different plants. It is the twenty-ſecond of Linnæus's claſſes.

DIŒNANTHES. An epithem in Trallian againſt the cholera morbus.

DIOGMUS. A vehement palpitation of the heart.

DIONIS COLLYRIUM. A collyrium in Oribaſius, ſo called from Dion its author.

DIONYSIA. The name of a plaſter for abſceſſes, invented by Hera the Cappadocian. It is alſo called Dionyſianum empl.

DIONYSIAS. See ANDROSÆMUM.

DIONYSISCI. Horned. Certain bony eminences near the temples, or rather the people with thoſe prominences, from *Dyon*, a name of Bacchus, who is deſcribed often with horns.

DIONYSIUS. An eminent ancient ſurgeon. Alſo a name of dittander.

DIONYSOS. The name of a collyrium in Ætius. P. Ægineta hath one like it which he names collyrium, malabathrinum, and iſotheon.

DIOPORON, from οπωρα, *autumnal fruit.* The name of a medicine in Cœl. Aurelianus; it was uſed againſt the quinſy.

DIOPSYRUS, i. e. Meſpilus folio rotundiore fructu nigro ſubdulci.

DIOPTRA, from διοπτευω, *to ſee through.* An inſtrument for dilating any natural cavity, the better to ſee its ſtate, ſuch as the ſpeculum uteri, &c.

DIOPTRON. A name of the lap. ſpecul.

DIOPTRISMOS. The operation which conſiſts in dilating the natural paſſages with a dioptra.

DIOROBON. A medicine in which are vetches (ερεβοι).

DIORRHOSIS, or Diroſis, from ορος, or ορρος, *ſerum.* A converſion of the humours into ſerum and water.

DIORTHOSIS, from ορθος, *right*, or from διορθοω, *to direct.* A reſtitution of a fractured limb into its natural ſituation.

DIOSANTHOS, i. e. Caryophillus tenuifolius plumarius flore pleno purpuraſcente. It is a ſpecies of ſingle wild pink. The flowers are cephalic.

DIOSCOR. An abbreviation of Pedacii Dioſcoridis Opera Græce & Latine Interpretatione Jani Antonii Saraceni Lugdunæi Medici.

DIOSCOREA. A plant ſo called in honour of Dioſcorides. See Miller's Dict.

DIOSCURI. A name of the parotides; from Dioſcuri, a name of Caſtor and Pollux.

DIOTA. The name of a wooden cup, which was lined with aromatics, to give a flavour to the beer that was drunk out of it.

DIOXELÆUM. A malagma, in which was oil and vinegar.

DIOXUS. The name of a collyrium in Marcellus Empiricus, in which is vinegar.

DIPCADI. A name of the muſcari obſoletiore flore ex purpura virente.

DIOSPYROS, i. e. Guajacana. Alſo a name of the white whortles.

DISTA. See DYOTA.

DIPHRYGES, or Diſphryges. Scurf.

There are three kinds: 1ſt, Metallic, produced only in Cyprus, it is found in the mud of a pool, whence it is taken and dried in the ſun, then burnt, whence the name, from δις, *twice*, and φρυγω *to terrify*, it being as it were twice roaſted. 2d, The droſs in working copper. 3d, Pyrites calcined to redneſs.

DIPLOE, from διπλοος, *double.* It is the ſoft part between the two tables of the bones of the ſkull. Some ſay, the two tables of the ſkull themſelves.

DIPLOMA. The written inſtrument which gives authority to practiſe, from διπλοω, *to fold.* A double veſſel. To boil in diplomate is to ſet one veſſel, containing the ingredients intended to be acted upon, in another larger veſſel full of water, and to this latter veſſel the fire is applied.

DIPLOPIA. It is a variety of the pſeudoblepſis mutans. It is ſeeing things double, or multipled.

DIPNOOS, from δις, *double*, and πνεω, *to breathe.* An epithet of wounds which penetrate into ſome cavity, or quite through a part, or that hath two orifices.

DIPSACON, i. e. Rhodium.

DIPSACOS, from διψα, a *thirſt.* A name for the diabetes. But in botany it is the teaſel.

DIPSACUS. The teaſel. Alſo a diabetes.

DIPSAS. Dry earth. Alſo the name of a ſerpent, whoſe bite cauſes thirſt. This ſerpent is alſo called cauſus.

DIPSETICUS. An epithet for ſuch things as cauſe thirſt.

DIPYRENON, from δις, *double*, and πυρηνα, a *berry* or *kernel*, or the end of a probe reſembling a *berry.* Alſo the name of a probe, with two buttons at one end. It is mentioned by Cœlius Aurelianus.

DIPYRITES, or Dipyros, from δις, *twice*, and πυρ, *fire.* Bread twice baked. Hippocrates recommends it in dropſies.

DIPCÆA. The inchanter's night-ſhade.

DIRECTOR, from *dirigo, to direct.* An hollow inſtrument for guiding an inciſion-knife.

DIRECTORES PENIS, i. e. Erectores penis.

DIRINGO. A name in the iſle of Java for the ſweet ſcented flag.

DISCESSUS. A chemical term, which the French call depart, or linquart; it ſignifies, in general, any ſeparation of two bodies before united: but it is particularly applied to the ſeparation of gold from ſilver by aqua fortis, where the ſilver is diſſolved, but the gold left untouched.

DIOSCOIDES, from δισκος, *diſcus*, the *quoit* uſed in the Roman games, or ειδος, a *form.* An epithet of the cryſtalline humour of the eye, from its form reſembling a diſk.

DISCRETA PURGATIV. In Fallopius it is that ſort of purging which evacuates a particular humour.

DISCRIMEN. It is a ſmall roller, about twelve feet long, and two fingers breadth broad, rolled up with one head, and uſed after bleeding in the forehead, as follows: The bandage is held with the left thumb upon a compreſs, ſo that about a foot hangs below the forehead; then the *roller* is carried round the temples and occiput in the circular direction; after this, the part which hangs down is to be carried over the head to the occiput, and there having rolled it ſeveral times about the head, it is to be ſecured.

DISCIFORME. The knee-pan.

DISCUS. A diſk. It is a body employed in the gymnaſtic art, but not eaſy to ſay what. In botany it is an aggregate of florets, forming as it were a plain ſurface.

DISCUSSIO. A diaphoreſis.

DISCUSSORIA. See DISCUTIENTIA.

DISCUTIENTIA. Diſcutients. They are ſuch medicines as by their ſubtilty diſſolve a ſtagnating fluid, and diſſipate the ſame without an external ſolution of continuity.* Such *diſcutients* as alſo mollify are to be preferred, of which kind are opium and camphor. Suppurants diſcuſs, and *diſcutients* ſuppurate. Oils, and what ſtops the pores, may be applied when ſuppuration is aimed at, but they are improper when the deſign is to *diſcuſs.*

DIS-

DISLOCATIO, from *diſſero*, or from δις, *aſunder*, and *locus*, a *place*, to put out of its place. See LUXATIO.

DISPENSATORIUM. Diſpenſatory. The place, or ſhop, where medicines are prepared; but more frequently a book, treating of the compoſition of remedies.

DISRUPTIO. A ſpecies of violent puncture which penetrates the ſkin to the fleſh.

DISSECTIO, from δις, *aſunder*, and *ſeco*, *to cut*. Diſſection. The cutting up a body, with a view of examining the ſtructure of the parts.

DISSEPIMENTUM. It is the thin ſeptum which divides the ſeveral cells in the fruit of plants.

DISSEPTUM. The diaphragm.

DISSOLVENTIA. Medicines which diſſolve concretions in the body are thus called. In chemiſtry, *diſſolvents* are menſtrua.

DISSOLUTIO. Diſſolution. A ſyncope is thus named, ſo is death. Solution of continuity, or diſcontinuity; and thus it is ſynonimous with dialyſes.

DYSOPIA. A variety of the pſeudoblepſis mutans.

DISSOLUTUS MORBUS. The dyſentery.

DISTENTIO. Diſtention. It ſignifies ſimply dilatation, pandiculation, or a convulſion, as nervous diſtention almoſt always implies.

DISTICHIA, or Diſtichiaſis, from δις, *double*, and στιχος, *a row or order*. See DISTRICHIASIS.

DISTICHUM. That ſpecies of barley which hath only two rows of grains.

DISTILLATIO. Diſtillation. Sometimes it ſignifies the ſame as defluxion, or catarrh.

In pharmacy it is the ſeparation of the more volatile from the more ſolid parts of any ſubſtance by means of heat. Or it is the condenſing and collecting the lighter parts of bodies, previouſly rarified by heat. Re-diſtilling a fluid ſeveral times from freſh parcels of the ſame kind is called cohobation, but no advantage is derived from this practice. When *diſtillation* is repeated, in order to purify or ſeparate the matter diſtilled from ſome parts not required, it is called rectification. *Diſtillation* with an alembic or a common ſtill is called per aſcenſum, becauſe the vapours riſe and are condenſed in the upper part of the veſſel: thus all *diſtillations* may be performed that require no greater heat than boiling water. When a heat greater than boiling water is required, retorts may be uſed; from their ſhape the volatile parts of what is diſtilled in them can only eſcape through their ſide, whence this is called per latus. When the heat is to be applied above the bodies to be diſtilled, ſo that the lighter parts are forced downwards into a veſſel placed for their reception, it is called per deſcenſum: this method is now never uſed. When the volatile parts that are rarified by *diſtillation* are in a dry form when collected, this operation is called ſublimation. When no more heat is applied than is neceſſary juſt to raiſe a vapour, which when condenſed only falls in drops, it is called a cold *diſtillation*: roſes and other things valued only for their flavour, and which do not admit of drying, are commodiouſly *diſtilled* this way; and the dry cake left after *diſtilling* roſes is better for making a decoction or ſyrup than after any other management: in this kind of *diſtillation*, the ſubject ſhould neither be bruiſed, nor have water or any other thing added to it; they ſhould be gathered with the morning dew upon them: a retort and receiver placed in a ſand bath is the beſt apparatus in this caſe. The worm ſtill is moſt frequently uſed now for diſtilling with; it is called alſo the hot ſtill, becauſe it is worked with a fire which makes the materials boil: it communicates with a leaden ſpiral tube (called the worm), which is placed in a tub filled with water (called the refrigeratory); in this worm the vapours are condenſed, and run out in the form of a ſmall ſtream into whatever veſſel is placed to receive it.

The end of *diſtilling* is the ſeparation of ſome bodies from thoſe with which they were mixed; as in obtaining vinous ſpirits, eſſential oils, volatile ſpirits, &c. or for the more ſpeedy or effectual combination of ſuch bodies as require a boiling heat, as in the caſe of the ſpt. nitri D.

As a principal article in *diſtillation* is to apply no more heat to the ſubject than is juſt neceſſary to accompliſh our intention, retorts are ſometimes uſed, and are placed on an open fire, on ſand baths, or in water baths, in order the more certainly to adjuſt the heat to the degree of volatility which the ſubject to be *diſtilled* poſſeſſes. In *diſtilling* waters, whether for uſing as ſuch, or for obtaining eſſential oils, the menſtruum ſhould be attended to as well as the heat to be applied; for as ſome eſſential oils require the full heat of boiling water, they cannot be raiſed by the uſe of ſpirit of wine: this happens in *diſtilling* of cinnamon, and ſome other ponderous oils.

Retorts are proper when the ſubject to be *diſtilled* would corrode the metal of a ſtill, as in the obtaining of any mineral acid, or preparing other corroſive matters. Earthen veſſels are ſometimes uſed, and on ſome few occaſions iron ones. But as to theſe, and many other obſervations on this ſubject, they are fully noticed under the articles where an attention to them may be required.

DISTORSIO, or Diſtortio. It is applied to the eyes, when a perſon ſeems to turn them from the object he would look at, which is called ſquinting. It alſo ſignifies the bending of the bone preternaturally to one ſide.

DISTORTOR ORIS (MUSCULUS), i. e. Zygomaticus minor (muſc.)

DISTRACTIO. In chemiſtry it is a forcible diviſion of ſubſtances from each other which were before united, either by ſeparation or calcination.

DISTRIBUTIO. Diſtribution. It ſometimes implies diviſion. In medicine, it relates to the nutritious juices, and is the ſame as anadoſis, or to the excrements, and is the ſame as diachoreſis, or diachorema.

DISTRICHIASIS, from δις, *double*, and θριξ, *a hair*. A diſeaſe of the eye-lid, which conſiſts in its having a double row of hairs, or at the leaſt ſupernumerary ones. Galen. Aetius.

DISTRIX. The hair growing ſmaller and ſmaller.

DIURESIS, from δια, *by*, and ουρον, *urine*. An excretion of urine. It alſo ſignifies a diabetes.

DIURETICÆ. Diuretics, from δια, *by*, and ουρον, *urine*. Medicines which provoke a diſcharge by urine.

Celſus ſays every fragrant herb that is cultivated in a garden is *diuretic*. However numerous *diuretic* medicines may be, there are none elſe whoſe efficacy is ſo uncertain, conſidered as *diuretic*.

How ſome things paſs off by urine ſo immediately after being taken into the ſtomach, is ſtill a matter of diſpute.

Honey and ſugar increaſe the virtue of *diuretics*; they ſhould be often uſed to be effectual, and the body ſhould be kept cool.

If a medicine is deſigned to paſs off by urine, walking gently in a cool air will aſſiſt it; but ſweating or conſiderable warmth directs it to the ſkin, or at leaſt reſtrains its efficacy. *Diuretics* of the ſaline kind are *diuretic* or perſpirative, according as the body is kept cool or warm.

In adminiſtering this kind of medicines, they are rarely given with reſpect to their operation as *diuretics*, but with reſpect to the habit or ſtate of the patient's body, as appears from the different claſſes of medicines that come under this denomination; the chief of which remove impediments to, rather than promote the diſcharge of urine.

The following different claſſes of medicines are uſed with a view to promote the diſcharge of urine.

1. Cordial nervous medicines. Theſe accelerate the motion of the blood when too languid, and increaſe its fluidity, and thus increaſe this diſcharge.

2. Emollient balſamics. Theſe relax and lubricate, ſo obtain a paſſage for what is too bulky.

3. Subſtances conſiſting of ſalts and mucilages. Theſe guard againſt ſtricture in the veſſels, and at the ſame time fit the matter to be diſcharged for a more eaſy excluſion.

4. Detergent balſamics. Theſe rarify and ſcour away viſcous or fabulous matter which obſtructs the paſſages.

5. Alkaline and lixivious ſalts. Theſe keep the fluids at leaſt in a due ſtate of tenuity for being excreted.

6. Acid and nitrous ſalts. Theſe determine the ſerum to the kidneys, if not counteracted by heat.

7. Antiſpaſmodics. Theſe relieve by taking off a ſtricture in the kidneys.

See Hoffman's Med. Rad. Syſt. Alexander's Exper. Eſſays, p. 149, &c.

DIURETICUS SAL. Diuretic ſalt, alſo called *ſal* Sennerti, terra foliata tartari, tartarus regeneratus, and arcanum tartari. It is a fixed vegetable alcaline *ſalt* ſaturated with the acetous acid, and evaporated to dryneſs: when the proceſs is carried no farther, it is of a browniſh colour, and appears ſomewhat oily, and it is called tart. regen. When it is purified to perfect whiteneſs it is called *ſal diureticus*.

Sal Diureticus. *Pb. Lond.*

Take of any fixed alkaline *ſalt*, one pound; boil it with four or five pints of diſtilled vinegar over a gentle fire: when the fermentation ceaſes add more diſtilled vinegar, and when the fermentation ſubſides add more vinegar; and proceed thus until the vinegar being nearly all evaporated, freſh vinegar will not excite any fermentation, which uſually happens when about ten quarts have been uſed; then gently evaporate to dryneſs. The *ſalt* left will be impure, which is to be melted for a time with a gentle heat, then diſſolved in water, and filtered through paper. If the melting hath been duly performed, the filtered liquor will be colourleſs; if otherwiſe, browniſh. Laſtly, the water is to be evaporated with a very gentle heat in a ſhallow veſſel, the *ſalt* as it dries being frequently ſtirred, that the humidity may the ſooner be diſcharged.

This *ſalt* muſt be kept in a cloſe veſſel, or it will diſſolve by the moiſture of the air. If on diſſolving a little of it in water, or ſpirit of wine, any feces are obſerved in either of theſe liquids, the whole muſt be diſſolved in ſpirit, filtered, and evaporated again.

In order to ſucceſs in this proceſs, due care muſt be had duly to ſaturate the *ſalt* with the acid, duly to calcine it afterwards, and at laſt to dry it without heating it too much. For the firſt, make the finiſhing trial, when the liquid is almoſt evaporated away, by dipping a coloured paper into it, as directed in the article ſpt. minder. The degree of calcination may be judged of by dropping a little in water, and obſerving when it begins to part with its blackneſs readily; if, after this, the calcination is continued, the *ſalt* will be browniſh. In the laſt drying care muſt be taken not to melt it; for thus its whiteneſs will be leſſened, and dregs will fall on diſſolving it in ſpirit.

The only uſe of rendering this *ſalt* white, by depriving it of its oil, is that it may reſt more eaſily on weak ſtomachs; but, if the proceſs above was carried on no farther than to ſaturate the alcaline *ſalt*, then the evaporation of the liquor being performed in a water-bath, the oily part of the ſalt would not have an empyreumatic flavour, with which to offend, the remaining trouble of the above method would be ſpared, and a medicine in all caſes as good would be obtained.

Dr. Lewis directs the *ſalt* of tartar to be diſſolved in cold water and filtered, and then to ſaturate this ſolution with diſtilled vinegar: after which the evaporation is to be made over a very gentle fire, ſo that the liquor may not boil, until a pellicle appears on its ſurface, after which the reſt of the proceſs muſt be finiſhed in a water bath; the pellicle as it whitens muſt be taken off, and the reſt kept continually ſtirring until the whole is taken away in the form of a white ſcum, which may be dried in an oven.

In making of this *ſalt* care ſhould be taken to uſe a pure alcaline *ſalt*, in which no neutral one is mixed: though, after all poſſible care in preparing the ſal diuret. a bare mixture of the ſalt of tartar with vinegar, to a point of ſaturation, without evaporation, or any other procedure, is very little if at all inferior.

The doſes of this ſalt will be according to the intention had in preſcribing it. From ten to twenty grains it is a mild aperient; from twenty to thirty an alterative and diuretic; from a dram to half an ounce it is purgative. When this *ſalt* is given as a purgative, the patient is neither griped nor weakened by it; and as it is diuretic too, it is a peculiarly proper purgative in dropſies. The fixed alcaline ſalts are more diuretic; but when feveriſhneſs forbids their uſe, the ſal diureticus very well ſupplies their place. In the jaundice and other complaints in which chalybeate medicines are indicated, but are from accidents forbid, this ſalt may be given to advantage, and then preparations of ſteel may be perfiſted in. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

DIURNUS. An epithet of diſeaſes whoſe exacerbations are in the day time.

DIUTURNUS. When applied to diſeaſes it ſignifies chronical.

DIVERSORIUM. The receptaculum chyli.

DIVERTALLUM. Paracelſus ſays it is whatever is generated of elements.

DIVIDENS FASCIA. The name of a bandage for the neck.

DIVINUM (OLEUM), i. e. Ol. Lateritium.

DIVINUS. A pompous epithet for many compoſitions given on account of their ſuppoſed excellencies.

DIVINUS LAPIS. A precious ſtone of a greeniſh colour is thus named: it is alſo called jade. It is a ſpecies of jaſper. In the Eaſt Indies it is greatly valued. An inferior kind is found in America.

It is alſo the name of a preparation made by fuſing alum, ſalt-petre, and Cyprian vitriol together, and then, while fluid, adding a ſmall portion of camphor.

DIVULSIO URINÆ. An irregular ſeparation of urine, in which the ſediment is divided, ragged, and uneven.

DIWIPAHURU. A ſort of convolvulus, which is found in the iſland of Zeilon.

DOCHME. A meaſure among the Greeks of four fingers breadth.

DOCIMASTICE. The docimaſtic art is the art of examining foſſils, in order to diſcover what metals, &c. they contain.

DOCTILETUS. Paracelſus names it as a medicine for the cancer; but he does not explain what it is.

DOD. An abbreviation of Remberti Dodonæi Stirpium Hiſtoriæ Pemptades Sex.

DODARTIA. So Tournefort calls a plant in honour of Monſ. Dodart. Miller mentions two ſpecies; but they are of no uſe in medicine.

DODECADACTYLON. The duodenum, from δωδεκα, *twelve*, and δακτυλος, *fingers length*.

DODECANDRIA. The eleventh of Linnæus's claſſes of plants; in it are one ſtyle; twelve filaments in each flower fixed at their baſes to the inſide of the cup.

DODECAPHARMACUM. A compoſition in which is twelve ingredients; for which reaſon it is a name of the ungt. apoſtol.

DODECATHEON. The name of an antidote which conſiſts of twelve ſimples. It is deſcribed by P. Ægineta.

DODECATHEON, i. e. Sanicula.

DODRA. A kind of potion among the antients made of nine ingredients.

DODRANS. A nine ounce meaſure. See CYATHUS.

It is the name alſo of a meaſure of nine inches, and a weight of ten ounces.

DŒDYX, i. e. Cochlearę.

DOGGA. An Arabic term for the paronychia.

DOGMA, from δοκεω, *to be of opinion*. In medicine it is a ſentiment founded on reaſon and experience, which are the profeſſed rules of the *dogmatiſt*, as diſtinguiſhed from one of the methodic or of the empiric ſects.

DOLICHOLITHOS, from δολιχος, a *kidney-bean*. Velſchius gives this name to certain blackiſh ſtones brought from Tyrol, of the ſhape of a *kidney-bean*, and which emit an odorous effluvium upon attrition.

DOLICHOS. Long or prolix. It is alſo a pod or kidney-bean, (ſee PHASEOLUS ZURRATENSIS), and a race of twelve, or according to Suidas of twenty-four ſtadia.

DOLOIRES, i. e. Aſcia.

DOLOR. Pain. As the brain is the ſeat of ſenſation, ſo it is of *pain*. Boerhaave and moſt other authors on this ſubject aſſign a ſtretching of the nerves as the only immediate cauſe of pain; but as the nerves do not appear to conſiſt of fibres, this cauſe of *pain* does not ſeem to be well founded; nor indeed will it be eaſy to treat this ſubject clearly, but in proportion as the means of ſenſation are underſtood. See the articles BRAIN, NERVES, and SYMPATHY.

Many kinds of *pain* are met with in authors; ſuch as a gravitative *pain*, in which there is a ſenſe of weight on the part affected, which is always ſome fleſhy one, as the liver, &c.; a pulſative *pain*, this, Galen ſays, always ſucceeds ſome remarkable inflammation in the containing

parts, and is obſerved in abſceſſes while ſuppurating: a tenſive *pain*, which is alſo called a diſtending *pain*; it is excited by the diſtenſion of ſome nervous, muſcular, or membranous part, from either ſome humour, or from flatulence: an acute *pain* is when great *pain* is attended with quick and lively ſenſations: a dull *pain* is when a kind of numbneſs is as much complained of as the *pain* is.

The mediate and more remote cauſes of *pain* are generally obvious; and when ſo, the cure will conſiſt for the moſt part in removing them; for though in many inſtances the chief complaint is very diſtant from the ſeat of theſe cauſes, yet their removal is the proper method of relief: the reſpective methods of affecting which are intimated in each diſorder included in the rank of painful ones. Perhaps all pains may be included with irritation, in thoſe that have ſpaſm or inflammation for their ſource.

When pain is owing to inflammation, the pulſe is quicker than in a natural ſtate; it is alſo generally full, hard, and tenſe; the pain is equal, throbbing, and unremitting. If a ſpaſm is the cauſe, the pulſe is rarely affected; at intervals the pain abates, and then returns with ſome degree of aggravation; gentle motion ſometimes abates, or even cures, in ſome inſtances; but in inflammatory caſes no ſuch effects are ever experienced. See Dr. Lobb's Treatiſe of Painful Diſtempers.

The pains ſo frequently attendant on child-bed women, called after-pains (from their happening only after being delivered of a child) are often occaſioned by ſcooping, to fetch away coagulated blood, which is a needleſs endeavour. When no improper treatment in delivering the ſecundines can be ſuſpected, the irritability of the uterus alone is to be conſidered as the cauſe. Care ſhould be taken not to confound theſe after-pains with, or miſtake the pains attending perpetual fevers, or the colic. After-pains come by fits, and ſoon go off, but return at different intervals, which are longer each day, and after two or three days are uſually at an end, though ſometimes they continue ſeven or eight: notwithſtanding theſe pains, the lochia flow properly, and generally more abundantly after the ceſſation of each fit; this does not happen in colicky complaints, nor is the belly ſo free from tumefaction when the puerperal fever is attendant.

As theſe pains are of the ſpaſmodic kind, anodynes and gentle opiates, with frequent draughts of warm caudle, chamomile tea, &c. are all that are required in order to their relief. See the authors recommended under the article PUERPERILA FEBRIS.

Among the various cauſes of pain, a ſingular one is related in the third vol. of the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. p. 241, &c. Some perſons who had taken cold during their being ſalivated, were afflicted with pains which reſiſted all the uſual methods of relief; at length the author of the narrative referred to ſuggeſted the cauſe, and by exciting a freſh ſalivation, the pains abated; the ſpitting was kept up a little while, and permitted to abate with ſome caution, and thus the cures were completed.

DOLORES. Painful diſeaſes.

DOLOROSI, i. e. Dolores.

DOLOROSI EXTRINSECI. Painful diſeaſes of the limbs.

DOLOROSI INTRINSECI. Painful diſeaſes of the internal parts.

DOMESTICUS, Domeſtic. In zoology, it ſignifies animals that are fed at home, in diſtinction from thoſe called wild. It botany, it ſignifies cultivated. In pharmacy ſome medicines are thus named which are managed in a family without the direction of a phyſician.

DONAX. See ARUNDO and ONYX.

DORA. A name for a ſpecies of milium.

DORCAS, i. e. Capra Alpina, and capreolus.

DOREA. So Rhaſes calls a perſon who can ſee by day and not by night.

DORIA. Doria's wound-wort.

DORIA NARBONENSIUM, alſo called herba Doria, Lobelii, virga aurea major, aliſma, damaſonicum, Jacobæa pratenſis. Doria's wound-wort.

It grows on the banks of rivers, flowers in July and Auguſt, is commended as a vulnerary, but not in much uſe.

DORIA, alſo called Jacobæa paluſtris, virga aurea, ſolidagini, lingua avis, lingua major, conyza paluſtris, and doria, with white pointed leaves.

It is found in fenny countries, but of no great uſe in medicine.

Boerhaave enumerates fifteen ſpecies.

DORIDIS HUMOR. So the ſea-water is called in Serenus Samonicus.

DORIS. A name for the echium; alſo for the anchuſa.

DORONICUM. Leopard's-bane.

DORONICUM ROMANUM, alſo called doronicum radice ſcorpii, doron. vulg. graphoy, aconitum pardalianches minus, broad-leaved leopard's bane, Roman leopard's bane, and wolf's bane. It is the doronicum pardalianches. Linn.

It is a native of the Alps; is cultivated in our gardens; hath heart-ſhaped leaves, and roots that are knotted, and reſemble a ſcorpion's tail. It flowers in June and July. The roots are ſweetiſh to the taſte, and ſlightly aromatic. Some extol it in epilepſies; but it is not noted at preſent in our practice. Some think it is the duronegi of the Arabians.

DORONICUM GERMANICUM, called alſo arnica, aliſma, doronicum Plantaginis folio, calendula Alpina, lyrus, acyrus, and German leopard's bane. It is the arnica montana. Linn.

The leaves are like thoſe of plantain; the roots are oblong: it is a native of the mountainous parts of Germany, and flowers throughout the ſummer.

The leaves and flowers have a penetrating bitteriſh taſte; when bruiſed their odour excites ſneezing. Both water and ſpirit extract their virtue by infuſion, and in diſtillation carries much of it over with them. The roots are more aromatic than thoſe of the above ſpecies, and their active matter is leſs volatile. The Germans call it lapſorum panacea, from its ſuppoſed efficacy in reſolving coagulated blood. Some extol a decoction of the whole plant in fevers with hæmorrhages, effervеſcenſes, &c. but it is not of much note with us. See Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

DORONICUM AMERICANUM LACINIATO FOLIO. Perennial ſun-flowers with large divided leaves.

DORONICUM MAXIM. AMERICAN. &c. Tree-like perennial ſun-flower, with a broad plane-tree leaf.

DORONICUM PANNONICUM. A ſpecies of water plantain.

DORSALES. The nerves which paſs out from the vertebræ of the back are thus named. Theſe *dorſal* nerves, as ſoon as they paſs from the vertebræ, ſend out two branches anteriorly, which contribute to form the intercoſtal, and ſend ſeveral twigs backwards to the muſcles. The *dorſal* nerves go to the internal and external intercoſtal muſcles, running on the under ſide of the ribs; theſe that go to the true ribs reach as far as the ſternum; thoſe that go to the ſpurious ribs are diſperſed on the muſcles of the belly. The firſt *dorſal* nerve goes to the axilla, to join the cervical; the laſt is diffuſed over the tranſverſalis and obliqui interni; and at the ſpine of the os ilium it throws a branch out, to be a cutaneous nerve on the hip.

DORSIFEROUS PLANTS, of *dorſum*, the *back*, and *fero*, *to bear*. Such plants as are of the capillary kind without ſtalks, and which bear their ſeeds on the backs of their leaves.

DORSTENIA. So Father Plumier called contrayerva, in honour of Dr. Dorſten, a German phyſician.

DORSTINEA, i. e. Dorſtenia.

DORSUM. The back. Moſt etymologiſts ſay, from *deorſum*, becauſe it bends downwards.

What is commonly called a gibboſity is a preternatural incurvation of the ſpine of the back, either to the poſterior or to the lateral parts. It generally happens from external cauſes, as blows, tight ſtays, &c. Gouey, in his Surgery, gives an inſtance from a preternatural contraction of the muſcles of the belly. A relaxation of the ligaments of the vertebræ may alſo be the cauſe. See Heiſter's Inſt. of Surgery.

DORYCNIUM. Shrub trefoil of Montpelier. Alſo the rock roſe.

DORYCNIUM IMPERATI. A name for the convolvulus major rectus Creticus argenteus.

DOTHIEN. A boil. See FURUNCULUS.

DOR-

DOUGLASSIA. A plant ſo called by Dr. Wm. Houſtoun, in honour of Dr. Douglaſs. See Miller's Dict. vol. i.

DRABA, called alſo lepidium, Arabian muſtard, and Turkey creſſes. The ſeeds ſerve as pepper in ſeaſonings, but are not noted as a medicine.

DRABA. A name of a ſpecies of lepidium, of leucoium, and of ſeveral ſorts of heſperis.

DRACHATES, i. e. Draconites.

DRACHMA. Among the Greeks this was the name of a coin; alſo of a weight, which they divided into ſix oboli. The Romans reckoned eight drams to an ounce, and twelve ounces to a pound.

DRACO. A dragon, from *δρακων, a ſerpent.*

DRACO, called *draco* herba, tarachon, tarchon, dracunculus hortenſis, abrotanum lilifolio tarragon.

The leaves of this herb reſemble thoſe of hyſop; the flowers grow on the top of the plant, and reſemble thoſe of ſouthernwood. It is planted in gardens, and flowers in July and Auguſt. The leaves have a ſtrongiſh ſcent, ſomewhat like fennel; they are are warm and ſtomachic, but not much noticed in medicine. See Miller's Bot. Off.

DRACO ARBOR IND. SILIQ. i. e. Angſana. See alſo SANG. DRACONIS.

DRACOCEPHALO-AFFINIS. A name for the Moldavica Americana trifolia odore gravi.

DRACOCEPHALON. American dragon's head. The flower reſembles the mouth of a dragon when its mouth is open.

DRACO FIGENS. The name of an anti-epileptic powder extolled by Dolæus.

DRACO SYLVESTRIS. See PTARNICA.

DRACONTHEMA, from *δρακων, a dragon,* and *αιμα, blood,* i. e. ſanguis draconis.

DRACONTIA, i. e. Dracontium.

DRACONTIA MINOR, i. e. Arum.

DRACONTIAS, i. e. Draconites.

DRACONTIDES. A name given, as Rufus Epheſius informs us, to ſome veins proceeding directly from the heart.

DRACONTIUM, alſo called dracunculus polyphyllus, dracuntium, ſerpentaria, arum polyphyllum, dragon's and many leaved arum. It is the *arum dracunculus.* Linn.

It is a plant with ſmooth gloſſy leaves, ſet on long pedicles; the ſtem is ſingle, thick, whitiſh, and variegated with purple ſtreaks; on the top is a long ſheath, including a dark coloured piſtil, like that of *arum,* but larger, which is ſucceeded by a cluſter of red berries. The root is large, roundiſh, externally inclining to yellow, and internally it is white. It is perennial; a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe.

Its botanic characters are the ſame as thoſe of *arum,* and its medical virtues ſo ſmilar, that each may be ſubſtituted for the other. It is only uſeful whilſt freſh, and the ſame pharmaceutic management as directed for *arum* is proper for this.

DRACONTIUM. A name of the dracunculus polyphyllus.

DRACUNCULI, from *δρακων, a ſerpent.* Guiney worms, called alſo capillares vermiculi, tape-worm, and ſolitary-worm. The Arabians call it vena Medinenſis, which ſee.

Dr. Friend ſays, that Ætius is the firſt who gives an account of theſe worms; but Plutarch quotes Agatharchides for an account of them, who writ long before Ætius. Plutarch calls them *δρακοντομακρα.*

They are common in both the Indies, in moſt parts of Africa, in Switzerland, Genoa, and many other hot countries. Some confound them with the bovina affectio, but they are not the ſame. See MEDINENSIS VENA.

"This *worm* reſembles a common *worm,* but is often much larger: it is commonly found in the legs, but ſometimes it is in the muſcular part of the arms. Theſe *worms* are bred in Ethiopia and India, principally affecting children; and their generation is not unlike that of the broad *worms* of the belly. While they move under the ſkin they create no trouble; but in length of time the place near the dracunculus ſuppurates, and the animal puts forth its head. If it be drawn, it excites conſiderable uneaſineſs, eſpecially if you draw it ſo forcibly as to break it; for the part left within creates intolerable pain." Ætius in Tetrabib. 4. ſerm. 2. cap. 85. Paulus Ægineta mentions them as being always ſeated in the muſcular parts of the thighs, legs, and arms; and he ſays, that ſometimes they are met with in the ſides of children. Avicenna ſays, that theſe *worms* are from ten to fifteen palms long. Albucaſis mentions one of twenty palms. In the ſixth vol. of the Edinb. Med. Eſſays, mention is made of one that was three yards and a half in length.

In ſome inſtances, beſides the pain which theſe *worms* occaſion, a fever is alſo a conſequence.

Kempfer obſerves, that theſe *worms* prevail moſt when the weather is hotteſt; and he attributes their production to ſtagnant rain water, which is ſo much drank in hot countries.

Dr. Towne, in his Treatiſe on the Diſeaſes of the Weſt-Indies, deſcribes this *worm* as being long, white, round, and reſembling round tape or bobbing. This deſcription is juſt.

Nothing need be done until a tumor appears, and then the beſt method is to ſuppurate; as ſoon as the tumor is open, the head of the *worm* appears, which being tied by a thread, may be ſecured on a roll of linen ſpread with ſticking plaſter, and as the *worm* appears, it may be rolled round this linen roll, until the whole is extracted; after which, the treatment will be only as in common caſes. During the time that this *worm* is coming out, the greateſt care is neceſſary that it may not be broken, for the conſequence of ſuch an accident is tedious ulcers in the whole length of the part which is poſſeſſed of the remaining *worm.* A daily uſe of aloes, or of any other anthelmintic, is convenient during the extraction of the *worm,* as ſuch means are obſerved to haſten it away.

DRACUNCULOIDES. Baſtard herb dragon.

DRACUNCULUS, from *δρακων, a ſerpent.* A ſpecies of ptarmica, a name of the herb tarragon, of the herb dracontium, and of the Guinea worm. Alſo the ulcer made by the Guinea worm.

DRACUNCULUS AQUATICUS. A ſpecies of arum.

DRACUNCULUS POLYPHYLLUS, i. e. Dracontium.

DRAGACANTHÆ, i. e. Gum tragacanth.

DRAGANTUM. Gum tragacanth.

DRAGMA. An handful.

DRAGMIS. A pugil.

DRAKENA RADIX, i. e. Rad. contrayerva.

DRANGÆA. A name of ſeveral antidotes. Fuſchius ſays it anſwers to what the moderns call tragæa.

DRANK. See BROMUS.

DRAPTA. Dilacerated.

DRASTICOS, from *δραω, to act, effect* or *perform.* Draſtic, active. It is an epithet beſtowed on medicines of preſent efficacy and potent operation, and is commonly applied to emetics and cathartics of a violent quality.

DRESDENSIS PULVIS. It is an oleoſaccharum, in which is the oil of cinnamon.

DRIFF. So Helmont calls Butler's ſtone, or ſome ſuch preparation, which is alſo called periapton ſalutis magneticum. It is ſaid to cure diſeaſes by a touch of it with the lips and tongue.

DRYMYLEON, from *δρυμυς, eager, ſhrewd,* and *λεων, a lion.* This was a term of reproach beſtowed by Menodotus, the Empiric, upon the phyſicians of his time, who profeſſed to govern their practice by reaſon.

DRIMYPHAGIA, from *δριμυς, acrid,* and *φαγω, to eat.* The eating of acrid ſubſtances.

DROMA. The name of a plaſter deſcribed by Myrepſus.

DROPACES. See CEROPISSUS.

DROPACISMUS, i. e. Dropax.

DROPAX. Ingredients for theſe compoſitions are pitch, oil, bitumen, galbanum, and other ſtimulants. See CEROPISSUS.

DROSATUM, i. e. Roſatum.

DROSERON. The name of an ointment in Myrepſus.

DROSIOBOTANON. Betony.

DROSION, i. e. Ros ſolis folio oblongo.

DROSOMELI. Manna.

DRUMYMOROS, from *δρυμυς, eager* or *ſhrewd,* and *μωρος, a fool.* The ſame as drimyleon.

DRUPA. An epithet for olives, which, when ripe, fall from the trees ſpontaneouſly.

DRYINUS, from *δρυς*, *an oak*. The name of a kind of ſerpent; they live about oak trees.

DRYOPETES, or Dryopetis. A ſpecies of green frogs.

DRYOPTERIS, i. e. Polypodium tenerum minus.

DRYPA, i. e. Drupa.

DUBEL COLEPH. A compoſition of coral and amber.

DUBELECH. The cavity of an apoſtem, with manifeſt ſolution of continuity.

DUBLETUS. An abſceſs. This word is from the Arabic.

DUCIA, or Duccia. Barbarous terms for a drop. They imply alſo that ſpecies of bathing which we call pumping, and the French la douche. Baccius, in his Treatiſe of Baths, l. 2. gives rules for this kind of bathing. See alſo Le Dran's Obſervations, p. 310.

DUCIS HOLSATIÆ (Sal), i. e. Nitrum vitriolatum.

DUCTUS, from *duco*, *to lead*. A duct or canal. This word is frequently applied to parts of the body through which particular fluids are conveyed.

DUCTUS ARTERIOSUS. It is found only in the fœtus, and very young children: it ariſes from the aorta deſcendens, immediately below the left ſubclavian artery. In adults it is cloſed up, and appears like a ſhort ligament adhering by one end to the aorta, and by the other to the pulmonary artery, ſo that in reality it deſerves no other name than that of ligamentum arteriоſum.

DUCTUS AURIS PALATINUS, i. e. Tuba Euſtachiana.

DUCTUS AD NASUM. See Maxilla Superiora.

DUCTUS NIGRI. On ſeparating the cryſtalline and vitreous humours from their adheſions to the ciliary proceſſes, part of the black pigment, which is on the choroides chiefly, is left lying in black radiated lines, which are thus named.

DUCTUS STENONIS, i. e. Duct. ſalival. ſuper.

DUCTUS THORACICUS. It is a thin tranſparent canal, which runs up from the receptaculum chyli, along the ſpina dorſi, between the azygos and aorta, as high as the fifth vertebra of the back or higher; from thence it paſſes behind the aorta, towards the left hand, and aſcends behind the left ſubclavian vein, where it terminates in ſome ſubjects by a kind of veſicula; in others by ſeveral branches united together, and opens into the back ſide of the ſubclavian vein near the outſide of the internal jugular. It is furniſhed with many ſemilunar valves turned upwards. Its opening into the ſubclavian vein in the human body, is in the place of valves, covered by ſeveral pelliculæ, ſo diſpoſed as to permit the entrance of the chyle into the vein, and hinder the blood from running into the *duct*. It is ſometimes double, one lying on each ſide, and ſometimes it is accompanied with appendices, called pampiniformes.

DUCTUS VENOSUS. In a fœtus, as the vena cava paſſes the liver, it gives off the *ductus veneſus*, which communicates with the ſinus of the vena porta, and in adults becomes a flat ligament.

DUCTUS WHARTONI. The inferior ſalival duct is thus named from his deſcribing it.

DUDAIM, i. e. Mandragora.

DUDASALI. A ſpecies of ſnake-wood.

DUELLA. A weight of eight ſcruples.

DUENECH. Antimony.

DUENEZ. Filings of ſteel.

DULCACIDUM. Any preparation that is ſweet and tart.

DULCAMARA, i. e. Amara dulcis. See Solanum Lignosum.

DULCEDO SATURNI, i. e. Ceruſs.

DULCEDO VENERIS, i. e. Clitoris.

DULCHICHINUM. A name for the Cyperus rotundus aſculentus anguſti folius.

DULCIS RADIX. Liquorice root.

DULECH. A term uſed by Paracelſus and Helmont for a ſort of ſpongy ſtone generated in the body.

DULESH. A ſpecies of alga.

DUMUS. A buſh. *Buſhes* ſend out branches from near their roots; hence are diſtinguiſhed from trees, whoſe ſtem riſes conſiderably before any branches are ſent out. Rubus alſo ſignifies a *buſh*; but *dumus* is a *buſh*, ſuch as the thorn; and rubus is a *buſh*, ſuch as the briar.

DUOBUS (Pil. ex), i. e. Pil. colocynth. ſi.

DUOBUS (Sal de), i. e. Nitrum vitriolatum.

DUODENALIS ARTERIA, alſo called inteſtinalis. As ſoon as the gaſtrica dextra hath paſſed behind the ſtomach it ſends out the duodenal artery (which ſometimes comes from the trunk of the hepatica); it runs along the *duodenum*, on the ſide next the pancreas, to both which it furniſhes branches, and alſo the neighbouring part of the ſtomach.

DUODENALIS VENA. A branch from the vena portæ ventralis; it is diſtributed chiefly in the *duodenum*, but ſends ſome branches to the pancreas. A branch of the gaſtrica is alſo thus called. The hæmorrhoidalis interna gives a branch of this name to the *duodenum*.

DUODENUM, from *duodeni*, *twelve*. This inteſtine is thus named from a ſuppoſition that its length does not exceed the breadth of twelve fingers, and if meaſured with the ends of the fingers, it is about the matter. It begins at the right orifice of the ſtomach behind the liver; it runs backward, and obliquely downward; then turns a ſecond time towards the right kidney, to which it is attached by the cellular membrane, and thence paſſes between the kidney and liver, marching acroſs the ſpine about the laſt vertebra of the back; it comes out on the left ſide, behind the root of the meſentery; as ſoon as it arrives at the meſentery, it forms the jejunum. It is the wideſt and ſhorteſt of the ſmall inteſtines; in ſhort, it is a ſort of ſuccedaneous ſtomach, and is by ſome called ventriculus ſuccenturiatus. Its extremity next to the jejunum, is fixed in a courſe almoſt perpendicular upwards. It is not entirely covered with the peritoneum, nor is it furbelowed on the meſentery, for thereby it would have dragged the ſtomach down, but is attached to the neighbouring parts. Its outer coat is furniſhed with more cellular membranes than any of the other ſmall inteſtines; the villi in its inſide are thicker than in the ſtomach, and its texture is like a fungus, and not like hairs, as it is uſually repreſented in figures. As its form is much like that of the ſtomach, ſo is its uſe of the ſame nature; it is furniſhed with liquors peculiar to itſelf, ſince not only a large number of ſmall glands diſcovered by Brunnerus, and which diſcharge a menſtruous lymph, are ſituated in it, but alſo becauſe the pancreatic juice mixing with the bile, accompliſhes the farther elaboration and rectification of the chyle; thus the digeſtion of the aliment, begun in the ſtomach, is completed in the *duodenum*. Its arteries and veins, ſee Duodenalis Arteria & Vena. Its nerves are the middle plexus of the ſemilunar ganglion, and ſome filaments of the plexus ſtomachus and hepaticus. The *duodenum* is connected with the œſophagus by the ſame coats, and hence they communicate with the coat which ſurrounds the fauces and the mouth. Like the ſtomach, the *duodenum* hath a connection with almoſt all the body by the nerves.

Of ſuch importance is the *duodenum*, that Sylvius aſſerts it to be the ſeat of almoſt all the diſorders in the phyſician's province; Helmont agrees with him; and in truth, the more this inteſtine is underſtood, the greater appearance there ſeems to be of reality in their thoughts.

In the circulation no morbid matter can be ſaid to be produced; in the ſtomach and *duodenum* a ſtagnation, and conſequent degeneracy, may, and often is ſeen to happen; if the bile ſtagnates in the *duodenum*, it ſoon acquires a morbid quality, and occaſions great anxiety, with other afflictive ſymptoms. Other juices by too long delay there, acquire a morbid acrimony alſo. From this ſource, viz. the morbid contents of the *duodenum*, it is eaſy to trace out many diſorders. The truth of this is farther confirmed, by the ſucceſs of emetics, and of gentle purgatives, in the cure of many chronical complaints. When morbid matter in the *duodenum* is the ſuſpected cauſe of any illneſs, emetics ſhould not be omitted. The reaſon why emetics are inſiſted on, is, becauſe the ſtomach and the *duodenum* have a glandulous coat over their nervous one; whereas in the other inteſtines, the nervous coat lies more immediately expoſed to the action of purg-

purging medicines, which often paſs the ſtomach and *duodenum*, without much affecting their nervous coat. Or if emetics are not ventured on as ſuch, the action of purges may be quickened by a ſmall addition of the antimonial wine, or of emetic tartar. See Monro's Obſervations on the Inteſtines in the Edinb. Eſſays, and Fred. Hoffman on the *duodenum*.

DUPLICANA, i. e. Tertiana duplex.

DUPONDIUM. A weight equal to four drams.

DURA MATER, alſo called craſſa meninx, to diſtinguiſh it from the meninx tenuis or pia mater, which two membranes are called meninges, or matres, from being the ſuppoſed ſource of all the other membranes.

The *dura mater* lies contiguous to the inſide of the ſkull every where; its ſubſtance is very compact; it is white, and gliſtening like a tendon, and is by ſome divided into two lamellæ, by others into more. The external ſurface of this membrane is analogous to the internal ſurface of the perioſteum in all parts of the body; it adheres more firmly to the cranium at the ſutures than elſewhere, becauſe of the veſſels which run in theſe, and in the proceſſes which are thrown out. The inner ſurface of the *dura mater* is in general a ſmooth membrane, and lies looſe upon the pia mater, except at the ſinuſes, where they are attached by means of the veins which come out from the pia mater, and ſinking into the *dura mater*, form the ſinuſes. The proceſſes of the *dura mater* are divided into the external and the internal. The true external are thoſe that line the foramina, which, when they get out, are loſt in the pericranium; but when the proceſſes of the *dura mater* are mentioned, without particularizing them, the internal ones are to be underſtood. The longitudinal, or the falciform proceſs (ſo called from its ſhape being like that of a ſcythe) begins at the criſta galli; runs thence in the direction of the ſagittal ſuture, to the middle of the os occipitis, dividing the cerebrum into two hemiſpheres; it there forms two tranſverſe proceſſes which lie between the two poſterior lobes of the cerebrum and cerebellum. The glands of the *dura mater*, ſpoken of by ſome old anatomiſts, are not ever met with by the moderns. The ſinuſes of the *dura mater* are venal, though their ſtructure and form differs from veins; every ſection is triangular, and their form like a priſm. The veins are every where pouring their blood into theſe ſinuſes from all parts of the brain, and there are ſeveral cords going acroſs them, which from their diſcoverer, are called cordæ Williſii. The orifices of the veins of the pia mater into the ſinuſes, are in a direction contrary to the courſe of the blood in the ſinuſes. The principal ſinus run along the proceſſes. The longitudinal ſinus begins ſmall at the criſta galli, becomes larger as it proceeds, and running on to the os occipitis, forms the two tranſverſe ſinuſes, which paſſing out of the cranium, between the os temporis, and the os occipitis, form the internal jugular veins. Juſt at the angle where the longitudinal ſinus divides into the two tranſverſe, the fourth ſinus, called torcular herophili opens, which is formed by the vena magna Galeni. The *dura mater* appears more red than the tendons, becauſe of the arteries which go to the brain, and which play upon its ſurface before they penetrate it. The arteries go from ſide to ſide, but do not open into the ſinuſes, as ſome have aſſerted. Wherever an artery runs upon the *dura mater*, it is accompanied with one or more veins, which contribute to make the ſulci on the cranium, as well as the arteries. Its principal uſes are as a covering for the brain; it alſo ſerves as an inner perioſteum. The uſe of the proceſſes is to connect the bones, and the uſe of the ſinuſes is to return the blood freely.

The *dura mater*, when expoſed in a living animal, is ſeen to have a pulſation correſponding to that of the arteries, and is owing to the ſyſtole and diaſtole of the arteries of the pia mater. When the *dura mater* is laid bare, it commonly ſloughs like a tendon; in ſome caſes it is oſſified. The brain is ſometimes protruded through the bregma in children, and the *dura mater* ſerves for a bag for the rupture. Gooch, in his Med. Obſ. gives an inſtance of a fractured ſkull; in which caſe, a fluid being perceived under the *dura mater*, in order to its diſcharge this membrane was cut through with ſciſſars from one ear to the other, and the patient recovered.

The arteries of the *dura mater* are from the carotids, ſee DURÆ MATRIS ARTERIÆ. The nerves are from the trunk of the fifth pair, and from the common trunk of the eighth pair.

DURÆ MATRIS ARTERIÆ. The dura matral arteries. The external carotid *artery* ſends a branch through the ſpinal hole of the os ſphenoidale, which is the middle *artery* of the *dura mater*, and is called by way of eminence, the *artery* of the *dura mater*. It is divided into many branches, which are diſperſed through the ſubſtance of the external lamina as high as the falx, where theſe ramifications communicate with their fellows on the other ſide. The impreſſions of this *artery* are ſeen on the inſide of the parietal bones; the anterior and lower angle of which, inſtead of a ſimple impreſſion, contain a canal for the paſſage of a trunk of this *artery*; on which account, ſeveral accidents happen in fractures of the ſkull. The external carotid ſends off another branch through the ſuperior orbitary fiſſure to the dura mater, called its anterior *artery*. The carotid and the vertebrals ſend its branches. Winſlow calls the firſt mentioned of theſe *arteries* ſpheno-ſpinalis. Dr. Hunter ſays, the dura matral *artery* proceeds from the inferior maxillary *artery*, and paſſes through a hole in the petrous part of the temporal bone.

DURATUS. Hardened; but Scrib. Largus expreſſes by it macerated.

DURIO. A large tree in the Eaſt Indies, with a fruit like a melon.

DURONEGO. Broad-leaved leopard's-bane. See DORONICUM.

DUTROY. See STRAMONIUM.

DYAHIBALA. A name for the mimoſa non ſpinoſa major.

DYAMASSIEN, i. e. Flos Æris.

DYNAMIS, from δυναμαι, *to be able*. It is the faculty or power from whence an action proceeds. Galen often uſes this word for a compoſition of a medicine, ſometimes particularly of an approved one.

DYOTA. A pelican, or circulating veſſel, with two ears, reſembling in ſhape a man ſtanding with his arms bent outward, and his hands on his ſides.

DYSÆSTHAESIA, from δυς, *difficulty*, and αισθανομαι *to feel* or *perceive*. A dulneſs of ſenſation, or faulty ſenſe.

DYSALTHES, from δυς, *difficulty*, and αλθω, *to cure*, difficult of cure.

DYSANAGOGOS. An epithet for tough viſcid matter, which is difficultly expectorated.

DYSCINESIA, from δυς, *bad*, and κινεω, *to move*. Difficulty of motion. Alſo faulty or defective organs.

DYSCRASIA. Dyſcracy.

DYSCRITOS, from δυς, *difficult*, and κρισις, *a criſis*. Difficult to be brought to a criſis, or brought to an imperfect criſis.

DYSECŒA, from δυς, *difficult*, and ακουω, *to hear*. Deafneſs. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſæſthеſiæ. He points out two ſpecies. 1. *Dyſecœa organica*, from a fault in the organs by which ſound is tranſmitted into the internal ear. 2. *Dyſecœa atonica*, in which there is no manifeſt fault in the organs for tranſmitting ſound into the internal ear.

DYSELCES, from δυς, *difficult*, and ελκος, *an ulcer*. An epithet for ſuch perſons whoſe ulcers are difficult to heal.

DYSEMETI, from δυς, *difficult*, and εμεω, *to vomit*, thoſe who vomit with difficulty.

DYSENTERIA, from δυς, *difficulty*, or *evil* or *diſeaſe*, and εντερα, *the inteſtines*. A dyſentery. It is often called the bloody-flux, becauſe blood ſometimes appears in the ſtools; but this is not a common ſymptom, nor eſſential to the diſeaſe. Dr. Akenſide calls the *dyſentery* a rheumatiſm in the bowels, and ſays, that a *dyſentery* and rheumatiſm are the ſame. The Latins name this diſorder *tormina*. Cœlus Aurelianus calls this diſororder a rheumatiſm of the belly, and ſays it is preceded either by a diarrhœa, a cholera morbus, or a tumor of the belly. Dr. Cullen defines it a contagious fever, in which the patient has frequent ſtools, accompanied with much griping, and followed by a teneſmus. The ſtools, though frequent, are generally ſmall in quantity; the matter voided is chiefly

mucous; ſometimes mixed with blood. At the ſame time, the natural fæces ſeldom appear, and when they do, it is generally in a compact and hardened form. He places this diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order profluviæ. There is but one ſpecies, which varies its name from different circumſtances, e. g. *dyſenteria caſtrenſis*, from happening in a camp, when deſcribed by an author whoſe obſervations were made in a camp. *Dyſenteria verminoſa*, from being occaſionally accompanied with worms. *Dyſenteria carnoſa*, when fleſhy or ſebaceous lumps were diſcharged. *Dyſenteria intermittens*, when accompanied with an intermitting fever. *Dyſenteria alba*, when the ſtools had no blood in them. *Dyſenteria miliaria*, when accompanied with miliary eruptions. All others are ſymptomatic.

In ſome inſtances, this diſeaſe is acute, but more frequently of a chronical kind.

According to different authors, the *dyſentery* is divided into many ſpecies; but with reſpect to the cure, the beſt method of conſidering it is as follows: a diarrhœa is conſtituted a *dyſentery* by the gripes, ſlimy ſtools, teneſmus, &c. it may be attended with inflammatory, putrid, or other ſymptoms, or may be totally free from them; ſimply then the diarrhœa, attended with pain, is a *dyſentery*, and all other ſymptoms are accidental; and though requiring ſome difference in the method of cure, they do not conſtitute different *dyſenteries*. For different ſpecies, conſult Dr. Zimmerman.

When the ſmall inteſtines are the ſeat of the diſeaſe, and blood is diſcharged, it is more intimately mixed with the ſtools than when the ſeat is in the lower: when the lower inteſtines are principally affected, an hiccup is a frequent ſymptom. The pain being above or below the navel, generally indicates the ſeat of the diſeaſe; if below, the ſtools ſoon follow the returns of pain, and the ſeat is in the greater or lower inteſtines; if above, and the ſtools do not quickly follow the pain, the ſmall inteſtines are chiefly affected. When the ſeat is in the rectum, the excrements, and the abraſions of the part, are ſeparately voided; but as the malady is higher, the abraſions and excrements are more mixed in the diſcharges.

The plethoric, bilious, and thoſe of irregular life, are the moſt ſubject to a *dyſentery*.

The primary cauſes are an error in the non-naturals, particularly the air and diet. Hippocrates obſerves, that *dyſenteries* rage moſt in thoſe ſummers which ſucceed very cold and dry winters that followed with a rainy ſpring; that a rainy winter and a dry ſpring alſo produce them. Bontius remarks, that the hotteſt ſeaſon hath the moſt natural tendency to produce them; and that about Auguſt or September, when the cold nights ſucceed the heat of the day, this diſtemper rages the moſt. This remark of Bontius's is the moſt applicable to what happens in our camps, where the ſoldiers are expoſed to damps in their night watches, as well as to cold and damp grounds, where generally they are ſituated. This obſtructs perſpiration, and as the bowels are more or leſs weak, nature ſeeks her relief in their diſcharges, and the conſtitution is proportionably harraſſed. A putrid air particularly offends the bowels, and irritates them to inordinate diſcharges, and putrid aliment is no leſs miſchievous. Fruit, and fermentative liquors, too freely uſed, are often productive of this diſorder.

The antecedent cauſe is generally, if not always, a ſuppreſſion of ſome other excretion, and for the moſt part this is that of perſpiration.

The immediate cauſe is a ſtimulus applied to the inteſtines. The bile and pancreatic juice becoming acrid, or too abundant, irritate and excite to proportionably frequent ejections. Purges adminiſtered when the irritability of the bowels is preternaturally increaſed, or aliments that are acrid, or become ſo, may alſo ſolicit to this morbid evacuation, and produce the painful ſymptoms uſually attendant on it. Sydenham, who deſcribes this diſorder well, calls it a fever of a peculiar kind, and ſays that it is cauſed by the morbid matter turning particularly on the inteſtines, and that the meſeraic arteries convey it there from the blood.

The diagnoſtics are, according to Sydenham's celebrated deſcription, as follow: 1ſt, The patient is attacked with a chillneſs and ſhaking, which is immediately ſucceeded by, 2dly, A heat of the whole body; ſoon after this, 3dly, Gripes and ſtools follow; it is indeed often not preceded by a fever, but the gripes attack firſt, and the ſtools ſoon ſucceed. 4thly, Intolerable gripings, and a painful deſcent, as it were, of the bowels accompany every evacuation. 5thly, The diſcharges are chiefly mucous, except now and then that an excrementitious one intervenes without any conſiderably pain. 6thly, The mucous ſtools are generally ſtreaked with blood, but ſometimes no appearance thereof is ſeen throughout the diſeaſe; nevertheleſs, if the ſtools are frequent, mucous, and accompanied with gripings, the diſtemper may as juſtly be entitled a *dyſentery*, as if blood was diſcharged along with them. 7thly, If the patient is in the vigour of life, or hath been treated with cardiacs, a fever ariſes, and the tongue is covered with a thick, white mucus, and if he hath been much heated, it is black and dry; great loſs of ſtrength; a lowneſs of ſpirit, and all the ſigns of an ill-conditioned fever are joined with it. 8thly, This diſeaſe is attended with extreme pain and ſickneſs, greatly endangering life, if unſkilfully treated; for when the ſpirits are much exhauſted, and the vital heat diminiſhed by frequent ſtools, before the matter can be expelled from the blood, a coldneſs of the extremities enſues, and there is danger of death, even within the periods of acute diſeaſes. But if the patient eſcapes for this time, ſeveral ſymptoms of a different kind ſucceed, e. g. ſometimes in the progreſs of the diſeaſe, inſtead of the ſanguineous filaments, which are uſually mixed with the ſtools in the beginning, a large quantity of pure blood, unmixed with mucus, is voided at every ſtool; which as it manifeſts an roſion of ſome of the larger veſſels of the inteſtines, it threatens death. 9thly, Sometimes an incurable gangrene ſeizes the inteſtines, which is cauſed by the violent inflammation excited by the afflux of hot acrid matter to the affected parts. 10thly, At the decline of the diſeaſe, aphthæ frequently affect the internal parts of the mouth, eſpecially if the patient hath been kept hot for a long time, and the evacuation of the matter hath been checked by aſtringents; the fuel of the diſeaſe not having been firſt carried off by cathartics: theſe aphthæ generally foreſhow imminent death. 11th, If the patient ſurvive the foregoing ſymptoms, and the diſeaſe proves laſting, the inteſtines at length ſeem to be affected ſucceſſively downwards, till it be driven to the rectum, and ends in a teneſmus; upon which the natural ſtools occaſion great pain in the bowels: the fæces in their paſſage through them abrading the ſmall guts; whereas the mucous ſtools only offend the rectum during the time that the matter is made and diſcharged. 12th, Though this diſeaſe is often mortal in grown perſons, and eſpecially in the aged, it is nevertheleſs very gentle in children, who have it ſometimes for ſeveral months without any inconvenience, provided the cure of it be left to nature. Thus far Sydenham.

To the ſymptoms enumerated by Sydenham, many others might be named, which occaſionally attend; but as the principal differences in this diſorder may be included in what are called the inflammatory, putrid, and malignant kinds, it may ſuffice juſt to deſcribe their general appearances.

The inflammatory *dyſentery* approaches with a violent fever, and a hard pulſe, which in other *dyſenteries* is generally ſmall (and that only in the progreſs of the ſickneſs) becomes full; an almoſt continual and intolerable pain in the belly, which increaſes on the part being touched, and ſtill more after vomiting, ſtools very inconſiderable with reſpect to quantity, a head-ach, red face, and ſometimes a diſtended belly.

A putrid *dyſentery* diſcovers itſelf by a bitterneſs in the mouth, which appears directly on the firſt attack; a vomiting of bilious matter, which is ſometimes alſo mingled with worms, a ſhivering that returns in the courſe of the diſorder, the ſlightneſs of the fever, the paleneſs of the countenance, and the variegated colour of the excrements.

A malignant *dyſentery* is attended in the beginning, or whenever any other kind degenerates into it, a ſudden weakneſs, great anxiety about the pit of the ſtomach, heavineſs in the head, an heavy, oppreſſed, deadly aſpect, fre-

frequent ſlight convulſions, a weak voice, frequent fainting, ſometimes miliary eruptions, petechiæ, aphthæ, ſickneſs in the ſtomach, and a very weak pulſe.

The *dyſentery* ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from a diarrhœa, a cholera morbus, a flux from the piles, an abſceſs of the inteſtines, and other diſcharges therefrom.

The gripes, ſo troubleſome, and a pathognomonic ſymptom, are owing to the irritation in the part affected; this irritation continuing, the mucus and lymph thereof is diſcharged, and by being mixed with air, gives that ſlimy frothy appearance to the ſtools, and, in time, the mucus being too much abraded, a teneſmus is produced. The blood in the ſtools happens from the rupture of ſome ſmall veſſels, and is leſs mixed with excrement, according as the diſcharge of it is lower in the inteſtines; and more intimately mixed therewith, as the ruptured veſſels lies in or nearer to the ſmall inteſtines. The aphthæ are produced by an abſorption of morbid matter from the bowels. The ſuety-like matter, and ſkins in the ſtools, are thus occaſioned. The mucus, &c. being diſcharged, the villous coat becomes abraded, and ſo paſſes of in thoſe appearances; or it may be only the epidermis which is continued on the inner ſurface of the inteſtines, which, when ſeparated, becomes thick as when raiſed on the ſkin by a bliſter, and ſo ejected.

Sydenham ſays, that a *dyſentery* when ill treated is apt to affect the patient more or leſs for ſome years after.

In general the prognoſtics are taken from the intenſeneſs of the ſymptoms, the colour and ſmell of the ſtools, the ſtrength of the patient, and the length of the diſorder's continuance. It is never without danger, and never to be ſlightly regarded, for nature alone contributes very little to its cure. There is always danger of a mortification of the bowels until the diſeaſe gives way. When the excrements are of various colours, and of an ill ſcent, there are ulcers in the inteſtines, and then the danger is enhanced. If blood appears on the firſt day, or any thing that cauſes irritation, the danger is great. When the fever is urgent, when the cauſe is contagious, the patient already reduced by previous ſickneſs, or attended at preſent with any other diſorder, the danger is proportionably enhanced. An hiccup, delirium, the pain and thirſt ceaſing at once, the excrements paſſing involuntarily, convulſions, coldneſs of the extremities, ſigns of ulceration in the inteſtines, vomiting with hiccup, are among the mortal ſymptoms.

Scarce any diſeaſe requires more care and ſkill in order to a rational cure than this, and as danger is almoſt a conſtant attendant, every caution to prevent will be as needful as preſcriptions for the cure: thoſe then who are in warm climes ſhould carefully avoid the coldneſs of the evenings, and the chilling dews which ſucceed the ſultry days; thoſe who are confined in jails, in camps, &c. ſhould avoid the vapours from putrid fæces; and if any diſorder of this, or of any putrid kind is prevalent, the bark may be taken at proper intervals. If there is any ſuſpicion of the diſeaſe approaching, an emetic ſhould be given immediately, a warm ſudorific ſhould ſucceed, and, in the morning, a doſe of rhubarb may be given to promote a gentle motion downward.

When the diſorder is manifeſt, as irritation is the immediate cauſe, the direct indications are, to correct or evacuate the offending matter, and to allay the irritation excited by it. As to accidental ſymptoms, and thoſe peculiarities that diſtinguiſh this diſeaſe into different ſpecies, an attendance to their general nature muſt lead to the particular treatment required on their account.

Peculiar attention is required reſpecting the non-naturals; the air ſhould be kept as pure as poſſible, and moderately warm; cleanlineſs is abſolutely neceſſary, whence the excrements ſhould be immediately removed, the linen, and every thing about the patient, frequently changed. The diet may be of rice, ſalop, panada, the broth of lean meat acidulated with lemon or orange juice, jelly of animal ſubſtances with cinnamon. Dr. Rutherford extols the following; boil a few hands-full of wheat flour, tied up in a tight rag, until it is as hard as ſtarch, which it will be in ſix or eight hours: of this, two or three table ſpoons-full, when grated, may be boiled in milk and water, enough to make it into a pap: this may be made agreeable to the palate with ſugar, &c. and uſed both for the general food, and for the ſubſtance of clyſters, which in this diſorder are frequently required. For drink, milk and water, butter-milk, the white decoction, or what is ſtill preferable, a decoction of mallows in milk and water, may be freely uſed.

Agreeable to the indications above mentioned, it was uſual with Sydenham, and ſome other judicious practitioners, whoſe ſucceſs juſtified their proceeding, to begin the cure, if called in early after the firſt attack, by a gentle emetic, and copious draughts of ſome thin fluid, to cleanſe the ſtomach; and clyſters of the ſame were frequently injected, that the irritating cauſe might be leſſened, if not wholly carried away from the ſeat of the diſorder.

Sydenham ordered bleeding if the ſymptoms required it; then directed a large quantity of whey to be drank, and that cold, and clyſters of the ſame, but of a proper heat, to be repeated until the gripes were abated; theſe were adminiſtered warm. After this, the patient was put in bed, and a ſweat promoted. When the patient was greatly exhauſted, endeavours were uſed to check the evacuation. Dr. Robinſon, (ſee his Theory of Phyſic and Diſeaſes) begins with an emetic of ipecac. after its operation he gives a cordial draught, with about five drops of the tinct. Theb. and repeats the ſame every four hours, or after each evacution downwards; and now and then he propoſes a clyſter of red wine and diaſcordium. Both theſe phyſicians proceed with reſpect to a *dyſentery* with the ſame views as in a cholera morbus, which ſeems only to differ in its ſeat from this diſorder. It may here be added, that diluting drinks drank plentifully are often ſo beneficial in the beginning, as to render any other medicine unneceſſary; they may be drank cold or warm as moſt agreeable to the patient. As to other remedies, their uſe is indicated by the nature of attending ſymptoms, only being required, as circumſtances not eſſential to the diſeaſe occur. The principal are as follow.

Bleeding. In the inflammatory kind this operation is neceſſary; but when there is no manifeſt inflammation, nor obvious tendency thereto, it cannot be with propriety propoſed. When the loſs of blood is proper, the pulſe will be found full, ſtrong, and hard.

Nitre. When the heat and thirſt is great, if the patient is of a choleric or bilious habit, ſmall doſes of nitre will be uſeful; when the fever is conſiderable, and the ſymptoms of inflammation attend, antiphlogiſtics are needful remedies, and the nitre may be given with two or three grains of ipecac. and ther. Androm. one ſcruple, made into a bolus, with the balſ. Locatel.

Ol. ricini. Dr. Akenſide reſolves the whole virtue of the ipecac. in this diſeaſe to its relaxing the coats of the inteſtines, and in mitigating the gripes; theſe effects are as powerfully produced, if not more ſo, by this oil. In the beginning of this diſorder, whether it be of the inflammatory or bilious kind, it excels all other purges.

Purgatives. In every kind of *dyſentery*, purging medicines ſhould only be ſuch as evacuate the contents of the bowels; and the ol. ricin. may be ſuited by proper additions to every ſpecies; rhubarb, with a ſmall portion of tart. emetic. is in general proper, except in the bilious or putrid kind, in which crem. tart. tamarinds, and ſuch like, are be preferred; though towards the end of the cure, rhubarb may be allowed of, with advantage.

Sweating. In all the ſpecies of this diſorder, this evacuation is deficient and difficultly promoted; but when excited, conduces greatly to the cure. In the malignant kind of *dyſentery*, perſpiration muſt be promoted by means the moſt effectual, in conjunction with cordials. The firſt paſſages being well cleared, ſmall doſes of tart. emet. with the pulv. ipecac. ſhould be repeated ſo as not to excite the ſenſible diſcharges, and may be aſſiſted in their operation by the pores, with ſuch other means as the circumſtances of the patient may require. Opiates are generally the beſt auxiliaries in this caſe, and a vapour bath, or wrapping the legs and thighs in flannels wrung out of warm water, greatly expedite this aim.

Ipecacuanha. Dr. Akenſide aſſerts the propriety of this remedy in every form, ſtate, and degree of this diſeaſe; and that the more its uſe is experienced, the more its merits are eſtabliſhed. Its virtues are owing to its relaxing and ſedative quality; one or two grains ſhould be repeat-

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ed every four or ſix hours, more or leſs, according as the ſymptoms require it, or as the ſtomach will retain it; but notwithſtanding its merits, its chief uſe is in moiſt and robuſt habits. It is hurtful if the liver is diſordered, or any of the viſcera affected with inflammation, or a ſcirrhus.

Diuretics, in ſome inſtances, have been uſeful; but are not to be attempted, except where all other means fail, or when they have been efficacious in former inſtances.

Aſtringents. They are uſeful when, after numerous evacuations, the ſtrength fails. Among theſe, alum is not found ſo uſeful as it is in hæmorrhages, and is rarely preſcribed. The cort. ſimaroub. removes this complaint without the uſual inconveniencies of aſtringents. Two drams may be boiled in a pint and quarter of water to a pint; and two ounces of the ſtrained liquor may be taken three or four times a day. The lign. Campech. is alſo uſeful, and in ſome reſpects to be preferred to moſt other medicines of its claſs; for where aſtringents are required, it may be ſafely uſed, whether fever or inflammation attend or not. From a ſcruple to a dram of the extract hath been given at a doſe, and frequently repeated. In general the following method of adminiſtering it is to be approved of:

℞ Extract. lign. Campech. ʒ ii. f. pil. xx. cujus cap. iii. vel. iv. quarta vel ſexta quaque hora cum ʒ ii. decoct. ſimaroubæ.

The teneſmus, when troubleſome, may be relieved by clyſters of ſtarch.

Cort. elutheria. In ſome inſtances where the ipecac. failed, or diſagreed, this medicine hath been attended with the deſired ſucceſs; and to reſtore the tone of the inteſtines after the abatement of the diſorder, this bark is generally to be preferred to the Peruvian.

The Vitrum Antimon. Cerat. given from gr. ii. ad x. and a gentle opiate after it, is generally eſteemed as a ſpecific. It may be repeated two or three times a day, or oftener if required, and the ſtomach retains it.

The Rad. Columbæ is particularly uſeful in the bilious and putrid *dyſentery*, and may be uſed as in the diarrhœa, which ſee.

The Nux Vomica. Dr. Hagſtroom, a Swediſh phyſician, recollecting the ſuppoſition of ſome celebrated profeſſors, that the epidemic *dyſentery* is an hæmorrhage of the inteſtines brought on by animalculæ, he was led to imagine that nux vomica, which is known to be fatal to large animals, might alſo prove equally deſtructive to theſe animalculæ. The auſtere taſte of this ſubſtance confirmed him in his ideas on this ſubject, and knowing that it might be taken in ſmall doſes without danger, he ventured to try its effects. He began by cleanſing the bowels with rhubarb and cream of tartar, after which he preſcribed a ſcruple of nux vomica, in powder, to be taken once a day. The good effects of this remedy exceeded his expectations. The ſucceſs which followed the uſe of this medicine was equal, whether uſed in thoſe *dyſenteries* which followed putrid fevers, as thoſe in which no ſuch fever had preceded. In many inſtances a cure was effected in three or four days. This medicine ſeemed to have a better effect when taken in warm water or beer than when ſwallowed in either of theſe liquors cold. See the Lond. Med. Journ. vol. iii. p. 189.

Thoſe with whom a *dyſentery* is fatal, are carried off by the mortification in their bowels, to which regard ſhould always be had throughout the cure.

See Sydenham on the *Dyſentery*, in Swan's Tranſlation, p 141, &c. Alex. Trallian treats this diſorder much after the method which Sydenham recommends. Among the ancients, beſides Alex. Trallian, Aretæus, Cœlius Aurelianus, and Celſus may be conſulted; but among the lateſt authors, and where improvements on predeceſſors may be expected, ſee Baker on the *Dyſentery*, Akenſide's Comment, and Zimmerman's Treatiſe on the ſame. Alſo Dr. Wilſon on the *Dyſentery*.

DYSENTERIA PARISIACA, i. e. Diarrhœa mucoſa.

DYSENTERIA CATHARTICIS, i. e. Diarrhœa mucoſa.

There are many ſympathetic dyſenteries.

DYSEPULOTOS, from δυς, *difficulty*, and ουλη, a *cicatrix*, δυς, *difficulty*, and τιτρωσκω, *to cicatrize*. An epithet for an ulcer, which is difficult to heal. Dyſepuloticus is the ſame.

DYSHÆMORRHOIS. Suppreſſion of the bleeding piles.

DYSHELCES, from δυς, *male*, and ελκος, *ulcers*. One who hath ulcers difficult of cure.

DYSIATOS, from δυς, *difficulty*, and ιασομαι, *to heal* or *cure*. Difficult of cure.

DYSLOCHIA. Suppreſſion of the lochia.

DYSMENORRHŒA. Difficult or painful menſtruation. See AMENORRHOEA, & MENSES defective

DYSODES, from δυς, *bad*, and οζω, *to ſmell*. An ill ſmell, fetid. Fœſius ſays, that in Hippocrates we are to underſtand by this word, a fetid diſorder of the ſmall inteſtines. It is alſo the name of a malagma for the pleuriſy, and of an acopon, which Galen and Paulus deſcribes. Savage, and ſome other noſologiſts, form a genus of diſorder which they name dyſodia, and define it to be ſtinking exhalations from the whole body, or from a particular part, e. g. ſtinking ſweat, ſtinking breath, ſtinking feet, &c.

Dr. Percival takes notice of a kind of ſtinking breath, (*dyſodes* pulmonica) to which perſons with a narrow cheſt and ſcorbutic habit are peculiarly incident. He obſerves that it ſeems to originate from a want of power to make a full expiration, by which too much perſpirable matter is retained, and corrupted by ſtagnation in the veſicles of the lungs. In ſuch caſes he hath found the moſt ſalutary effects from the uſe of myrrh and fixed air, internally adminiſtered. Theſe antiſeptic ſubſtances are probably carried to the lungs, and diſcharged together with the offenſive vapour, which they correct, at the ſame time that they invigorate the ſmalleſt ramifications of the bronchiæ.

DYSOPIA. Difficult ſight. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales and order dyſæſthefiæ. He diſtinguiſhes five ſpecies. 1. *Dyſopia* tenebrarum, when a great light is required for diſtinct viſion. 2. *Dyſopia* luminis, when ſight is moſt diſtinct in an obſcure light. 3. *Dyſopia* diſſitorium, when objects muſt be very near to be ſeen. 4. *Dyſopia* proximorum, when objects cannot be ſeen diſtinctly if very near. 5. *Dyſopia* lateralis, when objects are beſt diſcerned by a ſide view.

DYSOREXIA, from δυς, *bad*, and ορεξις, *appetite*. A bad appetite. Alſo a wrong appetite, as when the appetite is exceſſive, or requires unuſual food, &c.

DYSPEPSIA, from δυς, *difficult* or *bad*, and πεπτω, *to concoct*. Difficulty of digeſtion, or rather a depraved one; as when what is digeſted becomes acid, or poſſeſſed of other morbid qualities Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes and order adynamiæ. See APEPSIA.

DYSPHAGIA. Impeded deglutition. The ſame as aglutitio. See DEGLUTITIO.

DYSPERMATISMUS. Such an impediment to the ſemen virilis, in coition, as renders it inſufficient for generation. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales and order epiſcheſes. He obſerves eight ſpecies. 1. *Dyſpermatiſmus* urethralis, when the fault is in the urethra. 2. *Dyſpermatiſmus* nodoſus, when a tumor is formed in the corpus cavernoſus penis. 3. *Dyſpermatiſmus* præputialis, when the impediment is from a ſtraightneſs of the orifice of the prepuce. 4. *Dyſpermatiſmus* mucoſus, when the urethra is obſtructed by a too viſcid mucus. 5. *Dyſpermatiſmus* hypertoricus, when there is an exceſs of erection of the penis. 6. *Dyſpermatiſmus* epilepticus, from epileptic fits coming on during coition. 7. *Dyſpermatiſmus* epractodes, from a want of vigour in the genitals. 8. *Dyſpermatiſmus* refluus, when the ſemen is thrown backward into the urinary bladder.

DYSPHONIA, from δυς, *difficulty*, and φωνη, the *voice*. A difficulty of ſpeech.

DYSPNŒA. Difficult breathing, from δυς, *difficulty*, and πνεω, *to breathe*. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes, and order ſpaſmi; and defines it to be, a conſtant *difficulty* of *breathing*, without a ſenſe of ſtraightneſs in the breaſt, but rather that of fullneſs and obſtruction there. The cough is frequent through the whole courſe of the diſeaſe. He diſtinguiſhes eight ſpecies. 1. *Dyſpnœa* catarrhalis, when with a cough there is copious diſcharges of viſcid mucus. 2. *Dyſpnœa* ſicca, when there is a cough without any conſiderable diſcharge

charge. 3. *Dyſpnœa aërea*, when the cough is much eaſed with ſome changes of the weather. 4. *Dyſpnœa terrea*, when earthy or calculous matters are ſpit up. 5. *Dyſpnœa aquoſa*, when there is a ſcarcity of urine and œdomatous feet, without any ſymptoms of a dropſy in the cheſt. 6. *Dyſpnœa pinguedinoſa*, from corpulency. 7. *Dyſpnœa thoracica*, from a ſtraightneſs, or ill formation of the cheſt. 8. *Dyſpnœa extrinſeca*, from manifeſt external cauſes.

DYSPNOON, i. e. Dyſpnœa.

DYSRACHITIS. The name of a plaſter in Galen.

DYSTHERAPEUTOS, from δυς, *difficulty*, and θεραπευω, *to heal*. Difficult to heal.

DYSTOCHIA, from δυς, *difficulty*, and τικτω, *to bring forth young*. Difficulty in labour or child-birth.

DYSTOECHIASIS, from δυς, *bad*, and στοιχος, *order*. An irregular diſpoſition of the hairs in the eyelids.

DYSURIA, from δυς, *painful*, and ουρον, *urine*. A difficulty of voiding the urine. It is alſo called ſtillicidium urina, difficulty of voiding urine. It is alſo called ſtillicidium urinæ, ardor urinæ, obſtruction, heat of urine, and ſtrangury.

A total ſuppreſſion of urine is called ISCHURIA, which ſee. A partial ſuppreſſion is called *dyſuria*, and may be with or without heat. When there are frequent painful, or uneaſy urgings to diſcharge the urine, and it paſſes off only by drops, or in very ſmall quantities, it is called a ſtrangury. When a ſenſe of pain or heat attends the diſcharge of urine, it then paſſes with difficulty, and is diſtinguiſhed by the name of heat of urine.

The *dyſuria* is acute and chronical. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order epiſcheſes. He diſtinguiſhes ſix ſpecies. 1. *Dyſuria ardens*, when the urine ſcalds in paſſing off, and there is not any evident diſorder in the bladder. 2. *Dyſuria ſpaſmodica*, when a ſpaſm affects the parts which communicate with the bladder. 3. *Dyſuria compreſſionis*, from ſomething preſſing the bladder. 4. *Dyſuria phlogiſtica*, when the parts about the bladder are inflamed. 5. *Dyſuria irritata*, when there are the ſigns of a ſtone in the bladder. 6. *Dyſuria mucoſa*, when there is a copious excretion of mucus.

The cauſes are various: as caruncles in the urethra; a ſtone in the neck of the bladder, or in the urethra; ſpaſma, or inflammation in the neck of the bladder or urethra; acrimony in the urine, abrading the mucus from the bladder, or the urethra; the venereal diſeaſe and the ſcurvy often produce this diſorder; an ulcer in theſe parts, and a defect in the diſcharge of mucus for lubricating the urinary paſſages. The chronic *dyſury* hath generally for its cauſe a rheumatic, arthritic, ſcorbutic, or other morbid humour fixing itſelf in the villous coat of the bladder, near its neck, and in the urethra.

The diagnoſtic ſigns of a *dyſury* ſometimes ſo much reſemble thoſe of a ſtone in the bladder, that ſome difficulty attends the diſtinguiſhing of them, eſpecially when the *diſury* is of the chronic kind. However, in general, the difficulty of diſcharging urine is unattended with pain or heat, except during the endeavours to void it, or its actual paſſing off, and for a ſhort time, the pain perceived afterwards is in the glans, a circumſtance not ſo particularly attendant in the ſtone; in the chronic *dyſury*, bloody urine is more frequently cauſed by exerciſe, and is voided in large quantities after vigorous motions, than happens in the ſtone.

Heat of urine is not from an increaſe of the natural heat thereof, but from its coming in contact with the inner coat of the bladder, or of the urethra; its acrimony abrades the mucus from theſe parts, or their mucus is too ſparingly ſupplied, whence the acrimony of the urine irritates them too much, and excites the ſenſe of heat and pain. And if the heat of urine proceeds from acrimony in the urine, it will be known by the high colour and thinneſs of the urine, or elſe a mixture of unuſual matter.

The different kinds of *dyſuries* ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from each other; and they from the ſtone in the bladder, or urethra, from the iſchuria, and from the piles.

The *dyſury* is not a dangerous diſorder, but it is both troubleſome and difficult to cure, particularly in the aged. Whenever it happens, if it continues long, it ulcerates the bladder and its neck.

In order to the cure, the particular cauſe muſt be diſcovered.

When the application of bliſters cauſe a ſtrangury, waſh the bliſtered part with warm milk and water when dreſſed.

When an acrimony in the juices are the cauſe, if it is venereal, give anti-venereals; if ſcorbutic, give antiſcorbutics, &c. If the pulſe admit of it, bleed; give lenient cooling laxatives, ſuch as caſſia, tamarinds, the ol. ricini. or draughts of oil and manna. It is uſual to give nitre, but a ſolution of true gum arabics is by far more uſeful; an ounce of it ſhould be taken in a day. Camphor, and ſmall doſes of laudanum, are often of great ſervice. Spt. nitri D. may be taken in each draught of common drink, or the following draught and clyſter may occaſionally be adminiſtered.

℞ Tinct. Theb. gr. xx. ſpt. nitri D. gr. xxx. ol. amygd D. ʒ ii. aq. font. ℥ iſs. m. f. hauſt.

℞ Balſ. Peruv. ʒ iſs. in vitel. ovi ſolut. tinct. Theb. ʒ i. and ʒ ii. ol. oliv. ℥ ii. decoct. com. pro clyſt. ℥ viii. m. f. enem. A ſemicupium is often of uſe.

The patient ſhould drink plentifully of a ſolution of gum arabic, or ſalop, of whey, or of a decoction of marſhmallow root.

When the pain is violent, let the mucilage of gum arabic, or ſome oily matter, be injected into the urethra before diſcharging the urine.

If there are caruncles in the urethra, bougies ſhould be carefully introduced therein, and repeated as required.

In the chronic *dyſury*, after other means fail, a ſalivation excited by the uſe of mercury hath ſucceeded; and an iſſue in the inſide of one thigh, a little above the knee, prevents the return, or at leaſt renders relapſes very eaſy. When the patient is too weakly to admit of ſalivation, a doſe of the uva urſi may be taken every morning, and after it half a pint of lime-water, mixed with a ſtrong decoction of the great water dock root.

Dr. Percival obſerves, that there is a ſpecies of chronic *dyſury*, to which perſons of an arthritic or ſcorbutic habit, and who have paſſed the meridian of life, are peculiarly incident. It is often miſtaken for the ſtone, and aggravated by the uſe of lithontriptics. He adds, that it hath many ſymptoms in common with that diſorder, ſuch as frequent and urgent calls to make water; pain at each extremity of the urethra; a mucous diſcharge, teneſmus, and ſometimes a ſuppreſſion of urine. But the patients who labours unders it, feel no uneaſy weight in the perinæum, and always void their water with much leſs difficulty in an erect than in an horizontal poſture. The complaint, alſo, may be further diſtinguiſhed from the ſtone by having ſhorter intervals of eaſe; by more frequently injuring the retentive power of the bladder, and by occaſioning no ſudden interruption to the ſtream of urine in the abſence of pain. It ſeems to ariſe from an acrid defluxion on the coat of the bladder, which is thereby rendered ſo exquiſitely ſenſible, that the ſtimulus of the urine becomes almoſt intolerable, and very frequent efforts are excited to expel it; theſe efforts, however, ſhould be reſtrained as much as poſſible, becauſe they tend to increaſe the pain and irritation of the bladder, and to prevent the complete diſcharge of its contents; for that organ cannot effectually contract itſelf without a due degree of previous diſtenſion. Of all the remedies which Dr. Percival tried, he ſays that mercury was the moſt ſucceſsful; it ſeldom failed to afford relief, and generally produced a cure, if adminiſtered with perſeverance and in ſufficient quantity. According to the urgency of the caſe, one, two, or three ſcruples of the ungt. cœrul. fort. ſhould be rubbed into the thighs every night, 'till a ſlight ptyaliſm enſues: the ſymptoms for the moſt part abate before the ſpitting comes on, and after it has continued a while, they diſappear entirely. Sometimes, in ſlighter caſes, the doctor gives half a grain of calomel, with two grains of James's fever powder, twice every day; and this ſmall doſe of mercury, if duly continued, may ſuffice to effect a cure, without producing any ſalivation, or even ſoreneſs of the mouth. See Lond. Med. Journ. vol. iv. p. 69.

Violent heat in the urinary paſſages of women have been cured by the uſe of the bark.

See the authors under the article Iſchuria, Biſs's Eſſays, Lobb on painful Diſtempers, Gooch's Caſes and Remarks, vol. ii.

E.

E B U

EBEL. The ſeed of ſage, or of juniper.

EBENUS. Ebony.

EBENUS ÆTHIOPICA, called alſo palma haira, palma Americana ſpinoſa, palma Braſilienſis ſexea airi, palma partoricenſis ſpinoſiſſima vinifera. The macow or ebony tree.

It grows in America; the wood is black and very heavy, ſinking in water. It is chiefly uſed by mechanics. In medicine it is hardly known.

EBENUS, or Lignum Indicum. Ebony. Dale thinks this is the true Indian ebony of the ancients.

EBENUS VIRIDIS. Black wood, or ebony. It is brought from the iſland of St. Helena. Ray thinks it is the true Indian ebony.

Camellus enumerates ſeven ſpecies, but they are none of them uſed medicinally.

EBISCUS. Marſh-mallow.

EBRIECATUM. By this term Paracelſus expreſſes the partial loſs of reaſon, as it happens in drunkenneſs.

EBRIECATUM CŒLESTE. By this Paracelſus means that kind of enthuſiaſm which is affected by many heathen prieſts, &c.

EBRIETAS. Drunkenneſs. Spirituous liquors render the fibres rigid, and increaſe our natural vigour, but this effect is fleeting. If they are often repeated, or otherways too freely uſed, their exceſs of action enervates the conſtitution, the appetite fails, and digeſtion is too feebly carried on; conſequently due ſupplies not being carried to the blood, the ſpirits fail, and a general feebleneſs enſues. Add to this, that ſpirituous liquors create a morbid acrimony in the blood, and gradually coagulate its thinner parts, whence a ſcirrhus liver, and obſtructed meſenteric glands.

When from a frequent, or exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors the ſtomach loſes its ſenſibility, the ſaline and ſaponaceous medicines ſhould be uſed, and after them the waters at Bath may finiſh the cure. When this exceſs produces relaxation in the ſtomach, pituitous, and often bilious humours, too much abound in this organ; here emetics ſhould be uſed; rhubarb and aloetic purges now and then repeated; then bitters, bark, and chalybeats, joined with moderate exerciſe, bid faireſt for reſtoring ſtrength.

When the over night's potation is too liberal, a quantity of cold water ſhould be placed at the bed-ſide, and as reſtleſſneſs comes with heat, a dryneſs of the tongue, &c. this water ſhould be drank as freely as the thirſt requires it; thus, by degrees, a perſpiration is produced, and the moſt effectual relief obtained.

Fermented vegetable ſpirits are alone the cauſe of drunkenneſs, and vinegar is an antidote; whence, in caſe of what is called being dead drunk, a draught of ſtrong vinegar will ſooner relieve, or recover therefrom, ſooner than any other means; but, in ſuch a caſe, let the perſon be ſeated in a chair, and not with his head low. After he is a little roufed, give warm water with vinegar, elix. vitriol. or ſpt. vitr. D. to drink. Frequently apply a ſponge dipped in vinegar to his mouth and noſe; an emetic that operates with ſpeed will alſo have its uſefulneſs; a clyſter, and after it a purging draught may be adminiſtered, and then attempt to promote a gentle ſweat.

EBESMECH. A name in Langius for quickſilver.

EBSHAMENSIS SAL, i. e. Sal. cath amar.

EBULUS, alſo called chamæacte, ſambucus humilis, ſambucus herbacea, wall-wort, Dane-wort, and dwarf elder. It is the ſambucus ebulus Linn.

E C H

It is an herbaceous plant, dying to the ground in winter, with longer leaves than thoſe of the *elder* tree, and nine leaves on one rib. It grows wild in many parts of England, flowers in July, and produces ripe black berries in the beginning of September.

Its virtues are the ſame as thoſe of the common *elder*, but ſomewhat more efficacious. It is a powerful hydragogue, and in ſmaller doſes a powerful reſolvent and deobſtruent.

EBUR. Ivory. See SPODIUM ARABUM.

EBUR FOSSILE. See UNICORNU.

ECAPATLI, i. e. Senna Orientalis fruticoſa.

ECBOLICA, from ἐκβαλλω, *to caſt out*. Medicines which cauſe abortion.

ECBRASMATA, from ἐκβρασσω, *to caſt out*, or from βραζω, *to be very hot*. Fiery puſtules on the ſurface of the body.

ECBRASMUS. Fermentation.

ECBYRSOMATA, from βυρσα, a *ſkin*. Protuberances of the bones at the joints, which appear through the ſkin.

ECCATHARTICA, from καθαιρω, *to purge*. According to Gorræus, *eccathartics* are remedies which applied to the ſkin open the pores; but in general they are underſtood to be deobſtruents: ſometimes expectorants are thus called, and ſo are purgatives alſo.

ECCHYLOMA, from χυλος, a *juice*. An extract.

ECCHYMATA. The ſame as ecbraſmata.

ECCHYMOMA, i. e. Ecchymoſis.

ECCHYMOMA ARTERIOSUM. The ſpurious aneuriſm.

ECCHYMOSIS, from ἐκχυω, *to pour out*, or from ἐξ, *without*, and χυμος, *juice*. It is an effuſion of humours from their reſpective veſſels, under the integuments; or, as Paulus Ægineta ſays, "When the fleſh is bruiſed by the violent colliſion of any object, and its ſmall veins broken, the blood is gradually diſcharged from them." This blood, when collected under the ſkin, is called an *ecchymoſis*; the ſkin in the mean time remaining entire, ſometimes a tumor is formed by it, which is ſoft and livid, and generally without pain. If the quantity of blood is not conſiderable, it is uſually reſorbed; if much, it ſuppurates: it rarely happens that any further inconvenience follows: though in caſe of a very bad habit of body, a mortification may be the reſult, and in ſuch caſe a regard muſt be had thereto. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order tumores. See SUGILLATIO.

ECCLISIS, from ἐκλινω, *to bend*, or *turn aſide*. A luxation.

ECCOPE, from κοπη, *to cut*, or ἐκκοπη, *to cut off*. The cutting off of any part.

ECCOPEUS, from κοπη, *to cut*. An ancient inſtrument, of the ſame uſe as the modern raſpatory.

ECCOPROTICA, from κοπρος, *dung*. Mild cathartics, whoſe operation extends no farther than to evacuate the inteſtines.

ECCRINOLOGICA, from ἐκκρινω, *to ſecrete* or *ſeparate*. That part of medicine which relates to the doctrine of excretions.

ECDORA, from δερω, *to excoriate*. Excoriation, and particularly uſed by P. Amannus, for an excoriation of the urethra.

ECHECOLLON, from κολλα, *glue*. A glutinous topic.

ECHE-

ECHELION. The name of a plant in N. Myrepſus.

ECHETROSIS. So Hippocrates calls the white bryony.

ECHIN. An abbreviation of Echinodermatus.

ECHINIDES. In Hippocrates it is mentioned as what he uſed for purging the womb with.

ECHINATE SEEDS. Such ſeeds of plants as are prickly and rough are thus named, from *echinus*, a *hedge-hog*.

ECHINITES, from *echinus*, an *urchin*. Certain petrefactions are thus called from their likeneſs to the ſea hedge-hog or *urchin*.

ECHINOMELOCACTUS, i. e. Melocactos Ind. Occid.

ECHINOPHORA. The name of ſome ſpecies of parſley.

ECHINOPHTHALMIA, from εχινος, a *hedge-hog*, and οφθαλμια, an *inflammation of the eye*. An inflammation of the hairy parts of the eye-lids. I ſuppoſe that the term is diſtinguiſhed thus, becauſe the *eye-lid* is ſet with hairs, as the echinus with prickles.

ECHINOPODA CRETENSIBUS, called alſo geniſta ſpartium. It is a ſmall thorny buſh, growing in Greece and its iſles, but of no medical note.

ECHINOPUS, called alſo crocodilion, ſcabioſa carduiſolia, ſphærocephala elatior, globe thiſtle. It is raiſed in our gardens. The root and ſeeds are moderately diuretic; but are not in uſe. Boerhaave mentions five ſpecies.

ECHINOPUS. The globe thiſtle.

ECHINOPUS MINOR. The little globe thiſtle.

ECHINOS, called alſo ocymum aquaticum. A ſort of rough water thiſtle that is prickly like an hedge-hog.

ECHINUS. In botany, thoſe plants or parts of plants which are beſet very cloſely with ſpines, like a hedge-hog, termed echinated. The prickly head or cover of the ſeed is alſo thus named.

ECHINUS MARINUS. The ſea hedge-hog or urchin. The ſpines of the larger urchins are called lap. Judaicus.

ECHIUM. Viper's bugloſs. The leaves are hairy, and almoſt prickly; the ſtalk, which is about a foot high, is alſo rough and prickly; the flowers grow on ſpikes, curled inward like a ſcorpion's tail, of a blue colour, and containing four rough ſeeds ſhaped like a viper's head; the root is thick, and runs deep. There is nothing remarkable in its medical virtues.

ECHIUM. A name of the bugloſſum, of the cerinthoides, and of a ſpecies of hound's tongue.

ECHOS. In Hippocrates it is the ſame as tinnitus aurium.

ECHYSIS. A fainting or ſwooning.

ECLAMPSIA TYPHODES, i. e. Raphania.

ECLAMPSIS, from λαμπω, *to ſhine*. It is a flaſhing light, or thoſe ſparklings which ſtrike the eyes of epileptic patients. Cœlius Aurelianus calls them circuli ignei. Scintillations or fiery circles. Though only a ſymptom of the epilepſy, Hippocrates puts it for the epilepſy itſelf.

ELECTICA MEDICINA, from εκλεγω, *to elect*. Archigenus, and ſome others, ſelected from all other ſects what appeared to them to be the beſt and moſt rational; hence they were called *Eclectics*, and their medicine, *Eclectic medicine*.

ECLECTOS. A linctus.

ECLEGMA. A linctus.

ECLEICTOS, from λειχω, *to lick*. A linctus.

ECLYSIS. An univerſal faintneſs.

ECMAGMA. A kneaded maſs, or the crocomagma.

ECNEPHIAS, of εκ, *from*, and νεφος, a *cloud*. A ſtormy wind breaking out of a cloud.

ECPEPIESMENOS, from εκπιεζω, *to depreſs* or *preſs outward*. An epithet for ulcers with protuberating lips.

ECPHRACTICA, from εκ, and φρασσω, *to obſtruct*. Deobſtruent medicines.

ECPHRAXIS, from εκ, and φρασσω, *to obſtruct*. An opening of the pores.

ECPHYAS, from εκ, and φυω, *to produce*. An appendix, or excreſcence. Some call the appendicula vermiformis thus.

ECPHYSESIS, from εκ, and φυσαω, *to breathe*. A quick expulſion of the air out of the lungs.

ECPHYSE. Flatus from the bladder through the urethra, and from the womb through the vagina.

ECPHYSIS, from εκ, and φυω, *to produce*. An apophyſis, appendix, or proceſs; alſo a name of the duodenum.

ECPIESMA, from εκ, and πιεζω, *to preſs*. The ſame as magma. Alſo the juice that is preſſed out from the plants of which the magma is made. It is a kind of fracture of the cranium, in which the bones are ſhattered, and *preſs* inwardly, affecting the membranes of the brain.

ECPIESMOS, from εκ, and πιεζω, *to preſs*. In general it implies expreſſion, but it is alſo the name of a diſorder of the eye, which conſiſts in a great prominence of the entire globe, thruſt (as it were) almoſt out of the orbit by an afflux of humours.

ECPLEROMA, from πληροω, *to fill*. In Hippocrates they are hard balls of leather, or other ſubſtances, adapted to *fill* the arm-pits, while by the help of the heels, placed againſt the balls, and repreſſing the ſame, the luxated os humeri is reduced into its place.

ECPLEXIS, from εκπλησσω, *to terrify* or *oſtoniſh*. A ſtupor or aſtoniſhment, from ſudden external accidents.

ECPNEUMATOSIS, i. e. Ecpnœa.

ECPNŒ, from εκ, and πνεω, *to breathe*. Expiration. That part of reſpiration in which the air is expelled from the lungs.

ECPTOMA, from εκπιπτω, *to fall out*. A luxation of the bone. The excluſion of the ſecundines. And, ſpeaking of corrupt parts, it ſignifies a falling off. It is alſo an hernia in the ſcrotum, and a falling down of the womb.

ECPYESMA. A fracture of the ſkull, when the pieces preſs the meninges.

ECPYSIS. An excreſcence.

ECREUELLES. So the French call a ſcrofula.

ECREXIS, from ῥηγνυμι, *to break*. A rupture. Hippocrates expreſſes by it a rupture or laceration of the womb.

ECROE, from εκρεω, *to flow*. An efflux, or the courſe by which any humour which requires purging is evacuated.

ECRUSIS, from εκρεω, *to flow out*. In Hippocrates it is an efflux of the ſemen before it receives the conformation of a fœtus, and therefore is called an efflux, to diſtinguiſh it from abortion.

ECRYTHMOS, from ῥυθμος, *harmony*. It is applied to the pulſe, and ſignifies that it is diſorderly or irregular.

ECRYTHMUS. See ARYTHMUS.

ECSARCOMA, from σαρξ, *fleſh*. A fleſhy excreſcence.

ECSTASIS, from εξιστημι, *to be out of one's ſenſes*. An exſtaſy. In Hippocrates it ſignifies a delirium. Dr. Cullen ranks it as a kind of apoplexy.

ECSTROPHIUS, from εκστρεφω, *to invert*. An epithet for any medicine that makes the blind piles appear outwardly.

ECTASIS, from τεινω, *to extend*. An extenſion of the ſkin, the reverſe to wrinkling.

ECTEXIS, from τηκω, *to liquify* or *conſume*. An emaciation.

ECTHELYNSIS, from εκθηλυνω, *to render effeminate*. Softneſs. It is applied to the ſkin and fleſh when lax and ſoft, and to bandages when not ſufficiently tight.

ECTHLIMMA, from εκθλιβω, *to daſh* or *preſs out againſt*. An ulceration cauſed by preſſure on the ſkin.

ECTHLIPSIS, from εκθλιβω, *to daſh* or *preſs out againſt*. Eliſion or expreſſion. It is ſpoken of ſwelled eyes, when they dart forth ſparks of light.

ECTHYMA, from εκθυω, *to break out*. A puſtule or cutaneous eruption.

ECTILLOTICA, from εκτιλλω, *to pull out*. Medicines which conſume tubercles and corns, or which aſſiſt in pulling off ſuperfluous hairs from any part.

ECTOME, from εκ, *out*, and τεμνω, *to cut*. Exciſion or extirpation.

ECTOPIÆ. Protruſions, or miſplaced parts. As when a part of the body is moved from its proper ſeat, and forms a humour.

ECTOPOCYSTICA (ISCHURIA). A ſuppreſſion of urine from a rupture of the bladder.

ECTOMON. Black hellebore.

ECTRIMMA, from εκτριβω, of τριβω, *to rub*. An attrition or galling. In Hippocrates it is an exulceration of the ſkin about the os ſacrum.

ECTRO-

ECTROPE, from ἐκτρέπω, *to divert, pervert,* or *invert.* It is any duct by which the humours are diverted and drawn off. In P. Ægineta it is the same as ectropium.

ECTROPIUM, from ἐκτρέπω, *to evert* or *turn outwards.* When the eye-lids are so inverted or retracted, or turned outward, that their interior red skin becomes prominent, and the eyes cannot sufficiently be covered by them; the Greeks call it ectropium. Hence it may properly enough be termed a turning outward, or an eversion of the eye-lids. When this misfortune happens in the superior eye-lid, in consequence of its resemblance to a hare's eye, it is called by the Greeks, *lagophthalmus,* or *hare's eye.* Galen, in his Definit. Med. makes *ectropium* an eversion of the eye-lids in general. But according to Paulus Ægineta, l. 6. c. 12. the *ectropium* is peculiar to the under eye-lid, and lagophthalmus to the upper. Some, justly enough, distinguish between the *ectropium* and lagophthalmus, the latter of which is, when the superior eye-lid is not everted, but only, like a hare's eye, retracted by any cause, so that it cannot sufficiently cover the eye. The like misfortune often happens in the lower eye-lid, without any degree of eversion, though few have noticed this symptom. Hence it may be considered as a species of *ectropium.*

Sometimes this disorder is unaccompanied with any other, but often an inflammation of the eye, a sarcoma, or an encanthis attends it. When it appears alone, it is caused by cicatrices after wounds, exulcerations, burns, and imprudent use of astringents, or from the protuberance of the internal fleshy parts. In old people, a relaxation of the orbicular muscle sometimes causes it in the lower eye-lid.

If the eye-lid is greatly distorted and contracted, or if the disorder hath been of long continuance, a remedy is rarely to be expected.

When a cicatrix is the cause, endeavour to soften it by a frequent application of the steams of warm water, the egg liquor mentioned in the article anchylosis, &c. At night, proper compresses may be applied to bring the eye-lids together, and keep them so.

When a contraction of the eye-lid is the cause, if emollients and compresses fail, an incision in the form of a crescent may be made at a small distance from the eye-lashes; in the upper eye-lid the points of the incision should be downwards, and in the under eye-lid upwards; thus the skin will be lengthened: the number of incisions may be one or more, according to the degree of the contraction; if more than one is required, make the rest parallel to the first, and at a small distance from it. When the necessary incisions are made, stretch the skin, and lay compresses of lint upon it; but at the second dressing, spread the lint with some digestive ointment to encourage the flesh rising betwixt the incisions; and slips of sticking plaster may be used to keep the upper and lower eye-lids close until the incisions are healed.

If an inflammation produces fungous flesh, first allay the inflammation, then gradually consume the fungus with the mildest escharotics.

In old age, a relaxation of the orbicular muscle sometimes produces this complaint; in this case, relief must be attempted by spirituous and strengthening applications.

Tumors in the orbit are sometimes the cause, and when not of a cancerous kind, the cure will depend on their extirpation. Ware's Remarks on the Ophthalmy, &c.

See Galen, Celsus, P. Ægineta, Reckius's Dis. on the Ectropium, Heister's Surgery, Lond. Med. Obs. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 371. Warner's Cases in Surgery, p. 34. and Monf. St. Yves on the Disorders of the Eyes.

ECTROSIS, from ἐκτιτρώσκω, *to miscarry.* A miscarriage.

ECTROTICA, from ἐκτιτρώσκω, *to miscarry.* Medicines which cause miscarriage.

ECTYLOTICA. So Horstius calls medicines that destroy callosities.

ECTYROTICA, i. e. Ectrotica.

ECZEMA, from ζέω, *to boil,* or *to be hot.* An hot painful pustule.

ECZESMA, i. e. Eczema.

EDELPHUS. So Paracelsus calls one who makes prognostics from the nature of the elements.

EDENTULUS. Without teeth.

EDERA QUINQUEFOLIA. A name of the vitis quinquefolia Canadensis scandens.

EDERA TRIFOLIA, i. e. Toxicodendron.

EDES, Edets, Aurum Elimpius, i. e. Amber.

EDESSENUM PELARIUM. The name of a collyrium in Ætius.

EDIC, Edich, or Edir. Iron.

EDINBURGENSIS PULVIS. Edinburgh powder, also called antimonial salt. It is a preparation of antimony, similar to the emetic tartar; the preparation is kept a secret by those who prepare it. As a febrifuge, it is reckoned a specific: it is soluble in water; invariably of the same strength; and the dose such, that a grain or two over or under, is not attended with inconvenience. It is probably the tart. emet. prepared with merc. vitæ, instead of the vitr. antimon. See Tart. Emetic.

EDRA. A fractured bone, in which, beside the fracture, there is an impression from the instrument by which it was broken.

EDULCORANTIA. Edulcorants. See Absorbentia.

EDULCORATIO. Sweetening with sugar or honey. But in chemistry, it is the rendering preparations sweet, that is mild, by depriving them of their acrimony: this is done by repeated affusions of water; thus the acid and other saline substances are washed from them.

EFFERVESCENTIA. Effervescence. It signifies a slight degree of ebullition in liquors exposed to a due degree of heat. The chemists apply it to that ebullition which is excited by mixing an acid and alkali together: if the *effervescence* produces heat, they call it a hot *effervescence*; if cold, a cold *effervescence.*

Some confound it with fermentation; but Boerhaave judiciously limits fermentation to that commotion in vegetable juices which produces a vinous or an acetous liquor, and calls those ebullitions that are produced by the mixture of bodies *effervescencies.*

EFFIDES. Cerus.

EFFILA. Freckles.

EFFLORATIO, or Efflorescentia, i. e. Exanthema.

EFFLUVIA. Minute particles which exhale from bodies. By these effluvia from morbid bodies contagion is propagated. See Contagio.

EFFŒTE, from *ex* and *fœtus.* Barren, childless. But figuratively, it is any thing that is so decayed as to have lost its virtue.

EFFRACTURA. A species of fracture of the cranium when the bone is broken and much depressed by a blow.

EGELO. Narrow-leaved laburnum.

EGESTIO. Excretion. Generally used with respect to evacuations by stool.

EJACULANTIA. See Ejaculatoria Vasa.

EJACULATORIA VASA. The vessels which receive the seminal matter elaborated in the testicles, and convey it to the penis. These are the epididymis, the vasa deferentia, the vesiculæ seminales, and the prostatæ.

EILAMIDES, from εἰλέω, *to involve.* The meninges or membranes of the brain, viz. the dura and pia mater.

EILEMA, from εἰλέω, *to form convolutions.* In Hip. de Flatib. it signifies painful convolutions of the intestines, from flatulence. Sometimes it signifies a covering. Vogel says it is a fixed pain in the guts, as if a nail was driven in.

EILEON, from εἰλέω, *to wind.* Gorræus says it is a name of the intestinum ileum.

EILEOS, from εἰλέω, *to form convolutions.* The iliac passion.

EISBOLE, from εἰς, *into,* and βάλλω, *to cast.* It signifies strictly an injection, but is used to express the access of a distemper, or of a particular paroxysm.

EISPNOE, from εἰς, *in,* and πνέω, *to breathe.* Inspiration.

EL BOT. An abbreviation of elements of botany.

ELA-CALLI. An East-Indian shrub, whose juice is an excellent cathartic in dropsies. Raii Hist.

ELÆAGINUS ORIENTALIS. See Jujuba.

ELÆAGNON, i. e. Agnus castus.

ELÆAGNUS, called alſo thus myrtifolia Belgica, gale, chamælæagnus, rhus ſylveſtris, myrtus Brabantica aut Anglica. Gaule, ſweet willow, or Dutch myrtle.

It grows in heaths, and uncultivated ſoils, in marſhy and watery places; it flowers in May and June. It is very bitter. Some uſe the flowers in ale inſtead of hops. In ſome countries it is held in much eſteem, but hath not obtained with us. Boerhaave reckons up three ſpecies.

ELÆAGNUS. A name for the wild olive.

ELÆOMELI, from ἔλαιον, *oil*, and μέλι, *honey*. In Syria this oil is prepared from the buds of a certain tree, though ſome ſay from the trunk; it is ſweet, thicker than honey, and of a purging quality. See Dioſc. lib i. c. 37.

ELÆOSACCHARUM, from ἔλαιον, *oil*, and σακχαρ, *ſugar*. A mixture of eſſential oil with ſugar is thus named in pharmacy. This oil requires at leaſt eight or ten times its quantity of ſugar, which ſhould be well rubbed with it, and kept cloſe in a phial. In the eſſential oil of vegetables reſides moſt of the virtues that are communicated to water, or to vinous ſpirit by diſtillation; hence, if a proper quantity of water or of vinous ſpirit be added to theſe elæoſaccharums, a water is immediately produced of ſimilar efficacy with a diſtilled water.

ELAMBICATIO. A method of analizing mineral waters, to inveſtigate their virtues.

ELANULA. Alum as hard as iron.

ELAPHICON. A name for elaphoboſcum.

ELAPHOBOSCON, i. e. Siſarum.

ELAPHOBOSCUM, i. e. Paſtinaca.

ELAPHOPILA. The hairs collected in the ſtomach of a ſtag, and formed there into a ball.

ELAPHOSCORODON. Stag's or viper's garlic.

ELAPS. A ſerpent whoſe bite produces a diſorder like the iliac paſſion.

ELAQUIR. Red vitriol.

ELAS MARIS. Burnt lead.

ELASIS. The ſame as elaſticitas.

ELASMA, from ἐλαύνω, *to impel*. A lamina or plate of any kind. But it is uſed to expreſs a clyſter-pipe.

ELASTICITAS. Elaſticity, from ἐλαύνω, *to impel*, or repel.

It is the property in bodies by which they reſtore themſelves ſpontaneouſly to the figure and dimenſions which they had loſt by the action of ſome other body applied to them.

ELATE. So the antients called the vagina which incloſes the flowers and rudiments of the fruit of the great palm-tree.

ELATE THELEIA, i. e. Abies.

ELATER, i. e. Elaſticitas.

ELATERII. See THURIS CORTEX.

ELATERIUM. Beſides its application to the wild cucumber, and its preparations (ſee CUCUMIS), it is often uſed in Hippocrates to expreſs an external application of a digeſtive or a detergent nature.

ELATHERIA, i. e. Thuris cortex.

ELATINE, alſo called Veronica fœminia, linaria ſegetum, female fluellin, female ſpeedwell. The ſpecies uſed in medicine is the antirrhinum elatine. Linn. Boerhaave places it as a ſpecies of linaria, of which he reckons twenty-two ſpecies. The elatine is a low procumbent plant, with oval accuminated leaves, that are downy; the flowers are purpliſh coloured; it grows annually in corn fields, and flowers in July.

The leaves have a rough bitteriſh taſte, and but little ſmell; both water and ſpirit extract their whole virtue. The expreſſed juice may be given to three or four ounces three times a day; but its medicinal power has not kept it a place in practice.

ELATINUM OLEUM. The name of an oil in Dioſcorides.

ELCOSIS. Numerous, or large chronic ulcers, carious, fetid, and attended with a ſlow fever.

ELECTARIUM. An electuary. *Electuaries* are of the ſame conſiſtence and materials as boluſes, and in chronical diſeaſes, where the exactneſs of doſes is not neceſſary, and the long continuance of the medicine requires the conciſeſt form this is better than boluſes, powders or draughts. *Electuaries* for keeping in the ſhops require a care to avoid ſuch things as will deſtroy one another by being combined: aſtringents and agglutinants ſpoil by being mixed with ſugar; alkalies and acids will ferment if they lie together; nauſeous, bitter ingredients are improper for this form; ſteel, antimony, and Æthiops mineral, becauſe of their colour, are beſt made up in pills; but the colour of cinnabar is improved by mixture with the conſerve of roſes or hips. The conſiſtence of *electuaries* ſhould be ſuch as neither candies nor ferments.

Extemporaneous *electuaries* ſhould not exceed two or three ounces, half of which is conſerve; but this is not a fixed rule; for the conſideration of how much of the medicine can conveniently be given for one doſe is ſometimes to be attended to: when the ingredients are ungrateful, they are beſt to take if mixed up with mucilage and a ſolution of liquorice juice. See Lemery's Univerſal Pharmacopœia.

ELECTIO. Election. That part of pharmacy which conſiſts in a knowledge of the various ſimples which compoſe the materia medica, and directs the choice of drugs, diſtinguiſhing the good from the bad.

ELECTRODES, from ἤλεκτρον, *amber*. An epithet for ſtools which ſhine like amber.

ELECTRUM. Amber. See SUCCINUM. It is alſo a mixture of gold with a fifth part ſilver.

ELECTRON. Amber.

ELECTRUM MINERALE. The tincture of metals is made of tin and copper, to which ſome add gold, and double its quantity of martial regulus of antimony, melted together; from theſe there reſults a metallic maſs, to which ſome chemiſts have given the name of *electrum minerale*. This maſs is powdered and detonated with nitre and charcoal to a kind of ſcoria; then it is powdered again whilſt hot, and then digeſted in ſpirit of wine, whence a tincture is obtained of a fine red colour. This tincture is a deobſtruent.

ELELISPHACOS. Sage.

ELEMENTA. An element. Galen ſays the element of any thing is the ſmalleſt and moſt minute part of that thing whoſe element it is. Others define it otherwiſe: but what one philoſopher aſſerts, others prove to be abſurd.

Among the chemiſts, fire, air, water, and earth, are called elements; alſo primary principles.

ELEMI, called alſo elemni, icica. Gum elemi.

It is a dry reſinous ſubſtance; the beſt is brought from the Eaſt-Indies and Æthiopia; an inferior ſort is the produce of a kind of olive-tree in the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies; the amyris *elemifera*. Linn. What we have from the Eaſt is wrapped in flag leaves; is ſoftiſh, ſomewhat tranſparent; of a pale whitiſh yellow colour, inclining to green, inflammable, and of an agreeable flavour when melting; to the taſte it is bitteriſh; it diſſolves totally in rectified ſpirit of wine; by diſtillation with water about one ounce of eſſential oil is obtained from ſixteen of the gum.

Its chief uſe is as a digeſtive in the form of an ointment: the London college gives the following preſcription, in which it is the chief ingredient.

Ungentum e Gummi Elemi. *Ointment of Gum* Elemi.

Take of tried mutton ſuet freſh, two pounds; of gum *elemi*, one pound; of common turpentine, ten ounces. Melt the gum with the ſuet; and all being removed from the fire, add forthwith the turpentine, and while the mixture is fluid, ſtrain it.

This is one of the beſt of the officinal digeſtives. Arcæus was its firſt preſcriber, and from him it was formerly called linimentum vel balſamum Arcæi. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

ELEMNIFERA CURASSAVICA ARBOR. The gum elemi tree.

ELENGI. A tall tree which grows in Malabar, and bears fragrant flowers, eſteemed for their cordial quality.

ELEOSELINUM, from ἕλος, *a fen*, and σέλινον, *parſley*. A name for ſmallage.

ELEPHANTIA. A ſort of anaſarca.

ELEPHANTIA ARABUM. According to ſome it is the *elephantiaſis* when the feet are ſwelled and hard. In Dr. Cullen's Noſology, it is ſynonymous with *elephantiaſis*.

ELEPHANTIASIS. It is generally ranked as a ſpe-

cies of leprosy; some say it is the highest degree of skin diseases, and others distinguish it from the leprosy by having its seat in the flesh, whilst the leprosy only affects the skin, or, at the most, the integuments. This disorder receives its name from its affecting the legs so as to make them resemble those of an elephant.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of disease in the class cachexiæ, and order impetigines.

Dr. Towne assures us, that negroes are very commonly the subjects of this disorder, and that it bears a great affinity to the best account we have of the lepra of the Arabians. He says those are the most subject to it, who, after severe acute fevers, long continued intermittents, or other tedious illnesses, are either much exposed to the inclemency of rainy seasons, and the cold dews of the evening, or who are constrained to subsist on bad diet.

On the first attack, the patient complains of shiverings; these continue a few hours, and are succeeded by a pain in the head, back, and loins; a nausea and vomiting soon follow, with pain in one of the inguinal glands (never in both); a severe fever follows; the gland reddens, becomes hard, but seldom suppurates; a red streak runs down the thigh, from the swelled gland to the leg, almost an inch broad, and of a flesh colour; this streak soon swells, and then the fever abates, and the matter is thrown upon the leg by an imperfect crisis. By degrees the leg is more and more tumefied, and the veins are formed into large varices, which are very apparent from the knee downward to the toes. After this, the skin grows rugged and unequal, a scaly substance soon forms itself on it, with fissures here and there. These scales do not dry off, but are daily protruded forward, until the leg is greatly enlarged. Though this scaly substance appears harsh and insensible, if it is very superficially touched with the point of a lancet, the blood freely oozes out. Notwithstanding the monstrous size of the diseased leg, the appetite remains good, and in all other respects the patient is healthy: many of them continue thus for twenty years or more, and make no other complaint than what the enormous size of the leg occasions. It rarely happens that both legs are affected. White people are afflicted with this disorder when subjected to the same circumstances that are the apparent cause in blacks.

This disease is infectious, and often found to be hereditary.

The cure is uncertain; however, after cleansing the first passages, warm perspiratives may be mixed with antimonials, and administered with the bark. The diet and other helps should all conduce to increase the vis vitæ. Mercury is said by some to be injurious; but the experience of others manifests its usefulness, when joined with the above-named remedies.

Aretæus describes the elephantiasis with great accuracy. Towne is particular in the account of it. See Turner also in his Diseases of the Skin, and Brooks's Practice of Physic.

In the Lond. Med. Trans. vol. i. p. 23, &c. is inserted a description of the *elephantiasis*, as it appears at Madeira, and also the method which in one instance was attended with success. In this country the disorder appears at first in the form of tubercles on any or all parts of the body; in time they ulcerate: if they happen on the beard or eye-brows, the hairs there fall off; but this does not happen on the head. The legs swell, and are hard, white scales cover them, and fissures appear here and there, though in some instances the legs are emaciated and full of ulcers. Many other very disagreable symptoms are observed in different patients.

None are observed to receive this disorder from others by contact, but generally the children of the diseased are subject to it.

The bark, with the following embrocation and blistering, proved curative, after mercurials and antimonials failed.

Applicet. Empl. *Episp. Nucb.*

℞ Cort. Peruv. pulv. ℥ iss. cort. rad. saſſafr. pulv. ℥ ss. fyr. q. s. f. electar. cap. q. n. m. major bis in die.

℞ Spt. vini tenuior. ℥ viii. lixiv. tart. ℥ i. spt. sal. ammon. ʒ ii. m. f. embroc. cum qua inung. partes affect. mane nocteque.

ELEPHANTINUM EMPL. A plaster described in Oribasius. Celsus describes one of the same name, but very different in qualities.

ELEPHANTOPUS, of ἐλέφας, *an elephant*, and πούς, *foot* A plant so called by Monf. Vaillant, because he says that the under leaves resemble an elephant's foot. He makes three species, but names no medicinal qualities.

ELEPHAS. In chemistry it signifies aqua fortis. In botany it is a plant which Parkinson calls scordio affinis elephas columnæ. In zoology it is the large animal called an elephant. In nosology it is the disorder called elephantiasis.

ELERSNA, i. e. Molybdæna.

ELETERII, (Cort.) i. e. Thuris cortex.

ELETTARI PRIMUM. True stone parsley.

ELETTARI. A name of the lesser cardamoms.

ELUTHERIA, i. e. Cascarilla.

ELEVATIO. Elevation. Chemical sublimation is sometimes thus named.

ELEVATOR, i. e. Rectus superior oculi (musculus).

ELEVATORES ANI, i. e. Levatores ani.

ELEVATOR AURICULÆ. This muscle arises from the external termination of the frontal muscle, it being formed of diverse fleshy fibres covering the temporal muscle; and being thin and membranous, is carried over it; then growing narrower, is inserted into the upper part of the ear, bringing it upward and forward.

ELEVATOR LABII INFERIORIS MUSCULUS, i. e. Levator labii inferioris.

ELEVATOR LABII SUPERIORIS, i. e. Levator labii superioris.

ELEVATOR NASI ALARUM. These muscles arise from the top of the bone of the nose near the lachrymal cavity, with a sharp and fleshy begining, and falling down towards its sides in a triangular figure, not much unlike the Greek letter Δ, it marcheth downwards the length of the bone, and is inserted broad and fleshy into the nasi alæ.

ELEVATOR OCULI, also called superbus, attollens, and rectus superior. This muscle rises from the bottom of the socket near the hole, which gives a passage to the optic nerve; then passing over the upper part of the globe of the eye, is inserted into the superior and anterior part of the sclerotica.

ELEVATOR PALPEBRÆ SUPERIORIS, i. e. Levator. palp. super.

ELEVATOR LABIORUM. See Levator Communis.

ELEVATORIUM. An elevator. An instrument with which to raise a depression in the skull. From *elevo*, *to raise up*.

ELHANNA, i. e. Alcanna.

ELHANNE ARABUM. Eastern privet.

ELICRYSO. A species of senecio.

ELICHRYSON, i. e. Helichrysos.

ELICHRYSUM, from ἥλιος, *the sun*, and χρυσὸς, *gold*. Goldylocks.

Boerhaave enumerates nineteen species. It is a small, shrubby, downy plant, cloathed with long very narrow leaves, producing on the tops of the branches several small round heads, of bright yellow scaly flowers. It is a native of the southern parts of France. It flowers in May and June, and holds its leaves all the winter.

Coma aurea Germanica, called also linaria aurea, linosyris nupcorum, virga aurea, conyza, stœchas citrina Germanica, elichrysum latifolia, amaranthus luteus, gnophaleum luteum, and German *goldylocks*. It is cultivated in gardens, and flowers in May. The flowers are diuretic.

Conyza Æthiopica. African shrubby *goldylocks*.

Elichrysum, called also chrysocome, coma aurea, stœchas citrina, golden maiden-hair, golden stœchas, golden, or yellow cassidony, *goldylocks*.

The flowers, naturally dry and firm, retain their figures and glossy yellow colour for years. Both the flowers and leaves, if rubbed a little, smell strongly, and have a flavour of the musk kind. To the taste they are warm, pungent, bitterish, and astringent. Water takes up their flavour in distillation, and, by infusion, rectified spirit does the same. It is not much used in medicine, altho' it is esteemed as being astringent and corroborant. See Lewis's Mat. Med. or Neumann's Chem. Works.

ELI-

ELICHRYSUM MONTANUM. Mountain cudweed.

ELIDRION. Rulandus ſays it is maſtich, or mercury, or rhapontic, or or a mixture of ſilver, braſs and gold.

ELIGII MORBUS. A fiſtula.

ELIGMA. A linctus.

ELITHROIDES, i. e. Elythroides.

ELIXIR. An elixir is only a compound tincture. This word is from the Arabic, in which language al-ecſir, or al-ekſir, ſignifies chemiſtry; hence *elixir*, a medicine prepared by the chemical art, is appropriated by way of eminence to a tincture extracted by a proper menſtruum from many ingredients. An *elixir* is more ſaturated than a tincture, ſo is not ſo clear.

ELIXIS, from λειχω, *to lick*. An eclegma or linctus.

ELIXIVIATIO. Elixiviation. The operation by which a fixed ſalt is extracted from the aſhes of vegetables, by an affuſion of water.

ELIZ, i. e. Flos æris.

ELLEBORINE. Baſtard hellebore.

ELLEBORITES. See HELLEBORITES.

ELLEBORUS, i. e. Helleborus.

ELLOBOS. An epithet for ſuch ſeeds or fruits as are in pods or lobes.

ELLYCHNION, from λυχνος, *a lamp*. The wick of a lamp or candle. Theſe were made of different materials, ſome of the papyrus, ſome of the fruit of the ricinus, &c. Theſe wicks were uſed by the ancients inſtead of lint.

ELLYCHNIOTOS, i. e. Ellychnion.

ELMINTHES. Worms.

ELOANX. Auripigment.

ELOIDES. So the Greeks call ſweating fevers. They are a kind of tertian intermittents.

ELOGIUM. Paré uſes this word inſtead of renunciatio.

ELOME. Auripigment.

ELONGATIO. An elongation. It is uſed to ſignify a luxation. From *elongo*, *to lengthen out*.

ELOPITINUM. Vitriol.

ELOS MARIS. Burnt lead.

ELOXOCHITL. It is the name of an Indian-tree. Ray mentions it under the article banana; but he mentions no medical virtue.

ELIPIS. The ſcoria of ſilver.

ELTZ, i. e. Flos æris.

ELUTHERIA, i. e. Thuris cortex.

ELUTRIATIO. Waſhing over. It is the pouring a liquor out of one veſſel into another, in order to ſeparate the ſubſiding matter from the clear and fluid part.

ELUVIES. In Pechlinus it imports the humour diſcharged in a fluor albus.

ELUXATIO, i. e. Luxatio.

ELYMAGROSTIS, i. e. Gramen panicum panicula ſimplici.

ELYMOS. A name of the panicum.

ELYTHROIDES, from ελυθρον, *vagina*, *a ſheath*, and ειδος, *form*. So the tunica vaginalis of the teſtes is called, becauſe it includes them as in a ſheath.

ELYTROCELE. A hernia in the vagina.

ELYTRON, from ελυω, *to involve*, or *cover*, a covering or ſheath. Hippocrates calls the membranes which involve the ſpinal marrow ελυτρα.

ELZIMAR, i. e. Flos æris.

EMACIANTES. Diſeaſes that occaſion a waſting of the whole body.

EMANSIO. Etmuller uſes this word inſtead of ſuppreſſio, when ſpeaking of ſuppreſſed menſes. *Emanſio* menſium is the retention or abſence of the menſes beyond their uſual period of appearing.

EMARGINATIO. To emarginate. To cleanſe a wound of the ſcurf, &c. about its edge.

EMARGINATUS. Theſe leaves of plants which are hollowed at their extremities, ſo as to form a heart, are called emarginated leaves.

EMASCULATUS, i. e. Malaziſſatus.

EMBAMMA, from βαπτω, *to immerge*, or *dip*. A ſauce or pickle to dip victuals in. Muſtard is a kind of *embamma*.

EMBAPHION. A cruet for containing embammas.

EMBASIS, from εν, and βαινω, *to go*. A deep baſon or tub filled with water for ſwimming in.

EMBOLE, from εμβαλλω, *to put in*. The reduction or ſetting of a diſlocated bone.

EMBORISMA. An aneuriſm.

EMBOTUM. A funnel conveying fumes into any orifice of the body.

EMBREGMA, from εμβρεχω, *to moiſten*, i. e. Embrocatio.

EMBROCATIO, from εμβρεχω, *to moiſten, ſprinkle*, or *ſoak in*. It is an external application in a fluid form, uſually prepared of volatile and ſpirituous ingredients, and moſtly uſed to relieve pains, numbneſs, or palſies.

EMBROCHE, from εμβρεχω, *to make wet*, i. e. Embrocatio, or fomentatio.

EMBRONTETOS, from βροντη, *thunder*. Properly it it is one thunder-ſtruck; and from a ſimilarity of effects, it is applied to apoplectic perſons.

EMBRYON. An embryo, from εν, *in*, and βρυω, *to pullulate*, or *bud forth*. Thus the child in the womb is called, becauſe it buds forth in the internal parts. So Hippocrates calls the child in the womb when in its third ſtage, that is, before it is a complete child. See CUEMA.

Galen ſays, that the Greeks did not call the fœtus under two months old by the name of *embryon*, but named it cuema; but others ſay it is *embryon* during the whole time of its being in the womb. Homer applies the term *embryon* to the fœtus of brutes; and Theophraſtus does the ſame with reſpect to the ſeeds of plants, and they are followed in the ſame by all the moderns.

EMBRYONATUM, i. e Sulph. antimon. præcip.

EMBRYONUM BALS, vel Spt. It is a preſcription of Bates; but in point of excellency it is exceeded by a mixture of the ſpirituous aniſeed water, and ſimple cinnamon water in equal parts.

EMBRYOTHLASTES, from εμβρυον, *a fœtus*, and θλαω, *to break*. An inſtrument with which to break the bones of a fœtus, in order to its more eaſy delivery. It is alſo a crotchet for extracting a fœtus.

EMBRYOTOMIA. Embriotomy. From εμβρυον, *a fœtus*, and τεμνω, *to cut*. It is a cutting of the child whilſt in the womb, in order to its eaſier delivery.

EMBRYULCUS. It is when the embryotomy is made uſe of for delivering a child from the womb.

EMBRYULCIA, from εμβρυον, *a fœtus*, and ελκω, *to draw*. An hook for the extraction of a child when labour is difficult. In the preſent practice of midwifry, as circumſtances vary, the fœtus is drawn away from the uterus by the curved forceps, the ſtrait forceps, the blunt hook, or the crotchet; the latter of theſe wounds, and ſo generally kills the child, but its delivery is only expedited and facilitated by the other three.

The blunt hook is uſed when the child preſents with its breech, and the pains are not ſufficient for effecting its delivery. In this caſe, the hook is carefully to be fixed in the groin of the child, and as the pains return, nature muſt be aſſiſted by gently pulling with the hook; but if much ſtrength is required it is ſtill better to leave the delivery to the uſual aſſiſtance of the hands only with the labour pains, becauſe the hook may diſlocate or break the thigh of the child. When the hook is uſed, it ſhould be taken away as ſoon as the finger can be fixed in the child's groin, for thus the danger is much leſſened.

The crotchets are uſed in the ſame manner as the forceps, except that the crotchet having a hook as its point, is forced into the part to which it is applied.

The ſtrait forceps are uſed for bringing the head of the child forward, when by reaſon of its ſize, or the want of pains, it cannot otherwiſe be protruded; but much care ſhould be had in uſing them. They are never neceſſary whilſt the head is above the brim of the pelvis; and indeed very rarely when it hath deſcended lower. Dr. Hunter abſolutely forbids their uſe if they can poſſibly be avoided, and that conſiſtent with the ſafety of the child; for if time is allowed, the parts will dilate, and the head will be moulded ſo as to paſs with the leaſt poſſible violence.

The forceps, as improved by Smellie, are the beſt; he reduced their length, to prevent their being uſed before the head is ſufficiently low. They ſhould not be applied before the ears can be felt, and before uſing them, the following rules ſhould be obſerved.

1. The external parts ſhould be ſufficiently dilated.

2. The

2. The exact ſituation of the child's head ſhould be known; and this is beſt diſcovered by feeling one ear.

3. A finger ſhould be in the os internum to guide the forceps, leſt a part of the uterus itſelf ſhould be included in them. When the finger cannot be thus introduced, great care is required in paſſing the forceps along the ſide of the child's head.

4. The blades of the forceps ſhould be well greaſed before they are introduced.

5. If poſſible apply the blades over the child's ears, for thus they are placed on the narroweſt part of the head; when this cannot be done, fix one before one ear, and the other behind the oppoſite one.

6. The forceps ſhould be paſſed up in the direction of a line, that would be ſuppoſed to paſs through betwixt the navel and the ſcrobiculum cordis; at the ſame time keeping the handles as far back as the perinæum will eaſily admit. When the forceps are ſecure, pull them from blade to blade, for otherwiſe they are apt to ſlip off.

7. The handles ſhould be tied tight before the operator begins to pull downwards with them; and when the two blades are locked, the lock ſhould be about an inch from the child's head.

8. As the child's head advances, the operator ſhould alternately reſt and pull while the perinæum is on the ſtretch, and until the vertex is brought from under the os pubis; then the handles of the forceps being gradually raiſed towards the mother's belly, and the pulling repeated with caution, whilſt with one hand the perinæum is ſupported, the forehead will be freed from it. The forceps are now to be taken away, and the delivery finiſhed as is uſual, with the hands alone.

The different caſes in which theſe forceps are required, may be ſeen under the article PRÆSENTATIO.

The long curved forceps. They were invented by Smellie, with a view to ſaving the life of the child when the body being delivered, the head could not be brought away in the uſual manner. In this caſe, the crotchet was formerly uſed. Theſe forceps are longer than the ſtraight ones, becauſe they are applied when the head of the child is above the brim of the pelvis; but as it can very rarely happen that where the buttocks have paſſed (eſpecially when doubled, as in breech preſentations) the head will be detained; theſe inſtruments will hardly ever be required. Indeed when the head is ſeparated from the body, and left in the uterus, if the pelvis is much diſtorted, the long curved forceps may ſometimes be preferable to the ſtraight ones; but in this caſe, if the ſize of the head is leſſened by emptying it of part of the brain, the delivery may generally be effected by one hand and one crotchet.

EMBULA. A pipe.

EMUBLARCHI SUFFUMIGIUM. A ſuffumigation deſcribed by Ætius.

EMBYAYEMBO. The name of a plant which grows in Braſil. See Raii Hiſt.

EMERICUS, i. e. Smyris.

EMERUS, alſo called colutea ſcorpioides major, and ſcorpium ſenna.

EMERUS MINOR, called alſo colutea humilis, colutea ſcorpiodes humilis, colutea ſiliquoſa minor, coronilla montana, and leſſer ſcorpion ſenna.

It grows on hilly places; its leaves are purging, and poor people ſometimes gather and uſe them on that account.

EMERUS AMERICANUS, i. e. Indicum.

EMESIA, Emeſma, from ἐμέω, *to vomit*, i. e. Emetos.

EMETICA, Emetic, from ἐμέω, *to vomit*. The benefit of *emetics* is not as evacuants, except in caſe of poiſonous, or other offenſive ſubjects, being lodged in the ſtomach, but from the ſhock which they give to the general frame.

Medicines of this kind act by irritation, the effect of which is a conatus naturæ to expel ſomething obnoxious; hence a cathartic in an over doſe often proves emetic.

When *emetics* are adminiſtered, if bleeding is alſo required, that operation ſhould be firſt performed. If the patient is coſtive, or if he hath a ſerous plethora, purging ſhould precede the uſe of emetics, eſpecially in children. Fat people ſhould take *emetics* on an empty ſtomach, after uſing briſk exerciſe about noon; and thin people ſhould take them about an hour or two after eating.

During the operation of an *emetic*, the perſon ſhould ſit with his knees advanced towards his breaſt, for thus the diſcharges will be much more eaſy. Though drinking freely generally aſſiſts the operation of theſe medicines; yet if two or three draughts do not come up, the throat ſhould be tickled with a feather, or a few grains of white vitriol may be ſwallowed, becauſe by drinking more, the ſtomach may be ſo diſtended as not to be able to eject its contents.

In all feveriſh paroxyſms, inflammations of the ſtomach, ſpaſms in the ſtomach from anger, hyſterics, &c. congeſtions of blood in the upper parts; if on any account an *emetic* is indicated, bleeding ſhould precede, and the plethora be removed.

A decoction of the bulbous roots of common daffodil is one of the gentleſt *emetics* in the materia medica. Horſeradiſh and muſtard are diuretics as well as gentle emetics, and as they diſcharge only the contents of the ſtomach, their uſe is the ſafer in caſes which do not admit of more active ones. A tea ſpoonful of the flour of muſtard may be added to each pint of warm water, and repeated as required.

In venereal diſorders, the merc. emet. flav. is the moſt proper. In old chronic complaints, antimonial emetics are to be preferred, as they are attenuating and deobſtruent. In maniac caſes, antimonials are never to be omitted. When poiſons are ſwallowed, the vitriol. alb. is the beſt adapted for ſpeedy relief.

The uſefulneſs of *emetics* extends very far into medical practice. When the menſes are exceſſive from any obſtruction in the returning veſſels, an *emetic* may procure relief; and when the menſes are ſuppreſſed, *emetics* powerfully aſſiſt in reſtoring their due courſe, if taken a little before the time of their uſual return. The head-ach attending youth at the age of puberty is much relieved by this diſcharge. The vomiting which ſo frequently is attendant during pregnancy, is much relieved by frequent ſmall doſes of the pulv. ipecac. Two, and from that to ſix grains, may be now and then given, to reſtrain the frequency and violence of theſe diſcharges; and the ſtrainings in conſequence of the ipec. is far leſs than thoſe that are natural.

Thoſe who are violently ſtrained by *emetics*, thoſe who have ruptures, or aneuriſms, as alſo thoſe whoſe viſcera are unſound, ſhould be cautious in the uſe of theſe Herculean remedies.

An opiate ſhould generally ſucceed an *emetic*; and when theſe evacuants are too powerful, or operate more than is required, opiates greatly reduce their efficacy; common ſalt given in the gruel will turn the operation of *emetics* downwards; a ſpoonful of brandy ſometimes ſucceeds in checking their action; mild oils, grateful acids, and aromatics, are alſo efficacious helps.

On the ſubject of *emetics*, Dr. Fothergill's Inaugural Diſſertation; (a tranſlation of which is in that edition of his works publiſhed by Dr. Lettſom) may be read with conſiderable advantages. In this publication, beſides the many occaſional remarks on other important ſubjects, the doctor very advantageouſly dwells, 1ſt, On the action of vomiting, and the various means uſed to excite it; he attends to *emetics* with reſpect to their ſtrength or different power on the ſtomach. 2. The uſe of *emetics* conſidered as ſtimulants. 3. The uſe of *emetics* as evacuants. 4. The uſes of *emetics*, ariſing from their mechanical force: this laſt diviſion he concludes with obſervations on ſome diſeaſes in which *emetics* may be hurtful. In the courſe of his remarks under the above diviſions, moſt diſeaſes are noticed which are benefited by *emetics* operating in any one of thoſe modes. But ſuch is the importance of every part of his performance, that to ſelect would leave too much; it is therefore thought beſt, after a general information of its contents, to urge the peruſal of the work itſelf, on every inquirer into the ſubject.

EMETICUM MITTE. The mild emetic of Boerhave is made by deflagrating one part of crude antimony with two of nitre. By this proceſs, not only all the ſulphur, but much of the phlogiſton of the regulus is conſumed; it is therefore *mild*.

EMETICUM VINUM, i. e. Vin. antimoniale.

EMETOCATHARTICUM. A medicine which operates by vomit and by ſtool.

EMÉU, alſo called eme, caſoar, caſoaris; the caſſowary. It is a large bird of the oſtrich kind.

The *emeu* and *caſſowary* are generally ſpoken of as one, but they are different birds. The *emeu* is met with in South America, and the *caſſowary* in the Molucca iſlands. See Goldſmith's Hiſtory of the Earth and animated Nature, vol. v.

EMISSARIUM. An Emiſſary. In medicine it is any orifice of the body, whether natural or morbid, out of which any thing is emitted.

EMMENAGOGA, Emmenagogues, from εμμηνια, the *menſtrual diſcharges*, and αγω, *to draw, lead*, or *force*. They are ſuch medicines as promote the diſcharge of the menſtrual flux. Of theſe the principal are the fetid gums, aromatics, aloetics, chalybeats, and the preparations of black hellebore. Some medicines ranked under this claſs produce their effect by leſſening irritations, others by their ſtimuli. When ſpaſms in the veſſels obſtruct, mugwort powerfully relaxes; caſtor, ſaffron, or borax do the ſame. The ſtimulating kinds ſhould not be given, except the body is full of good blood and juices; for as they urge to an excretion, they cauſe a diſcharge of what cannot be ſpared until then. A third kind of *emmenagogues* are, whatever conduces to fill the body with healthy fluids.

EMMENIA, from μην, a *month*. The menſtrual diſcharges.

EMMOTOS, from μοτος, *lint*. An epithet for perſons, parts of the body, or diſorders that require lint for the cure.

EMODIA. A ſtupor of the teeth.

EMOLLIENTIA. Emollients. Medicines of this claſs relax and ſupple the ſolids; they alſo ſheathe and ſoften the aſperity of the fluids. When externally applied, they are termed *emollients*; but if internally adminiſtered, demulcents ſeems to be their propereſt appellation. See DEMULCENTS.

Emollient topics are formed of water, oily, and mucilaginous ſubſtances. Water, particularly when aſſiſted by a moderate heat, is plentifully abſorbed from the whole ſurface of our body; it powerfully relaxes and dilutes, being miſcible with almoſt every animal fluid. Oil relaxes and obtunds what is acrid; and mucilage alſo ſheaths ſharp humours. In compoſitions of this kind, the aqueous part ſhould be freely allowed; for the mucilages require to be largely diluted; gentle friction on the part increaſes their efficacy, and as to the heat with which they are applied, it ſhould not exceed what produces a pleaſing ſenſation. From the relaxing quality of *emollient* topics, and their ſheathing of acrimony, it is that they are good ſedative applications, when pain from tenſion, or from irritation, is excited: from the ſympathy of the nerves their efficacy is conveyed alſo to diſtant and deep ſeated parts, and thus it is that the warm bath proves ſo powerful a ſedative. From the ſame principles theſe applications rank with antiſpaſmodics. *Emollients*, by relaxing the fibres, and increaſing the congeſtion of fluids, promote ſuppuration; and laſtly, the heat with which they are applied concurs with their other effects to rank them with the tribe of ſeptics; their oily parts particularly diſpoſe them to a putrid acrid acrimony. See Aikins's Obſervations on the external Uſe of Preparations of Lead, p. 29, &c.

EMOTIO. When this word is uſed with reſpect to the mind, and in a medical ſenſe, it ſignifies a delirium; when it is uſed relative to ſome bone, a luxation is to be underſtood by it.

EMPASMA, from πασσω, *to ſprinkle upon*, i. e. Catapaſma.

EMPEDOCLES. He was a ſcholar of Pythagoras. He firſt mentioned the cochlea, and that found was formed there; alſo that the ſeeds of plants are analogous to the eggs of animals.

EMPEROS. Mutilated.

EMPETRUM. It is a plant which reſembles heath.

EMPETRUM MONTANUM FRUCTU NIGRO, called alſo erica baccifera procumbens nigra, erica coris folio; black-berried heath, crow-berries, and crake-berries.

EMPETRUM LUSITANICUM FRUCTU ALBO, called alſo erica erecta baccis candidis, and erica coris folio.

EMPETRUM THYMELÆA FOLIIS, alſo called ſanamunda, and ſea heath. This laſt ſort grows on the coaſt of Andaluſia, it flowers in February. A dram of the root purges ſtrongly. About Gibraltar it is called burhalaga, but is there only uſed to heat their ovens with.

EMPETRUM. A name of the alypum.

EMPHRACTICA, from φραττω, *to obſtruct*. Such topics as ſtop the pores when applied to the ſkin.

EMPHRAGMA, from φραττω, *to obſtruct*. An impediment, or obſtruction. Thus Hippocrates calls the parts of a child which preſent in an unnatural poſture, becauſe they *obſtruct* the birth.

EMPHYSEMA, from φυσαω, *to inflate*. It is any flatulent tumor, but by it is generally underſtood, a ſoft tumor ariſing from air being admitted into the cellular membrane. In Hippocrates it ſignifies an *inflation* of the belly, and ſometimes a *tumor* in general. Dr. Cullen means by the word pneumatoſis, which is his general name for this diſeaſe, the ſwelling formed by air or elſe flatus or rarified fluids. He places it in the claſs cachexiæ and order intermeſcentiæ. The ſpecies are 1ſt, Pneumatoſis ſpontanea; that is, when it happens without manifeſt cauſe. 2. Pneumatoſis traumatica, when it happens from a wound in the thorax. 3. Pneumatoſis venenata, when the cauſe is from the ſwallowing of poiſon, or an external application of it. 4. Pneumatoſis hyſterica, when accompanied with hyſterics.

The moſt frequent cauſe of this diſorder, is the piercing of the pleura, and wounding the lungs by the pointed fragments of broken ribs, though it ſometimes happens that an *emphyſema* is produced in the lungs by lacerations therein, without any injury having happened to the pleura: putridity is alſo a cauſe, as is ſeen in mortifications of the external parts, and in many inſtances of putrid fevers. Putridity raiſes the air both in vegetable and animal ſubſtances from a fixt to an elaſtic ſtate. It never happens from pointed inſtruments, as the blood inſtantly ſtops the paſſages.

An *emphyſema* is manifeſt by a ſoft puffy ſwelling, in which caſe the ſkin appears gloſſy, the tumor gives way on preſſure, but that removed, it inſtantly returns, a crackling is perceived on ſtroking the *emphyſematous* part; when the lungs are wounded, a troubleſome cough attends, and the matter expectorated is mixed with blood; ſometimes air eſcapes from the lungs into the cavity of the breaſt, and not being diſcharged outwardly through the pleura, &c. it occaſions great difficulty of breathing, anxiety, a ſenſe of ſuffocation, ſtupor, a livid colour in the face, and if relief is not ſpeedily obtained, the patient dies. The air detained in any part of the cellular membrane may produce a mortification there.

When theſe kind of tumors happen in putrid diſorders, fomentations may be applied to them, made with equal parts of ſharp vinegar and rectified ſpirit of wine; but when a wound is the cauſe, if the breathing is quick and laborious, bleed, and repeat the operation as often as this ſymptom renders it neceſſary. Punctures, or rather ſmall inciſions, may be made into the cellular membrane, with a lancet, or in different parts of the body; the air will thus be excluded, if gentle preſſure is alſo made on the tumour: when the air is thus evacuated, a compreſs may be dipped in vinegar, and applied over the part where the wound is ſuppoſed to be; a tight bandage may ſecure it, and the patient ſhould be directed to lie on the injured ſide, to prevent a freſh afflux of air. Nitre, and pectoral emulſions, may be given to prevent internal ſuppurations. When the air is detained in the cavity of the breaſt, Mr. Hewſon propoſes to diſcharge it by a ſmall opening made with a knife on the fore-part of the cheſt, which if, on the right ſide, muſt be between the fifth and ſixth ribs, becauſe three the integuments are thin; but if on the left-ſide, the opening muſt be betwixt the ſeventh and eighth, or betwixt the eighth and ninth ribs, the better to avoid wounding the pericardium. See Le Dran's Obſ. N°. 29; James's Med. Dict. Art. Fractura; and Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. ii. p. 17, &c. vol. iii. p. 28—36, 372—399.

EMPIRICA SECTA. The empiric ſect. It was begun by Serapion, ſome ſay Heracleon, &c. about 278 years before the birth of Chriſt. See SERAPION of Alexandria.

EMPIRICUS. An empiric, from πειρω, *to experience*, or εμπειρω, *to try*. See the empiric and dogmatic oppoſed to each other in Percival's Eſſays Med. and Exp. vol. i.

EMPLASTICA, from εμπλασσω, *to obſtruct*, or *ſpread upon*, i. e. Emphractica.

EMPLASTRUM, from εμπλασσω, *to obſtruct* or *ſpread upon*. A plaſter.

Plaſters are compoſitions for external uſe; they do not poſſeſs much medical virtue, and are chiefly employed to make retentive dreſſings, or to keep the parts to which they are applied warm and tight. This they do more equally and ſteadily than a bandage of linen can, eſpecially if there is no ſwelling. They are compoſed of oily and unctuous ſubſtances, united with powders, into ſuch a conſiſtence, that the compound may remain firm in the cold without ſticking to the fingers; that it may be ſoft and pliable in a ſmall heat; and that by the warmth of the human body it may be ſo tenacious, as readily to adhere. If when a *plaſter* is ſoftened to the conſiſtence of ſtiff honey, it is called cerate; when ſoftened ſo as to ſpread eaſily whilſt cold, yet not to run with the heat of the body, they are called an ointment; and if betwixt the conſiſtence of an ointment and an oil, they are called a liniment.

Calces of lead boiled with expreſſed oils unite with them into a *plaſter* of a good conſiſtence, and are a proper baſis for ſeveral other *plaſters*. *Plaſters* may alſo be made of reſins, gummy-reſins, &c. without wax, eſpecially in extemporaneous preſcription: but for officinals, theſe compoſitions are leſs proper, as they ſoon grow too ſoft in keeping, and fall flat in a warm air.

As ſome difference is obſerved in the hardneſs of a *plaſter* for the breaſt or ſtomach, and one that is to be applied to the limbs, the following proportions are generally obſerved. For a ſoft *plaſter* take one ounce of expreſſed oil, one ounce of wax, and half an ounce of any powder; for an harder add an ounce more of wax, and half an ounce of powder.

EMPL. ADHÆSIVUM NIGRUM. The black ſticking plaſter, called alſo the lady's court plaſter, and the Chicheſter plaſter.

Diſſolve twelve ounces of the gum Benjamin in twelve ounces of rectified ſpirit of wine, and ſtrain the ſolution. In a ſeparate veſſel diſſolve a pound of the beſt iſinglaſs in five pints of pure water, then ſtrain the ſolution. Mix theſe ſolutions together, and let them ſtand in a narrow veſſel, that the groſſer parts may ſubſide: when the clear liquor is cold it will form a jelly, ſo, when ſpread, it muſt be near the fire to melt. This quantity ſuffices for ſpreading on ten yards of half-yard wide ſilk; in order to which the ſilk muſt be ſtretched in a frame, then the mixture may be ſpread on it with a ſponge or bruſh: this muſt be done with the warmth of a fire. As each ſpreading dries, it muſt be repeated to the tenth or twelfth time; after which touch it lightly with the bruſh to give it a gloſs.

Its uſe is too generally known to need any thing further being ſaid, than to propoſe an eaſy ſubſtitute, which is as follows: diſſolve a pound and a quarter of fine iſinglaſs in five pints of water, and before it cools ſpread it on ſilk, in the ſame manner as above directed.

EMPLASTRUM ANODYNUM. Take four pounds of common *plaſter*, melt it over a gentle fire, with an ounce and a half of common black pitch. When this is ſpread, mix with each ounce weight of it half a dram of opium, and the ſame quantity of camphor in fine powder. This compoſition is very efficacious in relieving old pains.

EMPLASTRUM ATTRAHENS. Drawing plaſter.

Take yellow reſin, yellow wax, of each three pounds; of tried mutton ſuet, one pound. Melt altogether, and ſtrain the mixture while it remains fluid.

This is given by the London College, to ſupply the place of the melilot *plaſter*; but *plaſters* are not agreeable forms for dreſſing with after the removal of a bliſter; cerates, by being ſofter and leſs adheſive, are to be preferred: the ceratum album, or the ceratum citrinum, are good ſubſtitutes for this *plaſter*.

EMPL. COMMUNE. The common plaſter.

Take of olive oil one gallon; of litharge finely powdered, five pounds; boil them together with about a quart of water over a gentle fire, continually ſtirring, till the oil and the litharge are united, and acquire the due conſiſtence of a *plaſter*; and if the water is waſted before the operation is over, more water (previouſly made hot) muſt be poured on.

As ſoon as the mixture is warm begin to ſtir it; in about four hours the boiling will be completed; but to aſcertain this, drop a little on a tile to cool, by which you will eaſily diſcover whether the litharge is diſſolved or not; the boiling muſt be continued very gentle, or the *plaſter* will be black, or perhaps boil over ſuddenly. If water ſhould be added that is not very hot, the *plaſter* would explode with violence and be waſted; this accident will happen with hot water, if the *plaſter* is very hot. If the compoſition proves diſcoloured, the addition of a little white lead and oil will improve it; but if it is expected to be very white, nothing but a true olive oil will do.

EMPL. E MUCILAGINIBUS. The London college orders a *plaſter* with the oil of *mucilages*; but as the *mucilaginous* part of the ingredients are not taken up by oily and unctuous matters, the preſcription cannot anſwer what the title propoſes.

EMPL. E SAPONE. This is another compoſition in the Diſpenſatory of the London college; but, as *ſoap* is much more advantageouſly uſed in liquid forms, the practitioner will rarely be induced to apply it in that of a ſolid one.

EMPLASTRUM STOMACHUM. Stomach plaſter.

Take of ſoft labdanum three ounces; of frankincenſe one ounce; cinnamon and expreſſed oil of mace, of each half an ounce; of eſſential oil of mint, one dram. Add to the frankincenſe melted firſt, the labdanum a little heated, till it becomes ſoft, and then the oil of mace; afterwards mix in the cinnamon with the oil of mint, and beat them together in a maſs, in a warm mortar, and keep it in a veſſel well cloſed.

Theſe *plaſters* ſhould be frequently renewed to produce any effect, and ſhould be applied on the five lower ribs of the left ſide, towards the back.

EMPLATTOMENA, i. e. Emplaſtica.

EMPNEUMATOSIS, from εμπνεω, *to blow into* or *inflate*. An inflation of the ſtomach, the womb, or other parts.

EMPORIUM. A market-town; but metaphorically applied to the brain, which is the ſeat of all rational and ſenſitive tranſaction.

EMPRION, from πριω, *to ſaw*. Saw-like. A kind of pulſe mentioned by Galen, in which the artery is unequally diſtended in different parts.

EMPROSTHOTONOS, from εμπροσθιν, *forwards*, or *before*, and τεινω, *to bend*, or *ſtretch*. It is when the body is bowed forward and confined ſo by a ſpaſmodic contraction. Celſus, lib. iv. cap. 3, ſays, it is a convulſive ſtiffneſs of the neck, by which the chin is fixed on the breaſt. See TETANUS.

EMPTYSIS from πτυω, *to ſpit out*. Areteus limits this word to a diſcharge of blood by ſpitting, when it comes only from the mouth, fauces, and parts adjacent.

EMPYEMA, from εν, *within*, and πυον, *pus* or *matter*. The ancients called all internal ſuppurations *empyema*; but at preſent this name is confined to a collection of purulent *matter* lying looſe in the cavity of the breaſt, and lodging on the diaphragm.

Areteus, lib. i. de Cauſ. & Sign. Morb. Chron. cap. 9. ſays, "They who have purulent abſceſſes in the cavities of the body, whether within the thorax or below the diaphragm, if the pus be diſcharged upwards, are called εμπυοι *(empyi)*, if downwards, apoſtomatiæ. And if there be a ſuppuration in the thorax, and the pus be diſcharged through the lungs, it is called εμπυον." But the moderns account it only an *empyema* when purulent matter floats upon the diaphragm. If matter is lodged on both ſides of the breaſt, there are two *empyemas*. Dr. Cullen conſiders the *empyema*, not as an original diſeaſe, but as a mode of terminating one; e. g. inflammation attacks the pleura, the membrane of the lungs, or of any part included in the thorax; this inflammation ſuppurates, and the diſcharge

charge not being favoured with any other exit than into the cavity of the cheſt, this diſeaſe is produced.

The pus that forms an *empyema* may be from an abſceſs in the lungs, pleura, mediaſtinum, pericardium, or diaphragm; or perhaps from that inflammatory exudation, or inſpiſſated ſerum, which Dr. Hunter obſerves is formed into a kind of pus, and is often found in large quantities in the cavities of the breaſt, belly, &c. Wounds in the breaſt may alſo evacuate their matter into its cavity, and prove a cauſe of this diſeaſe. And Le Dran informs us that he met with inſtances of abſceſſes in the liver making a way through the diaphragm, and emptying themſelves into the breaſt.

When any fluid matter is collected in the cavity of the breaſt, it may be known by the following ſigns; the breathing is ſhort and laborious; expiration is more difficult than inſpiration; the patient perceives a fluctuation when particular motions are performed; ſometimes there is an enlargement of the cavity of the thorax, and an œdomatous fullneſs of the ſkin and fleſh of one ſide of the cheſt, or both, according as the matter is lodged in one or both ſides; a dry cough; when the matter is on one ſide only, the patient cannot lie on the other; a ſlow fever, heat at the extremities of the fingers, hollowneſs of the eyes, &c. but as to the kind of matter which is lodged here, it can only be known by the nature of the diſorder which preceded its accumulation, from the preceding and concomitant ſymptoms. The matter may be water, blood or pus; and the latter of theſe may be ſuſpected when there hath been an inflammatory diſorder of the lungs, pleura, or other parts in the breaſt, attended with ſymptoms of ſuppuration, and particularly if thick clammy ſweats attend.

If the matter of an *empyema* is not ſpeedily expectorated, the patient dies of a conſumption, with a ſlow fever, which is always exaſperated at night. If the mediaſtinum is eaten through, upon opening the thorax a ſudden ſuffocation often enſues. If the *empyema* is of long ſtanding, the ſtrength decayed, a colliquative diarrhœa is come on, with a waſting of the body, the operation, inſtead of relieving, haſtens the death of the patient. When this diſorder is merely local, the operation may ſucceed; but if the habit is ſtrumous, or otherwiſe unſound; if fever, coughing, thirſt, and other ſymptoms, are either numerous or conſiderable in their degree, there is but ſmall hope of a recovery. The operation is alſo ineffectual if the lungs adhere to the pleura, or if the matter lodged on the diaphragm was emptied from a cyſt.

The chirurgical operation by which relief is obtained takes its name from the diſeaſe, being called the operation for the *empyema*. The fluids deſcribed as neceſſary to be voided by this operation are blood, matter, and water: Gooch gives a caſe in his Med. Obſ. of air in the thorax producing the ſymptoms of an *empyema*; it paſſed through an ulcer in the lungs, but the ulcer healing, the air was evacuated by the operation for the *empyema*, and a complete cure was effected. But; except in caſes of purulent matter, the aſſiſtance of the ſurgeon is rarely required. Blood will be gradually abſorbed; therefore, as is declared by Mr. Sharp, Mr. Pott, and other eminent practitioners, it need not be removed by any artificial opening.

The manner of operating is to fix on the part for the perforation, then, with a knife or a trochar, a paſſage may be formed for the offending matter. Whether an opening is made by means of a knife or a trochar, as Albinus hath obſerved that the diaphragm on the right ſide aſcends higher into the thorax than on the left, it may be proper to pierce on the right ſide between the third and fourth ſpurious ribs, but on the left between the ſecond and third; and at about half or two thirds of the diſtance from the ſternum to the vertebra; for here the muſcles are thinneſt, the artery is concealed under the rib, and the diaphragm at a due diſtance. Matter lodged in both cavities of the thorax require that the operation be performed on each ſide. See Hippocrates, Galen, Areteus, Boerhaave, with Van Swieten's Comments, Le Dran's Operations, Sharp's Operations, or Heiſter's Surgery.

EMPYEMATA. So the ancients called ſuppurating medicines; for they named an internal collection of pus, *empyema*.

EMPYI. Purulent or ſuppurated, or thoſe who have purulent abſceſſes internally.

EMPYREUMA, from ἐμπυρευω, *to kindle*, of πυρ, *fire*. In chemiſtry it is the offenſive ſmell and taſte which diſtilled waters, or other ſubſtances, receive from being too much expoſed to the fire.

EMPYREUMATICA OLEA. Empyreumatic oils. Theſe are oils both of the animal and vegetable kinds, which are diſtilled with a heat greater than that of boiling water; for thus they receive a burnt ſmell. Some ſpeak of theſe oils as being of one diſtinct claſs, but they have nothing in common except that they are half burnt, they diſſolve more or leſs in rectified ſpirit of wine, are acrid, by repeated diſtillations they may be rendered volatile, and almoſt free from their diſagreeable ſmell.

EMPYROS. One labouring under a fever.

EMULGENS. Emulgent, ſtroking or milking out It is applied to the arteries and veins which go from the aorta and vena cava to the kidnies. According to the ancients, they ſtrained, and, as it were, milked the ſerum through the kidnies.

EMULGENTES ARTERIÆ ET VENÆ. See Renales Arteriæ & Venæ.

EMULSIO, from *emulceo*, *to ſtroke* or *cheriſh*; or from *emulgeo*, *to milk out gently by the hand*. Medicines of any kind, made in a form reſembling milk, are called *emulſions*; but generally they are made from farinaceous ſeeds, which are beat up with ſome fluid, by which their oily parts are intimately blended with it. Their uſe is chiefly for common drink in acute diſorders. This form is perhaps the beſt for adminiſtering camphor. For the emulſ. com. amyg. arab. abſorb. & camphorat, ſee Amygdalus.

EMUNCTORIUM. An emunctory, from *emungo*, *to clean, wipe away*, or *drain off*. The paſſages in the body, by which ſuperfluous matters are evacuated, are called *emunctories*. The glands are alſo thus named. Particularly, (according to the ancients) thoſe which received the excrements from the noble parts, as the parotides from the brain, the axillary glands from the heart, and the inguinal from the liver.

ENÆMOS. from αἱμα, *blood*. So Hippocrates and Galen call ſuch topical medicines as are appropriated to bleeding wounds.

ENÆOREMA, from αἰωρεω, *to exalt*, of αἰωρος, *ſublime*. It is the pendulous ſubſtance which floats in the middle of the urine, called alſo ſublimamentum.

ENARGES, from ἀργης, *white*, or *evident*. Hippocrates applies this as an epithet to dreams.

ENARICYMON, i e. Aricymon.

ENARTHROSIS, from ἐν, and ἀρθρον, a *joint*. The ancients called that ſpecies of diarthroſis thus, where the round end of one bone moves in the cavity of another; as the head of the femur in the acetabulum of the os innominatum. This ſpecies of articulation is alſo called the ball and ſocket.

ENCANTHIS, from ἐν, *in*, and κανθος, an *angle of the eye*. This diſorder is an encyſted tumor on its inner angle. At the firſt a tubercle appears on the caruncula lachrymalis, or on the creſcent-like red cuticle adjacent to it; afterwards this tumor extends over the pupil of the eye; when this happens the tears continually trickle down the cheeks, the ſight is impaired, the countenance deformed, and the eyes inflamed.

When it is of a mild nature it may be deſtroyed by gentle eſcharotics; while this method of cure is proceeding, the belly ſhould be kept lax, and an iſſue in the arm, or a perpetual bliſter between the ſhoulders, ſhould be continued.

When this tumor is of a malignant kind, it is attended with pain, is of a livid hue, and often becomes cancerous. If it is manifeſtly cancerous, palliatives only are to be uſed; but if not, diſſect the whole tumor and its cyſt; in doing which raiſe it with the forceps, the better to avoid cutting either the eye or the caruncle: if the latter is hurt, the tears will ever after run down the cheek; it is therefore ſafer to leave a little of the luxuriant fleſh, and to deſtroy it afterwards with a cauſtic. See Ectropium, above; and ſee Heiſter's Surgery.

ENCARDION, from καρδια, *the heart*. The pith of vegetables.

EN-

ENCARDIUM PREMNU. The heart and marrow of the trunk; but Dioſcorides improperly calls the tender medullary ſubſtance which grows on the tops of the great palm tree, thus.

ENCATALEPSIS, i. e. Catalepſis.

ENCATHISMA, from ἐγκαθημαι, *to ſit in*. A ſemicupium.

ENCAUMA, from ἐν, *in*, and καιω, *to burn*. The ſcoria of ſilver is thus named, ſo is the mark left by a burn, and alſo a puſtule which is produced by a burn.

A ſuperficial ulceration on the eye is thus called. Aetius ſays that thoſe ulcerations on the eyes which ariſe from defluxions of humours receive different names; as when one is formed on the pupil, covering a great part of it, and is of a bluiſh colour, it is called caligo: when an ulcer is not ſo wide, but is deeper, and alſo ſeated in the pupil, it is called nubecula: when the ſurface of the pupil appears rough, and of an aſh colour, an epicauma is ſaid to be formed; and when after a fever an ulcer is formed, with a ſordid cruſt, and is ſeated either on the pupil or the white part of the eye, it is called an *encauma*, which, when fixed in the pupil, ſuch an eroſion of the coats of the eye happens, as in the end is the deſtruction of all its humours. In the beginning of theſe caſes relief is ſometimes obtained by keeping the bowels lax.

ENCAUSIS. A burn or ſcald; or rather the inflammation cauſed by a burn or ſcald. The heart-burn, with thirſt. In Dr. Cullen's Noſology it is ſynonymous with erythema and ambuſtio.

ENCAUSTUM CŒRULEUM. A name of the powder called by waſherwomen powder blue.

ENCEPHALON, from ἐν, *within*, and κεφαλη, the *head*. The *encephalon* includes the dura and pia mater, the cerebrum, the cerebellum, and the medulla oblongata.

There are many ways by which theſe are injured, viz. by concuſſion, irritation, depreſſion of the ſkull, &c. in all which caſes it is moſt prudent to be cautious in giving an opinion as to the event.

ENCEPHALOCELE. A rupture of the brain.

ENCEPHALUS. The brain. Theophraſtus calls the tender medullary ſubſtance which grows on the top of the great palm tree, thus.

ENCERIS, from κηρος, *wax*. Bits of wax found in plaſters as they cool.

ENCHARAXIS, from χαραττω, *to ſcarify*. Scarification.

ENCHEIRESIS, from χειρ, the *hand*. Galen uſes this word as part of the title to one of his works which treats of diſſection. The word imports the manual treatment of any ſubject.

ENCHILOMA. So Lemery ſays an elixir is ſometimes called.

ENCHONDROS, from χονδρος, which ſignifies both a *grain* and a *cartilage*. Hence implies both granulated and cartilaginous.

ENCHORIOS, from ἐν, and χωρος, a *region* or *country*. Endemical.

ENCHRISTA. Liquid medicines for anointing any part with.

ENCHUSA, i. e. Anchuſa.

ENCHYMA, from ἐγχεω, *to infuſe*. Infuſion, or a ſanguine plethora.

ENCHYMATA. Liquid medicines to be infuſed into the eyes, ears, &c.

ENCHYMOMA. Bluſhing. Dr. Hunter ſays this is a nervous affection. It is from ἐγχεω, *I pour in*. In the writings of the ancient phyſicians, it is a word by which they expreſs that ſudden effuſion of blood into the cutaneous veſſels, which ariſes from joy, anger, or ſhame; and in this laſt inſtance, is what is uſually called *bluſhing*.

ENCHYMOSIS. Bluſhing, alſo an extravaſation of blood which makes the part appear livid. Thus, but improperly it is ſynonymous with ecchymoſis.

ENCHYSA, i. e. Alkanet.

ENCHYTOS. An epithet for any thing infuſed into any cavity of the body.

ENCLYSMA. A clyſter.

ENCŒLIA, from ἐν, *in*, and κοιλια, the *belly*. All the contents of the abdomen.

ENCOLPISMOS. An uterine injection.

ENCOPE, from ἐν, *in*, and κοπτω, *to cut*. An inciſion, and figuratively an impediment.

ENCRANION. The cerebellum, from ἐν, *in*, and κρανιον, *ſkull*.

ENCRIS. A ſort of cake made of fine meal, boiled in oil, then ſweetened with honey.

ENCYMON, from ἐγκυω, *to conceive*. Pregnant, with child.

ENCYSTIS. A wen.

ENDEDINEMENOS, from ἐνδινεω, *to turn round like a vortex*. An epithet for the eyes which perpetually turn in their orbits.

ENDEIXIS. An indication.

EMDEMIAS, or Endemius, from ἐν, and δημος, *people*. An epithet for diſeaſes to which the inhabitants of particular countries are ſubject more than others.

ENDESIS, from δεω, *to tie*. A ligature, band, or connexion.

ENDICA. Rulandus ſays it is the fæces at the bottom. It is alſo called moſe hazuania.

ENDIVIA, called alſo intybus, ſcariola, ſeriola, cichoreum latifolium, intubum, and endive. This plant is in common uſe in our kitchens: it very much reſembles chichory both in its appearance and virtues.

ENDIVIA LUTEA. A name for the cichoreum verrucarium, the rhagadiolus alter, and the hedypnois annua.

ENDIVIA VULGARIS. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of cichoreum.

ENDIVIA ERECTA, i. e. Hyoſeris anguſtifolia.

ENDIVIA ERECTA LUTEA NAPIFOLIA, i. e. Lampſana.

ENELLAGMENOS, from ἐναλλαττω, of ἀλλαττω, *to change*. An epithet applied to the joints of the vertebræ, becauſe of their alternate or mutual reception and inſertion.

ENEMA. A clyſter. From ἐνιημι, *to emit, eject*, or *thruſt in*. The words *enema*, clyſter, and lotion, are equivalent to each other, and ſignify any liquid medicine injected into the the anus. With us, clyſters are injected by means of a bladder and pipe; but in many other countries a ſyringe is always uſed, by which the liquor is farther thrown up into the bowels.

The quantity of liquor uſed in each *clyſter* will vary according to the age of the patient and the intention propoſed. For infants, two ounces at the moſt ſuffices; a child of ſix years old from four to ſix ounces; a youth of fourteen years, from ſix to eight ounces; and to an adult, from ten ounces to a pint.

In diarrhœas, and all diſorders where the inteſtines are weak, alſo whenever the *clyſter* is to be retained; the quantity for an adult ſhould not exceed ſix or eight ounces.

In ardent fevers, and inflammation of the bowels, they anſwer the end of a fomentation, and ſhould be adminiſtered from a pint to a quart. In putrid fevers, it is one way of expediting a quantity of proper acid and antiſeptic medicines into the conſtitution, particularly fixed air. Nouriſhment may be conveyed by *clyſters*, when from ſome complaint of the mouth, throat, or ſtomach, nothing can be conveyed that way: many have been thus ſupported during ſeveral months.

Clyſters ſhould never be either hot or cold when uſed; if not more or leſs warm than may be eaſily ſuffered on the back of the hand, their effect in the inteſtines will be the moſt agreeable.

When a *clyſter* is intended only for emptying the inteſtines, half an ounce of common ſalt is a better addition than any quantity of the other purging medicines.

It is a practice with many to mix oil in reſtringent clyſters, but as it counteracts the intention of the preſcriber, it ſhould always be omitted in them.

When a very powerful ſtimulus is required in purging *clyſters*, it is moſt ſafe to to mix emetics with them, and of theſe the vin. antimon. ſhould be preferred.

ENEOS. Vain, empty, or uſeleſs. The Greeks call thoſe who are unable to perform the common offices of life, ſuch as dumb, deaf, &c. ἐνεοι.

ENERGIA. Energy, from ἐργον, *a work*.

ENERVATIO. It is an equivocal term, ſignifying aponeuroſis or debilitation.

ENFONDE. A ſort of bread made of caſſada.

ENGER, i. e. Indicum.

ENGISOMA. An inſtrument formerly uſed about fractures of the cranium. Alſo the ſame as engiſomata.

ENGISOMATA. A fracture of the cranium, in the middle of which the bone preſſes upon the membrane of the brain, and makes the appearance of γυτον, *the eaves of a houſe*; from εγγιζω, *to draw near*

ENGOMPHOSIS, i. e. Gomphoſis.

ENGONIOS, from γωνια, *an angle*. Hippocrates expreſſes by it the bending of the arm at a right angle.

ENGUAMBA URUVAPENSIUM. The name of a tree whoſe fruit is black, but yields by expreſſion a yellow oil. Raii Hiſt.

ENHÆMON. The name of a plaſter in Myrepſus.

ENITÆON. The name of a ſimple in Myrepſus, but not known what.

ENIXA. A woman in child-bed.

ENIXUM. The chemiſts apply this word to a third kind of ſalts, which are formed of acid and alkali: Galen calls them the third, but at preſent they are known by the name of neutral.

ENIXUM PARACELSI (Sal.) It is the caput mortuum of the ſpirit of nitre, joined with vitriolic acid. It is much the ſame as tart. vitr.

ENNEANDRIA. The ninth of Linnæus's claſſes of plants: in it are a ſtyle and nine filaments in each flower.

ENNEAPHARMACOS, from εννεα, *nine*, and φαρμακον, *a medicine*. A compoſition of nine ſimple ingredients. It is alſo the name of a peſſary mentioned by Galen and Ægineta. It is a name of the antidotus Heraclidis, and of ſeveral plaſters mentioned by Aetius, and Celſus.

ENNEAPHYLLUM, from εννεα, *nine*, and φυλλον, *a leaf*, i. e. Helleboraſter.

ENOCHDIANUS. In Paracelſus it is one who equals Enoch in longevity.

ENOC DIANA VITA. A very long life.

ENRYTHMOS, i. e. Arythmus.

ENS. An entity or thing really exiſting. In Paracelſus *ens* imports the power, virtue and efficacy, which a thing exerts upon our bodies.

ENS PARVUM SAPIENTIUM. It is ſoap made by mixing fixt alcaline ſalt with diſtilled vegetable oil. The ſalt muſt be quite hot when mixed with the oil, for the leaſt portion of water prevents their union: after their combination they are to be placed ſome time in a ſubterraneous place. A ſmall quantity of the ſalt remaining on the ſurface of the oil will attract water, and prevent the ſucceſs of the proceſs.

ENS PRIMUM SALIUM. See Circulatum.

ENS PRIMUM SOLARE, i. e. Antimonium.

ENS VENERIS, i. e. Flor. Martialis.

ENSIFORMIS, from *enſis*, *a ſword*, and *forma*, *a form*. (Cartilago) The ſword-like cartilage, called alſo xiphoides; ſometimes it is bifurcated at the end, and is then called furcella or furcula inferior. This is the cartilage at the bottom of the ſternum; but the ancients oft give the name of *enſiformis* to the whole breaſt bone. Dr. Hunter obſerves, that, "if this cartilage ſhould be preſſed inwardly by a blow, it will occaſion vomitings and violent pains, by preſſing againſt the pylorus; in this caſe, it would be proper to lay it bare, and elevate it; but the diaphragm ariſing partly from it would probably diſplace it." From the form, or from accidents in this cartilage, many diſeaſes ariſe, as a cough, pain in ſtooping, difficult breathing, &c. That theſe ſhould happen will not appear wonderful, when we conſider that the diaphragm is attached to it, and that the great lobe of the liver and the ſtomach lay immediately under it.

ENSTACTON, from σταζω, *to diſtil*. Inſtillations. The name of a liquid collyrium in Galen, which Ægineta calls ſtacticon.

ENTALE. A veſſel.

ENTALI. Foſſil alum.

ENTALIUM, called alſo tubulus vel ſiphunculus maris, dentale, dentalium. The entagalia or pipe-ſhell.

It is a ſmall ſhell brought from the Eaſt, reſembling one of the dentalia, with its ſmall end broken off. It is two inches long, open at both ends, and ſlender, of a whitiſh green colour, and ridged lengthwiſe, with ſome tranſverſe bands on it. The fiſh that lives in it is a kind of worm, with four horns.

The modern Italians call all ſtones, metals, woods, &c. that are cut with lines or figures, or barely channelled, entaglia.

ENTATICA (Medicamenta.) Medicines that provoke venery. Cœlius Aurelianus calls them ſatyrica.

ENTATICON. The name of a plaſter in P. Ægineta.

ENTERA. So Hippocrates calls the bags in which were incloſed medicines for fomentations.

ENTERADENES, from εντερον, *an inteſtine*, and αδην, *a gland*. The inteſtinal glands.

ENTERENCHYTÆ, from εντερα, *the viſcera*, and εγχυω, *to infuſe*. Inſtruments for adminiſtering clyſters.

ENTERITIS. An inflammation of the bowels. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order phlegmaſiæ. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies. 1. *Enteritis* phlegmonodea. 2. *Enteritis* eryſipelatoſa. See Inflammation of the guts.

ENTERITIS MESENTERICA. The ſame as meſenteritis.

ENTEROCELE, from εντερον, *an inteſtine*, and κηλη, *a rupture*, i. e. Hernia inteſtinalis.

ENTEROCELE OVULARIS. A rupture of the inteſtines through the foramen ovale.

ENTERO-EPIPLOCELE, from εντερον, *an inteſtine*, and επιπλοον, *the omentum*, and κηλη, *a tumor*. It is when both the omentum and inteſtines protrude through the integuments of the belly.

ENTERO-HYDROCELE, from εντερον, *an inteſtine*, ὑδωρ, *water*, and κηλη, *an hernia*. A dropſy of the ſcrotum, with a deſcent of the inteſtine.

ENTEROMPHALOS, from εντερον, *an inteſtine*, and ομφαλος, *the navel*. A rupture of the inteſtine at the navel. This ſeldom happens but to women in labour, or from labour.

ENTERON, from εντος, *within*. Internal, and inteſtine. But in Hippocrates Epid. 6. § 4. ap. 3. *enteron* ſignifies ſimply the colon.

ENTEROPHYTON VULGARE. The ſea chitterling. It is a marine plant, and grows ſomewhat in the form of a gut.

ENTERORAPHE. A ſuture of the inteſtines.

ENTEROSCHEOCELE, from εντερον, *an inteſtine*, οσχεον, *the ſcrotum*, and κηλη, *an hernia*. It is when the inteſtine deſcends into the ſcrotum.

ENTHEMATA, εντιθημι, *to put in*. Medicines applied immediately to recent wounds, in order to prevent an inflammation and ſtop an hæmorrhage.

ENTHETOS, from εγκιθημι, *to put in*. Any thing introduced, but particularly ſuch as are put up the noſe to prevent an hæmorrhage there.

ENTHLASIS. A contuſion with the impreſſion of the inſtrument by which it happened.

ENTHUSIASMUS. A fanatic ſtroke; it is when a perſon is engaged in religious affairs, he loſes his reaſon, &c. in an ecſtacy ſees ſtrange ſights, or hears the noiſe of muſical inſtruments, &c.

ENTRICHOMA, from εν, and τριχωμα, *the hair*. The edge of the eye-lid on which the hairs grow.

ENTRIMMA, from εντριβω, of εν, and τριβω, *to rub, grate*, or *triturate*. i. e. Intritum.

ENTROCHUS. An oblong ſtone nearly as thick as a man's finger, from one to two inches long; bluiſh coloured, and made up of joints, as ſo many rings. They are found frequently in clay pits. Sometimes the joints are found looſe, then they are called trochitæ. It is a part of the arm of a ſtar-fiſh, or ſome ſuch like ſea animal, that is petrified. It is always hardened with ſparry matter, and, like it, is diuretic. A trochite, when found ſeparate, is as broad as a ſix-pence with a hole in the centre, and of different thickneſſes; the colour is bluiſh or greyiſh, and when broke, it is gloſſy and ſhining.

ENTROPIUM, i. e. Trichiaſis. Alſo the eye-lids turning inwards.

ENTYPOSIS, from εντυπόω, *to make an impreſſion*, of τυπος, *a type*, or *image formed by impreſſion*. The acetabulum of the humerus. It is not uſed by any phyſical writer, but mentioned by Jul. Pol.

ENUCLEATIO. The taking a kernel out of a nut.

ENULA, called alſo inula, enula campana, helenium, aſter, ſcab-wort, and elecampane. Platerus calls it aroma Germanicum.

Miller enumerates thirty ſpecies; and Boerhaave makes it a ſpecies of aſter. It is the *inula* helenium, or *inula* foliis amplexicaulibus ovatis rugoſis, ſubtus tomentoſis, calycum ſquamis ovatis. Linn. It is a large plant, with long, wrinkled leaves that are ſerrated; of a pale green colour above, and hoary underneath; the flowers are yellow, and of the diſcous kind, and are followed by oblong ſeeds, winged with down; the roots are ſhort and thick, unctuous to the touch; brown or blackiſh on the outſide, and whitiſh within. It is perennial, grows wild in moiſt rich ſoils, and flowers in June.

The freſh roots have a weak but not very grateful ſmell; when perfectly dried, they are more grateful: when chewed, they diſcover at the firſt, a kind of rancid glutinous taſte, quickly ſucceeded by an aromatic bitterneſs, which by degrees becomes more pungent. They are diaphoretic, diuretic, and ſtomachic; if taken freely they looſen the belly; they powerfully attenuate viſcid humours, and aſſiſt expectoration in coughs and humoural aſthmas. When freſh, they are an excellent vehicle for ſquills.

The ſpirituous extract is the moſt active preparation, but the watery is far more abundant in the quantity which is obtained from theſe roots, and ſo little inferior in its virtues, as to deſerve the preference for general uſe. Neumann obtained from an ounce of the dry root, by means of water, ſix drams and a half of extract, but by means of ſpirit, only two drams and a half. Much of the aromatic warmth and bitterneſs of theſe roots, reſide in the more fixed parts which do not exhale in the heat of boiling water, they are therefore well preſerved in the watery extract. In diſtillation with water, an eſſential oil ariſes which concretes into white flakes, and partly into an unctuous maſs like ſoftiſh wax. Thirty ounces of roots afford about a dram of this oil. Geoffroy the younger, obſerves, that this oil reſides in the exterior part of the root near the bark. When this concrete oil is but newly diſtilled, it is ſtrongly poſſeſſed of the flavour of *elecampane*, but it ſoon loſes all its ſmell by keeping.

Extract. Enul. *Camp.*

Boil *elecampane* roots in water; preſs and ſtrain the decoction, and ſet it by to ſettle; then pour off the clear, and boil it down to a pillular conſiſtence, taking care to prevent its burning towards the end of the operation. The doſe may be from ℈ i. to ʒ i. in a lax ſtate of the fibres of the ſtomach, and in ſome diſorders of the breaſt.

The doſe of the root may be to two drams.

The rad. *enul.* C. Condit. is prepared in the ſame manner as the Eryngo Root, which ſee.

See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

ENULON, from ἐν, and οὖλον, *the gums.* The internal fleſh of the gums, or that part of them which is within the mouth.

ENUR. That vapour of water of which ſtones are generated.

ENURESIS. An involuntary diſcharge of urine. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order apocenoſes. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies. 1. *Enureſis* atonica, when ſome other diſeaſe hath injured the ſphincter of the bladder. 2. *Enureſis* irritata, from compreſſion or irritation of the bladder. See Urine, incontinence of.

ENYPOSAPROS, from ἐν, *within*, ὑπὸ, a prepoſition, which in compoſition is a diminutive one, and σαπρὸς, *putrid.* An epithet uſed to the ſpit of hepatic patients.

ENYSTRON, from ἐνύω, *to perfect.* The laſt or fourth ventricle in animals, that chew the cud, which completes the digeſtion. According to Ariſtotle, it is a ſecond ventricle, or a thick part of the ſtomach of ruminating animals, in which the food is concocted. Gorræus makes it the ſame as Abomasum, which ſee.

EON. The whole compaſs of the eye.

EPACMASTICA. It is a continual putrid fever that is ſtill increaſing. See Acmastikos, and Anacasis.

EPAGOGION. A name in Dioſcorides for the prepuce.

EPANADIDONTES PURETI. Fevers, whoſe heat is not biting to the touch in the beginning, but becomes more and more ſo in the advance.

EPANADIPLOSIS, from διπλοῦς, *reduplication.* The reduplication of a fit of a ſemitertian fever; that is, the renewal of a cold fit before the hot fit is ended.

EPANASTASIS. A tumor or tubercle.

EPANCYLOTUS, from ἀγκύλος, *crooked, winding.* A ſort of bandage, in Oribaſius.

EPANTHESMA, or Epanthiſma, from ἄνθος, *a flower.* An efflorescence.

EPAOIDAI. See Amuleta.

EPAPHÆRESIS, from ἐπὶ, importing a repetition, and ἀφαίρησις, *a removal.* In Galen it is uſed to expreſs a repeated evacuation by bleeding.

EPARGEMOS. An epithet for a perſon affected with that diſorder of the eye called argemon.

EPARITA. A ſort of earth. See Hepar.

EPARMA, or Eparſis, from αἴρω, *to elevate.* Any kind of tumor, but frequently applied to the parotis.

EPAROTH, i. e. Botrys Mexicana.

EPENCRANIS. A name of the cerebellum.

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It is alſo the name of an inſtrument for reducing luxations.

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EPHELCIS, from ἕλκος, *an ulcer.* The cruſt of an ulcer, or a ſmall abraſion, or bloody fragment coughed up.

EPHELIS, from ἐπὶ, and ἥλιος, *the ſun.* Sun-burning.

EPHEM. GERM. An abbreviation of Ephemerides Medico-phyſicæ Germaniæ.

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EPICHOLOS, from χολη, *bile*. Bilious.

EPICHORDIS, from χορδη, *an inteſtine*. The meſentery. From επι, *upon*, and χορδη, *a gut*.

EPICHORIOS, from επι, *upon*, and χωρα, *a region*, i. e. Epidemius.

EPICŒLIS. The upper eye-lid, or cilium.

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EPICRASIS. A critical evacuation of bad humours, an attemperation of bad ones. When a cure is performed in the alterative way, it is called per *epicraſin*.

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EPIGASTRIUM, from επι, *upon*, or *above*, and γαστηρ, *the ſtomach*. The upper fore part of the belly is thus called. It reaches from the pit of the ſtomach to an imaginary line above the navel, ſuppoſed to be drawn from one extremity of the laſt of the falſe ribs to the other. Its ſides are called hypochondriæ, and are covered by the falſe ribs, betwixt which, lies the *epigaſtrium*.

EPIGENEMA, from επιγενομαι, *to generate over and above*, or *anew*. Sometimes it ſignifies a ſymptom, at others, any thing grown over another, as when the ſaliva is thickened, and forms a fur on the tongue.

EPIGINOMENA, from επιγινομαι, *to ſucceed*, or *ſupervene*. Galen ſays, they are thoſe ſymptoms which naturally ſucceed, or may be expected in the progreſs of a diſeaſe; but Fœſius ſays, they are new acceſſions of ſome other affection to diſeaſes, which never happens but in ſtubborn and malignant diſeaſes.

EPIGLOSSUM. A name for the Laurus Alexandrina.

EPIGLOTTIS, from επι, *above*, and γλωττις, the aperture of the larynx. It is a cartilage, ſhaped like the leaf of a plant: Winſlow ſays, the purſlane leaf. It is joined to the anterior and ſuperior part of the thyroides, over which it appears erected behind the root of the tongue, to which it is connected by ligaments fixed to the cornua of the os hyoides; it is alſo connected with the arytænoid cartilages. It covers the glottis whilſt we ſwallow, to prevent any thing from falling into it.

EPIGLOTTUM. An inſtrument mentioned by Paracelſus, for elevating the eye-lids.

EPIGLOUTIS, or Epiglutis, from επι, *above*, and γλουτος, *the buttock*. The ſuperior part of the buttock.

EPIGONATIS, from επι, *upon*, and γονυ, *a knee*. The patella.

EPIGONON, i. e. Epicyema.

EPIGOUNIDES. The muſcles inſerted into the knees.

EPILENTIA, i. e. Epilepſia.

EPILEPSIA, from επιλαμβανω, *to invade*, i. e. Epilepſy.

EPILEPSIA, from επιλαμβανω, *to ſeize, invade*, or *oppreſs*. The epilepſy. It is alſo called morbus caducus, or falling ſickneſs, becauſe the patient falls ſuddenly to the ground; the great, or Herculean diſeaſe, on account of its violence, and the difficulty in conquering it; morbus ſacer, or ſacred diſeaſe, becauſe it affects the mind, and moſt noble parts of a rational creature; divine diſeaſe, either becauſe it requires ſomething more than human for its cure, or becauſe it was thought to be ſent from heaven as a curſe upon earth; morbus infantilis, and puerilis, becauſe it happens moſt frequently to infants and children.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes, and order ſpaſmi. He diſtinguiſhes three ſpecies. 1. *Epilepſia* cerebralis, when it ariſes ſuddenly without any manifeſt cauſe; no uneaſineſs proceeding, except ſometimes a giddineſs, or loſs of ſight. 2. *Epilepſia* ſympathica, when it ariſes without any manifeſt cauſe; but is preceded by a particular ſenſation ariſing from ſome part of the body which goes upwards to the head. 3. *Epilepſia* occaſionalis, when it ariſes from manifeſt irritation, and ceaſes on the ceſſation of the morbid irritation.

An *epilepſy* is a violent, involuntary, or convulſive contraction of the nerves, membranous, and muſcular parts of the whole body, attended with an abolition of ſenſe, and drawing its origin from a ſpaſmodic ſtricture of the membranes ſurrounding the brain, the ſpinal marrow, and the nerves; whence the vital principle is impetuouſly conveyed into the organs of motion, but in a leſſer quantity into thoſe which ſubſerve the purpoſes of ſenſation. Dr. Cullen defines it as conſiſting in convulſions of the greater part of the muſcles of voluntary motion, attended with a loſs of ſenſe, and ending in a ſtate of inſenſibility, and ſeeming ſleep.

Weakly and pampered children are the moſt ſubject to this diſorder; men more than women.

The cauſes are various; the principal and immediate one is a ſpaſmodic ſtricture in the dura mater, and its continuation over the ſpinal marrow and nerves; but as the ſecondary and remote cauſes are very various, ſo there ariſes different ſpecies, and denominations of epileptic fits. When the cauſe is in the brain itſelf, it is called an idiopathic *epilepſy*; when in other parts it is called ſymptomatic.

The idiopathic *epilepſy* hath for its ſecondary cauſes external violence, as blows, bony protuberances ariſing internally in the baſis of the ſkull, or in the lateral, or the falciform ſinuſes; from this cauſe the diſorder is chronical; an obſtruction of the jugular veins, or of the ſinuſes

Miller enumerates thirty ſpecies; and Boerhaave makes it a ſpecies of aſter. It is the *inula helenium*, or *inula foliis amplexicaulibus ovatis rugoſis, ſubtus tomentoſis, calycum ſquamis ovatis.* Linn. It is a large plant, with long, wrinkled leaves that are ſerrated; of a pale green colour above, and hoary underneath; the flowers are yellow, and of the diſcous kind, and are followed by oblong ſeeds, winged with down; the roots are ſhort and thick, unctuous to the touch; brown or blackiſh on the outſide, and whitiſh within. It is perennial, grows wild in moiſt rich ſoils, and flowers in June.

The freſh roots have a weak but not very grateful ſmell; when perfectly dried, they are more grateful: when chewed, they diſcover at the firſt, a kind of rancid glutinous taſte, quickly ſucceeded by an aromatic bitterneſs, which by degrees becomes more pungent. They are diaphoretic, diuretic, and ſtomachic; if taken freely they looſen the belly; they powerfully attenuate viſcid humours, and aſſiſt expectoration in coughs and humoural aſthmas. When freſh, they are an excellent vehicle for ſquills.

The ſpirituous extract is the moſt active preparation, but the watery is far more abundant in the quantity which is obtained from theſe roots, and ſo little inferior in its virtues, as to deſerve the preference for general uſe. Neumann obtained from an ounce of the dry root, by means of water, ſix drams and a half of extract, but by means of ſpirit, only two drams and a half. Much of the aromatic warmth and bitterneſs of theſe roots, reſide in the more fixed parts which do not exhale in the heat of boiling water, they are therefore well preſerved in the watery extract. In diſtillation with water, an eſſential oil ariſes which concretes into white flakes, and partly into an unctuous maſs like ſoftiſh wax. Thirty ounces of roots afford about a dram of this oil. Geoffroy the younger, obſerves, that this oil reſides in the exterior part of the root near the bark. When this concrete oil is but newly diſtilled, it is ſtrongly poſſeſſed of the flavour of *elecampane*, but it ſoon loſes all its ſmell by keeping.

Extract. Enul. *Camp.*

Boil *elecampane* roots in water; preſs and ſtrain the decoction, and ſet it by to ſettle; then pour off the clear, and boil it down to a pillular conſiſtence, taking care to prevent its burning towards the end of the operation. The doſe may be from ℈ i. to ʒ i. in a lax ſtate of the fibres of the ſtomach, and in ſome diſorders of the breaſt.

The doſe of the root may be to two drams.

The rad. *enul.* C. Condit. is prepared in the ſame manner as the Eryngo Root, which ſee.

See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

ENULON, from ἐν, and ὄλον, *the gums.* The internal fleſh of the gums, or that part of them which is within the mouth.

ENUR. That vapour of water of which ſtones are generated.

ENURESIS. An involuntary diſcharge of urine. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order apocenoſes. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies. 1. *Enureſis* attonica, when ſome other diſeaſe hath injured the ſphincter of the bladder. 2. *Enureſis* irritata, from compreſſion or irritation of the bladder. See Urine, incontinence of.

ENYPOSAPROS, from ἐν, *within*, ὑπὸ, a prepoſition, which in compoſition is a diminutive one, and σαπρὸς, *putrid.* An epithet uſed to the ſpit of hepatic patients.

ENYSTRON, from ἐνύω, *to perfect.* The laſt or fourth ventricle in animals, that chew the cud, which completes the digeſtion. According to Ariſtotle, it is a ſecond ventricle, or a thick part of the ſtomach of ruminating animals, in which the food is concocted. Gorræus makes it the ſame as Abomasum, which ſee.

EON. The whole compaſs of the eye.

EPACMASTICA. It is a continual putrid fever that is ſtill increaſing. See Acmastibos, and Anacasis.

EPAGOGION. A name in Dioſcorides for the prepuce.

EPANADIDONTES PURETI. Fevers, whoſe heat is not biting to the touch in the beginning, but becomes more and more ſo in the advance.

EPANADIPLOSIS, from διπλοῦς, *reduplication.* The reduplication of a fit of a ſemitertian fever; that is, the renewal of a cold fit before the hot fit is ended.

EPANASTASIS. A tumor or tubercle.

EPANCYLOTUS, from ἀγκύλος, *crooked, winding.* A ſort of bandage, in Oribaſius.

EPANTHESMA, or Epanthiſma, from ἄνθος, *a flower.* An efflorescence.

EPAOIDAI. See Amuleta.

EPAPHÆRESIS, from ἐπὶ, importing a repetition, and ἀφαίρησις, *a removal.* In Galen it is uſed to expreſs a repeated evacuation by bleeding.

EPARGEMOS. An epithet for a perſon affected with that diſorder of the eye called argemon.

EPARITA. A ſort of earth. See Hepar.

EPARMA, or Eparſis, from αἴρω, *to elevate.* Any kind of tumor, but frequently applied to the parotis.

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EPIGASTRICÆ VENÆ. The epigaſtric veins.

The external iliac veins, a little before their going out of the belly, ſend off from the inſide the *epigaſtric veins*, which ſend branches to the neighbouring glands, and run up the muſculi recti abdominis, and then advancing, join the mamaria.

EPIGASTRIUM, from ἐπι, *upon*, or *above*, and γαστηρ, *the ſtomach*. The upper fore part of the belly is thus called. It reaches from the pit of the ſtomach to an imaginary line above the navel, ſuppoſed to be drawn from one extremity of the laſt of the falſe ribs to the other. Its ſides are called hypochondriæ, and are covered by the falſe ribs, betwixt which, lies the *epigaſtrium*.

EPIGENEMA, from ἐπιγινομαι, *to generate over and above*, or *anew*. Sometimes it ſignifies a ſymptom, at others, any thing grown over another, as when the ſaliva is thickened, and forms a fur on the tongue.

EPIGINOMENA, from ἐπιγινομαι, *to ſucceed*, or *ſupervene*. Galen ſays, they are thoſe ſymptoms which naturally ſucceed, or may be expected in the progreſs of a diſeaſe; but Fœſius ſays, they are new acceſſions of ſome other affection to diſeaſes, which never happens but in ſtubborn and malignant diſeaſes.

EPIGLOSSUM. A name for the Laurus Alexandrina.

EPIGLOTTIS, from ἐπι, *above*, and γλωττις, the aperture of the larynx. It is a cartilage, ſhaped like the leaf of a plant: Winſlow ſays, the purſlane leaf. It is joined to the anterior and ſuperior part of the thyroides, over which it appears erected behind the root of the tongue, to which it is connected by ligaments fixed to the cornua of the os hyoides; it is alſo connected with the arytænoid cartilages. It covers the glottis whilſt we ſwallow, to prevent any thing from falling into it.

EPIGLOTTUM. An inſtrument mentioned by Paracelſus, for elevating the eye-lids.

EPIGLOUTIS, or Epiglutis, from ἐπι, *above*, and γλουτος, *the buttock*. The ſuperior part of the buttock.

EPIGONATIS, from ἐπι, *upon*, and γονυ, *a knee*. The patella.

EPIGONON, i. e. Epicyema.

EPIGOUNIDES. The muſcles inſerted into the knees.

EPILENTIA, i. e. Epilepſia.

EPILEPSIA, from ἐπιλαμβανω, *to invade*, i. e. Epilepſy.

EPILEPSIA, from ἐπιλαμβανω, *to ſeize, invade*, or *oppreſs*. The epilepſy. It is alſo called morbus caducus, or falling ſickneſs, becauſe the patient falls ſuddenly to the ground; the great, or Herculean diſeaſe, on account of its violence, and the difficulty in conquering it; morbus ſacer, or ſacred diſeaſe, becauſe it affects the mind, and moſt noble parts of a rational creature; divine diſeaſe, either becauſe it requires ſomething more than human for its cure, or becauſe it was thought to be ſent from heaven as a curſe upon earth; morbus infantilis, and puerilis, becauſe it happens moſt frequently to infants and children.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes, and order ſpaſmi. He diſtinguiſhes three ſpecies. 1. *Epilepſia* cerebralis, when it ariſes ſuddenly without any manifeſt cauſe; no uneaſineſs proceeding, except ſometimes a giddineſs, or loſs of ſight. 2. *Epilepſia* ſympathica, when it ariſes without any manifeſt cauſe; but is preceded by a particular ſenſation ariſing from ſome part of the body which goes upwards to the head. 3. *Epilepſia* occaſionalis, when it ariſes from manifeſt irritation, and ceaſes on the ceſſation of the morbid irritation.

An *epilepſy* is a violent, involuntary, or convulſive contraction of the nerves, membranous, and muſcular parts of the whole body, attended with an abolition of ſenſe, and drawing its origin from a ſpaſmodic ſtricture of the membranes ſurrounding the brain, the ſpinal marrow, and the nerves; whence the vital principle is impetuouſly conveyed into the organs of motion, but in a leſſer quantity into thoſe which ſubſerve the purpoſes of ſenſation. Dr. Cullen defines it as conſiſting in convulſions of the greater part of the muſcles of voluntary motion, attended with a loſs of ſenſe, and ending in a ſtate of inſenſibility, and ſeeming ſleep.

Weakly and pampered children are the moſt ſubject to this diſorder; men more than women.

The cauſes are various; the principal and immediate one is a ſpaſmodic ſtricture in the dura mater, and its continuation over the ſpinal marrow and nerves; but as the ſecondary and remote cauſes are very various, ſo there ariſes different ſpecies, and denominations of epileptic fits. When the cauſe is in the brain itſelf, it is called an idiopathic *epilepſy*; when in other parts it is called ſymptomatic.

The idiopathic *epilepſy* hath for its ſecondary cauſes external violence, as blows, bony protuberances ariſing internally in the baſis of the ſkull, or in the lateral, or the falciform ſinuſes; from this cauſe the diſorder is chronical; an obſtruction of the jugular veins, or of the ſinuſes

of the dura mater, eſpecially the falciform ſinus, from polypous concretions or other matters, the paſſions of the mind, an ill conformation of the brain, &c.

A ſymptomatic *epilepſy* hath for its ſecondary cauſes, cacheƈtic and hypochondriac habits; flatulencies proceeding from the ſtomach and bowels; ſpaſms of the inteſtines; irregular ſecretions and excretions; the acrid matter of eruptive and other diſeaſes tranſlated to the brain; pains that are violent and attended with ſpaſms in the nervous parts; ſtones paſſing through the ureters cauſe a ſymptomatic *epilepſy* which hath obtained the name of the nephritic *epilepſy*, worms, poiſons, &c.

Among the primary cauſes of *epilepſies* are whatever can impair the general vigour of the conſtitution, and particularly that injures the nervous ſyſtem.

To form a more diſtinƈt idea of the ætiology of an *epilepſy*, it ſhould be obſerved how different the circulation of blood through the brain is carried on from what it is in the reſt of the body. As ſoon as the arteries enter the head, they loſe their ſtronger coat, and conſiſt of a thin membrane only, which is deſtitute of ſenſation and motion, they are emptied into the venous ſinuſes in the dura mater, thence the blood is conveyed into the jugular veins, &c. to the heart again. The ſtruƈture of the dura mater ſhould be attended to, and other peculiarities attending it. To this end, ſee Baglivi de Fibra Motrice, lib. i.

The diagnoſtics vary much in different people; ſome are ſuddenly ſeized, others have a train of ſymptoms foreboding the attack, ſuch as wearineſs, an oppreſſive pain in the head, interrupted ſleep, a languid pulſe, a pale countenance, ſtupor and drowſineſs, an unuſual dread and terror, a ringing in the ears, palpitation of the heart, inflation of the præcordia, diſturbed reſpiration, rumbling in the bowels, a diſcharge of fetid ſtools, coldneſs in the joints, and a copious diſcharge of urine. Some alſo perceive a kind of cold vapour gradually aſcending from the extremities to the heart and brain. Whether more or leſs of theſe ſymptoms precede the attack, or none of them attend, the fit approaches ſuddenly, and as it were unexpectedly, the patient falls down on his back to the ground; the thumbs are firmly fixed on the palms of the hands; the eyes are diſtorted, and the white part of them only appears; all ſenſation, both internally and externally, is deſtroyed; there is a frothing at the mouth, with a hiſſing noiſe, the tongue is often lacerated by the teeth, and the joints are ſeized with a violent trembling. In ſome there are many ridiculous and diſagreeable diſtortions and geſticulations; in others, inſtead of convulſive motion, there is a highly rigid ſpaſm in all the members, by which they are ſo fixed that no force can move them. In infants, the penis is erected; in young men, the ſeed is ejected, and ſometimes the urine is diſcharged to a conſiderable diſtance, and this, as well as the diſcharges by ſtool, are involuntary. At length theſe ſymptoms remit; the patient ſeems to have a ſort of reſpite at intervals, but the eye-lids remain immoveable; the teeth grind upon each other, the tongue hangs out of the mouth; when the paroxyſm ceaſes, the patient is entirely ignorant of every thing that happened during it; he rolls on the ground, his countenance appears ſad, he begins to yawn, and ſtretches himſelf with a kind of violent efforts; he riſes and walks ſlowly, ſeems uneaſy, and the veins of his forehead appear diſtended. Some are ſo affeƈted after their recovery, that for a time they know not their moſt familiar friends; others are more or leſs affeƈted with ſome of the ſymptoms that precede the attack of the fit. In ſome, the returns are regularly periodical, in others, irregular and uncertain. By frequent returns of this diſorder, the patient grows dejeƈted, is indolent, ſubjeƈt to a vertigo, and trembling if he looks upward, becomes liable to ſudden anger from trifles, and many other unhappy attendants gradually gain upon him.

The *epilepſy* ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the apoplexy, convulſions, and hyſterics.

That kind of *epilepſy* which reſembles a ſleep, is more dangerous than that in which convulſive motions happen. The hereditary kind is rarely cured, and when the diſorder is chronical or habitual, ſucceſs is not to be depended on. When the approach of puberty, or the eruption of the menſes does not remove an *epilepſy* in women, nor delivery of the firſt child, an hereditary cauſe may be ſuſpeƈted, but a cure is not to be expeƈted: cauſed by frights, they are never cured, or ſo rarely as to afford but little hope, for when the patient ſeems recovered, trifles are productive of a relapſe. When the fits approach during ſleep the danger is greater. Hippocrates aſſerts, that boys are relieved from this diſorder about their ſeventh, fourteenth, or ſeventeenth year. There is ſome hope of a cure when the caſe is not inveterate, nor hereditary, when the caſe is in the primæ viæ, or ſome diſorder tranſlated to the nervous ſyſtem.

From the variety of cauſes, and the nature of ſome of them, it is difficult to ſtate the indications and method of cure. However, with Dr. Smith we may propoſe, 1ſt, To prevent an impending paroxyſm. 2dly, To ſhorten a preſent one. 3dly, To guard againſt future attacks. The firſt of theſe intentions is anſwered in plethoric habits by ſuitable evacuations and antiſpaſmodics, as nitre, opium, muſk, &c. in languid conſtitutions, by warm, nervous medicines, as caſtor, valerian, camphor, fetid gums, volatile ſalts, the bark, chalybeates, &c. Cheyne ſays, that the *epilepſy* differs but little otherwiſe than in the degree from the hypochondriac and hyſteric fits, and obſerves than when the former abates it ends in hypochondriac or hyſteric diſorders, and when the latter is violent, they terminate in *epilepſies*: he therefore urges to a free uſe of vomits, bitters, and ſteel. The ſecond intention calls for the uſe of ſinapiſms or bliſters if the fits are long; but before theſe are applied, or when the fits are ſhort, endeavour to force open the mouth by means of a wedge thruſt between the teeth, when the jaws are ſeparated as far as the patient can eaſily admit of in health, the fit will generally be removed; and in caſes where the patient hath due notice of its approach, he may prevent the fits by introducing the wedge into his mouth. When the fits are preceded by peculiar ſenſations in the toes, feet, or legs, a bandage applied tight below the knee will often prevent the paroxyſm; or wherever theſe ſenſations are felt, let a bandage be applied there, and continued from thence upwards. Inſtances of abſolute cures have occurred by cutting down to the part in which thoſe peculiar feelings were firſt perceived. See an inſtance in the Edinb. Med. Eſſays, vol. iv. and ſee the article Albadara. Cœlius Aurelianus prefers the blowing of ſtrong vinegar up the noſtrils, to volatile ſalts. The third intention requires, if poſſible, that the cauſe be known, in order to its being removed; but unhappily in ſome inſtances it cannot be diſcovered, and in ſome if it could, no remedy could be applied. However, in ſome caſes, the cauſe hath been clearly diſcerned, and in others, cures have been effeƈted where the cauſe was only gueſſed at; whence there is encouragement for endeavours under very doubtful circumſtances. Among the means of cure, and what is extolled as a ſpecific, is the flor. cardam. given to to a dram, three or four times a day. See Cardamine.

An iſſue kept open in the vertex hath been curative in ſome inſtances, and in all caſes concurs with evacuants in general in removing the plethora, which often, by compreſſing and irritating, is the cauſe of the diſorder. When contuſions or fractures of the ſkull, or fragments of it, preſs upon the brain; when a caries in the bones of the ſkull from the lues venerea, or other diſorder, is the cauſe of *epilepſies*, the part muſt be trepanned. When the *epilepſy* is ſymptomatic, the original diſeaſe removed, the ſymptomatic of courſe will alſo be cured. In ſome inſtances a few large doſes of aſſa fœtida hath effeƈtually relieved; in others, four or five drops of the tinƈt. Theb. every morning and night, hath had the ſame effeƈt; a milk diet continued for three or four months hath ſucceeded; and various other particulars are mentioned in practical authors from which the like advantages have been reaped. In general, beſides proper evacuations duly repeated, warm nervous medicines, and the bark will be the moſt to be depended on, with iſſues in the inſide of the thigh, a little above the knee; and if the returns are periodical, or ſeem to be influenced by the moon, attend to its changes, and, after an emetic, let the bowels be emptied by a gentle ſolutive, and the patient be directed to avoid whatever he obſerved to produce or increaſe his fits. Valerian and the bark, mixed in equal quantities, may

may be taken to ʒ i. or ʒ i. ſs. three times a day. Muſk from gr. x. to ʒ ſs. twice a day. See Hippocrates, Celſus, Cœlius Aurelianus, Aretæus, Hoffmann, Boerhaave, and among the beſt authors on this ſubject. ſee Threlfal's and Lyſon's Eſſays on the ſame; Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. iii.

EPIMEDIUM. Barrenwort. It is a plant with leaves like thoſe of ivy. Its fruit is a pod with flattiſh round ſeeds. Dioſcorides takes notice of it, but the virtues he attributes to it render it worthleſs.

EPIMEDIUM. A ſpecies of toxicodendron.

EPIMORIOS, from μειρω, *to divide*. Superpartial. In Galen it is an epithet of the difference of pulſes with reſpect to their inequality of the time they keep in beating.

EPIMULIS. The knee-pan.

EPINELIS. The ſmall baſtard medlar.

EPINENEUCOS, from νευω, *to nod* or *incline*. It is an epithet of a pulſe which beats unequally in different parts of the artery. It is alſo called perineneucos. Galen ſays it is familiar in hectics.

EPINEPHELOS, from νεφελη, *a cloud*. Cloudy. An epithet applied to the enæorema in the urine, which appears like a cloud.

EPINOTION, from επι, *upon*, and νωτος, *the ſhoulder*, the ſhoulder blade.

EPINYCTIS, from επι, *on*, and νυξ, *night*. It is a kind of puſtule which riſes in the night, whence its name. Celſus ſays this puſtule is of a bad kind, of a whitiſh or ſomewhat livid colour, with a violent inflammation round it. Theſe tumors affect the hands, arms, and thighs. The ancients rank them with the terminthus, which is rather leſs. Some deſcribe them as of a duſky red colour, and ſometimes of a livid and pale colour with great inflammation and pain. In a few days they are ſaid to burſt and gleet, and ſeparate away in a ſlough. It appears to be a kind of furunculus. When it is opened there is an efflux of ſanies, and an ulcer is found therein. The pain is more violent than is in proportion to its magnitude, for it is ſcarcely ſo large as a bean. Paulus and Aetius ſay it creates no great pain in the day time, but that it is troubleſome in the night. Celſus recommends that in this, and all other kinds of puſtules, the patient walks much, abſtains from all acrid food, and is very ſparing in his diet.

EPIOS. Mild, gentle. An epithet which Hippocrates beſtows on mild epidemic fevers.

EPIPACTIS. Dioſcorides mentions this plant, and Boerhaave take it to be the helleborine latifolia montana.

EPIPAROXYSMUS. It is when the patient ſuffers more exacerbations than are uſual in a fever.

EPIPASTON, i. e. Catapaſma.

EPIPECHY, from επι, *above*, and πηχυς, *the cubit*. The part of the arm above the cubit.

EPIPEPHYCOS, from επι, *upon*, and φυω, *to grow*. A name of the adnata.

EPIPHÆNOMENA, from επι, importing *addition*, and φαινομενον, *a phænomenon* or *ſymptom*. Thoſe adventitious ſymptoms which do not appear till the diſeaſe is found, and ſeems to be the ſame as epiginomena.

EPIPHLEBOS, from επι, and φλιψ, *a vein*. One whoſe veins are prominent.

EPIPHLOGISMA, from επι and φλογιζω, *to inflame*, of φλοξ, *a flame*. A violent inflammation, attended with pain, tumor, and redneſs.

EPIPHLOGISMA. A name which Hippocrates gives to the ſhingles. Alſo a burning heat in any part.

EPIPHORA, from επιφερω, *to carry with a force*. In a medicinal ſenſe, it is an impetuous flux of humours, eſpecially an inflammatory one of the blood to the whole ſurface of the body, or to any part thereof, but more particularly it is when tears trickle down from the eyes, in conſequence of obſtructed puncta lachrymalia, or an inflammatory influx of the humours upon the eye.

The *epiphora* or watery eye, alſo called a lippitude, and moon-eye, is when the tears do not paſs the puncta lychrymalia, but run down the cheek. Some confound this with the fiſtula lachrymalis, becauſe in both the tears run down the cheeks; but in the fiſtula lachrymalis there is pus mixed with the tears. Whatever prevents the tears from paſſing through the puncta lachrymalia and naſal duct produce an epiphora, as firſt, any tumors, as the encanthis in the great angle of the eye. Secondly, any accident, as a wound, burn, &c. cloſing up the puncta lachrymalia. Thirdly, deſtruction of the naſal duct. Fourthly, a polypus of the noſe. Fifthly, a fiſtula lachrymalis. Sixthly, an inverſion of the eyelid. See Ectropium. Laſtly, an eroſion, or other defect of the caruncula lachrymalis.

Dr. Cullen places the *epiphora*, or watery eye as a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales and order apocenoſes.

When this diſorder exiſts, it is more eaſy to diſcern than it is to diſcover the cauſe.

When the cauſe is a humour in the angle of the eye, a polypus in the noſe, a diſtortion of the eyelids, and a fiſtula lachrymalis, they muſt be removed. When a conglutination of the puncta lachrymalia is the cauſe, we are to examine whether their ducts are totally conglutinated, or it is only their mouths that are covered, for if it is after a burn, or from a cicatrix after a wound, &c. a cure is hardly to be hoped for; but if only a cuticle covers the duct, a perforation may be made with a needle, and then a hog's briſtle, or ſilver wire may be oiled, and paſſed through, and continued till the part is healed. If the cauſe is a total want of the caruncula lachrymalis, a cure cannot be performed, becauſe that gland cannot be reſtored. See Heiſter's Surgery, and Brooks's Practice of Phyſic.

EPIPHYLLITIS. A name of a ſpecies of opuntia.

EPIPHYLLOSPERMOPHEROUS PLANTS, of επι, *upon*, φυλλον, *a leaf*, σπερμα, *ſeed*, and φερω, *to bear*. They are ſuch as bear their ſeeds on the back of their leaves, as do all capillary plants.

EPIPHYSIS, from επιφυω, *to grow to*, or *upon*. It is a ſmall bone annexed to the larger, by means of an intervening cartilage; this cartilage is only obſervable in growing ſubjects, for in adults it cannot be diſtinguiſhed from the bone. Epiphyſes being of a larger diameter than the bone they belong to, ſerve to render the articulation more firm; and the muſcles inſerted into them, act with greater force, as their axes are farther removed from the centre of motion. *Epiphyſes* are ſometimes ſeparated from the head of the bone, and miſtaken for a luxation, or a fracture.

EPIPLASMA, i. e. Cataplaſma. Alſo name for an application of wheat meal, boiled in hydrelæum to wounds.

EPIPLOCELE, from επιπλοον, *the omentum*, and κηλη, *a rupture*. An hernia, or rupture of the omentum. It is when the omentum protrudes through the openings through the integuments of the belly. Mr. Sharpe ſays, in the fifth chapter of his Operations, that ſometimes ſo large a quantity of the omentum hath fallen into the ſcrotum, as by drawing the ſtomach and bowels downwards hath excited vomiting, inflammation, and the ſame train of ſymptoms as happen in the bubonocele; and that when this happens it is neceſſary to open the ſcrotum, in which the operation and proceſs will be the ſame as in the bubonocele. It is neceſſary alſo that the rings of the muſcles ſhould be dilated, or otherwiſe, though ſome of the mortified part of the omentum is removed, the reſt cannot well be returned, ſo will gangrene. But except an inflammation, &c. are actually commenced, this method is not to be attempted.

EPIPLOICÆ, (Apendiculæ.) The peritoneal coat of the inteſtines ſends out ſome proceſſes like little epiploons, to which Winſlow gives this name.

EPIPLOICA ARTERIA. Before the ſplenic artery arrives at the ſpleen, it ſends a branch to the omentum, which is thus called. See Splenica arteria.

EPIPLOICA DEXTRA, (Vena.) It is a branch from the trunk of the meſaraica major which goes to the omentum.

EPIPLOICA SINISTRA, (Vena.) It ariſes from the ſplenica at the ſmall extremity of the pancreas, and is ramified on the omentum all the way to the colon, where it communicates with the hæmorrhoidalis interna.

EPIPLOITIS. It is that ſpecies of inflammation of the peritoneum which Dr. Cullen calls peritonitis omentalis. See Peritonitis. It is alſo called the child-bed fever. See Puerperilis Febris.

EPIPLOOCOMISTES, from επιπλοον, *the caul*, and κομιζω, *to carry* (as if it was a burden.) It ſeems to be only a term of raillery, from επιπλοον, *the omentum*, and κομιζομαι, *to poſſeſs* or *have*.

An epithet for thoſe who have a large epiploon, in compariſon of brutes. Veſalius underſtands it of one who hath a preternaturally large epiploon. Or it may be applied to one labouring under an epiplocele.

EPIPLOOMPHALON, from επιπλοον, the *omentum*, and ομφαλος the *navel*. An hernia umbilicalis.

EPIPLOON, from επιπλεω, *to warm over*, becauſe it ſeems to float upon the guts. See OMENTUM.

EPIPLOSCHEOCELE. An hernia, in which the omentum deſcends into the ſcrotum.

EPIPOLÆUS. Slight, gentle. Hippocrates applies it to diſorders that are no way dangerous.

EPIPOLASIS. A redundance and fluctuation. In chemiſtry it is when what is ſublimed aſcends only to the ſurface, and there ſettles.

EPIPOROMA. It is any indurated tumor in the joints, from πωρις, from πιπτωρω, *to harden*. A callous concretion, a tophus, or tophaceous callus, moleſting the joints.

EPISARCIDIUM, from σαρξ, *fleſh*, i. e. anaſarca.

EPISCHESIS, from ισχω, *to ſtop, retain*. It is a ſuppreſſion of due excretions.

EPISCHION, from επι, *upon*, and ισχιον, *iſchium*. The os pubis.

EPISCOPALES VALVULÆ, i. e. Valvulæ mitrales.

EPISEION. The pubes.

EPISPASMOS, from επισπαω, *to attract*. In Hippocrates, according to ſome it is inſpiration; but others ſay it is a more quick inſpiration than uſual.

EPISPASTICA, from επισπαω, *to draw*. What the ancients called *epiſpaſtics*, were ſuch external applications as only rubified the ſkin: they drew the humours more copiouſly to the part to which they were applied; and according to the different degree of effect, received different names; the ſlighteſt were called phœnigmoi, the next were ſinapiſms, the next were veſicatories, and the ſtrongeſt were cauſtics. The London college hath very properly changed the name of bliſtering plaſter from *epiſpaſt.* to veſicatorium.

EPISPASTICUM MEDICAMENTUM. A dry medicine prepared for the cure of malignant ulcers by inſperſion.

EPISPHÆRIA, from σφαιρα, a *ſphere*. The brain being ſomewhat of that ſhape. According to ſome, it is the windings of the exterior ſubſtance of the brain; others ſay, it is the winding veſſels on the ſurface thereof.

EPISTAPHYLINI. See STAPHYLINI.

EPISTASIS. See EPISCHESIS. It is alſo the ſubſtance on the ſurface of the urine.

EPISTAXIS. Hippocrates expreſſes by it, repeated diſtillations of blood from the noſe. Dr. Cullen uſes this term to diſtinguiſh bleeding at the noſe, as a genus of diſeaſe, which he places in the claſs locales and order hæmorrhagiæ. See HÆMORRHAGIÆ.

EPISTHOTONOS. The tetanus binding the body forward.

EPISTOMION. A ſtopper for a bottle, &c. Alſo the vent-hole of a furnace called a regiſter.

EPISTROPHÆUS, from επι, *upon*, and στρεφω, *to turn*. The firſt vertebra of the neck. Some (though improperly) call the ſecond thus. It is alſo writ *epiſtropheа*, and *epiſtrophis*.

EPITASIS. In Hippocrates it is the beginning and increaſe of the fit.

EPITEDEUMA. The way of living which a perſon preſcribes to himſelf. Cœlius Aurelianus calls it vitæ affectiones. And Celſus calls it vita propoſita.

EPITHEMA, from επι, *upon*, and τιθημι, *to cover, to lay upon* or *apply*. A lid or cover; but is alſo uſed to ſignify a topical medicine. *Epithems* are, 1ſt. liquid; and when applied warm, are ſometimes called fomentations or embrocations. 2dly. Dry, or ſolid. Theſe are medicated powders ſewed up in cloths, and are called faceulus, faccus, cucupha, cucullus, frontale, ſcutum, lectulus, & pulvinar. 3dly. Thoſe of the ſoft or poultice kind, as ſinapiſms, and other kinds of poultices. Turner confines the name of *epithem* to liquids in which rags are dipped, to be applied to the part affected. See Gaubius de Formulis Medicamentorum.

EPITHELIUM. So the cuticle on the red part of the lips is called.

EPITHESIS. In ſurgery, it is the rectification of crooked limbs by means of inſtruments.

EPITHYMBRUM. A ſpecies of moſs growing on the thymbra, or winter-ſavory.

EPITHYMUM. See CUSCUTA.

EPOCHETEUSIS. A derivation of the juices to other parts.

EPOMIS, i. e. acromion, from επι, *upon*, and ωμος, *ſhoulder*.

EPOMPHALUM. From επι, *upon*, and ομφαλος, the *navel*. Any application to the navel.

EPODE, or Epodos, from επι, *over*, and ωδη, a *ſong*. The method of curing diſtempers by incantations.

EPOSCHION. The tendril of a plant.

EPOMPHALION, from επι, *upon*, and ομφαλος, *the navel*. A medicine which purges by being applied to the region of the navel.

EPOSILINGA. Scales of iron.

EPSOM WATER. Its medicinal powers are contained in the ſalt which bears its name, and is alſo called SAL. cath. amar. which ſee.

EPULIS, from επι, *upon*, and ουλα, the *gums*.

A kind of tubercles in the *gums*, of which there are two ſpecies; one without pain, the other is troubleſome, and often degenerates into a cancer. They are of different ſizes, ſome having a broad baſis, and others a ſlender neck, by which they are united to the *gums*.

The beſt method of cure is totally to extirpate them: when they have a ſmall neck, or root, they may be twitched off with a thread. When the baſis is broad, deſtroy it with the ol. tart. per deliq. or a ſolution of ſal ammoniac. If theſe mild corroſives fail, it is better to uſe the knife, than to hazard the danger which attends the ſtronger ones.

After the humour is extirpated, waſh the mouth with red wine, or oxycrate with alum; and when the blood ceaſes to flow, uſe a mixture of the honey of roſes with oil of myrrh. See Turner's Surgery, vol. i. p. 210. Heiſter's Surgery.

EPULOTICA, from ουλα, a *cicatrix*, επουλωω, is *to cicatrize*. Epulotic. Topical medicines which dry up humidity, repreſs fungous fleſh, and diſpoſe wounds or ulcers to be covered with ſkin, are ranked under this name. Dry lint, gentle compreſs, and the cerote with lap. calam. are the general applications.

EPULOTIC. Cerat. See CALAMINARIS LAPIS.

EQUI CLIBANUS. In chemiſtry it is the heat of horſe dung.

EQUISETUM. See CAUDA EQUINA.

EQUISETUM POLYGONOIDES. i. e. Algoides.

EQUISETUM SUB AQUA REPENS. FOLIIS BIFURCIS. See CERATOPHYLON.

EQUITATIO. Riding. During this exerciſe, all the viſcera are ſhaken, and preſſed againſt each other; at the ſame time, the pure air acts with a greater force on the lungs. Weakly perſons, or thoſe whoſe ſtomachs are infirm, ſhould be cautious of *riding* before their meals are ſomewhat digeſted.

ERANTHEMUS, i. e. Adonis flos.

ERASISTRATUS. He was contemporary with Herophilus: they were both of Alexandria, and celebrated phyſicians. *Eraſiſtratus*, and his preceptor Chryſippus, baniſhed bleeding from medicine, and they rarely uſed purges; inſtead of theſe they ſubſtituted faſting. *Eraſiſtratus* was particularly attached to the uſe of ſuccory in diſeaſes of the viſcera, and lower belly; he wrote many books, fragments of which are in Cœlius Aurelianus and Galen. After the death of Alexander the Great, he, with Herophilus, diſſected many human bodies. *Eraſiſtratus* had a ſchool at Smyrna; Herophilus had another in Phrygia.

ERAWAY, i. e. Ricinus vulgaris minor.

ERE BINTHUS, i. e. Cicer.

ERECTORES PENIS. Theſe muſcles ariſe from the inſide of the tuberoſity of the iſchium, and are loſt in the crura, where they unite. They are alſo called directores penis; and Spigelius calls them collaterales penis.

EREGMOS, from ρηγνυμι, *to break*. It is any leguminous fruit decorticated and broken into pieces. Fœnius ſays it is bean meal.

ERE-

ERETHISMOS, from ἐρεθίζω, *to excite, irritate.* In general, whatever is an obſtacle to nature is an erethiſmos. In particular, it ſignifies an irritation of the belly, from thin acrimonious humours, and their diſcharge in liquid ſtools.

ERETRIA TERRA. Eretrian earth. There are two ſorts; one is white, the other aſh-coloured. The latter is moſt eſteemed.

EREUGMOS. An eructation.

EREUMENA URA. Urines that aſſume a cloudy conſiſtence in the middle.

EREUXIS. Eructations.

ERGALIA. That part of alchemy that explains the inſtruments thereof.

ERGASIMA. A name of the worſt ſort of myrrh.

ERGASTERIUM, from ἔργον, a *work.* A laboratory. In particular, it is that part of a furnace in which the copel, alembic, retort, &c. containing the matter to be acted on is repoſited.

ERGOT. So the French call a diſeaſe, which reſembles one in England, which is cauſed by eating bad corn.

ERICA, alſo called erice, common heath, heather, ling. Boerhaave mentions eight ſpecies, but others add ſtill more. The flower is of a curious ſtructure, and a decoction of them is commended as a ſolvent for the ſtone; five ounces of it are to be drank every night and morning. See Raii Hiſt.

ERICERUM. The name of ſeveral collyria in Aetius, ſo called from erica, heath, which is an ingredient.

ERIGERON, alſo called ſenecio, erigerum Simſon, and groundſel. It is a low plant, and too generally known to require a deſcription. The ſpecies uſed in medicine is the ſenecio vulgaris, Linn. It is an annual plant, but may be found at all times of the year. The juice of the leaves are a powerful emetic. An infuſion of them, or their expreſſed juice, may be given. Some maniacs find that a tea-cup full of the juice will operate with them as an emetic when other means fail, and thus they remove ſlight attacks of their diſorder. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

ERIGERON CŒRULEUS. Blue fleabane.

ERIGERUM QUARTUM, i. e. Conyza cœrulea acris.

ERIGERUM TOMENTOSUM, i. e. Jacobæa Pannonica.

ERINEOS, i. e. Caprificus, or wild fig-tree.

ERINOS. The name of a plant deſcribed by Dioſcorides as reſembling ocymum, and bearing white flowers, which are followed by black ſeeds. Bauhine mentions two other plants which have this name, and Muntingius another, which differs from them all.

ERIOPHORON. A ſort of woolly bulb mentioned by Theophraſtus.

ERITHRONIUM SATYRIUM, i. e. Dens canis latiore rotundioreque folio.

ERIX. The ſuperior part of the liver.

ERODINIUM. A word uſed by ſome chemiſts to expreſs a prognoſtic.

EROTION, i. e. Apiaſtrum.

EROTOMANIA. That ſort of melancholy to which lovers are ſubject. See MELANCHOLY.

EROTYLUS, i. e. Fungus coralloides, &c.

ERPES, i. e. Herpes.

ERRANA. The ſame as Erratica.

ERRATICA. Erratic fevers, irregular tertians or quartans.

ERRHINÆ. Errhines, from ῥὶν, the *noſe. Errhines,* is the name which Galen gives to ſternutatories; they are ſubſtances, which, if ſnuffed up the noſe, promote a diſcharge of mucus therefrom. At preſent the milder ſorts are diſtinguiſhed by the name of *errhines,* and the ſtronger by that of ſternutatories, becauſe they excite a ſneezing. By a prudent uſe of this kind of medicines, the eyes and ſome other parts of the head are much relieved; beſide, the general ſhock that ſneezing gives to the whole body, it tends to remove the remoteſt obſtructions; hence its uſe extends to lethargies, epilepſies, palſies, apoplexies, head-achs, vertigoes, catarrhs, gutta ſerenas, &c. The action of ſneezing ſeems to be more extenſively uſeful by its general ſhock than that of vomiting, but it ſhould ever be obſerved, that if there is any kind of plethora in the habit, that ſhould be removed before ſternutatories ſhould be adminiſtered.

ERRIPSIS, from ῥίπτω, *to precipitate.* When ſpoken with reſpect to the body, it ſignifies a loſs of ſtrength.

ERROR LOCI. Boerhaave is ſaid to have introduced this term, from the opinion that the veſſels were of different ſizes for the circulation of blood, ſerum, and lymph, and that when the larger ſized globules were forced into the leſſer veſſels by an *error of place* they were obſtructed. But this opinion does not ſeem well grounded. See ARTERIA.

ERVADO CAPITAON. The name of a plant in Braſil, called alſo cotyledon repens Braſilienſis.

ERUCA. Rocket. Boerhaave mentions ſeven ſpecies. This kind of plant reſembles muſtard in appearance, but is diſtinguiſhed by the ſmoothneſs of its leaves, and its diſagreeable ſmell. The ſeeds have a pungent taſte, ſomewhat like that of muſtard, but weaker. The ſort uſed in medicine is the braſſica *eruca,* Linn.

ERUCA SATIVA, called alſo *eruca* latifolia alba, *eruca* major ſativa. Garden-rocket. The roots have a hot biting taſte, and the ſeeds have the ſame qualities. The herb is eaten as a ſallad, and is ſomewhat warming and diuretic, but is not in uſe as a medicine.

ERUCA SYLVESTRIS, called alſo *eruca* ſylv. major, *eruca* tenuifolia, &c. Wild-rocket. Its qualities are much the ſame as thoſe of the garden ſpecies, but its taſte is ſomewhat more acrid and bitter.

Reſeda vulgaris. Baſe rocket.

Reſeda minor, called alſo phyteuma, valeriana ſeptima. Small baſe rocket.

Boerhaave reckons up ſix ſpecies of reſedas, but they are not of any valuable uſe in medicine.

ERUCA. A name for muſtard. Raii Hiſt.

ERUCA LATIFOLIA LUTEA. A ſpecies of ſiſymbrium.

ERUCA SILIQUA CAULI CYPRESSA. Hedge muſtard.

ERUCAGO. Corn-rocket, called alſo *erucago* ſegetum, ſinapi echinatum, raphaniſtrum diſpermum Monſpeliacum. Some ſay it is attenuating, others rank it with antiſcorbutics; but it is not of any note in medicine.

ERUTHEMATA. Red fiery tumors which ariſe from an inflammation, as in eryſipelas.

ERVA DE SANCTA MARIA. A name of the dracontium.

ERVILIA, i. e. Ochrus.

ERVUM, called alſo orobos. The bitter vetch. It is the *ervum* ervilia, Linn. This plant grows up two feet in height, its leaves and flowers are like thoſe of the tare in their ſhape, but are leſs, and of a white colour; theſe flowers are ſucceeded by pods which contain two or three large round whitiſh ſeeds. It is a native of France, Italy, and ſome other of the warm parts of Europe. The ſeeds have a farinaceous diſagreeable bitter taſte, are nephritic, powerfully diuretic, and if mixed with honey are expectorant.

Aſtragaloides Luſitaniæ. The Portugal baſtard milk vetch.

Aſtralagus, called alſo Chriſtianæ radix, aſtragalus Syriacus hirſutus, orobrychis peregrina, aſtragalus argenteus. The ſilk vetch of Dioſcorides. Dale ſays it is difficult to ſay what plant this is.

Clymenum. The chickling-vetch. Boerhaave mentions four ſorts of this vetch, and Miller a fifth.

Securidaca, alſo called hedyſarum majus, pelecinum. Hatchet-vetch. The name pelecinum is from πέλεκυς, a *hatchet,* becauſe its ſeeds are ſhaped like a two-edged hatchet.

All theſe kinds of *vetches* are natives of warm climes, but are produced in our gardens. But whatever their medical qualities are, they do not obtain in practice. See Miller's Dict. vol. i. ii.

ERYNGIUM. Eryngo. Boerhaave reckons eleven ſpecies, and Dale enumerates ſtill more.

ERYNGIUM, alſo called iringus, eryng. maritimum, inguinalis, ſea-holly and eryngo. It is the *eryngium* maritimum, or *eryngium* foliis radicalibus ſubrotundis plicatis ſpinoſis, capitulis pedunculatis, paleis tricuſpidatis.

It is a bluiſh branched plant, with mallow-like thick, prickly leaves, angular or jagged about the edges; the flowers are white; the roots are ſlender and long, brown on the outſide and white within. It is perennial, grows

plentifully on ſome of our ſandy and gravelly ſhores: it flowers in July.

The root has an agreeable ſweet taſte, which on chewing is followed by a light aromatic pungency. It is putreſcent, and a mean betwixt animal and vegetable food. Freely uſed it is aperient and diuretic; but more fit for diet than to be uſed as a medicine. The London college directs it to be candied as follows.

Rad. Eryngii *Condita.* *Candied* Eryngo *Root.*

Boil the roots till the rind will eaſily peel off: when peeled, ſlit them through the middle, and the pith being taken out, waſh them three or four times in cold water. Then take for every pound of roots ſo prepared, two pounds of double refined ſugar; diſſolve the ſugar in water, ſet it over a fire, and as ſoon as it begins to boil put in the roots, and continue the boiling until they become ſoft.

Theſe candied roots are an ingredient in artificial aſſes milk, which is thus made:

Take of candied *eryngo* root, one ounce; pearl barley, half an ounce; liquorice root three drams; boil them in two pints of water to one pint, to which add a pint of new milk from the cow; boil them gently together, then ſtrain for uſe. Half a pint ſhould be drank three times a day.

ERYNGIUM ZEYLANICUM, called alſo melampyro cognata Maderas, &c. coletta veetla. This ſpecies of *eryngo* is not in uſe with us.

ERYNGIUM LUTEUM MONSPEL. See Scolymus.

ERYNGIUM MINIMUM MITIUS CAPITULO MAGNO. A ſpecies of cnicus.

ERYSIMO. A name of a ſpecies of turritis.

ERYSIMUM, called alſo iris, verbena fœmina, eruca ſiliqua cauli oppreſſa. Hedge-muſtard. It is the *eryſimum* officinale, Linn.

It is an hairy plant, with oblong narrow leaves, tough branched ſtalks; bearing numerous ſmall yellow flowers; which are followed by ſhort roundiſh pods, full of ſmall reddiſh brown ſeeds. It is annual, common in waſte places, and flowers in July.

This plant is not in much eſteem; the leaves are herbaceous to the taſte; the flowers are attenuant, expectorant, and diuretic; the ſeeds reſemble in their qualities thoſe of muſtard, but are much weaker: their acrimony is extracted totally by water, and partially by ſpirit. Water is ſtrongly impregnated with them in diſtillation. Stahl highly commends the active parts of this plant in ſcirrho-cancerous tumors.

ERYSIMUM LATIFOLIUM, alſo called ſinapi ſylveſtre, &c. Broad-leaved hedge-muſtard. Its virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of the other kind. Raii Hiſt.

ERYSIMUM. A name of the ſaphia, a ſpecies of ſiſymbrium, and of the ſagopyrum.

ERYSIPELACEA, i.e. Eryſipelas, or eryſipelatous fever.

ERYSIPELAS. Authors vary in their derivation of this word. Conſtantine and Martinius derive it from ερυω, *to draw*, το μελας, the *neighbouring parts*. Pollux calls the word ερυθροπελαξ, from ερυθρος, *red*, and μελας, *black*, from its variety of colours. This name ſeems to be from the colours which this diſorder induces in the parts it affects; and to be derived from ερυθρος, *red*, and πελος, *livid* or *black*. Hippocrates calls this diſorder επιφλογισμα: the Latins call it ignis ſacer when it is of the ulcerated kind: it is alſo called zoſter; zona, or the girdle; ſhingles: in Switzerland it is called the violet: ſome name it the roſe, from its red colour.

The true ſpecies is acute and inflammatory. The baſtard kind is more chronic than acute.

Some define this diſorder as being "That ſtate of an inflammation wherein the affected part becomes white, when it is preſſed with the finger; but ſoon aſſumes its former colour, when the preſſure is removed."

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ and order exanthemata. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies, 1. *Eryſipela* veſiculoſum, in which the inflammation occupies broad ſpaces, and on which large veſiculations form themſelves. 2. *Eryſipelas* phlyctænodes, in which there are many ſmall inflamed pimples on the ſkin, which ſoon are formed into numerous ſmall veſicles.

This diſorder may be on any part of the body; but the face is moſt frequently affected, the arm next, and then the feet and other parts. The ſeat of the true ſpecies is in the ſurface of the ſkin; Heiſter ſays in the ſcarf-ſkin and fat contiguous thereto, and the internal membranes. The baſtard kind lies deeper, and is apt to degenerate into ulcers.

Autumn, or when hot weather is ſucceeded by cold and wet, are the ſeaſons which favour this diſeaſe, and in which it moſt frequently happens. The ſanguine and plethoric, young people, and pregnant women, are the moſt ſubject to it. Thoſe who have once been affected are very liable to future attacks.

The cauſes are in general the ſame as thoſe which produce other kinds of inflammations; but chiefly ſudden cold ſucceeding a great heat or ſweat, obſtructed perſpiration, and a ſharp blood. Tiſſot ſays that it reſults from two cauſes: 1ſt. An acrid ſharp humour, which is commonly bilious, diffuſed through the maſs of blood: of this opinion was Hippocrates and Galen. 2dly, The humours not being duly diſcharged by perſpiration. Maganiſe, in his Doctrine of Inflammations, obſerves that a glutinous humour is ſupplied by the ſebaceous glands, to preſerve the ſenſibility of the ſkin and keep it moiſt, by checking in ſome meaſure the egreſs of the fluid which goes off through its pores; this glutinous humour being wanting in an *eryſipelas*, the ſkin is dry and parched, becauſe the erethiſm of the veſſels is but ſmall, and the morbific humours having nothing in their way to retard their egreſs, exhale through the expiring veſſels of the ſkin; and that it is by the want of this glutinous humour that an *eryſipelas* differs from any other inflammation of the ſanguine or phlegmonic kind. From the want of a tumor, ſomewhat ſimilar to the ſebaceous, it is, that other membranes are the ſeat alſo of an *eryſipelatous* inflammation.

The diagnoſtics of this diſeaſe are well deſcribed by Tiſſot as follows: it is ſometimes but a ſlight indiſpoſition, which appears on the ſkin, without the perſon being ſenſible of any other diſorder, and it moſt commonly breaks out in the face or on one leg. The ſkin becomes tenſe, or ſtiff, rough, and red; but this redneſs diſappears on preſſing the ſpot with a finger, and returns on removing it. A burning heat is felt in the part affected, which makes the patient uneaſy, and ſometimes hinders him from ſleeping. The diſorder increaſes for two or three days, continues at its height one or two, and then abates: ſoon after this, that part of the ſkin which was affected falls off in large ſcales, and the diſorder terminates. Sometimes the malady is more ſevere, beginning with a violent ſhivering, which is ſucceeded by a burning heat, a vehement head-ach, ſickneſs at heart (as it is commonly termed) or reaching to vomit, which continues till the *eryſipelas* appears, which ſometimes does not happen till the ſecond or third day; the fever then abates, and the ſickneſs goes off; though frequently a leſs degree of ſickneſs, or loathing, and of fever remain during the whole time of the increaſe of the diſeaſe. When the inflammation and eruption happen in the face, the head-ach continues until the decline of the diſeaſe; the eye-lids ſwell, the eyes cloſe, and the patient hath no eaſe. It often paſſes from one cheek to the other, and extends ſucceſſively over the forehead, neck, and nape of the neck, under which circumſtance the diſeaſe is of a more than ordinary duration. Sometimes alſo, when it exiſts in a high degree, the fever continues, the brain is oppreſſed and obſtructed, the patient raves, and his caſe becomes exceeding dangerous. A violent *eryſipelas* in the neck brings on a quinſey, which is very grievous, and often fatal. When it attacks the leg, the whole of it is ſwelled up, and the heat and irritation from it is extended up to the thigh. Whenever the tumor is conſiderable, the part it ſeizes is covered with ſmall puſtules, filled with a clear watery humour, reſembling thoſe which appear after a burn, theſe afterwards dry and ſcale off. Sometimes, when this diſtemper affects the face, the humour which iſſues out of theſe puſtules is thick and gluey, and forms a thick ſcurf and ſcab nearly reſembling thoſe of ſucking children, and they continue faſt on the face many days before they fall off. When the diſeaſe is violent, it continues eight, ten, or twelve days at the ſame height, and is at laſt terminated by a very plentiful ſweat, that may

ſome-

ſometimes be predicted by a reſtleſſneſs, attended with ſhivering and a little anxiety of ſome hours duration. In the progreſs of the diſeaſe the whole ſkin is very dry, and even the inſide of the mouth.

An *eryſipelas* rarely comes to ſuppuration; when it does the ſuppuration is always unkindly, and much diſpoſed to degenerate into an ulcer. Sometimes a malignant kind of *eryſipelas* is epidemical, and then it often terminates in a gangrene. This diſtemper often ſhifts its ſituation, it ſometimes retires ſuddenly, but the patient is uneaſy and diſordered, he hath a propenſity to vomit, with a ſenſible anxiety and heat; the *eryſipelas* appears again in a different part, and the patient feels himſelf quite relieved from the preceding ſymptoms. But, if inſtead of re-appearing on ſome other part of the ſurface, the humour is thrown upon the brain, or the breaſt, he dies within a few hours; and theſe fatal changes and tranſlations ſometimes occur without the leaſt reaſon or colour for aſcribing them either to any error of the patient, or of his phyſician. If the humours have been transferred to the brain, the patient immediately becomes delirious, with a highly flushed viſage, and very quick ſparkling eyes; ſoon after he proves frantic, and goes off in a lethargy. If the lungs are attacked, the anxiety and heat are inexpreſſible. There are ſome conſtitutions ſubject to a very frequent, and, as it were, an habitual *eryſipelas*: if it often affects the face, it is generally repeated on the ſame ſide of it, and that eye is at length conſiderably weakened by it.

Sydenham reckons the eſſera (which ſee) a ſpecies of *eryſipelas*, and calls it the baſtard or ſcorbutic kind; and this he ſays is with or without ulcerations. What Pliny calls zoſter, and others call zona, ſhingles, &c. Sydenham reckons a ſpecies of this diſorder.

The *eryſipelas* ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the plague, and from inflammations of different kinds that happen on the ſkin.

As to the prognoſtics, many of them may be noted from the diagnoſtics above related: when it approaches ſuddenly, but with little diſturbance, and attacks a perſon with a good habit, and when no nervous, membranous, or principal parts are affected, there is but little to be apprehended from it. Sometimes a convulſive diſeaſe, as an aſthma, colic, &c. hath been relieved by the approach of an *eryſipelas*. Danger is very conſiderable when this diſorder is deeply ſeated, fixed on a ſenſible part, and the habit of body but indifferent: in ſome bad habits this diſorder leaves behind it a ſwelling in the foot, or ankle, or both, which is both troubleſome and difficult to remove; by bad management it is eaſily and ſoon rendered fatal; frequent returns denote a diſordered liver or gall-bladder; when it is ſeated in the face, a drowſineſs often attends it, in which caſe there is danger of a phrenitis, or of a mortal lethargy: when it ſeizes the breaſts, particularly of women in child-bed, or who give ſuck, an abſceſs is the conſequence for the moſt part: if the noſtrils and mouth are dry, and the patient is drowſy, an inflammation of the brain is to be ſuſpected: it is generally fatal within the ſeventh day, when the patient dies; and they who are often ſeized with it, at laſt die of it.

The diet ſhould be thin and perſpirative; roaſted apples may be eaten freely; the drink may be whey, barley-water, ſmall beer, water gruel, or if the pulſe ſinks ſmall negus may be allowed. The patient ſhould keep out of the bed during ſome hours in the day. But from the extremes of hot and cold, equal care ſhould be taken to guard againſt them.

In order to the cure, the firſt endeavours ſhould be to remove this diſorder by reſolution. In the ſlighter caſes, perſpiration may be kept up with frequent draughts of camomile or of elder-flower tea, acidulated with the ſpt. ſeb. Di. Clutton, or with other cooling perſpiratives. If the face and head be affected, gentle but repeated purging is to be directed; they ſhould alſo be continued until all danger ſeems to be alleviated. But, if the pulſe is ſtrong and hard, bleed, and repeat it as the fever and ſtrength of the patient indicates; in this caſe, beſides nitre and other cooling perſpiratives, the bowels may be kept ſoluble by means of whey, prepared by turning cow's milk with cream of tartar, tamarinds, &c. Dr. Freind obſerves that when the head is affected, purges are the ſpecifics; but it may be added, that in ſuch like caſes ſinapiſms may be applied with ſingular advantage to the ſoles of the feet.

From an admiſſion of cold air the *eryſipelatous* matter is ſometimes ſtruck inwardly; when this happens, bleed immediately, apply bliſters on the ſides of the neck, one on the part from whence the inflammation receded, and ſinapiſms to the feet; at the ſame time forget not to adminiſter a purge, and to repeat the like as the caſe may require.

When the pulſe is low, cordials and the warmer perſpiratives ſhould accompany the uſe of bliſters.

When an *eryſipelas* attacks, or is repelled to the lungs, the only chance of life is to divert it therefrom, and fix it on the external parts: in this caſe, beſides the fever, pain in the breaſt, and other violent ſymptoms, the patient frequently faints; and, what is worſe, he rarely ſurvives his ſufferings.

Bliſters are often uſeful, but ſhould be applied as directed under emp. veſicat. mitt. in the article CANTHARIDES, which ſee.

In the wandering kinds of this diſorder give half an ounce of the rob. ſambuc four times a day with five or ſix grains of the ſal polychreſt. in each doſe; every third day give a cooling purge, place the patient every evening in a pedilave, and after it appiy ſinapiſms to his feet.

From the nature of this diſeaſe, and from the peculiarities in the ſkins of different perſons, much caution is required in the application of external remedies. When the ſcarf-ſkin is raiſed in bliſters, and the ſerum begins to tranſude, then apply abſorbing external medicines, ſuch as chalk finely powdered, or a thin rag may be ſpread over the inflamed part, and the chalk or fine flour ſprinkled upon the rag; or, inſtead of theſe, flannels wrung out of a decoction of elder and camomile flowers may be applied as often as they grow cool. Among liquids Goulard's ſaturnine water is one of the beſt applications, and may ſafely be uſed in every caſe where a reſolution of the inflammation is the aim.

If, notwithſtanding all endeavours to diſcuſs, the ſymptoms of a ſuppuration ſtill prevail, encourage them by applying the common white bread poultice, with ſaffron mixed in it.

If a gangrene is threatened, beſides the inward uſe of camphor and the bark, ſpirituous and ſtrengthening applications ſhould be employed externally, ſuch as mixtures of lime-water with camphorated ſpirit, or camphorated ſpirit mixed with tincture of myrrh, or an infuſion of the bark. See Hippocrates's Aphoriſms, Galen's Meth. Med. Lommius's Med. Obſ. Hoffman's Med. Rad. Syſt. vol. ii. Swann's Tranſlation of Sydenham's Works, Heiſter's Inſt. of Surgery, p. i. lib. iv. c. vi. p. 290. Tiſſot's Advice to the People; Mageniſe on Inflammations.

ERYSIPELAS BULLATUM. It is the œdema eryſipelatoides, when it renders the affected part tumid.

ERYSIPELAS CURANS (ARBOR). See PAVATE.

ERYSIPELAS PULMONIS LOMMII, i. e. Carditis.

ERYSIPELAS ROSA, i. e. Eryſipelas Veſiculoſum.

ERYSIPELAS TYPHODES, i. e. Eryſipelas Veſiculoſum.

ERYSIPELAS PESTILENS, i. e. Eryſipelas Veſiculoſum.

ERYSIPELAS CONTAGIOSUM, i. e. Eryſipelas Veſiculoſum.

ERYSIPELAS ZOSTER, i. e. Eryſipelas Phlyctænodes.

ERYSIPELAS PHLYCTÆNODES. The ſhingles.

ERYSIPELAS VESICULOSUM. That ſpecies of eryſipelas called the roſe.

ERYSIPELATOIDES, from ἐρυσιπελας, *an eryſipelas*, and εἶδος, *likeneſs*. It is a tumor reſembling the *eryſipelas*, or a ſpurious *eryſipelas*.

ERYSISCEPTRUM, i. e. Rhodium.

ERYTHEMA. A redneſs of the cheeks under an inflammatory fever. It is a ſpecies of phlogoſis. See INFLAMMATIO.

ERYTHEMA AFRIGORE, i. e. Pernio.

ERYTHEMA AMBUSTIO. The ſame as combuſtura, or rather the inflammation cauſed by burns or ſcalds.

ERYTHEMA GANGRÆNOSUM. A carbuncle. See CARBUNCULUS.

ERYTHRACIUM. A ſpecies of ſatyrion.

ERYTHRION. The name of an amalgama in P. Ægineta.

ERYTHRODANUM, i. e. Rubia tinctorum.

ERYTHROEIDES, from *ερυθρος, red,* and *ειδος, form.* A name of the tunica vaginalis teſtis.

ERYTHRONIUM. A ſpecies of ſatyrion.

ERYTHROXYLON, i. e. Poinciana.

ESAPHE, from *εσαφαω, to feel with the fingers.* The touch or feeling the mouth of the womb, to know its ſtate.

ESCAPATLI. A ſpecies of ſena.

ESCHARA. An eſchar or cruſt. In ſurgery it is a hard cruſt, or a ſcab upon the fleſh, formed by the application of a red hot iron, a cauſtic, or ſome ſharp humour of the body. Alſo a ſlough, formed on a wound or ulcer, and is an inſtance of mortification.

ESCHARA The name of a ſub-marine plant which reſembles a net or cobweb. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies. Their virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of coral; but none of them obtain in practice.

ESCHAROPEPA. In Hippocrates it is an epithet for roaſted barley-meal.

ESCHAROTICA, from *εσχαροω, to ſkim over, ſcab over,* or *burn into a cruſt,* de *εσχαρα,* vide Scal. Hom. ad Il. I. 418. Eſcharotics. Medicines ſo called, which, when applied to the fleſh, they form a hard cruſt, or eſchar; or medicines that ſkin over a wound.

Cauſtics and *eſcharotics* differ only in degree, both being what deſtroys any fleſhy part to which they are applied on living bodies. Van Helmont firſt aſſerted their inefficacy on dead bodies; and Dr. Petit of Paris confirmed it. Theſe kinds of applications do not act upon the body from any innate power in themſelves, but only as actuated by the heat and moiſture of the circulating fluids which are found to be ſo eſſential to their action, that on the dead body they produce no alteration: they firſt heat the fluids in the part to which they are applied, and rarify them ſo as to burſt their veſſels; then the finer parts flying off, the part is left dry, and incruſted.

Cauſtics or cauteries are diſtinguiſhed into actual and potential. The actual is real fire, that is, an iron made red-hot; but theſe, on account of their terrifying appearance, as well as the pain which they occaſion, are now laid aſide. Theſe act on the ſolids. The potential are thoſe which do not act with immediate burning, but only as the body is diſpoſed to favour their action. The chief of theſe are cauſt. lunar. cauſt. commun. cauſt. antimon. They act by the acrid ſalts which they contain.

Their uſe, beſides that of deſtroying excreſcences, &c. is to open large abſceſſes where there is danger of cutting ſome adjacent veſſel, or when the knife appears horrid to the patient. In this caſe, the common milder cauſtic generally ſuffices, and may be thus applied: lay a piece of ſticking-plaſter on the ſoft part of the abſceſs, having previouſly cut a hole in it, nearly as big as the eſchar is to be made; then, in the hole of the plaſter lay the cauſtic, which muſt be ſecured by another piece of ſticking-plaſter: when the ſkin is not inflamed, the cauſtic very often occaſions little or no pain. When the cauſtic hath produced its effect, an opening may be made through it for the diſcharge of the pus, but the reſt may digeſt away. When iſſues are made by cauſtics, or bones laid bare by them, the eſchar muſt be cut out immediately, or the next day, leſt new fleſh ſhould fill up the part which is opened. To lay a bone bare, or to make an iſſue, let the cauſtic lay on about four hours; to deſtroy a large gland, lay it on ſix hours; but to open an abſceſs, it may remain two or three hours, according to the thickneſs of the ſkin, though generally, when the effect of the cauſtic is completed, the part on which it is applied ceaſes to be uneaſy.

When a large fungus is to be deſtroyed by a cauſtic, the method deſcribed in the Edinb. Med. Eſſays ſeems moſt eligible; it is as follows: the lap. infern. was applied to a tumor on the coats of the teſtis; after the ſeparation of the eſchar, the lap. infern. & ol. vitr. were alternately uſed, by rubbing the part firſt with the lap. infern. then in leſs than a minute after, with a fir ſtick dipped in the ol. vitr. which inſtantly removed the pain occaſioned by the lap. infernalis; at each dreſſing, this alternate application of theſe oppoſite cauſtics was repeated, till as much was waſted as was then thought convenient; the moiſture was abſorbed by an armed probe, and a digeſtive applied. This method prevents the continuance of pain, and is not productive of any degree of inflammation; it is alſo recommended for the removal of ſcirrhus, or any other kind of tumor that admits of a cauſtic being made uſe of.

Mr. John Hunter recommends a mixture of opium with the cauſtic in order to leſſen the pain which they occaſion.

ESCHEL. It is an imperfect zaffer. See COBALTUM.

ESCORZONERA. See SCORZONERA.

ESCULUS. A ſpecies of oak is thus named.

ESCURA, i. e. Eſchara.

ESDRÆ ANTIDOTUS. An antidote deſcribed by P. Ægineta.

ESEBON. Common ſalt.

ESOCHE, from *εξεχω to protuberate.* A tubercle within the anus; from *εσω, within,* and *εχω, to have.*

ESPHLASIS, from *εσφλασμαι, to recede inwards.* A receſſion of a part inwards from ſome violent outward impreſſion.

ESSATUM POTENTIALE. The medicinal power or virtue which reſides in vegetables and minerals.

ESSATUM VINUM. Spirit of wine impregnated with the medicinal virtues of vegetables.

ESSENTIA. The eſſence of any thing. From philoſophy this word hath been transferred to chemiſtry, where it ſeems ſtrictly to import the diſtinguiſhing part of medicinal ſimples, ſeparated from all other parts of the body which contained it.

ESSENTIA NEROLI. See AURANTIUM.

ESSENTIALIS. Eſſential. It is an epithet for ſalts procured from vegetable juices by cryſtallization. How theſe ſalts are procured, ſee ACETOSA. When the viſcous juices of vegetables are uſed in this proceſs, as thoſe of comfrey, &c. the ſalt cannot be obtained without a previous fermentation to diſſolve their tenacity. Juices that contain an oil or a balſam will not eaſily yield their ſalt, for oils and balſams prevent the cryſtallization of the ſalts. Theſe ſalts are never alcaline, though by burning, they are convertible into an alcaline.

The oils peculiar to different vegetables are alſo called *eſſential.*

Some fevers are called *eſſential* by way of diſtinction from the ſymptomatic.

ESSENTIALE SAL, i. e. Sal Diureticus.

ESSENTIALIS SAL, Eſſential Salt. This name is given to all concrete ſaline ſubſtances, which preſerve the ſmell, taſte, and all other principal qualities of bodies from which they were obtained, which bodies are only vegetable and animal. The uſual method of preparing them, is by evaporating, to almoſt the conſiſtence of a ſyrup, the liquors containing the *eſſential ſalt,* viz. the expreſſed and depurated juices and ſtrong decoctions, and by keeping them in a cold place. The cryſtals which ſhoot from theſe liquors, may be depurated by diſſolving them in water, filtrating, evaporating, and cryſtallizing.

Very often the ſalts thus obtained from animal and vegetable matters are nothing but vitriolated tartar, Glauber's ſalt, nitre, common ſalt, and other ſuch neutral ſalts, which ought not to be conſidered as the *eſſential ſalts* of the ſubſtances from which they are extracted: thoſe only are the *eſſential ſalts,* in the combination of which we find oily parts, which cannot be ſeparated from them, unleſs the ſalt be decompoſed. See ESSENTIALIS above, and ſee the article ESSENTIAL SALT in the Dict. of Chemiſtry.

ESSERA. The chronical nettle-raſh. It is called *eſſere,* ſora, and ſare by the Arabians; Sydenham calls it a baſtard or ſcorbutic eryſipelas; ſome name it the nettle-ſpring, from its reſemblance to the eruptions excited by the ſtinging of nettles. Dr. Cullen hath not determined where to place this kind of diſeaſe; he obſerves, that it is different from the urticaria, or acute nettle-fever. This *nettle-raſh,* he thinks, may be numbered with the diſorders in the order impetigines.

The *eſſera* is a ſpecies of tumor not mentioned by the Greeks nor Latins. It is a chronical diſorder, and is ſeated in the ſkin.

Some

Some people are affected with it only when the weather is frosty, others only in the hottest months. Persons of all ages and of both sexes are subject to it.

In some patients this disorder takes its rise from causes which prove curative in others. Senertus says the cause is in the serum. Dr. Heberden intimates, that whatever it is produces the itching and tubercles in the skin, when muscles, &c. disagree with those that eat them, it is the same cause which produces the *essera*.

This disorder appears in the skin in the form of small white hard tubercles; sometimes there are very broad tumours, and long ones also, such as appear after being struck with the lash of a whip; an intolerable itching attends them, and generally the skin is inflamed and very red in the spaces betwixt the eruptions. The elevations appear suddenly, they seldom continue long, and are apt to disappear from one part and appear again in another. No part of the body is exempt from this complaint. When many of the tubercles appear together, the part seems swelled. In some instances this disorder totally disappears in a few days, in others it hath continued many months, and even years, disappearing at times, but returning after very short intervals. For the most part the itching is the only inconvenience, and this indeed is sometimes so great as to deprive the patient of his sleep; but some patients complain of sickness, head-ach, or other troublesome symptoms during the presence of the eruptions, whilst others are only thus affected on their suddenly sinking in.

Serapio says there are two species of *essera*, but his distinctions do not seem well grounded.

The *essera* should be distinguished from that species of itch which appears in the form of dry pimples at the first, but soon after have a thin serum lodged on their apex, in the manner of a small vesicle. Some confound the *essera* with the epinyctides, but the latter hath also a thin humour which ouzes from them.

No danger attends this complaint, either as to life or health, any farther than the itching may hinder sleep.

As to the cure, the only indication is to allay the itching; how to answer this is difficult to say, because of the different effect which follows from the application of the same remedy in a variety of cases. In short this disorder seems to stand without any rational prescription for its cure. See Sennertus, Swann's Translation of Sydenham's Works, and see Dr. William Heberden's Remarks on the Nettle Rash in the 2d volume of the Lond. Med. Trans.

ESTHIOMENOS, ἐσθιω, *to eat*, from ἐσθιομαι, *to eat*. Eating, corroding. An inflammation in the skin, attended with a sharp humour, more properly the herpes exedens. It is indeed any inveterate ulcer.

ESULA. Spurge. There are many species of plants which bear this name, for which, besides what are here inserted, there are others which rank under the articles cataputia and tithymalus.

ESULA MINOR, also called pityusa, tithymalus foliis pini, tithymalo cypariſſiæ ſimilis, and pine spurge. Some have named it the countryman's rhubarb.

ESULA MAJOR, also called tithymalus paluſtris fruticosus, tithymalus magnus multicaulis, great marsh spurge, and German spurge; also the garden spurge.

ESULA INDICA, called also tithymalus Orientalis arboreſcens triquetrus ſpinoſus, and talukghaha. The plant that produces the gum bogia differs not from this species of esula; but, as Sydenham observes, there are two species of gamboge, one collected from a plant called lonan cambodia, and the best sort from the codampulli.

The spurges generally agree in their containing a milky juice, which is violently emetic and cathartic; and, if applied to the skin, it is corrosive.

ESULA SOLSEQUA. The sun spurge.

ETESIÆ. The cool winds from the East. Pliny says, that the Aquilones, i. e. north-east winds, are called Prodromi, and that they blow eight days before the dog-star rises. He also observes that the Etesian winds, that is the same north-east winds, set in two days after the dog-star rises and continue forty days. Prosper Alpinus informs us, that the *Etesian* winds blow in Egypt when the sun enters Cancer, and blows almost all June, July, and August; and that at the rising of these winds, the Nile rises, and the pestilence ceases. The south wind brings the pestilence there; and these winds they call Campsin, from Campsis, a general; who with his whole army, was suffocated in the sands which were driven upon them by these winds.

ETHEL. It imports both fire and blackness. In chemistry, the words *ethel*, terra alba, sulphur album, fumus albus, auripigmentum, and magnesia, all mean the same thing.

ETHESIUS LAPIS. The chrysolith.

ETHICA, i. e. Hectica.

ETHMOIDES, (os), from θμος, *a strainer*, or *sieve*; εἶδος, *a form*. This bone is placed between the two orbits of the eyes, where there is a notch left for its insertion. The cribriform lamella is the internal plain, thin, horizontal plate, which hath a superior middle eminence called crista galli, to which the beginning of the falciform process is attached; round the crista galli, except at the hind part, this lamella is pierced obliquely by many small foramina, through which the filaments of the olfactory nerves pass. From the middle of the cribriform lamella, the nasal lamella rises extremely thin, but at its anterior extremity it becomes thicker. At a little distance from each side of this lamella, a cellular bony substance is observable; the figure of the cells is uncertain, they communicate with the frontal sinuses, and with the cavity of the nose; their outward posterior surface is smooth, and is called os planum; it makes a part of the orbit. The ossa spongiosa, or turbinata superiora, are situated at the inferior part of the cellulæ; their figure is oblong, and they are sharp at their extremities.

The cribriform lamella is the body, as it were, of the ethmoid bone; and it is so thin, that it may easily be pushed through by a probe: when it is hurt, the accident is usually fatal.

ETHNICI. See Æthra.

ETIMODRYS. A name for the quercus cum longo pediculo.

ETRON, i. e. Hypogastrium.

ETTALCHE. A name of the cedrus folio Cypressi major.

ETYTHOXYLUM BRASILIANUM, &c. i. e. Brasilium lignum.

EUANASPHALTOS, from εὖ, *ease*, and ἀναςφαλλω, *to recover strength*. One who is soon restored.

EUANTHEMON. Galen says it is the same as anthemis, & chamæmelum.

EUAPHION, from εὖ, *ease*, and ἁφη, *the touch*. A medicine for the hæmorrhoides. Galen takes notice of it. It hath its name from its gentleness.

EUBOICA NUX. The wallnut.

EUCA RISTOS. An epithet for an antidote in N. Myrepsus.

EUCHROON. A plaster mentioned by S. Largus.

EUCOILIA. An epithet for cherries, importing that they render the belly soluble.

EUELPIDIUM. A liquid collyrium, called also diarrhodon and diasmyrnon.

EUELPISTI. A plaster described in S. Largus.

EUEMBOLOS, from εὖ, *well*, ἐν, *in*, and βαλλω, *to cast*. One expert at setting of bones.

EUEMETI, from εὖ, importing *facility*, and ἐμεω, *to vomit*. Those who vomit with ease.

EUERES, from εὖ, *well*, and ἐρετμος, *an oar*. Easy to be rowed. But Hippocrates uses naval terms, and applies this word to instruments. In his book de Medico, it signifies *ready* or *handy*

EUEXIA, from εὖ, *well*, and ἕξις, *a habit*. A good habit of body.

EUGEOS, from εὖ, *well*, and γη, *the earth*. The uterus is thus named on account of its fertility. It is also a name of the hymen.

EULE. A worm, properly that is bred in ulcers.

EULOGIUM. In Forestus from Rhases, it signifies an exanthematous disorder, the small-pox, or the measles.

EUNUCHION. A name of the lettuce. It is said to be thus called because Venus laid upon a bed of them after the death of Adonis, to restrain her venereal inclinations.

EUONY-

EUONYMOIDES CANADENSIS. A plant growing in Canada, mentioned by Boerhaave, but hath no medical virtues attributed to it.

EUONYMUS, alſo called tetragonia, fuſanus, fuſaria, prickwood, and the ſpindle-tree. Boerhaave enumerates four ſpecies, and Miller reckons up ten. In France and Germany, the wood is made into ſpindles, whence the names fuſanus and fuſaria. The fruit is emetic and cathartic, and if powdered, and ſprinkled in the hair, it kills lice. Raii Hiſt.

EUONYMUS, i. e. Simarouba.

EUONYMNUS VIRGINIA RIBESSII FOLIO. See SPIRÆA.

EUPATORIOPHALACHRON. Naked headed agrimony. Miller enumerates ten ſpecies of this plant, but they are not noted for any medical virtues.

EUPATORIUM, alſo called cannabinum, water hemp, water agrimony, Dutch agrimony, and common hemp agrimony. See AGRIMONIA. The *eupatorium* uſed in medicine, is the *eupatorium* cannabinum. Linn. It is a plant in much uſe in Holland, but not ſo with us in England: it is found on the ſides of ditches and rivers; it is acrid and bitter to the taſte; the leaves are ſtrengthening and aperient. Boerhaave ſays, that the turf diggers uſe it againſt foul ulcers, the ſcurvy, and ſwelling of the feet, to which they are very ſubject. The root is cathartic. Two ounces of the freſh juice, or a dram of the extract, is a doſe. Raii Hiſt.

EUPATORIUM AROMATICUM. A ſpecies of agrimony.

EUPATORIUM. A ſpecies of baccharis.

EUPATORIUM ARABUM, i. e. Bidens.

EUPATORIUM GRÆCORUM, i. e. Agrimonia.

EUPATORIUM MESSUE, i. e. Ageratum.

EUPATORIUM. A ſpecies of fleabane is thus called.

EUPEPSIA, from ευ, *good*, and πεπτω, *to digeſt*. Good digeſtion.

EUPETATON. A name of the laureo mas.

EUPHORBIUM, from Euphorbus, a phyſician, in honour of whom, king Juba, who firſt found it out, gave it that name, ευ, *well*, and φερω, *to feed*; called alſo ſchadida-calli, ſcadidacalli, tithymalus aizoides fruticoſus, &c. The *euphorbium* plant. *Euphorbia* officinarum. Linn. Boerhaave mentions twelve ſpecies. It is a prickly lacteſcent ſhrub; from it the gummy, reſinous, concrete juice, called gum *euphorbium* exudes. This gum is brought from Barbary in drops, or tears, of an irregular form, ſome of which when broken, contain little twigs, and other vegetable matters. The tears are generally very eaſy to break; they are of a gold colour outwardly, and white within; they conſiſt of equal parts of reſinous and gummy matter; their acrimony reſides in the reſin.

The ſpirituous tinctures are exceſſive fiery, and when inſpiſſated they are ſtill more ſo. The watery infuſion and extract are bitteriſh, having only a ſlight though durable acrimony. Neither ſpirit nor water carries over any thing from this gum by diſtillation.

This drug is too acrid for internal uſe; it is a part in the compoſition of ſome ſtimulating plaſters which are uſed in palſies and ſome other diſorders. Some have uſed it as an errhine, but it is too active for ſuch a medicine; the fine duſt which riſes in powdering, affects the operator's head and throat violently.

In the 2d. vol. of the Med. Muſ. is an inſtance of a perſon, who, through miſtake, ſwallowed ſome of the tincture of *euphorbium*, and was relieved by frequent draughts of water and olive oil, and a ſmall quantity of camphor. The ſymptoms produced by the *euphorbium* were a burning pain in the mouth, throat, and ſtomach, with a violent ſuffocation.

EUPHORIA, from ευ, *well*, and φερω, *to bear*. The eaſy bearing of a diſorder, or the operation of a medicine.

EUPHRASIA, called alſo euphragia and eye-bright. It is the *euphraſia* officinalis, Linn. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies. It is an herb with little, oval, ſerrated leaves, ſet in pairs without pedicles; the flowers appear on the top of the ſtalks; they are white outwardly, but inwardly they are ſtreaked with purple and yellow. It is annual, grows wild in uncultivated grounds, and flowers from July to September.

It is a very mild corroborant; is ſlightly aſtringent, and hath been much extolled againſt diſorders in the eyes. Both ſpirit and water extract its virtues. Some take an infuſion of it, others uſe the powder in the manner of ſnuff, in caſes of dim-ſightedneſs. The following preparation, called pulv. Helidæi, hath been held in great repute. R *euphraſia*, ℥ ii. macis, ʒ ſs. m. f. pulv. cap. ʒ i. ad. ʒ iii.

EUPHRASIA. A ſpecies of chickweed.

EUPHROSYNE, i. e. Euphraſia.

EUPORISTA, from ευ, *eaſy*, and πορεω, *to afford*. Medicines eaſily prepared.

EUPORISTON, i. e. Euporiſta.

EUROEOS, or Eurous, i. e. Lap. Judaicus.

EURYTHMIA, from ευ, *right* or *juſt*, and ῥυθμος, *order* and *harmony*, properly in muſic. It imports dexterity in handling inſtruments; alſo the proper order of the pulſe.

EUROPEE. See VERONICA.

EUSARCHUS. Well fleſhed.

EUTHESIA. Galen explains it to be an innate ſtrong habit of body.

EUTHYPOROS, from ευθυς, *ſtraight, direct*. An epithet of extenſion made with a view to reduce a broken limb.

EUZOMON. The herb rocket.

EVACUATIO. To evacuate. See EXCRETA and RETENTA.

Evacuating medicines produce their effects by general principles, which capacitates them for other effects, according to the ſkill of the adminiſtrator, and not by a particular power of ſelecting bad humours from the good. The good and the bad are mixed in the body, and are evacuated in the ſame proportions.

EVACUATORII. Diſeaſes attended with increaſed diſcharges.

EVAPORATIO. Evaporation. It is a diſſipation of the finer parts of any fluid by means of the ſun or fire. Chemical *evaporation* is always carried on by heat, yet cold and winds cauſe water to evaporate. The hardeſt ice is not exempt from *evaporation*.

In pharmacy ſolid bodies are recovered from their ſtate of ſolution by *evaporation* with heat. This proceſs is applicable to all thoſe ſubſtances which are leſs volatile than the menſtruum, or which will not exhale by the heat requiſite for the *evaporation* of the fluid, as ſolutions of alkaline ſalts, and the inodorous parts of vegetables and animals from water, and reſinous and odorous bodies in ſpirit of wine, as the tincture of mint made with ſpirit of wine, which, when ſeparated from the ſpirit by *evaporation*, leaves a reſin rich with the properties of the herb. See Dict. of Chem.

EVERRICULUM, In Paré it is a ſort of ſpoon uſed to clear the bladder from gravel, &c. after lithotomy.

EVERSIO, i. e. Eſtropium.

EVISTIOLA. In Paracelſus it ſeems to import a leprous diſorder in the nape of the neck.

EXACERBANTES. Remitting fevers.

EXACERBATIO, i. e. Paroxyſmus.

EXAERESIS, from, εξ, *out of*, or *away*, and αιρω, *to remove*. It is that part of ſurgery, which conſiſts of removing ſuperfluities.

EXALMA, from εξαλλομαι, *to leap out*. Hippocrates applies it to the ſtarting of the vertebræ out of their places.

EXALTATIO. Exaltation. In chemiſtry, it ſignifies an operation by which a ſubſtance is raiſed to a greater degree of virtue. Of *exaltation* there are two kinds: firſt, maturation, which is affected by digeſtion, fermentation, and projection. Secondly, gradation. *Exaltation* is alſo defined a micro-chronic ſubtilization, by which a thing by a gradual diſſolution is tranſpoſed into a pure and more exalted degree of its virtue, and this is effected by circulation and ablution. Rulandus.

EXAMBLOMA, or examblosis. A miſcarriage.

EXANASTOMOSIS, i. e. Anaſtomoſis.

EXANG. The abbreviation of Exanguibus.

EXANIA. The ſame as procidentia; alſo in particular, the bearing down of the anus.

EXANIMATIO. Death, or a ſyncope.

EXANTHEMATA, from εξανθεω, to ſpring forth like a flower. Puſtules or eruptions. Eruptive fevers; any kind of eruptions that elevate the ſkin.

EXAN-

EXANTHROPIA. According to Wedelius, it is the third degree of melancholy.

EXANTHEMATA SEROSA. That ſpecies of veſicular fever, called the greater.

EXARMA, from ἐξαίρομαι, *to be elevated.* An elevated tumor.

EXARSIO, a hot intemperature, ſuch as happens in hectic fevers.

EXARTHREMA, from ἐξ, *out of*, and ἄρθρον, *a joint.* A luxation.

EXARTHROS. An epithet for a perſon whoſe joints are large and prominent.

EXASPERATIO. Exaſperation. Beſides its ſignifying the increaſe of a diſorder, it is alſo a rendering the ſkin rough.

EXCATHISMA. A Semicupium.

EXCESTRENSE (OL.) Exeter oil. This is one of the farragos which now never appears but by its ſubſtitutes, one of the beſt of which is a mixture of linſeed oil, two pints, and the green oil of camomile, half a pint.

EXCIPIENS. In preſcriptions, that is called the excipient which receives the other ingredients, and gives them a proper form; as officinal electuaries, conſerves, robs, &c.

EXCIPULUM. In chemiſtry it is a receiver.

EXCLUSORIUM. A medicine which cauſes abortion.

EXCORIATIS, i. e. Excoriatura.

EXCORIATURA. Excoriature, or abraſion of the ſkin.

EXCREMENTUM. An excrement. It is whatever requires to be diſcharged out of the body, from *excerno, to divide, part, or ſeparate.*

EXCRESENTIA, from *ex* and *creſco, an excreſcence.* It is any thing which grows preternaturally upon any part of the body.

EXCRETA & RETENTA. The things caſt out of the body, and thoſe that are retained. The natural *excretions* do not ſo directly imply and abſolutely regard life, as they indirectly regard health, and the exerciſe of all the functions of life. The artificial evacuations from the circulating fluids are of blood, ſerum, and lymph; and theſe are made according as the plethora is of the ſanguine or ſerous kind: by bleeding, the red blood and the vital heat are diminiſhed; by purges, vomits, diuretics, &c. the ſerous diſcharges are made; and by perſpiration the lymph is evacuated.

The ſecretions are beſt performed in a regular ſtate of health; hence in diſeaſes, all turbulent ſymptoms ſhould be allayed with the greateſt ſpeed. And as the degree of heat in the conſtitution is that on which regular ſecretions chiefly depend, its exceſs or diminution demands our firſt attention, that its ſtate may be reduced as near as may be to the ſtandard of health.

EXCUTIA VENTRICULI. A bruſh made of ſoft briſtles, fixed in a flexible braſs wire, with ſilk or flaxen thread wrapped round it. When it is uſed the patient drinks a quantity of warm water; then the excutia being dipped in ſome proper liquor, is paſſed down into the ſtomach, where it is moved about, the better to waſh the ſtomach.

EXECHEBRONCHOS. An epithet for a perſon who hath a prominent throat.

EXECHEGLUTOS. One who hath prominent buttocks.

EXELCOSIS, from ἕλκος, *an ulcer.* An exulceration.

EXERAMA. The matter ejected by vomiting.

EXERCITATIO. Exerciſe. The exerciſe of the body for the benefit of health is called gymnaſtic. The military exerciſes, gardening, huſbandry, or other employ in the open air, very much conduce to health. To exerciſe moderately in the open air an hour or two before breakfaſt, improves the appetite, and conduces much to cheer the ſpirits: and as to glandular obſtructions, they are both beſt prevented and cured by moderate exerciſe.

On the other hand, when exerciſe is too freely uſed, it occaſions loſs of appetite, loathing of food, heat in the bowels, coſtiveneſs, rigors, and fainting. In this caſe, a moderate uſe of wine, warm bathing, quiet ſleep, and a moiſt nouriſhing diet, afford the moſt proper relief. See Fordyce's Elements, part the firſt.

EXERRHEUSIS, Exerrhoſis, exerrhyeſis. Theſe words have the ſame ſignifications as ECROE.

EXFOLIATIO. Exfoliation. One principle cauſe of an *exfoliation* of a bone is, an interruption of the continuity of the veſſels which nouriſh it. The coldneſs of the air by contracting and drying up the extremities of the ſmall veſſels of the bone, alſo puts a ſtop to the circulation of the nouriſhing matter through them. Mr. John Hunter obſerves, that "one part of a bone is never ſeparated from another by the rotting of the dead part, for that which comes away is as ſound as it ever was. *Exfoliation* takes place ſooneſt in bones wherein are the feweſt cells, and whoſe texture is the cloſeſt. Before any part of a bone can be thrown off by *exfoliation* it muſt be dead. But even then, till the proceſs of *exfoliation* begins, the bone adheres as ſtrongly as ever, and would remain for years before it could be ſeparated by putrefaction alone. Bones are compoſed of two ſubſtances, viz. a true animal matter, and an earthy one, which are only intermixed with each other. A dead bone acts on the ſyſtem in the ſame manner as any other extraneous body. It ſtimulates the adjacent living parts; in conſequence of which, ſuch a proceſs is begun that muſt terminate in its being thrown off. The effects of this ſtimulus, are, firſt, that the living adjacent bone becomes more vaſcular; a circumſtance which always takes place when a part hath more to do than is juſt ſufficient for the ſupport of life. Secondly, that the earth of the living part, where it is in contact with the dead bone, is abſorbed; hence the bone becomes ſofter, and adheres by its animal matter only. Thirdly, that the living animal part is at laſt abſorbed along the ſurfaces of contact: this part of the proceſs commences long before the laſt is finiſhed. Both of them begin firſt at the ſurface, though in their courſe they do not every where take place in an equal degree at the ſame time. Fourthly, in proportion to the waſte made by the laſt part of the proceſs a fungus ariſes from the living ſurface, and fills up the intermediate ſpace, ſo that there may be no vacuum. Theſe different ſtages taken together, conſtitute ulceration. When any part of a bone is once looſe, it will be puſhed to the ſurface in the ſame manner as moſt other inanimate bodies would be, and this ſtage is partly mechanical, partly a continuation of ulceration. A proof of the third ſtage abovementioned, may be derived from thoſe caſes where people die while *exfoliation* is going on. A ſmall groove or worm-eaten canal can then be diſcovered, which becomes gradually deeper, and follows the irregularities of the living and dead ſurfaces. After the application of the trepan, a circular piece of bone is frequently thrown off, which is always leſs than the ſpace from whence it came. This however, would never be the caſe, were there not a loſs of ſubſtance."

When a bone is laid bare by any accident, and an exfoliation is feared, if ſeveral perforations are made in the bone, the *exfoliation* will be prevented; in ſuch caſes, the wound ſhould be kept clean, and defended from unctuous and watery medicaments; pledgets of lint are as proper applications as any; or they may be dipped in a mixture of the ol. tereb. and tinct. myrrh. As to cauſtics, Mr. Hunter ſays, that "cauſtics, or the actual cautery, do neither of them haſten *exfoliation*; they produce death only in part of the bone, which is the firſt ſtep towards *exfoliation.* If cauſtics ever haſten *exfoliation*, where the bone is already dead, it muſt be by producing inflammation in the adjacent living bone; this brings about a change in it, and makes it exert a power which it was incapable of before."

EXFOLIATIVUM. A raſpatory.

EXIPOTICOS, from ἐξιπτόμαι, *to preſs out* or *filtre.* An epithet for digeſting, or deterging medicines. Galen ſays, they are the ſame as drawers.

EXITURA. A ſuppurated abſceſs. But Paracelſus applies it to all ſorts of putrid excrements.

EXITUS ANI, i. e. Procedentia ani.

EXMIRALDUS. It is a ſtone of value which Raymond Lully mentions, but his deſcription of it is unintelligible.

EXOCHAS, or Exoche. A tubercle on the outſide of the anus, from ἐξω, *without*, and ἔχω, *to have.*

EXOCYSTE, i. e. Exocyſtis.

EXOCYSTIS. A prolapous of the inner membrane of the bladder.

EXOMPHALOS, from ἐξ, *out*, and ὀμφαλος, *a navel*. Any protuberance of the navel, but particularly the hernia umbilicalis; alſo a dropſy of the navel.

EXONCHOMA, from ἐξ, *out*, and ὀγκος, *a tumor*. Any large, prominent tumor.

EXONEIROSIS, from ἐξ, *out*, and ὀνειρος, *ſleep*. A nocturnal pollution. It is when in ſleep the ſemen is ejected. This, if rare, may be from redundant vigour; if frequent, it proceeds from weakneſs of the ſeminal veſſels. This latter cauſe is the moſt frequent.

EXOPHTHALMIA, from ἐξ, *out*, and ὀφθαλμος, *the eye*. A protuberance of the whole eye out of its orbit; or at leaſt a protuberance of the eye, ſomewhat beyond its bounds.

EXORESCENTIA. Exacerbation.

EXOS. A leech. Alſo a fiſh from which iſinglaſs is obtained.

EXOSTOSIS, from ἐξ, *of*, or *out*, and ὀστεον, *a bone*. It is a preternatural excreſcence of a bone, or a tumor on a bone. Mr. Pott calls it an enlargement of the bone. Its hardneſs equals, or rather exceeds that of the bone from which it proceeds. Monſ. Petit calls the ſpina ventoſa by the name of *exoſtoſis*, but the two diſorders are very different.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order tumores.

The *exoſtoſis* ſeems to be cauſed by the diſcharge of a ſuperfluous quantity of oſſific matter upon the part where it is ſeated, or from a ſeparation of the bony lamellæ. The cauſe of the firſt is not known, but the other may be the effect of irritation, which will cauſe a ſwelling of the bone, and this irritation may be diſeaſed or not; if diſeaſed, the part muſt be amputated; if not, which is not unfrequently the caſe, the patient may live to an old age, without any conſiderable inconvenience.

This diſorder ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from venereal nodes, from the rickets, from tophs, and from the ſpina ventoſa.

The diſeaſed irritation may be known by its violent and frequent pain.

In order to cure, as ſoon as the nature of the cauſe is underſtood, and encouragement to hope for ſucceſs is manifeſt, make an inciſion, and lay the bone bare, then with a chiſſel take the diſeaſed part away. This will ſucceed if the habit is not much vitiated; but if the conſtitution is alſo faulty, and the *exoſtoſis* proceeds from the exuberance of bony matter, amputation is the only method of relief, though generally in this caſe, the whole is beſt left to nature.

Sometimes a preternatural hardneſs of the ligament is called an *exoſtoſis*; this ſpurious ſort, as well as the venereal nodes, are relieved by mercurials.

Exoſtoſes happening in the middle of hard bones are generally hard in all their parts, but thoſe near the ends of them, or about the joints, have often only an hard external lamina. When this diſorder happens on the bones of the ſkull, the conſequence may be an apoplexy, epilepſy, or a palſy. See Petit's Diſeaſes of the Bones, part ii. ch. xvi.

EXOTICUS. Exotic, from ἐξω, *without*. Any thing brought from foreign countries.

EXPECTORANTIA. Expectorants. They are medicines which promote a diſcharge from the lungs, or from the aſpera arteria. Some *expectorants* operate by rendering the matter fit for a diſcharge; others ſtimulate to an excretion; and ſome open the emunctories in order to the ſame end. Hence when thin ſharp humours are to be excreted, and the ducts through which they are to paſs are to be conſtringed, give ſuch medicines as obtund and incraſſate; of this kind are the ſucc. glych. croc. angl. ſp. cæti. Althæa, ſyr. e Mecon. pil. ſtyrac. If thick viſcid matter is to be diſcharged, and a ſtimulus is required to aſſiſt its evacuation, give infuſions of hyſſop, orris root, or of elecampane; the ſal diureticus, gum ammon. gum. benz. gum. myrrh, or flor. ſulphuris, will be proper. When a ſtronger ſtimulus is required, the ox. ſcillit. or ſmall doſes of antimonial preparations, will be neceſſary. See Hoffmann's Med. Rat. Syſt. See ANACATHARTICS.

In ſome inſtances when *expectorants* are required, their efficacy is checked by the uſe of the bark, iron, &c. but if theſe medicines are mixed with the expectorating ones, thoſe inconveniencies are not obſerved.

EXPECTORATIO, Expectoration, from *ex*, and *pectus*, or from *expectoro*, *to throw out of the veſſels*. See EXPECTORANTIA and ANACATHARSIS.

EXPLORATIO. Exploration. In ſurgery it is the probing a wound or ulcer.

EXPLOSIO. Exploſion. In chemiſtry it is called detonation, or fulmination.

EXPRESSIO. Expreſſion. It is a mechanical operation, by which the juices of many plants are obtained, and ſweet oils, which are not volatile, may be extracted from many ſubſtances, in which they reſide ſuperabundantly, and uncombined. Such are all emulſive ſeeds, and ſome fruits, as oranges, lemons, olives, &c.

This operation is effected by firſt bruiſing the ſubſtance to be compreſſed, and then forcibly ſqueezing it in a preſs. The more ſucculent bodies may be bruiſed and wrapped in a linen cloth, before they are committed to the preſs; but more viſcous ſubjects require that a little water be added to them before they undergo this operation.

When ſeeds, from which an oil is to be obtained, are ſubjected to this management, the cheeks of the preſs ſhould be heated, in order to a more copious diſcharge of the oil.

EXSICCATIO. Drying. This pharmaceutic operation is effected by exhaling the moiſture from the body to be dried over a gentle fire, or by abſorbing it, as when ſuch ſubjects are laid on chalk ſtones for this end.

When heat is employed, the operation is by coction, inſolation, or by torrefaction; the firſt relates to fluids, the ſecond to fluids and ſolids, and the third to ſolids only. Decantation and filtration, ſubſerve the proceſs of *exſiccation*.

EXSUCCATIO. An ecchymoſis.

EXSTASIS, ἐκστασις. Dict. ἀπο τῦ ἐξιστασθαι, *a trance*; as if a perſon was out of himſelf; a ſwooning. A ſpecies of catalepſis. It is when a perſon remembers perfectly, after the paroxyſm is over, the ideas which he conceived during the time it laſted. See ECSTASIS.

EXTENSOR. An extender. This name is given to ſeveral muſcles.

EXTENSOR CARPI RADIALIS. This muſcle takes its origin from the riſing line of the os humeri, that runs towards the outer condyle, and from the ſame condyle it runs cloſe to the radius, and paſſing through a groove, where it is bound down, it divides into two tendons, where the muſcle is called by ſome bicornis. One of theſe tendons is inſerted into the baſis of the firſt, and the other into the ſecond metacarpal bone. Some call this muſcle by the name of radiæus externus; others by that of extenſor carpi exterior, & geminus. Winſlow calls it ulnaris externus.

EXTENSOR CARPI ULNARIS. Some call it extenſor carpi interior. It riſes from the outer condyle of the os humeri, and then receives an origin from the edge of the ulna; its tendon paſſes in a groove behind the ſtyloid proceſs of the ulna; it paſſes and is inſerted into the inſide of the baſis of the metacarpal bone of the little finger.

N. B. The extenders, whether belonging to the fingers or carpus, ariſe from the outward extuberance of the os humeri; and their antagoniſts, the flexors, from the internal protruberance of the ſame bone, as alſo from the upper and external part of the ulna next to the anconæus.

EXTENSOR DIGITORUM COMMUNIS. It is alſo called digitorum tenſor. It partly riſes from the outer condyle of the os humeri, and partly from the outer edge of the ulna; it paſſes behind the lower extremity of the radius, where there is a groove for its lodgement, and forms four tendons; that for the little finger paſſes different from the others: the three laſt communicate, and are inſerted into the ſecond bone, and partly into the laſt of the reſpective fingers, that is the third, middle, and fore-fingers.

EXTENSOR DIGITORUM LONGUS. Dr. Hunter calls this extenſor longus digitorum pedis. It riſes from the upper part of the tibia and fibula, and the inter-

oſſeous ligament; its tendon paſſes under the annular ligament, and then divides into five, four of which are inſerted into the ſecond and third phalanges of the toes, and the fifth goes to the baſis of the metatarſal bone. This laſt Winſlow reckons a diſtinct muſcle, and calls it peroneus brevis.

EXTENSOR DIGITORUM BREVIS. It is alſo called pedicus. It riſes from the anterior part of the os calcis, runs acroſs the inſtep, and divides commonly into four tendons, but ſometimes only into three, which are inſerted into the three toes next to the greater one, or into all the four.

EXTENSOR INDICIS. It is alſo called indicator, and extenſor indicis proprius. It riſes with the extenſor digitorum communis, lies between the ulna and radius, runs cloſe to the interoſſeous ligament, paſſes over the back of the hand, and is inſerted into the poſterior part of the index.

EXTENSOR MINIMI DIGITI. It is alſo called auricularis. It riſes partly tendinous at the extremity of the external apophyſis of the os humeri, and partly fleſhy from the ſuperior part of the ulna, and becomes tendinous as it paſſes under the annular ligament at the carpus; it is there divided into two, and ſometimes into three tendons, which are united into one at its inſertion into the ſuperior part of the third bone of the little finger.

EXTENSOR PRIMI INTERNODII POLLICIS. It riſes high up from the radius, ulna, and interoſſeous ligament; it wheels round the radius, runs acroſs the carpus, and is inſerted into the trapezium, and the firſt bone of the thumb.

EXTENSOR SECUNDI INTERNODII POLLICIS. It riſes from the radius, and the interoſſeous ligament, deſcribes the ſame courſe as the preceding, and is inſerted into the ſecond bone of the thumb.

EXTENSOR TERTII INTERNODII POLLICIS. It riſes from the back part of the ulna, near the middle, and from the interoſſeous ligament; then goes obliquely croſs the carpus to the third bone of the thumb. When it acts, it not only extends, but alſo brings the thumb backward, ſo that ſome people can bring the end of the thumb to the wriſt.

EXTENSOR POLLICIS LONGUS. It riſes from the middle and fore-part of the fibula, and the interoſſeous ligament, and paſſes over the inſtep to be inſerted into the laſt bone of the great toe.

EXTENSOR POLLICIS BREVIS. It is only a ſlip from the extenſors of the toes, and is inſerted into the firſt bone.

EXTENSOR LONGUS. It riſes from the inferior coſta of the ſcapula, and the

EXTENSOR BREVIS, riſes from the outer ſpine of the humerus, then they make one tendon with the brachiæus internus.

EXTENUATIO. Leanneſs. Proſper Alpinus obſerves, in his Preſages of Life and Death, that, if after being extenuated by a diſeaſe, the diſeaſe is removed, but the body continues lean, the nutriment being duly received, it denotes a relapſe. Again, leanneſs from a ſpitting of blood, attended with a flow fever, portends death. And, laſtly, that it is a bad ſign in an ardent fever for the body not to become ſpeedily lean, or to waſte immoderately; the firſt prognoſticates a tedious diſeaſe, the latter death.

EXTERNUS, VEL SUPERIOR MUSCULUS MALLEUS, i. e. Tenſor membrana tympani.

EXTERNUS TYMPANI AURIS, i. e. Laxator externus.

EXTINCTIO. See COMMINUTIO.

EXTIRPATIO. Amputation.

EXTRACTIO. Extraction. The liquors which diſſolve bodies in their pure ſtate, extract them from impurities or other admixture, and take up all their virtues. Extraction is performed by macerating the ſubject in its appropriated menſtruum in the cold; or digeſting or circulating it in a moderate warmth; or infuſing it in boiling liquor, and ſuffering them to ſtand until they are cold; or by actually boiling them for ſome time. Heat greatly expedites extraction; but it is injurious to ſome ſubſtances, by occaſioning the menſtruum to take up their groſſer and more ungrateful parts; yet others again impart but little, to a heat that is not equal to that of boiling water. As heat promotes, ſo cold prevents extraction. Tinctures made by heat depoſit much of their contents in cold weather.

Vegetable juices obtained by expreſſion, or watery, or ſpirituous decoctions, or infuſions, when expoſed to a continued heat, the fluid gradually exhales, carries off the more volatile parts, and leaves the more fixed in one maſs; which, if from a vegetable juice obtained by expreſſion, is called an inſpiſſated juice; if from a watery decoction or infuſion, it is called an extract; if from a ſpirituous tincture, it is called a reſin or eſſential extract: the term extract is frequently uſed as a general appellation of all the three kinds.

Inſpiſſated juices, when evaporated no farther than to the conſiſtence of honey or oil, are called rob or ſapa. Spirituous tinctures reduced to a like conſiſtence are called balſam. See the New Diſpenſatory, and the Dict. of Chem.

EXTRACTIO. Extraction. In ſurgery, it is the drawing from, or out of the body, any thing that is offenſive.

EXTRACTUM. An extract. In pharmacy it is a ſolution of the purer parts of a mixt body inſpiſſated by evaporation nearly to the conſiſtence of ſtiff honey. See EXTRACTIO.

EXTRACTUM EUSTACHIANUM, i. e. Extractum Rudii.

EXTRACTUM RUDII, i. e. Pillulæ Rudii.

EXTRACTUM SATURNINUM DI. GOULARD. See PLUMBUM.

EXTRAVASATIO. Extravaſation, from *extra* and *vaſa*, *out of the veſſel*. This is applied to any of the fluids in the body which are out of their proper veſſels: thus an ecchymoſis, fugillation, or aneuriſm, may be called *extravaſations*.

An *extravaſation* on the brain produces one or more of the following ſymptoms, viz. a palſy of one leg or arm, or both; dizzineſs; ſleepineſs; impaired ſight; ravings; bleeding at the noſe or ears; vomiting; loſs of ſenſe; ſtupor, &c.

An *extravaſation* on the brain ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from a concuſſion thereof; in the firſt the ſymptoms are often better and worſe; in the latter they are continually the ſame.

Wounds on the head with *extravaſations* are very fallacious, becauſe the *extravaſation* may be between the ſkull and the dura mater, or under it, both at the ſame time, or under the pia mater, or in ſeveral other parts of the brain; but when theſe happen, bad ſymptoms are directly produced.

Whenever the dura mater, either by depreſſion, fiſſure, or fracture, loſes its adheſion, there will be from its blood veſſels that are broken an *extravaſation* between the bone and it. An *extravaſation* is leſs conſiderable when a fracture of the ſkull happens than when there is a fiſſure. An *extravaſation* is alſo more or leſs dangerous, according to what part of the brain the accident happens on. *Extravaſations* from a blow are moſt commonly found under the ſkull, that is, between it and the dura mater; in this caſe a lethargy or other ſymptom will continue, until the *extravaſation* is removed.

Fallopius, Chalmet, Albucaſis, and ſome others, think that though ſome *extravaſated* blood ſhould putrify in the belly, it cannot do the inteſtines or other viſcera any hurt, but will ſubſide to the groin, and there form an abſceſs; or that more likely it will be abſorbed and diſcharged by ſtool, before it putrifies at all.

Mr. Bromfield recommends the uſe of opiates in fractures and concuſſions of the brains (ſee CONCUSSIO); the ſame practice may be alſo uſeful in ſome degrees of *extravaſation*; but beſides this he obſerves, that when violent accidents have happened to the head, an iſſue in the opening formed by the ſeparation of the additamentum of the temporal bone is of ſingular advantage. See the firſt vol. of his Chirurgical Obſervations.

EXTRAVERSIO. Extraverſion. In chemiſtry it is the rendering manifeſt any thing ſaline, alcaline, or acid, concealed in mixed bodies, and is juſt the reverſe to one ſpecies of concentration.

EXTRINSECI. The external parts, particularly the limbs. Alſo painful diſorders of the external parts.

EXTUBERANTIA. Tumors that are ſeated under the ſkin, but not elevate it.

EXUBERES. Children which are weaned are thus called.

EXULCERATIO. The ſame as ulcer; but generally uſed to expreſs thoſe beginning eroſions, which wear away the ſubſtance, and form an ulcer; or when an excoriation begins to ſuppurate.

EXUMBILICATIO. A protuberance of the navel.

EXUNGULATIO. Exungulation. The cutting off the ungues, or white part of the petals of roſes.

EXUVIÆ. The ſloughs or ſkins of ſerpents that are caſt in ſpring. See SENECTA ANGUIUM.

EZQUAHDUITL. The dragon's blood tree.

EZULA. See ESULA.

F.

FABA. The bean. This plant hath a long unicapſular pod, full of kidney ſhaped ſeeds; the ſtalks are firm; the leaves grow in pairs, and are as it were conjugated to a rib which ends in a point.

Faba was called by the Faliſci, a people of Hetruria, haba; whence probably comes the word *faba*. Martinus derives the word from *wau, to feed*, as if it were paba. The word *bean* ſeems to be from the Italian word baiana.

FABA MAJOR, called alſo phaſeolus major, faba cyamus leguminoſa, Turkey beans, and garden beans.

They are a ſtrong flatulent kind of food, nutritious, but not eaſily digeſted, eſpecially when old. The flowers afford an agreeable fragrance, which they impart to water by diſtillation. The freſh leaves beat up into a poultice with cream, are cooling and repellent. The antients call the flour of *beans* faba freſa, and lomentum fabæ, becauſe it is prepared without the ſkin, in which lies the aſtringency, falſely, though generally attributed to the flour. Raii Hiſt.

FABA MINOR, alſo called equina, and horſe beans. Theſe differ no other way from the garden ſpecies than in being leſs.

FABA ÆGYPTIA, called alſo cyamus Ægyptiaca, nymphæa Indica, nymphæa glandifera, nymphæa Madaraſpatana, bem tamara, nelumbo, lien Sinarium, colocaſia. The Pontic bean, or Ægyptian bean. It grows on marſhy grounds in Egypt, and ſome of its neighbouring countries. Some call it ciborium and cibotium, from the manner of planting it, which is firſt to lodge it on a moiſt clod, which is afterwards immerſed in water. When the flower falls a ſmall pod appears, in which the *bean* is lodged. It is eaten either raw or boiled, and is of an aſtringent quality; it alſo ſtrengthens the ſtomach. See Dale.

FABA SANCTA IGNATII. See NUX VOMICA.

FABA BENGALENSIS. See MYROBALANI.

FABA CRASSO, i. e. Craſſula.

FABA FEBRIFUGA. See NUX VOMICA.

FABA GRÆCA LATIFOLIA, i. e. Guajacana.

FABA INDICA. See NUX VOMICA.

FABA INVERSA, i. e. Craſſula.

FABA PURGATRIX. The Barbadoes nut. See CATAPUTIA.

FABAGO, alſo called leguminoſa, capparis portulacæ, fabaginea, peplios Lutetianorum, telephium, and capparis fabago. It is a bitter plant, which the Syrians uſe for killing worms.

FABARIA. Orpine.

FABASUILLA. Common black henbane.

FABRILIS NIGRICA. Black-lead.

FABRORUM AQUA. Water in which hot iron is quenched.

FACIES. The face. It comprehends the forehead, eye-brows, eye-lids, eyes, noſe, mouth, chin, cheeks, and ears. Its bones are thoſe of the upper and lower jaws.

FACIES HIPPOCRATICA. The Hippocratic face. It is when the noſe is ſharp, the eyes hollow, the temples ſunk, the ears cold and contracted, and their lobes inverted; the ſkin about the forehead is hard, tenſe and dry; the countenance is pale, greeniſh, or blackiſh. Some call this the cadaverous *face*. If it appears within three days after the onſet of an acute diſeaſe, it indicates death.

FACULTAS. A faculty. It is the power of performing any action. The animal *faculty*, is an action whereby a man exerciſes ſenſe, motion, and the principal functions of the mind, which are three; imagination, reaſoning, and memory.

FÆCULA. It is a medicine which conſiſts of the feces of vegetable juices.

FÆCULA BRYONIÆ. The fecula of bryony. Take of the roots of white *bryony*, any quantity; ſcrape them and ſqueeze out their juice; which, after ſtanding a while, depoſits a ſediment, from which the thinner part may be ſeparated by decantation, and the reſt dried for uſe.

FÆX. It is properly the ſediment of lees or grounds of any fermented liquor; but in medicine it is generally underſtood of wine. It is the ſame as fæces. The alvine excretions are thus called.

FAGARA MAJOR, alſo called coyutana Luzonis. It is a plant which is found in the Philippine iſlands. The berries are uſed, and eſpecially the outer rind: it is aromatic.

FAGONIA. A plant ſo called in honour of Dr. Fagon of Paris. Miller takes notice of two ſpecies; but they have no medical virtues attributed to them.

FAGOPYRUM, called alſo fegopyron, frumentum Saracenicum, eryſimum Theophraſti, fagotriticum, tragopyron, brank, buck wheat. It is ſaid to be originally from Africa. It thrives every where; it delights in a wet ſoil; it is ſown in fields, flowers in July, is leſs nutritive than barley or rye, but more ſo than millet or panic. Raii Hiſt.

FAGUS, called alſo oxya or oxyas. The beech-tree. Its leaves reſemble thoſe of the horn-beam: the fruit is produced at a remote diſtance from the flower, but on the ſame tree, and is a callous ſubſtance, acuminated, and incloſing two triangular ſeeds or nuts. It grows in woods and in hedges. The maſt, (i. e. fruit) is in uſe; it agrees in its properties with thoſe of the cheſnut. The oil expreſſed from *beech* nuts is extolled as a deſtroyer of worms: a child may take two drams of it every night and morning; an adult may take an ounce. The poor people in Sileſia uſe this oil inſtead of butter. Raii Hiſt.

FAIRBURN WATER. Fairburn is in the county of Roſs. The *water* is of the ſulphureous kind. See Dr. Monro's Account of it in the Philoſ. Tranſ. vol. lxii.

FAL-

FALCATA SILIQUA CORNUTA. See MEDICA.

FALCIFORMIS PROCESSUS. The duramatral proceſs called alſo the falx. See DURA MATER.

FALDELLA. Contorted lint uſed for compreſſes.

FALLOPII LIGAMENTUM, alſo called ligamentum Poupartii.

It is only the lower border of the tendon of the external oblique muſcle of the belly, ſtretched from the fore part of the os ilium to the pubis.

FALX, i. e. Falciformis proceſſus.

FAMES. Hunger. When the ſtomach is empty, or when we faſt longer than ordinary, it is common to ſay that the ſtomach pinches us. As the liver is not then ſuſtained by the ſtomach and inteſtines, it deſcends by its own weight, and principally by means of its middle ligament, pulls the diaphragm along with it: it is in that place therefore that we have this uneaſy ſenſation, and not at the ſuperior orifice of the ſtomach, as is generally thought. See Haller's Phyſiology.

When animals die for want of food, their death is not directly the conſequence of hunger, but a putrid fever, which is excited by the blood's loſing its bland gelatinous conſiſtence, for want of the uſual neceſſary ſupplies.

FAMIGERATISSIMUM [EMPL.] A plaſter uſed in intermittent fevers made of aromatic irritating ſubſtances, and applied to the wriſts.

FAR. Aetius ſays that it is any kind of frumentaceous grain, decorticated, cleanſed from the huſks, and afterwards bruiſed and dried.

FARCIMINALIS, i. e. Allantois.

FARCTURA. In pharmacy it is the ſtuffing of any exenterated animal, or excavated fruit with medicinal ingredients.

FARFARA, or Farfarella. A name of the herb colt's foot.

FARFARUS. White poplar.

FARINA. Meal or flour. The meal of rye, if mixed with common ſalt, and dried before the fire, then applied to an eryſipelas, is an excellent diſcutient: mixed with honey it becomes a ſuppurative cataplaſm.

FARINA FŒCUNDANS. Impregnating duſt. It is placed on the apices of flowers, and falls from thence upon the head of the piſtil or female part of the flower, and is thence conveyed to the matrix, in order to impregnate the ſeed.

FARINACEA. See PANIS.

FARINARIUM. See ALICA.

FARINHA FRESCA. A Portugueſe name for a fine flour of the caſſada.

FARINHA RELADA. A Portugueſe name for the undried dreſſed meal of the caſſada.

FARINIFERA. See SAGO.

FARNESIANUS FLOS. Potatoes

FARRAGO. A ſpecies of baſtard ſponge.

FARREA NUBES. See FURFUROSI.

FASCIA. A bandage, fillet, or roller; or the doctrine of bandages. Æſculapius is ſaid to be their firſt inventor. The chief uſes of *bandages* are, to maintain the due ſituation of dreſſings, or to make a proper compreſs on a particular part. Ideas of *bandages* are difficultly conveyed otherwiſe than by the actual application of them. Much hath been ſaid by various authors on this ſubject, but a moderate ſhare of practice, and of ſagacity, will beſt ſupply proper hints as each caſe requiring them occurs to the practitioner. However, under the reſpective names of each ſort of *bandage*, a deſcription of it is attempted in the courſe of this work. On this ſubject Heiſter's Surgery, James's Med. Dict. Verduc, and Le Clerk, may be conſulted.

The Sling.

The French call it eſcarpe. This name is given to ſeveral ſorts of *bandages*.

The Sling with Four Heads.

Its length ſhould be four feet (more or leſs according to the ſize of the head) its breadth that of ſix or eight fingers. Its uſe is to retain the dreſſings on a wounded head. It muſt be ſlit in the middle, from each end, ſo as to leave about two hands breadth undivided in the middle, and the four ends muſt be rolled up to where the diviſion ends. Apply the middle of the undivided part upon the dreſſings; then tying the two poſterior heads forward, and having ſecured their ends, the two anterior ends muſt be carried backward, and ſecured behind the head.

The Sling with Six Heads.

Its length is about three feet, its breadth about twelve or fourteen inches. Divide it from each end up to within a hand's breadth of the middle into three parts. Apply the middle undivided part to the vertex, then tie the two anterior tails behind the head, the two middle under the chin, and the two poſterior upon the forehead.

The Sling for the Noſe.

It hath four heads, and is eight feet long, and two or three inches broad; in the middle it is left entire, but from thence, each way, it is ſlit to the ends. In the middle, where it is entire, an opening is made for the apex of the *noſe*, that the *bandage* may be firm. The middle is applied upon the noſe, the two upper heads to the neck, and then to the forehead; the lower ones behind the neck, but a little higher than the firſt, and then up to the forehead too.

The Sling for the Breaſts.

It is four feet long, and ſix inches broad, and ſlit like the ſling with four heads, about a foot in the middle being left entire. The middle is to be applied upon the dreſſings on the affected breaſt, then carry the two upper heads over the oppoſite ſhoulder, and the two lower under the arm of the affected ſide, towards the ſcapula of the other ſide, faſtening them there to the upper ends which are over the ſhoulder.

The Single Bridle.

It is a ſingle-headed roller, fourteen or ſixteen feet long, and two or three fingers broad, for ſecuring the jaw when fractured or luxated.

The Double Bridle.

It is the ſame as the ſingle, only rolled up with two heads, but the ſingle may always be uſed inſtead of it.

Bandages for the Lips.

Theſe are of a proper length and breadth, and formed as the ſling with four heads.

The Divided for the Neck.

This *bandage* for the neck is twenty-four feet long, two or three fingers breadth broad, and is rolled into two heads. Its middle is placed in the forehead, and thence paſſes round the head two or three times; then being pinned to ſecure it, the rollers are carried under each arm-pit, and brought back over the ſhoulders, and croſs the neck in the form of an X, then paſs on to the forehead, &c. until the whole is taken up.

The Uniting or Incarnating Bandage.

It is about eight feet long, and two inches broad; in the middle is a ſlit about the length of three or four fingers. It is rolled up from each end to the ſlit in the middle. It is uſed for keeping together the lips of large wounds on the head or face, or where elſe it can conveniently be applied. A narrow compreſs being laid on each ſide of the dreſſings which are on the wound, the ſlit part of this *bandage* is applied near the wound, ſo that one of the heads of the *bandage* being carried round the head (or elſewhere it is applied) may be paſſed through this ſlit, the *bandage* then being drawn ſo tight as to confine the lips of the wound in an eaſy contact, bring back the head which was paſſed through the ſlit, and then continue the application of both heads according to the direction they lie in, or as beſt ſuits the intention. Except extraordinary ſymptoms require, this *bandage* muſt not be removed during ſix or eight days.

The Retentive Bandage *for the Neck.*

Two diſtinct ones are uſually directed, but one circular roller anſwers every uſeful purpoſe.

The Bandage of Heliodorus, *or the* T Bandage.

The letter T, whence the name of this *bandage*, deſcribes its ſhape. The tail is ſometimes ſlit up to ſuch a

length as is required. It is generally uſed when a *bandage* is required to retain the dreſſing on the groins, pubes, or lower parts of the belly. One part of it is faſtened about the waiſt, the other part, which hangs down, is brought betwixt the thighs, up to the belly, and is faſtened to the part which is already ſecured.

The Napkin and Scapulary.

It is uſed when a *bandage* is required on the breaſt, or belly, or back. It conſiſts of a napkin pinned round the body, higher or lower, as is the ſituation of the diſorder which requires it; then, to prevent its falling, the ſcapulary is applied, which is a piece of linen, four or ſix inches broad, with a ſlit in the middle for the head to paſs through: its length ſufficient, when the head is paſſed through, and it reſts on the ſhoulders, for one end to be pinned to the napkin behind, and the other end to the napkin before. Some faſten the ſcapulary behind, and then ſlitting the other end far enough to bring each part over the ſhoulders to be faſtened before.

FASCIA. A part of the tendon. See APONEUROSIS.

FASCIA LATA. It is a large membranous, tendinous, or ligamentary covering. Winſlow deſcribes it as a muſcular ligament, which is fixed about the edge of the criſta of the os ilium from the large tuberoſity, to the anterior ſuperior ſpine, to the ligamentum Fallopii, and to the aponeuroſis of the oblique external muſcle of the belly. It is alſo fixed on the lateral inferior part of the os ſacrum, and to the neighbouring parts of the ligaments by which that bone is connected to the bones of the ilium and iſchium. From thence it advances over the glutæi and thigh, between the membrana adipoſa and muſcles, all the way to the interior and outer part of the knee. It is very thin on the patella, but is eaſily ſeparated from it. It is alſo continued over the external anterior part of the tibia, covering the muſcles which lie there, and is ſtrongly inſerted into the head of the tibia and of the fibula. It is ſtrongly inſerted into the linea aſpera femoris between the vaſtus externus and biceps, forming a ſort of ſeptum between theſe muſcles. See APONEUROSIS.

FASCIA LATA MUSCULUS. It riſes from the outſide of the ilium, runs downwards and outwards, and below the trochanter major joins with the tendon of the glutæus maximus, and runs down laterally to the leg. This muſcle ſtretches the faſcia lata above deſcribed, wherefore Albinus calls it tenſor faſciæ femoris.

FASCIA LUMBORUM. It is a ſtrong tendon, fixed to the lateral part of the os ſacrum, from the ſpines of the ſacrum, from the ſpine of the ileum, and the ſpines of the lumbar vertebræ.

FASCIALIS. See SARTORIUS.

FATUITAS. The ſame as MOROSIS. From *fatuus*, *inſipidus*; aliments that were inſipid the Latins called *fatui*, whence the ſameneſs in ſpeech of fooliſhneſs and unſavourineſs. In Cullen's Noſology, it is ſynonymous with Amentia.

FAUCES. The top of the throat; the ſpace about the openings into the larynx and pharynx, which can be ſeen when the mouth is open and the tongue depreſſed. Upon looking into a perſon's mouth, when wide opened, we ſee a ſoft curtain hanging from the palate bones, named velum pendulum palati; in the middle of which, we likewiſe obſerve a papilla projecting from the velum, named uvula, or pap of the throat. From each ſide of the uvula, at its root, two arches, or columns, are ſent down, the anterior to the root of the tongue, the poſterior to the pharynx. Between theſe arches, on each ſide, the cellular glands, called amygdalæ, or almonds of the ears, are ſituated. The common opening behind the anterior arch may be named *fauces*, from which there are ſix paſſages, viz. two upwards, being one to each noſtril; two at the ſides, or one to each ear, called the Euſtachian tubes; two downwards, the anterior is the paſſage through the glottis and larynx into the trachea, which terminates in the lungs; the poſterior is the largeſt, named pharynx, or the top of the œſophagus, which leads to the ſtomach. Innes on the Muſcles.

FAUFEL, i. e. Areca; alſo a name of terra Japonica.

FAVAGO AUSTRALIS. A ſpecies of baſtard ſponge.

FAVUS. See CERION.

FEBRIFUGA. Feverfew, alſo ſuch medicines as mitigate or remove fevers, from *febrem fugere, to drive away a fever*. The centaurium minus is thus called by ſome.

FEBRIFUGUM CRÆNII, i. e. Reg. antim. medicinal.

FEBRIFUGUM OLEUM. Febrifuge oil. When the flowers of antimony are made with ſal ammon. and antimony ſublimed together, if they are expoſed to the air, they run into a liquid thus called.

FEBRIFUGUS PULVIS. The Germans give this name to the pulv. ſtypt. Helv. In England a mixture of ocul. cancr. ʒſs. and tart. emet. gr. ii. hath obtained the ſame appellation; in fevers it is given in doſes of gr. iii to vi. with ſuch other things as preſent circumſtances require.

FEBRIFUGUS SAL, i. e. Sal marin. regenerat.

FEBRIFUGUS SPIRITUS DI. CLUTTON. Mr. Clutton's Febrifuge Spirit.

Take the oil of ſulphur, by the bell, and rightly prepared, rectified oil of vitriol, and ſpirit of ſalt, of each equal parts; and of rectified ſpirit of wine triple the quantity of the whole. Digeſt them together for a month, then diſtil to dryneſs.

As much of this ſpirit as renders pure water agreeably acid is given in every draught of common drink in ardent and inflammatory fevers, and in the nervous and putrid kinds it is adminiſtered in ſuch cordial and antiſeptic liquors as are proper in the reſpective caſes. See The certain Method of curing all continued Fevers, by Jo. Clutton.

FEBRIS, πυρέτος, from πῦρ, *ignis, fire*. A fever. A *fever* is when the natural heat of our bodies is converted into a fiery heat: or it is when the heat in the body is increaſed, the pulſe is quickened beyond its natural ſpeed, and ſome one or more of the functions are diſordered. It hath generally been ſaid that a *fever* is an effort of nature to remove or expel ſome morbific matter from the blood, and ſo to reſtore health, and this is ſaid to be proved by eruptive *fevers* abating when eruptions appear on the ſkin; but this does not appear to be the caſe, for the *fever* is no other than a ſymptom, which increaſes and protracts the diſeaſe; and an immediate extinction of the *fever*, if poſſible, is the ſureſt and moſt rational method of removing the diſorder by which it was cauſed. See SYNOCHA.

Various are the diviſions and ſubdiviſions of *fevers* which different writers have enumerated, but they may be included in thoſe of the ardent, nervous, and putrid: at leaſt every acute *fever* is beſt managed by the methods required in one or other of the juſt named three kinds.

In ardent *fevers* the red blood is redundant, and the heat of the body increaſed beyond the medium of health. In the nervous kind, the lymph is diſordered; and in the putrid ſort, there is ſuch a defect of the natural heat, as admits of a putrid quality taking place, and increaſing in the blood.

An acute *fever* is when the pathognomonic ſymptoms proceed with rapidity, and danger to the patient. When theſe ſymptoms proceed more ſlowly, and with leſs danger, the fever is ſaid to be chronical.

All *fevers* are ſymptomatical. And perhaps it is but the truth to aſſert, that all *fevers* are but every *fever* differently circumſtanced; or, that *fever* is one and the ſame diſorder; but appearing differently, according to the various circumſtances that it meets with in different conſtitutions.

A ſtimulus is the only immediate cauſe of *fevers*. Dr. Kirkland obſerves, in his Treatiſe on Child-bed *Fevers*, p. 53, "that all *fevers* are owing to inflammatory irritability, or nervous irritation." An acute inflammatory *fever* takes its riſe from the ſmall veſſels being inflamed and diſtended, ſo preſſing on the medullary part of the nerves, which are every where diffuſed. A *fever* from acrimony, is from the matter irritating the nerves, or their medullary part.

As to the diagnoſtics of *fevers*, they vary for the moſt part of them, in different patients, and in the ſame patient at different times; and a *fever* may manifeſtly exiſt, though many of the uſual attendants be not preſent. However, it is ſufficient to know that the pathognomonic ſigns of a *fever*, that is, thoſe ſigns that are preſent

in every *fever*, and without which, a *fever* cannot ſubſiſt, are heat and a diſordered pulſe: theſe attend every *fever*, every degree, and every ſtage of it; and from theſe marks alone, do we judge of the preſence or abſence of this diſorder.

As a preternatueal heat excited, is a principal conſtituent of a *fever*, ſo to this circumſtance may be attributed many of the ſymptoms which attend in its different ſtages. But it ſhould be adverted to, that the ſame degree of heat is not in the ſame degree immoderate in different perſons, for the natural temperament varies greatly in one from what it is in another; therefore that degree of heat is moderate, or its contrary, which is neareſt or fartheſt from the natural ſtate of the individual in that reſpect.

The only indication of cure is, to abate the heat. To anſwer this one indication, will require ſome circumſtantial differences in different caſes; but the pulſe and urine will always direct the judicious practitioner in thoſe particulars.

Every *fever* is a ſymptom of ſome diſeaſe, either manifeſt or latent; and as the ſecretions are diſturbed more as this ſymptom increaſes, the immediate ſuppreſſion of it will at once appear to be the neceſſary aim. Both the ſecretions and excretions are beſt performed in a regular ſtate of health; when then the *fever* is ſubdued, medicines adapted to the diſorder which produced it, are more at liberty to act, and nature is alſo better able to diſcharge what is morbid.

Contraries are the cure of contraries; and cold, the natural oppoſite to heat, is its certain antidote. Hippocrates, Galen, Celſus, Avicenna, and all the ancients, uſed the preſent cold method of relieving from *fevers*. They expoſed their patients to cold air; they gave them cold water to drink, and that not only to ſatiety, but alſo often to make them vomit.

Proper evacuations being made, if poſſible let the patient walk in the cool air; if he is incapable of this, let him be expoſed to it in his room; the windows may be opened, and the chamber ſprinkled frequently with water: if this ſuffice not, let him drink cold ſmall liquors in proportion to his thirſt, and put his hands and feet into veſſels of cold water, there to remain, at leaſt until the ſenſations it produces are no longer quite agreeable. When by theſe means, a tendency to ſweat appears, aſſiſt it by ſuch diluting liquors as the caſe requires: as the patient's heat abates, and his thirſt is leſſened, let his drink be given warm.

This method of ſuppreſſing *fevers* by means of cold, is not to be rejected, even when cordials are required to ſupport the patient's ſtrength. See FEBRIFUGUS SPIRITUS DI. CLUTTON.

Whilſt theſe cooling methods are purſued to ſuppreſs the morbid heat, ſuch other medicines ſhould be preſcribed as the other ſymptoms may require.

Under this management, beſides that the cure is ſhort, the uſual horrible ſymptoms are kept off. If the patient recovers, he is not reduced to the low eſtate which by other management, he would have been reduced to; and if he dies, he at leaſt retains his ſenſes to the laſt.

As in the ſmall pox, ſo in every kind of *fever*, the great deſign of medicine is to reduce the patient's heat to that degree which conſtitutes his healthy ſtate. Sydenham hath obſerved, that, "the fitteſt degree of heat to promote the expulſion of the variolous matter, is the natural one, and ſuch as is ſuited to the temper of the fleſhy parts; and whatever exceeds or falls ſhort of it, is dangerous on either hand." From this it appears, that a *fever* will increaſe the diſeaſe, and that its aſſiſtance is not needful for the expulſion of the morbid matter. No greater proof can be given or deſired in favour of the above propoſed procedure, than its conſtant ſucceſs in the preſent practice of inoculators for the ſmall-pox.

Bleeding ſhould begin the cure in all ardent *fevers*; the diſcharge, as to its quantity, will be determined by the pulſe. If there is a ſanguine plethora, (ſee PLETHORA), bleed from a large orifice in the arm; and if the patient faints, the heat will more effectually be reduced. Sometimes the heat is much increaſed, when the veſſels are diſtended only by the rarefaction of the blood. In caſes of this kind, the cooling perſpiratives will reduce both the heat and rarefaction, alſo ſupercede the neceſſity of bleeding. Give Clutton's febrifuge ſpirit freely in the patient's common drink; or in want of it, let nitre be adminiſtered, but let it always be ſwallowed the inſtant that it is diſſolved, for thus its efficacy is beſt inſured.

Vomiting is alſo among the needful aids on the *fever's* firſt attack; and among the reſt, the antimonial ones are to be preferred. Antimonial medicines given on the firſt onſet of a *fever*, curb the circulation, and promote all the diſcharges. They cool for the preſent by promoting excretions, which, with the ſecretions, they influence beyond all other medicines now in uſe: beſides theſe, their influence on the nervous ſyſtem is ſuch, that the ſtrength is rarely ſo much reduced, when they are duly adverted to, as it is when they are omitted.

Purges. Sydenham well obſerves, that "nothing cools the body ſo ſpeedily and ſo laſtingly, as bleeding, when immediately ſucceeded by a purge. Bleeding is the ſpeedieſt, but a purge immediately ſucceeding, increaſes its effect, both as to its degree and continuance." Proper medicines of this kind are the ſal. Glaub. ver. tart. vitr. ſal polychreſt. vel rupellenſe. tamarind. rhab. manna, &c and if to theſe, two or three grains of the emetic tartar is added, the operation will be both ways, and thus the emetic ſeparately adminiſtered will not be needful.

Clyſters. A copious injection of warm water into the inteſtines ſhould never be omitted in ardent *fevers*; the patient is more relieved by them than by a much greater quantity of any fluid that may be taken by the mouth. In putrid *fevers*, antiputreſcent medicaments conveyed glyſterwiſe into the body, is equally advantageous; amongſt theſe, fixed air is juſtly ranked with the moſt ſalutary.

Cooling medicines. Theſe are nitre, ſal ammoniac, Mindererus's ſpirit, Clutton's febrifuge ſpirit, antimonial wine, cold air, cold water, and the ſaline mixture. The emetic tartar, joined in ſmall doſes as a diaphoretic to the ſaline draughts, is one of the moſt volatile remedies in the early ſtages of moſt acute diſorders; or inſtead of the vin. ant. the tinct. ipecacuanha may be added in ſuch quantities as the ſtomach can eaſily retain. It is uſual to preſcribe the ſaline mixture in doſes, to be repeated at the diſtance of four, ſix or eight hours; but in ardent *fevers*, they ſhould be repeated every hour, day and night, until the ſymptoms abate, or at leaſt as often as may be without purging.

Cold water. Hippocrates ſays, "If the patient is very thirſty whilſt labouring under an acute *fever*, cold water is of great uſe if given till it makes him vomit." Celſus adviſes the uſe of cold water, and directs the patient to drink it even beyond ſatiety. Galen ſays, that "cold water is a perpetual remedy againſt the *fever* itſelf." He directs its uſe both in ardent and putrid *fevers*, and even to immerſe the patient in the cold bath, if a copious drinking of it does not ſuffice. Paulus ſays, that "the heat may be extinguiſhed by cold water, by which we have wholly cured burning *fevers*:" and elſewhere, he ſays, that "the cold bath alone is of uſe to thoſe who labour under an ardent *fever*, without an inflammation, a tumour, or an eryſipelas." To the ſame purpoſe many other of the ancients ſpeak, and the practice continued about 1500 years. Indeed, among the moderns, there are, and have been thoſe, who purſue the ſame practice; they proportion the degree of cold to the degree of heat, and continue its uſe until the abatement of inward heat, and the pulſe, foretel that this diſorder is entirely ſubdued. The patient's ſenſations will, with very little attention, determine the neceſſary degrees of cold and heat in the management of them under *fevers*; that degree which feels the moſt agreeable, is the proper one. To render the uſe of cold water more effectual, ſmall quantities of tamarinds, cream of tartar, or of ſoluble tartar, may be diſſolved in it; apples, or other fruits, or mucilaginous matters, ſuch as lint-ſeed, or marſhmallows, may be previouſly boiled in.

Cool air. Beſides rendering the air in the room as cool as may be, farther advantages will ariſe in ardent *fevers*, by actually expoſing the patient to the cold air itſelf; always remembering, that the degree of heat or cold is always to be determined by the patient's feelings; that which is agreeable is alſo profitable. Sometimes the inſpiration of cold air is beneficial, when, becauſe of other ſymptoms it would be injurious to expoſe the body to any degree

gree of cold: however, in every febrile caſe, a pure cool air is the beſt to breathe in. As the redundant heat is the only ſymptom to which the cold is oppoſed, its uſe is equally called for in putrid, as in ardent *fevers*; but the application of cold is not to be conſidered as a cure. Of other ſymptoms, or of the cauſes of the reſpective kinds of *fevers*, therefore, antiphlogiſtic cordials, or antiputreſcents, muſt be alſo preſcribed as required, and that through the whole progreſs of the complaint.

Diaphoretics. A burning uneaſy heat attends the patient who labours under any kind of *fever*, until by perſpiration, a general moiſture is diffuſed over all the ſkin. Betwixt 83 and 98, by Farenh. therm. are the ſtandards of heat in healthy men; and the body cannot ſweat if heated or cooled many degrees above or below its natural ſtate. If the heat ariſes farther than ſix degrees above, or ſinks in the ſame proportion below the medium of health in ſome; or in others, above ten degrees, or below them, no ſweat can be excited, until by cooling medicines, or by cordials, the morbid degrees of heat are removed. Beſides the uſe of cooling or of cordial medicines, whether the *fever* is of the ardent or the putrid kind, flannels wrung out of hot water may be wrapped round the patient's legs and thighs, to aſſiſt in exciting perſpiration. When a ſweat is excited in the ardent *fever*, keep it up with due ſupplies of whey or water-gruel, gently heated; if in the low or putrid kind, red-wine negus, or beef tea, will be moſt proper. See SUDORIFICS.

Cordials. Their good effects in *fevers* are not from their increaſing the degrees of heat, but from their ſtimuli, by which the too languid powers are rouſed, and the circulation puſhed to the extremities of the veſſels.

Bliſters. In ardent *fevers* bliſters are beſt applied after the abatement of the heat, and when the pulſe begins to flag, except in caſe of local inflammation being an attendant, and then a bliſter applied over the part affected affords conſiderable relief; but in thoſe *fevers* where the pulſe is languid, as is in the low and putrid kinds, the early uſe of bliſters is of the greateſt advantage.

Confinement in bed. Though continual confinement in bed is inconvenient in inflammatory *fevers*, yet ſitting up too long, ſubjects the patient to flying rheumatic pains, or to a jaundice when the *fever* goes off. At the decline of the *fever*, the patient lays conſtantly in bed, with leſs prejudice, or rather with advantage.

Irritability. As a preternatuaal irritability, or an unuſual irritation, are the cauſes of *fevers*, camphor hath been uſed to abate them, and that with conſiderable advantage; it powerfully leſſens ſpaſmodic irritability, and is no leſs efficacious in relieving internal local inflammations. Small doſes of laudanum have been preſcribed on the ſame principle; but both theſe medicines are to be given in conjunction with antiphlogiſtics or antiſeptics, according to the nature of the attending *fever*. At the decline of ardent *fevers*, and throughout the whole courſe of putrid ones, the bark is not to be omitted, for it proves in theſe caſes both an antiſpaſmodic and antiputreſcent.

Acids. In general they all cool powerfully, but the dulcified mineral acid ſpirits are to be preferred, ſuch as the ſpt. nitri. dulc. ſp. ſeb. Di. Clutton, &c.

Neutral Salts. They all lower the pulſe, cool and prove ſedative; but the dulcified mineral acids are ſtill to be preferred.

Abſorbent powders. They are commonly preſcribed in *fevers*; they generally counteract every rational indication in theſe diſorders, and would be better if totally neglected.

Longings. When this ſymptom happens in *fevers*, it ſhould be moderately gratified; what is longed for, the ſtomach will eaſily digeſt: and theſe gratifications are always curative.

Hæmorrhage at the noſe. Never attempt to ſtop it when happening in a *fever*, whilſt the pulſe is full, the extremities are warm, and the lips are red.

Purging. When this ſymptom occurs in *fevers*, an emetic is generally the propereſt remedy, but in general it may be left to nature, until it manifeſtly reduces the patient's ſtrength; and when medicines are required, cordials, perſpiratives, bliſters, and nutritive diet, are preferable to aſtringents.

Delirium. When this ſymptom happens, if the pulſe is full and quick, bleed, and apply ſtimulating cataplaſms to the feet. If the pulſe is weak and irregular, let a bliſter be laid betwixt the ſhoulders, and give warm nervous medicines.

Hiccup. This ſymptom is generally dangerous, the camphorated julep, large doſes of muſk, and gentle cordial opiates, are the neceſſary aids when it comes on.

Night ſweats. Theſe happen frequently at the decline of a *fever*, or after it is quite abated, and are beſt relieved by a light but nouriſhing diet, moderate exerciſe in the air, the elixir of vitriol, and an infuſion of the bark.

Nauſea, ſickneſs, or vomiting. Theſe may happen at any time of the diſeaſe; if in the beginning, after an emetic, give two or three large ſpoonfulls of an infuſion of columbo-root, and repeat as the frequency of the vomiting may require.

A cough and ſpitting often follow, as the conſequence of a *fever*, but may be relieved for the moſt part by bitters, bark, light chalybeates, and exerciſe in the air.

When patients recover from *fevers*, they are generally feeble for ſome time, and apt to take cold. Trifles at this time endanger a relapſe; chearful company is uſeful; exerciſe ſhould be gradually engaged in; the diet ſhould be light, nouriſhing, frequently taken in ſmall quantities, and full meals ſhould be carefully avoided.

See Sydenham's Works in the article of *Fevers*; Grant's Obſervations on the Nature and Cure of *Fevers*; Lyſon's Eſſay on the Effect of Camphor and Calomel in continual *Fevers*; Kirkland's Eſſays towards an Improvement in the Cure of thoſe Diſeaſes which are the Cauſes of *Fevers*; Fordyce's Elements, part the 2d.

FEBRIS ANGINOSA, i. e. Scarlatina anginoſa.

FEBRIS BULLOSA, i. e. Pemphigus.

FEBRIS ERRATICA. Erratic *fevers* are uſually either the tertian or the quartan kinds of intermitting *fevers*.

FEBRIS HUNGARICA. See MORBUS HUNGARICUS.

FEBRIS CASTRENSIS. The camp *fever*. A kind of remittent tertian of the typhus kind.

FEBRIS MALIGNA HECTICA. It is a mild kind of typhus.

FEBRIS CARCERUM. The jail *fever*. It is an inſtance of the ſeverer kind of typhus.

FEBRIS NAUTICA PESTILENTIALIS. It is a kind of typhus.

FEBRIS LENTICULAS, PUNETICULA, VEL PETICULAS. They are all ſymptomatical, or the typhus, or ſynochus, attended with ſpots in the ſkin, called ſpotted, &c. *fevers* from theſe appearances attending them.

FEBRIS FLAVA. } Biliofus ardens.
FEBRIS MALIGN. BARBADOES. }

FEBRIS DEPURATORIUS SYDENHAMI. A variety of ſynochus.

FEBRIS ALBUS, i. e. Chloroſis.

FEBRIS AMATORIA, i. e. Chloroſis.

FEBRIS CONTINENS. See SYNOCHUS.

FEBRIS URTICATA. Acute nettle-raſh.

FEBRIS CONTINUA PUTRIDA, i. e. Synochus, or putrid fever.

FECULA, i. e. Fæx.

FEL. Gall. See BILIS.

FEL. NATURÆ, i. e. Alves.

FELLIFLUA PASSIO. A name of the cholera morbus.

FEMEN, i. e. Femur.

FEMORALIS ARTERIA. The femoral artery. Beſides oſſification, and wounds, this *artery* may be the ſeat of an aneuriſm. This laſt named accident is diſtinguiſhed in its earlier ſtage, by its being circumſcribed, and ſmall, but it gradually increaſes; for a time the pulſation in it is ſufficiently remarkable, but as the tumor enlarges, the pulſations in it is more obſcure, and at laſt is not to be perceived: when the aneuriſm is arrived to this ſtate, the lower part of the leg becomes œdematous from the preſſure above; and the limb in general is more and more unfit for uſe. Arrived at this ſtate, if relief is not afforded, a mortification will be the iſſue. It rarely happens that the operation for the aneuriſm will ſuffice in this caſe; for in general, the *artery* is not only dilated and burſt, but it is alſo diſtempered to ſome diſtance above the dilatation. Beſides the want of collateral branches

to carry on a due circulation is another impediment to a ligature being applied. Amputation, in ſhort, in this inſtance, as well as when this veſſel is wounded high up, near the belly, or low, near the ham, is the only relief. In caſe of an aneuriſm, if on performing the operation, and tying the *artery*, pain follows, with fever, tenſion, &c. the iſſue will be fatal, if amputation does not befriend. If the tumor is about the middle of the thigh, when from an aneuriſm, and is yet but ſmall, it may be laid bare, and the *artery* tied above and below. But if the tumor is much enlarged, the *artery* will be found diſeaſed to a conſiderable diſtance above, and then the ligature will fail. If the tumor is near the groin, amputation itſelf is very uncertain as to ſaving the patient's life; if it is low, near the ham, or in it, amputation will be indiſpenſible, being the only means of refcuing from a fatal mortification. See Mr. Pott's Works, and his Remarks on the Neceſſity, &c. of Amputation, in certain Caſes.

FEMORIS, (Os.) In the thigh is only one bone; it is the largeſt and ſtrongeſt of any of the cylindrical bones. On its outſide, near the neck, is a large tuberoſity called the trochanter major; and there is a leſſer one, on the inſide, named the trochanter minor. The poſterior concave ſurface of this bone hath a ridge riſing in its middle, called the linea aſpera, whoſe inferior extremity divides into two. The inferior extremity of this bone is formed into two condyles, between which a conſiderable cavity is found, eſpecially at the poſterior part. The two condyles are contiguous forward, but at a diſtance backwards. The os *femoris* is articulated to the acetabulum by enarthroſis; to the tibia and the patella by gynglymus. Winſlow obſerves, that all the proceſſes from this bone are cartilaginous in new born children.

FEMUR. The thigh. It is alſo called femen, coxa, agis, anchæ, and crus.

FENESTRA OVALIS & ROTUNDA, from *Feneſtra*, a window, and φαινω, *to ſhine*. See TYMPANUM.

FERINA. That delirium in which the patient rages violently, is furious. It is the ſame as MANIODEA, which ſee.

FERINUS. Savage, or brutal; but in a medical ſenſe it ſignifies noxious or malignant: hence it is applied to coughs, &c.

FERMENTATIO. Fermentation. It is the effecting that change in certain vegetable juices (of the nature of ſugar) to which they have a natural tendency, whereby vinous ſpirits are produced, and by ſome variation in the treatment, vinegar. The heat required, is between ſixty and ſeventy degrees on Farenheit's thermometer.

Fermentation, beſides its uſe in producing vinous ſpirits and vinegar, is ſometimes uſed as preparatory to diſtilling for other purpoſes than that of producing ſpirits, as, for inſtance, to unlock various ſubſtances for making diſtilled waters, and obtaining eſſential oils, and is thus performed. The ſubſtances being firſt bruiſed, are to be infuſed in water, to which a quantity of yeſt is to be added, ſufficient to raiſe a *ferment*; as ſoon as the *ferment* is begun, the whole muſt be committed to the ſtill. The only caution here is to take it in due time, and to uſe no yeſt that can give an improper taſte. See Boerhaave's Chemiſtry, vol. ii. Shaw's Chem. Lectures, and the Dict. of Chem.

FERMENTUM. Ferment, barm, yeſt, leaven.

Pliny in his Nat. Hiſt. lib. xviii. ch. vii. ſpeaks of the barm from malt liquor being uſed in Spain and Gaul, whence their bread was lighter than that of other nations. There are many other ſubſtances which excite *fermentation*, but this from malt liquor is always preferred to the others, whether for the purpoſes of pharmacy, or other inſtances wherein it is employed.

FERNELIUS. He died about the middle of the ſixteenth century. He was the firſt of the moderns who collected from the Arabians, Greeks, and Latins, what was the moſt ſolid and uſeful in the practice of phyſic. He agrees in every principal point with Galen, Celſus, and Ægineta; but he is more clear, methodical, and throws more light on every ſubject than any of them.

FERRAMENTA CANDENTIA. Red hot irons. So Celſus calls the actual cauteries.

FERRAMENTUM. Inſtruments made of iron.

FERRAR. HESP. The abbreviation for Ferrarii Heſperides.

FERRAR. FLOR. The abbreviation for Ferrarius de florum cultura.

FERRATÆ (AQUÆ), i. e. Acidulæ.

FERRUGO. Ruſt of iron.

FERRUM. Iron. It is alſo called chalybs, Mars. and acies. Its chemical character is ♂, by which is meant, that *iron* is gold at the bottom, the circle being the character of that perfect metal.

Melampus uſed ruſted *iron* to cure a man of impotency. This is the firſt record of its uſe as a medicine.

Iron is a greyiſh metal, very hard, the next in ſpecific gravity to copper, between ſeven and eight times ſpecifically heavier than water, diſtinguiſhable from all other bodies in its metallic ſtate, by its attracting, or being attracted by the loadſtone, but loſing this peculiarity on being reduced by fire to a calx. It is the hardeſt and moſt elaſtic of all metals, not fuſible without an intenſe white heat; it melts the ſloweſt of any metal, and calcining by the continuance of a weaker heat, it calcines more eaſily, though it melts more difficultly than any other metal. If *iron* is long kept in fuſion, it loſes its ſulphur, becomes more brittle, and at length is converted into a bluiſh glaſs, which, if expoſed to the heat of a large burning glaſs, after laying it on a piece of charcoal, it takes up the ſulphur it had loſt, and is true *iron* again. *Iron* is corroſible by a moiſt air, into a reddiſh yellow ruſt, and is ſoluble in all acids, on mixing with which, it ſends up a garlic odour. Acids precipitate from *iron* all the common metallic bodies except zinc, forming with the marine acid, a yellow; with the nitrous, a dark red, and with the vitriolic, a pale green ſolution. All ſalts, except the alkaline, diſſolve *iron*.

In medicine, the diſtinction betwixt *iron* and ſteel is not neceſſary, for the ſteel is ſuppoſed to be harder than *iron*, yet it is not ſo, but by an additional proceſs; and, as a medicine, as well as in chemical proceſſes, the ſofteſt *iron* is preferred.

Iron, when diſſolved, diſcovers a ſtrong, auſtere, corrugating, nauſeous taſte; and it contracts and hardens all the vaſcular, and ſoft fibrous parts of animals; to conſtringe and corroborate the ſolids, appears to be the primary medical operation of *iron*, to increaſe the vital heat, is its ultimate effect. Boerhaave ſays, that *iron* is nearer allied to the human body than any of the other metals, ſo as to be almoſt wholly ſoluble therein.

The medical uſes of *iron* are moſt confined to, and manifeſted in chronical diſorders; in which its efficacy is ſuperior to that of all animal and vegetable ſubſtances put together. Weak, lax, pale, and leucophlegmatic habits, and all diſorders in which is a defect of vital heat, are relieved by this metal. It ſtrengthens the ſtomach, and chylopœtic organs in particular; and by its continued uſe, the whole ſyſtem is invigorated, the pulſe is raiſed, and every evidence of health reſtored.

By the ſame corroborating power, whereby it promotes deficient, and reſtrains redundant diſcharges; where the ſuppreſſion, or exceſſive flux ariſes from debility and relaxation; it contrarywiſe increaſes fluxes, and confirms obſtructions, when they proceed from tenſion, rigidity, or ſpaſmodic ſtrictures of the veſſels.

An aperient and aſtringent virtue hath been attributed to different preparations of *iron*; but they are all aperient or aſtringet, according to the ſtate of the conſtitution of the patient who takes them, and not as they have any ſuch property in themſelves.

In the chloroſis, *iron* with aromatics, bitters, and aloetic purges, is almoſt a ſpecific. In this, as in moſt other caſes, the crude *iron* filings, when very ſmall, excel all the other preparations; and in this caſe the filings are peculiarly proper; for the ſtomachs of chlorotic patients abound with acids, which are abſorbed by the filings of *iron*, but not by the ruſt and other preparations of it. It may be that on the gas which is excited by the ferment of the *iron* with the acid in the ſtomach, the principal efficacy of the *iron* is dependant. The aloetics to be joined with *iron* in this diſorder, are the pil. ruffi, or tinct. ſacra; theſe may be taken not as purgatives, but as alteratives, and to evacuate the inteſtinal contents only. If in this diſorder, the breathing is rendered difficult by the uſe of

iron, join it with myrrh, or with the gum ammoniacum.

Suppreſſed menſes, and alſo the immoderate diſcharge of them, are reſtored to their natural order by this ſalutary metal. See MENSES. In hypochondriac and hyſteric complaints, no medicine is to be preferred to this, though others have a uſeful influence herein, and are not to be omitted. In the rickets, *iron* is the ſpecific; and though in fevers, or where the heat of the body is exalted above the par of health, *iron*, as it increaſeth the heat, is generally prohibited, yet in ſome low fevers, it hath been adminiſtered in conjunction with nitre, and thus was productive of the moſt deſirable effects; when the fibres were lax, a mixture of vitr. viriol. and ſal nitri in equal parts, was given in doſes of ten or twenty grains; thus the velocity of the pulſe and feveriſhneſs were abated, though the habit in general was thus improved.

In plethoric habits hellebore is to be preferred for promoting the menſes; but when the quality of the blood is to be improved, *iron* is the the moſt ſuitable adminiſtration.

In ſome inſtances, where *iron* is a neceſſary medicine, it, notwithſtanding, is apt to occaſion ſickneſs and perturbation; in this caſe, give a mild opiate, or direct the medicine to be taken in bed, half an hour before the patient riſes in the morning, and when he goes to reſt at night; or he may be directed to walk after each doſe.

The beſt forms for adminiſtering *iron* will be determined by the intentions of preſcribing it. If to correct the depraved ferment in the ſtomach be the primary intention, the filings may be given in the form of a powder, or an electary; but if to exalt the blood, open obſtructions, and improve the general habit, a ferugineous wine will be preferred.

Small doſes, and duly repeated, are better than large ones; ten grains of the pure filings, and two or three grains of ſolutions in acid vehicles, are ſufficient.

The preparations in general uſe, are as follow:

Limaturæ martis. Filings of *iron*. They are alſo called limaturæ ferri.

Of all the preparations, this alone poſſeſſes all the virtues of the *iron*. The ruſt is the next uſeful one, but it is not ſo powerful an abſorbent of acids in the primæ viæ, nor does it poſſeſs ſo large a ſhare of the gas, which is ſeparated by the action of acids on pure *iron*. If pure *iron* is reduced into fine filings, it is the leaſt offenſive to the taſte, and the moſt extenſively uſeful in its effects.

Ferri rubigo præparata. The ruſt of *iron* prepared.

Moiſten clean filings of *iron* with water, and ſprinkle over them a little powdered ſal ammoniac; and when the whole is dried, powder and paſs it through a fine ſearſe. The doſe is the ſame as that of pure filings.

Flores Martiales. Martial Flowers.

Take of waſhed colcothar of green vitriol, or of *iron* filings, one pound; of ſal ammoniac, two pounds. Mix, and ſublime them in a retort, and mixing again the bottom with the flowers, renew the ſublimation till the flowers acquire a beautiful yellow colour. To the reſidue may be added, half a pound of freſh ſal ammoniac, and the ſublimation repeated: the ſame proceſs may be thus continued on as long as the flowers riſe duly coloured.

The ſucceſs of this proceſs depends chiefly upon the fire's being haſtily raiſed, that the ſal ammoniac may not ſublime before the heat is become ſtrong enough to enable it to carry up a portion of the *iron*; hence earthen or *iron* veſſels will be the propereſt for carrying on this work. The moſt convenient veſſel is an *iron* pot, to which may be luted, an inverted earthen jar, with a ſmall hole in its bottom to paſs off the elaſtic vapours which ariſe during the operation.

When theſe flowers are ſophiſticated, they are of a dull and pale yellow colour; but if theſe ſophiſticated flowers are placed over the fire in a proper veſſel, the flowers will fly off, and leave the mixture behind.

The doſe of theſe flowers is from gr. vi. to ℈i. They may be taken in a boluſs, or in the form of tincture; as to pills, they render them crumbly.

They may be ſubſtituted for all the other preparations of *iron*; they are eſteemed as a ſpecific in the rickets, but, in reality, poſſeſs no advantages above the filings even in this particular inſtance. They have been called ens veneris, and flor. ſal ammon. martiales.

From theſe flowers, diſſolved in warm water, and precipitated with the ol. tart. per. deliq. is produced that powder, which is called mars diaphoreticus, and, by Zwelfer, ſulphur vitrioli anodinum martiale.

Theſe flowers diſſolved in ſp. vini R. is the ſedativum archæi.

Vinum Chalybeatum. Chalybeate Wine.

Take four ounces of the filings of *iron*; of cinnamon and mace, of each half an ounce; and of Rheniſh wine, four pints. Macerate without heat for a month; then ſtrain off the wine for uſe.

Solutions of *iron* in vegetable acids, are much more mild, and leſs ungrateful, both to the palate and ſtomach, than ſuch as are made with the mineral acids.

The doſe is from a tea-ſpoonful to a table-ſpoonful, two or three times a day, in any convenient vehicle.

Tinct. Martis *in Sp. Salis. Tincture of* Iron *in Spirit of Salt.*

Take of *iron* filings, half a pound; Glauber's ſpirit of ſalt, three pounds; digeſt without heat as long as the ſpirit acts on the *iron*; after the feces have ſubſided, evaporate the liquor to one pound, and add thereto three pints of the rectified ſpirit of wine.

This was formerly called tinct. martis mynſicht.

Tinct. Flor. Mart. *Tincture of the Flowers of* Iron.

Take of the martial flowers, four ounces; and of proof ſpirit, one pint. Digeſt and ſtrain.

All the tinctures of ſteel are no other than real ſolutions of *iron* made in acids, and combined with vinous ſpirits; but the firſt of theſe two is the ſtrongeſt. The doſe of the firſt may be from ten to twenty drops three times a day; and, of the latter, three times the quantity may be allowed.

Lixivium Martis.

Let the matter which remains after ſubliming the flowers, be ſet by in a moiſt place, and it will run into a liquor which is the lixivium.

Some call it oleum martis per deliquium, and eſſentia martis. The doſe is from one to three or four drops.

Mars Saccharatus. Candied Steel.

Put any quantity of clean filings of *iron* into a braſs kettle, ſuſpended over a gentle fire; add to them by little and little, twice their weight of white ſugar boiled to the conſiſtence of candy, with which powdered ſtarch hath been previouſly mixed, in the proportion of one dram to a pound, agitating the kettle continually, that the filings may be cruſted over with the ſugar, and taking great care to prevent their running into lumps. The doſe is ʒſs. two or threee times a day.

Mars Solubilis, called alſo Chalybs Tartarizatus.

Equal parts of *iron* filings and cream of tartar are mixed together, and ſoftened with water; then dried and moiſtened again, &c. until the whole may eaſily be reduced into a fine powder. From three grains to twenty are a doſe.

Extractum Martis.

Iron filings are to be diſſolved in ſome vegetable acid, and then evaporated to a due conſiſtence.

As to the crocus *martis* aperiens, and crocus *martis* aſtringens, the college of London ſubſtitutes the colcoth. vitriol for them. They are all three but a calx of *iron*: and of all the preparations of this metal, the calces are ſuppoſed to be the leaſt uſeful, as they are the leaſt ſoluble in acids. Though Mr. Beaumé obſerves, that theſe calces recover their original metalline ſtate by digeſting in olive oil during an hour or two; whence probably a revival of them. See Dict. of Chem. 4to. from the French; Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

FERRUM EQUINUM. Horſe-ſhoe vetch. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies, and Dale ſays they are aſtringent.

FERRUM EQUINUM GALLICUM, &c. The leaſt jointed podded collutea.

FERSÆ. The meaſles.

FERULA. Fennel giant. It hath a large, ſucculent, milky root; the ſtalk is fungous, and full of a pitchy matter. Boerhaave enumerates thirteen ſpecies.

FERULA MAJOR SEU FŒMINIA; called alſo *ferula* tenuiore folio, *ferula* fœniculi folio. Fennel giant. It is cultivated in gardens, and flowers in July. The gum which is obtained from this plant is the SAGAPENUM, which ſee.

FERULA GLAUCO FOLIO, &c. alſo called thapſia *ferulacea*, libanotis fœniculi folio, panax aſclepium, and Candy all-heal. This ſpecies grows in Candy; its roots and ſeeds are diuretic and emenagogue.

FERULA GALBANIFERA, called alſo ferulago; ſmall fennel giant.

FERULA AFRICANA GALBANIFERA, &c. called alſo ferula fruticoſa ſempervirens. The galbanum plant. From this plant we have the *galbanum* of the ſhops.

FERULA MINOR, called alſo panax aſclepium, libanotis ferulæ folio & ſemine. All-heal of Eſculapius.

FERULÆ. A name of the baſtard ſpignel.

FERULAGO. Small fennel giant.

FESTUCA. The great wild oat-graſs.

FIBER. The beaver.

FIBRA. A fibre. Among the fluids in ovo, there is a terreſtrial matter, the particles of which, ſoon after conception, begin to cohere (by the power of nature) and form themſelves into threads called *fibres*. Theſe terreſtrial particles are united by a gluten. The moſt ſimple *fibre* conſiſts of the moſt minute parts applied to each other longitudinally, ſo that the ſmalleſt *fibre* is that which conſiſts of two elements longitudinally applied to each other; ſince one ſuch element belongs only to the fluids.

Haller ſays, that the leaſt diſcoverable *fibres* are of two kinds. The firſt are lineal; the ſecond are conjoined with a breadth frequently larger than their length: and theſe latter, he informs us, are thoſe of which the cellular membrane is made up.

On the different proportions of the terreſtrial matter, and the gelatinous which forms the ſimple *fibre*, depend the different degrees of hardneſs and ſoftneſs in the different parts of the body; and from the firm coheſion of theſe parts, or the defect therein, Boerhaave deduces the general ſource of diſeaſes. See Boerh. Aph. and Haller's Phyſiology, in the article of ANIMAL FIBRE.

The ſtrength or weakneſs of a *fibre* can only be defined in a relative ſenſe. Soon after conception, the coheſion is ſo ſmall as to be deſtroyed by a very gentle ſhock; but as time advances, different degrees of coheſion is obſerved, till the degree is attained which gives perfection to the being. The perfection of coheſion is when a *fibre*, or veſſel, &c. will bear, in ſome degree, more force to be exerciſed againſt it, than what they are particularly deſigned for by their ſtate and office. Many, but equally unſatisfactory, are the rules laid down to diſtinguiſh betwixt the rigid and lax *fibre* in particular conſtitutions; but with a view to practice in the recovery and preſervation of health, as a rigid *fibre* is a concomitant of exceſſive heat, and the lax *fibre* of a deficience thereof; an attention to the heat of a patient's body will be a more eaſy and ſatisfactory principle on which to proceed. See CALIDUM INNATUM.

The ſtate of the body in which there is a lax *fibre*, Dr. Geo. Fordyce calls the general weakneſs. He obſerves that weakneſs may be divided into two kinds: the firſt, in which the irritation and ſenſation are conſiderably increaſed: The ſecond, in which theſe ſenſations are greatly diminiſhed; as in the apoplexy and palſy. The firſt is called ſingle weakneſs, which may be ſubdivided into two varieties; 1. When by any means it is produced on a ſudden, in which caſe it is eaſily reſtored. 2. When it comes on ſlowly, then it is reſtored with difficulty. Theſe two, then, differ eſſentially; from their cauſes, ſymptoms, effects upon the ſyſtem, and their manner of cure. The ſecond is called paralytic weakneſs. Various are the cauſes of weakneſs: e. g. bleeding, by exhauſting the living power; all evacuations when too copious, and too long continued; antiphlogiſtic medicines, all which leſſen the living power: a particular part may be weakened by exciting a ſecretion from the mucous gland of that part, or from a part which lies near, though not connected with it. The ſyſtem may be ſtrengthened by various means, as follow. 1. By nouriſhing ſtrengthening diet. If the veſſels have been ſuddenly emptied, give freely of nouriſhing food, the veſſels will receive it, and the ſtrength will ſoon return. If the weakneſs approached ſlowly, good nouriſhment will not reſtore ſo ſpeedily; for the organs of digeſtion being conſiderably weakened, and that gradually, renders the digeſtion of food difficult; therefore, in theſe caſes, give moderate quantities of proper food, and repeat it often. In hectic fevers, ſometimes the arteries are acting ſtrong; thence it is neceſſary ſometimes to take off that great degree of contraction, by diminiſhing the ſyſtem, by bleeding; then the patient may be capable of receiving nouriſhing diet. When the ſtomach is weak, the patient ſhould avoid thoſe vegetables that produce acidity in the primæ viæ; hence cabbage, beans, peas, &c. are not proper. Farinaceous ſeeds, prepared and given with animal food, are the beſt. 2. The body may be ſtrengthened by exerciſe. When exerciſe is uſed, it ſhould not be carried on to ſuch a degree as to weaken the patient by it; it ſhould be equal and univerſal through the whole body, not in any one part more than another: for this reaſon, riding in a carriage, &c. where the body is equally moved, is much preferable to any other; but if we want to uſe a more violent degree of exerciſe, riding on horſeback would be of great ſervice. The patient ſhould go out when the air is free and pure; thus the circulation is increaſed and paſſes through the lungs without being obſtructed; but if he goes out in a moiſt air, the lungs become ſomewhat obſtructed; then anxiety, &c. are produced. The exerciſe ſhould be agreeable to the patient, in order that the mind may be agreeably affected. 3. The ſtrength may be reſtored by means of cold. Cold contracts the external veſſels, by which the internal, about the precordia, are kept filled, which always tends to keep up the ſtrength of the patient; farther, it takes off the irritability of the ſyſtem, and prevents people when expoſed to cold from readily ſuffering by it. If the cold be ſuddenly applied, it contracts the external veſſels too much, by which the interior veſſels are over-loaded, and diſeaſes, ſuch as fevers, &c. are produced; therefore, expoſure to cold ſhould be gradual, that is, it ſhould be by living in a cold atmoſphere; and farther, it ſhould not be too conſiderable, though applied ſlowly, for it will produce weakneſs, and by its ſedative power will often produce numbneſs of the limbs, anxiety, &c. This however muſt be according to what degree the man has been habituated to. The tranſition from heat to cold, or cold to heat, ſhould not be ſudden. The cold bath has been employed to ſtrengthen the ſyſtem; it ſeems to be a very uncertain remedy; for a ſudden expoſure to cold contracts the veſſels too much, and the interior veſſels are filled, ſo that after the patient comes out, the heart acts with greater force, and propels it again upon the ſkin; hence a ſweat is produced; by this a kind of paroxyſm is brought on. Sometimes it is of great ſervice; but in diſeaſes that are attended with weakneſs, where there are conſiderable ſecretions, as in a gonorrhœa, benigna, &c. the diſcharges are ſometimes reproduced, inſtead of being taken off. A temperate bath, in which is diſſolved a quantity of aſtringent ſubſtances, as the ſea-water, acts as an aſtringent on the ſkin after the patient comes out, and often ſtrengthens the ſyſtem. Cold climates have a greater tendency to ſtrengthen the habit, than the warm, as the atmoſphere is more denſe, and reſpiration is more free. 4. The ſyſtem may be ſtrengthened by the patient being ſituated ſo as to breathe properly. It is eſſentially neceſſary to have a quantity of reſpirable air to breathe in. There are two effects that reſpiration produces on the blood; in the firſt place, by propelling it backwards and forwards through the lungs, that it may not be accumulated in the right ſide of the heart; in the ſecond place, by what it conveys to and returns from the blood, its colour changes from a dark to a florid red. From a want of pure air, anxiety, &c. is produced, and a weakneſs ſoon follows. Thoſe who dwell in large towns are more ſubject to diſeaſes from weakneſs; thoſe who live in villages are generally more robuſt, and ſubject to in-

flammatory

flammatory complaints. But although a cool air conduces in general to increaſe the ſtrength, when the patient is greatly exhauſted by profuſe evacuations, or from long continued weakneſs; by ſending him into the country, the purer air there may cauſe too free and great a circulation, as the large veſſels then contain but a ſmall quantity of blood, ſuch a weakneſs will thereby be produced as to cut the patient off. 5. Medicines are the next means of reſtoring loſt ſtrength. Theſe are ſuch as invigorate the ſolids, chiefly by increaſing the living power; of this ſort are camomile, gentian, wormwood, the bark, and ſome other bitter vegetables. Among the metals iron is peculiarly adapted to uſefulneſs on this principle. All theſe leſſen irritability, whilſt they give tone to the relaxed *fibres*. In caſes where the habit hath been ſuddenly weakened, but the organs of digeſtion and the appetite are not impaired, there is not often occaſion to employ theſe remedies, but only to uſe a nouriſhing diet. If, for example, a patient is weakened by a fever, and a little of the inflammatory ſymptoms remain, it is better to omit theſe medicines; but, if a degree of fever be left, and there is a want of appetite, colliquative purges, &c. and the ſtrength does not return, we may uſe them with advantage. If weakneſs be brought on ſuddenly, and is attended with partial evacuations, it is neceſſary to employ them. When ſtrength is ſuddenly loſt, it is obſervable, that amongſt all the juſt-named medicines, the bark is the beſt. When the weakneſs is ſlowly produced, theſe medicines may be employed with great advantage, if ſuitable precautions are not neglected. 1. In people of melancholic temperaments, where there is evidently a contraction of the veſſels, as well as a weakneſs, which is indicated by a hard pulſe; we ſhould endeavour to take off this diſpoſition to contraction before we employ them, which may be done by evacuations. Indeed, in melancholic habits, it often happens that we cannot by any means employ them. 2. They are apt to deſtroy the irritability with regard to themſelves; for if you give them, at the firſt, for about a week, their effects are produced; the patient ſeems much relieved: but after a continuance through a ſecond or third week, their effects are in a manner loſt. For this purpoſe, it is better to vary the medicines; giving the bark and ſteel alternately, and leaving them off for a time, ſo that they do not become habitual to the patient, and then after ſome time the patient repeating them again, his ſtrength is reſtored. When weakneſs is gradually brought on, and in conſequence of lingering diſeaſes, it is generally better relieved by bitters and other ſtrengtheners than by the bark. If there be relaxtion of the moving powers in general, preparations of iron are often preferable to either the bark or bitters; but when the ſyſtem is diſpoſed to be ſtimulated, they cannot be employed with advantage. Iron having a ſtimulus, it ſhould be given in a ſtate of ſolution, which will leſſen its ſtimulating power. But it ſhould be remembered, that ferrugineous preparations are not proper in melancholic habits, becauſe their ſtimulus produces coſtiveneſs. In lax habits only, they are to be employed. When ſtrengthening medicines are given, they ſhould not be directed in too large doſes. If the bark (for inſtance) is given, two, or at the moſt, four drams will ſuffice in twenty-four hours. Too large doſes create weakneſs. When the ſtomach and the inteſtines are weak, the whole ſyſtem is generally affected; and on the contrary, vice verſâ. If the weakneſs of the primæ viæ is very great, it ſometimes produces a palſy in theſe parts. In anxiety and loſs of appetite, give acids, particularly ſuch as do not ferment in the ſtomach, and give them an hour or two before dinner. If flatulencies attend, wine and ſpices may be ſervicable. If the ſtomach is loaded with mucus, give an antimonial vomit; and direct the patient to live on animal food, and farrinaceous ſeeds properly prepared. If neither the piles nor the menſes forbid, aloetic purgatives will be the beſt for guarding againſt coſtiveneſs; in caſe of either of theſe forbiding the uſe of aloes, it may be adviſable to give rhubarb with the magneſia alba. See Edinb. Med. Com. vol. iv. p. 399. 413.

FIBULA. It is the name of a contrivance of the ancients, for bringing the lips of wounds together

FIBULA. Fibula, a buckle. Hippocrates ſometimes uſes the word for the part only of the bone that forms the outer ankle, perhaps, becauſe they uſed to buckle their ſhoe in the place. A claſp or button. The antients called the ſmall bone of the leg thus, from its joining the tibia and muſcles together: this bone is alſo called perone, ſocile minus, arundo minor, canna minor, cruris, ſura, and radius. On the outſide of the leg and behind the tibia, the *fibula* is placed: its upper extremity is flattened where it is connected to the tibia; its lower extremity hath an oblong head, which is received by the external cavity of the tibia; below this the head of the *fibula* is extended in a coronoid proceſs, contiguous to the outſide of the aſtragalus, which proceſs is called the malleolus externus.

FIBULEUS. A name of the muſculus peronæus primus.

FICARIA. A name of fig-wort, and of the leſſer celandine.

FICATIO, i. e. Ficus.

FICOIDEA. A plant ſo called from its reſemblance to the ficoides. There are two ſpecies, but they are not noted in medicine.

FICOIDES. It is a ſucculent plant, which reſembles houſe-leek. Boerhaave enumerates fifty-three ſpecies. They are ſaid to be emollient. *Ficoides* is alſo a name of the banana, and of the melocactus.

FICUS. The name of a tubercle about the anus on the pudenda. See THYMUS and PROPTOSIS.

FICUS AMERICANA, i. e. Melocactus.

FICUS ÆGYPTIACA, i. e. Sycomorus.

FICUS INDICA. See BANANA and MUSA.

FICUS INDICÆ GRANA. Cothineal.

FICUS INFERNALIS. A name of the palma chriſti.

FICUS MALABARICA. See TEREGAM.

FICUS SATIVA, called alſo ficus aridæ, ficus communis. The fig-tree. The ficus carica of Linn. The dried *figs* are called caricæ. This tree is of a middling ſize, with large leaves cut into five ſegments. It is remarkable for producing no flowers previous to the fruit. It grows ſpontaneouſly in the warmer climes, and is cultivated in our gardens.

The beſt *figs* are brought from Turkey; many are brought alſo from the ſouth of France, where they dry them, firſt by dipping them in ſcalding hot ley, made of the aſhes of the *fig*-tree, and then expoſing them to the ſun.

This fruit is glutinous and ſalt; for firſt they ſtick to the hands, and then ſcour them after the manner of lixivial ſalts, whence it is that they excite to ſtool without griping. They are moderately nutrimental, grateful to the ſtomach, and eaſier to digeſt than any other of the ſweet fruits. But their principal medicinal uſe is as a lubricating emollient ſweet; they are an ingredient in pectoral decoctions and ſuppurating cataplaſms. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

FIDICINALES. The muſcles called lumbricales.

FILACEOUS ROOTS. They are ſuch as are furniſhed with many filaments.

FILAGO. Cud-weed. See GNAPHALIUM.

FILAGO ALPINUM. The herb lion's foot.

FILAMENTUM. A filament. A body appearing in the form of a ſlender thread.

FILELLUM. The frenum of the prepuce.

FILETUM. The frenum under the tongue.

FILICULA. See ADIANTHUM and FILIX.

FILIPENDULA. Dropwort, alſo called ſaxifraga rubra, and œnanthe.

It grows wild in fields and chalky grounds: it is rough and bitter, and is ſlightly pungent. Boerhaave mentions two ſpecies. Other dropworts are mentioned under ŒNANTHE. The ſpecies uſed in medicine is the ſpiræa filipendula. Linn.

FILIPENDULA. It is a name of ſeveral ſpecies of alectorolophus.

FILIPENDULA AQUATICA. See ŒNANTHE.

FILIUS ANTE PATREM. A name of the tuſſilago, becauſe its flowers appear before the leaves. This name is alſo given to other plants whoſe flowers appear before the leaves.

FILIX. Fern. Boerhave mentions nine ſpecies.

Fern is divided into the male and female kinds; the male hath no branches, but only one main rib; the female is branched.

FILIX MAS. Male fern. Polypodium filix mas; or polypodium frondibus bipinnatis: pinnis obtuſis crenulatis ſtipite paleaceo. Linn. The *ferns* are well enough known to render their deſcription needleſs; but it may be obſerved that on the leaves of this ſpecies are tubercles which contain the ſeed, and about the end of the ſummer they may be found. The root of the male *fern* reſembles that of the oſmund royal, and is often ſold for it. The roots of moſt of the ſpecies, when chewed, are of a ſweetiſh taſte, and are glutinous, but ſoon become bitteriſh, ſubaſtringent, and nauſeous: they are uſed by ſome for deſtroying the worms called tænia; others uſe them as deobſtruents, and extol them againſt the rickets. The male *fern*, and thoſe that bear flowers, are moſt antiſeptic and ſubaſtringent; the female *fern* is more viſcid, ſaponaceous and diuretic.

FILIX QUERNA, called alſo blechnon minus, filix ramoſa minor, filix arborea. The leſſer branched fern.

FILIX FŒMINIA, called alſo filix ramoſa major. Female fern, brakes, or bracken. In the polypodium filix fœmina. Linn.

FILIX FLORIDA, called alſo filix ramoſa, oſmunda vulgaris, and paluſtris. Flowering *fern*, and oſmund royal. It is the oſmunda regalis. Linn. It is the largeſt of the true Engliſh *ferns*; towards their tops are round ſlender ſeed-bearing, curled heads of a browniſh colour, covered with ſeeds; they appear in June and ripen in July. The root conſiſts of many ſmall long round parts matted together, blackiſh on the outſide and green within, covered with ſmall fibres. It is found in marſhy and boggy places. The roots are eſteemed as uſeful in all the caſes that the roots of the other ſpecies are recommended againſt; but a conſerve of the tender buds or heads is the beſt.

FILIX. A name of ſome ſpecies of polypodium.

FILTRATIO. Filtration. It is the paſſing of any fluid through a ſtrainer or filtre, to ſeparate from it any groſs particles which it contains, and to render it limpid. Generally a paper is folded into the ſhape of a funnel, and then placed in one; then pour therein ſome of the liquor which is to paſs through the paper thus placed.

FILTRUM. See FILTRATIO. It is alſo a ſtone which is found in the bay of Mexico, which is uſed for filtering liquors through.

FILUM ARSENICALE. Sublimate mercury.

FIMBRIA. Fringe. Thoſe leaves are ſaid to be fimbriated that are jagged about the edges. In ſurgery this word means the ſame as CATABLEMA, which ſee.

FIMUS. Dung. The *dung* of many animals hath been in uſe; but the preſent practice excludes them all from the materia medica.

FISSILIS (LAPIS), i. e. Hibernicus lapis.

FISSURA. A fiſſure or crack, from *findo, to cleave*. Theſe are either natural or morbid: thus the mouth or other natural apertures into the body are called *fiſſures*. Morbid *fiſſures* are cracks in the ſkull, &c. or are when a bone fractured in any part is lengthways.

A morbid *fiſſure* differs from a fracture, in that the firſt hath ſome degree of coheſion, but in the latter there is a total ſolution of continuity. A fracture is tranverſe or oblique, and a *fiſſure* is longitudinal.

Fiſſures moſt frequently happen in the ſkull, and of theſe there is, firſt, the contra-*fiſſure* or counter-*fiſſure*, and this is when the blow is received on one ſide of the head, and the ſkull is cracked on the other; or, where the internal table is broken, the external remaining ſound; or, where the ſtroke is received on one bone, and the *fiſſure* is in that adjoining. Many authors doubt the exiſtence of a counter-*fiſſure*, and it is difficult to account for it, but the facts are too well atteſted to deny them. Hippocrates, Galen, Celſus, Berengarius, Fallopius, and ſeveral others, aſſert their having met with inſtances of them. Secondly, that kind which is moſt frequent is that which when large is ſoon diſcovered by laying the bone bare, and cleaning the part with ſponge. But ſometimes they are ſo ſmall that ſome art is neceſſary to diſcover them; in which caſe rub a black liquor made of burnt bone, or cork mixed with water, and immediately waſh it off again; this black liquor ſinking into the crack diſcovers where its ſituation is: or, if the head is clean ſhaved, and the patient is bled freely, an œdematous puffineſs will appear in a day or two over the part affected.

Fiſſures are often productive of worſe conſequences than fractures, for there is often at the ſame time a concuſſion of the brain; whence it is the more neceſſary to be well aſſured of the attendance of this accident, or the contrary. Inſtances of the ill effects of *fiſſures* have happened ten months or more after the accident. It is not ſimply the *fiſſure* that is dangerous, but the violence that occaſioned it, which alſo occaſions the teguments and the bone to ſuffer: all the bad ſymptoms depend principally upon the rupture of a great number of veſſels, and a detention of extravaſated liquids, whence the bone is corrupted; and when this happens, a ſudden and unexpected death is often the conſequence. The cranium cannot be *fiſſured* without being alſo contuſed, by which many veſſels in the ſubſtance of the bone and in the diploe are broken.

Trepanning ſeems to be the propereſt method of relief, though the method recommended by Mr. Bromfield in concuſſions of the brain hath alone affected a cure.

FISSURA CEREBRI, i. e. Fiſſura magna ſylvii.

FISSURA MAGNA SYLVII. The anterior and middle lobes of the cerebrum on each ſide are parted by a deep narrow ſulcus, which aſcends obliquely backwards from the temporal ala of the os ſphenoides to near the middle of the os parietale, and this ſulcus is thus called.

FISTULA. So the Latins called a catheter.

FISTULA. In ſurgery it is a kind of ulcer. It differs from a ſinus thus: a *fiſtula* is narrower, generally continues longer, and hath its internal ſurface and its orifice for the moſt part callous. Paulus Ægineta ſays, "a *fiſtula*, which derives its name from its reſemblance to a reed or pipe, is a callous ſinus, generally the conſequence of abſceſſes." And Celſus defines a *fiſtula* to be, "a deep, narrow, and callous ulcer." The ſeat of a *fiſtula* is in the cellular membrane. It is known to be preſent when there is an aperture on the ſurface of the body from which a ſanious, or other matter, either flows or may be preſſed out; its depth and direction is diſcovered by a probe; or, if the directions are various, warm water may be injected therein, and if the courſe is near the ſkin, it will be obſerved by the elevation made by the water, or if otherwiſe, the quantity of water retained will determine the ſize of the cavity. The probe indeed diſcovers whether the *fiſtula* runs upon an adjacent bone, or whether or not the bone is carious, which the water does not. The various part in which theſe ulcers are ſeated, and the different circumſtances attending them, conſtitute the chief differences betwixt one *fiſtula* and another. As to the prognoſtics, the thicker the cellular membrane, or the more ſtrata of muſcles upon each other, the more miſchievous a *fiſtula* uſually proves; whilſt it is ſimple, and extends no farther than it can be wholly come at with a knife, it may be generally cured; when ſo ſituated as to open into the neck of the bladder, or when it is attended with a caries in the adjacent bone, particularly the os ſacrum or the coccyx, the cure is very difficult, and often impoſſible.

Mr. Bell, in his Treatiſe on Ulcers, includes the *fiſtula* in his ſpecies of ſinuous ulcer. By ſinuous ulcer he means that kind of ſore which hath one or more openings running into it from chinks of the ſame, or of different directions. A ſinus, as thus deſcribed, he ſays, is the moſt ſimple ſtate of the diſorder, and is, by long continuance, or by the uſe of drying aſtringent applications, liable to become hard and callous in its internal ſurface, and in ſuch a ſtate, from its ſuppoſed reſemblance to a pipe, is termed a *fiſtula*. The moſt frequent cauſe of ſinuſes forming in ulcers and abſceſſes, is the want of vent to the diſcharge, which eaſily inſinuates itſelf into the ſoft yielding ſubſtance of the cellular membrane, and proceeds on gradually till it ſomewhere or other finds an opening either externally, or into ſome of the neighbouring cavities. An improper application of bandages on ulcers is ſometimes a cauſe.

When *fiſtulas*, as yet not become callous, are complicated with ulcers, the moſt expeditious relief is from an inciſion to the very bottom, if it can be done without danger, after which they are to be deterged and conſolidated. Another ſtep is, to preſs their bottoms towards their orifices; for which purpoſe a narrow compreſs, or a ſlip of

plaſter wrapped up in that form, is, after the ulcer is cleaned, and proper medicines put into the fiſtula, to be applied to its bottom, and ſecured, as in other ulcers, with lint, plaſter, and bandages; in applying the bandage, apply it to the bottom of the fiſtula, or, at leaſt, to make it tighteſt there, that the peccant matter may be propelled from the bottom to the mouth of the fiſtula, in conſequence of which the bottom will be ſooneſt healed; this happens moſt frequently when the fiſtula is in the arms or legs, or when its mouth is lower than its bottom. Belloſte, and ſome others, abſolutely diſcard all tents and injections; but as to the latter, when fiſtulas lie too deep for having their moſt remote parts cleanſed, detergent injections muſt be uſed, ſuch as a decoction of birthwort, mixed with honey of roſes, or with the tincture of myrrh and aloes: this or ſome other ſuch like muſt be injected warm at every dreſſing, and retained for a ſhort time, at the ſame time gently compreſſing the bottom and mouth of the *fiſtula*, that the peccant matter may more effectually be waſhed off, and this method muſt be continued until the bottom of the *fiſtula* begins to be conglutinated; then dreſs with ſome ſoft digeſtive, in which is the balſ. Peruv. or balſ. capivi. This method failing, the manual operation muſt be attempted, but, indeed, it is not to be depended on except when the opening can be made to the bottom of the ulcer. The inciſion is made with moſt eaſe to the patient with a knife; but whatever inſtrument is uſed, as much ſkin and fleſh is to be cut as is thought ſafe and ſufficient to anſwer the end; for when the bottoms of *fiſtulas* are laid open, the corrupted matter is not only diſcharged, but medicines are alſo more commodiouſly applied. If upon making the inciſion a large quantity of blood is diſcharged, fill the wound with dry lint, and proceed afterwards as is uſual in recent wounds. Mr. Bell, in his Treatiſe on Ulcers, adviſes almoſt univerſally to ſhun the practice of laying the different ſinuſes open from one end to the other, then cutting out all the hardened parts, ſo to convert the whole into one common ulcer. This method he owns will frequently effect a cure; but, independent of the great pain, and very large unſeemly cicatrix which it occaſions, it cannot, in every caſe, with ſafety be put in practice. E. g. when ſinuſes run far up the rectum, it cannot ever be conveniently done; they penetrate deep, and run below either large blood-veſſels, tendons, or nerves; it would never ſurely in theſe caſes be adviſeable to have recourſe to ſuch treatment. The intention of cure, in every caſe of ſinus, is to produce a coaleſcence of its ſides, ſo as to deſtroy any vacuity that may have occurred: the moſt effectual means of accompliſhing which, is, 1ſt. To make a depending orifice for a free exit to the matter; and then, 2dly, by a gentle irritation to induce, on the internal ſurface of the ſinus, a ſlight degree of inflammation, which, by experience, is known to be that ſtate moſt favourable to the production of adheſion between any two parts; ſo that a firm union of the ſides of the ſinus to one another, may, in due time, be obtained. To anſwer both theſe intentions, Mr. Bell ſays, that the introduction of a ſeton is ſufficient. The ſeton muſt paſs from the orifice in the ulcer along the courſe of the ſinus to its other extremity, where an opening, large enough for the diſcharge, ſhould be made, as is done in caſes of abſceſs. The cord of cotton, or of ſilk, ſhould at firſt be pretty large, more or leſs ſo, according to the capacity of the ſinus; it ſhould be diminiſhed gradually as the cure advances, by taking away a thread or two from its thickneſs every ſecond or third day; and at laſt, when the diſcharge is greatly leſſened, by the vacuity occaſioned by the ſinus being moſtly filled up, the ſeton ſhould be totally withdrawn, and a bandage ſomewhat tight being applied over the part, and continued for ſome time longer, a complete cure will, in general, be in due time effected. The firſt ſtep then to be taken, is to diſcover the direction of the ſinus, or ſinuſes, which may commonly be done, either by introducing a probe, or by obſerving where the matter points, or being allowed to collect for ſome time, and from whence it comes on the parts being preſſed; then into every ſinus that opens into the ulcer, a ſeton ſhould be introduced. This method of curing ſinuſes, by the uſe of a ſeton, is free from all danger, and is admiſſible in all caſes of this kind. A ſeton, by means of a director, may always be uſed with ſafety. The ſinuſes, being removed by the ſetons, the ulcers they were connected with are then to be cured as is uſual with that ſpecies which it happens to belong to. This practice rarely fails in any caſe of ſimple ſinus; in general it anſwers in real *fiſtulæ*; when a *fiſtula* happens in the perinæum, this practice is peculiarly advantageous, not producing that troubleſome cicatrix which happens when the knife is uſed. The only objection to the uſe of the ſeton in caſes of *fiſtula in ano*, is the irritation it would occaſion in the gut. But as Mr. Pott hath ſo ſimplified the management of the *fiſtula in ano*, to his method that inſtance may be referred. See Celſus, lib. vi. c. iv. Boerh. Aph. the Engliſh tranſlation, p. 102, 103. Pott's Treatiſe on Fiſtulas. Bell's Treatiſe on Ulcers.

Fiſtula *in Ano*.

No part of the body is more ſubject to abſceſſes than the part immediately ſurrounding the lower part of the rectum; it is much expoſed to preſſure and other external injuries, which impede the free motion of the blood there, which turns into pus, and as the ſkin here is pretty thick, the pus will inſinuate itſelf up amongſt the ſoft neighbouring parts, and form ſinuſes, which degenerate into *fiſtulas*.

This kind of *fiſtula* is called complete when there is an opening into the gut, and another externally; it is called incomplete when there is no external aperture.

The ſymptoms of the incomplete kind are analogous to thoſe of the piles, and ſo are difficultly diſtinguiſhed. The complete kind hath generally callous lips, which, with the diſcharge therefrom, more readily points out the nature of the caſe.

Abſceſſes in this part ſhould be opened as ſoon as we find a fluctuation of matter, and that by a large opening, which is the moſt effectual method to prevent a return. In examining one of theſe *fiſtulas*, if the probe does not readily paſs, inject warm milk into it, and obſerve if any returns by the rectum; if it does, it is clear that the gut is perforated. When the probe is uſed for examining with, let the patient ſtand on the ground with his feet pretty far aſunder, and lean on his belly over a table, then an aſſiſtant can hold the buttocks aſunder, that the operator may more readily introduce his finger into the anus before he examines the *fiſtula* with a probe. If the *fiſtula* runs ſo deep that the finger introduced into the anus cannot eaſily reach the orifice, then the cure is not practicable, on account of the hæmorrhage from the veſſels, which admit not either of compreſſion or ligature. If a *fiſtula* hath been of long ſtanding, in a bad habit, and the diſcharge is ſuch as to weaken the patient, the operation ſhould not be attempted, at leaſt till the conſtitution is repaired; but if the patient is of a good habit, if the *fiſtula* returns, the operation may be repeated.

The method of operating is as follows, according to Monro's inſtruction: "Wherever the opening of the *fiſtula* is, if it hath any turnings where it reaches the gut, divide them, and make them ſtrait, avoiding the ſphincter. After this I attempt to promote incarnation, which might leſſen the cavity and by degrees fill it up, by injecting balſamic ſoftening medicines; though ſometimes a patient of a good habit may be cured by applying a poultice of bread and milk, and a digeſtive. If this fail, I endeavour to render the parts entirely callous and inſenſible, by injecting a mixture of lime-water and brandy, with a little honey of roſes, increaſing the brandy and diminiſhing the reſt, as the parts loſe their ſenſibility, until at length I inject pure alcohol, which renders them quite inſenſible." See Heiſter's Surgery; Le Dran's Operations; Sharp's Operations. Celſus ſpeaks well on this ſubject.

Fiſtula *in the Epididymis*.

In the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. ii. p. 273, is an inſtance of a *fiſtula* in this part being cured. The ſubſtance of the relation is as follows: A man, of thirty-five years of age hurt his teſticles by a fall; a ſuppuration followed, and the matter was diſcharged externally. After this, the ſwelling being reduced by means of an emollient cataplaſm, a *fiſtula* was diſcovered in each epididymis;

mis; a probe director was then introduced into the left ſinus, which was cut open its whole length; after which all the indurated parts were diſſected, and all the diſeaſed ſkin: the ſame was done on both ſides, and a part of the epididymis on the right ſide was cut away. After this the dreſſings as in common wounds finiſhed a cure. And what deſerves ſome notice in this caſe is, that the functions of the teſtes were afterwards fully executed.

Fiſtula *Lachrymalis*.

It is generally underſtood to be ſuch a diſorder of the canals leading from the eye to the noſe as obſtructs the natural paſſage of the tears, and makes them trickle down the cheeks. In the firſt and mildeſt ſtage of this diſeaſe, an inflammation in this part is alone obſerved: in the next ſtage there is matter diſcharged from the puncta lachrymalia, which flows along with the tears; or it may be that the matter proceeds from an orifice broken through the ſkin, between the noſe and the angle of the eye. The laſt and worſt degree is when the matter of the abſceſs has not only corroded the neighbouring ſoft parts, but alſo the ſubjacent bone, by which it becomes carious.

For a diſtinct idea of the ſeat of this diſeaſe, ſee a figure of the lachrymal ducts in a plate annexed to the chapter on this ſubject, in Sharp's Operations of Surgery.

If the ſkin which ſeparates betwixt the angle of the eye and the noſe is not corroded through, it is called imperfect; if it is corroded through, it is a perfect; and if the ſubjacent bones are affected, it is a compound *fiſtula* lachrymalis.

Other diſorders about the ſeat of the *fiſtula* lachrymalis are confounded with it; but properly this kind of *fiſtula* is a corroſion of the ducts of the lachrymal ſac; in conſequence of which pus flows out of them into the great angle of the eye: when the clear lachrymal fluid flows out without a mixture of pus, the diſorder is an epiphora. The matter of a proper *fiſtula* flows through the upper puncta for the moſt part, but ſometimes through the lower only, or in a few inſtances through both.

The ſymptoms are, frequent droppings of tears, and of a purulent matter, eſpecially in a morning, and this without any manifeſt external inflammation; by preſſure with the finger upon the lachrymal ſac, a diſcharge of pus follows, which is emitted through the puncta lachrymalia; if this pus is ill ſcented, the adjacent bones are generally carious; the ſame is indicated by a green or blackiſh colour of the diſcharged matter, although the ſmell be not offenſive: when the matter is of a bad ſmell or colour, the probe will readily determine the ſtate of the bone; for ſometimes it is not injured, notwithſtanding the attendance of the uſual ſigns; as, on the contrary, there is ſometimes a caries when the pus is diſcharged with every laudable appearance; though, if there is a daily and conſiderable diſcharge of faulty matter, a caries will for the moſt part be formed in the lachrymal bone, the os planum, or in the jaw-bone. If the naſal duct is obſtructed, it is known by injecting ſome fluid into it, when, inſtead of the fluid paſſing through the noſe, it returns by the puncta lachrymalia: if there is an encyſted tumor, the exterior parts ſwell with a hardneſs, and will not yield to the preſſure of the fingers, but there is no inflammation; on the contrary, if the tumor yields upon preſſure, there is a lachrymal hernia. Inſtances have occurred of a *fiſtula* lachrymalis not diſcharging pus with the tears, but the pus was diſcharged alone when the patient was aſleep, and this hath happened when a caries attended.

If the diſeaſe is recent, the habit of body not remarkably faulty, the external ſkin not corroded, the naſal duct unobſtructed, the matter of a good colour and conſiſtence, forbear inciſion, and alſo the cautery; for compreſſion and mild aſtringent collyriums will frequently ſucceed in this mild ſtage of the diſorder; the matter ſhould be now and then gently preſſed out with the finger, by which its acquiring an acrimony will be prevented. But if the duct into the noſe is ſtopped, nothing will ſucceed but the operation; in performing which, puſh the looſe ſkin of the under eye-lid upon the globe of the eye as much as you can; then cut a paſſage into the lachrymal groove, which is known by the crackling of the os unguis under the preſſure of the knife; then, if need be, introduce a probe, and perforate into the noſe: be well aware of getting your knife upon the upper part of the maxillary bone, which you will know by the reſiſtance; in this caſe go a little farther back with your inſtrument: further, obſerve in perforating the os unguis not to preſs upon it too forwards, for then you will be obſtructed by a part of the maxilla ſuperior, which makes part of the canal wherein the ſac is lodged; if you preſs inwards there will be danger of injuring the os naſi, or the ſeptum naſi, or the os ethmoides; but if the inſtrument is paſſed backwards and downwards towards the uvula, no obſtruction will be met with.

For compreſſing inſtruments with which to cure the ſlighter caſes, ſee Sharp's Operations, and Gooch's Caſes. On the Fiſtula Lachrymalis, ſee Sharp's Operations, Le Dran's Operations, Edinb. Med. Eſſays, vols. 2 and 3, Pott's Treatiſe on the Fiſtula Lachrymalis, St. Yves on Diſorders of the Eyes, Heiſter's Surgery.

Fiſtula *in Perinæo*.

This kind of *fiſtula* is when an opening in the ſkin correſponds with one in the urethra. It ſometimes happens that one opening out of the ſide of the urethra is attended with ſeveral through the ſkin, but it rarely happens that there are more than one opening through which the urine is diſcharged from the ſide of the urethra.

After lithotomy a puncture of the perinæum, an abſceſs in the ſame part near the urethra, a ſcirrhus in the glandula proſtata, &c. a *fiſtula* is ſometimes formed, through which the urine makes its way in part, whilſt the reſt is paſſed through the natural paſſage.

A *fiſtula* proceeding from the urethra runs in various directions before it reaches to the external opening of the ſkin, ſo that when the external opening is near the anus, it may be taken for a *fiſtula* in that part; but the diſcharge of urine through the *fiſtula* at once diſtinguiſhes its ſeat.

Beſides the calloſities on the external orifices of theſe *fiſtulas*, there are ſometimes calculous concretions lodged in their cavities; indeed, ſo various are the circumſtances attending different caſes of this kind, that only general rules can be laid down for proceeding by to the cure.

In general, in order to the cure, the outward opening muſt be enlarged by cutting away the callous lips, or deſtroying them by cauſtic; but it ſometimes happens that this end may be anſwered by introducing a bougie into the urethra, in order to diſtend its capacity. Le Dran obſerves, that though there are ſeveral *fiſtulous* orifices, and ſeveral calloſities in the perinæum, and when the water paſſes off in a ſmall ſtream through the natural paſſage, the chief remedy will be the introduction of bougies; alſo that as this canal is enlarged, the external orifices are diminiſhed and healed, and the calloſities are ſoftened. Mr. Bell prefers the cure of this *fiſtula*, by the introduction of a ſeton. See Fiſtula, above. See Le Dran's Operations, where this article is well treated on.

On *fiſtulas* in general, ſee Celſus, Cæſar Magatus, Boerhaave's Aphoriſms (the Engliſh tranſlation), and Pott's Treatiſe on Fiſtulas.

FISTULARIA, i. e. Pedicularis pratenſis purpurea.

FISTULARIS. Fiſtular. In botany thoſe flowers are thus called which are compounded of many long hollow ſmall florets, like pipes. And thoſe plants are called *fiſtulous* whoſe ſtalks are hollow like a pipe.

FIXATIO. Fixation. In chemiſtry it is the rendering any volatile ſubſtance fixed, ſo as not to fly off upon being expoſed to an intenſe heat.

FL. LAP. The abbreviation of Car. Linnæi Flora Lapponica.

FL. NORIB. The abbreviation of Johannis Georgii Volckameri Flora Noribergenſis.

FLABELLUM MARINUM. A name for the keratophyton maximum cinereum elegantiſſimum reticulatum.

FLAMMULA. So the ſkein of ſilk was uſed to be called with which ſetons were uſed to be made. It is a name of ſeveral ſpecies of ranunculus, and of the atragone.

FLAMMULA JOVIS. The upright lady's bower. It is the clematis recta, or clematis foliis pinnatis: foliolis ovato lanceolatis integerrimis, caule erecto, floribus alvis pentapetalis tetrapetaliſque. Linn. Upright traveller's joy.

FLATUARII. Chemiſts.

FLATULENTUS. See AMBULO.

FLATUS. Flatulence. It is vapours rarefied by the heat of the part where they are contained; whence diſtenſions, uneaſy ſenſations, and often a conſiderable degree of pain. It is for the moſt part an inſtance of dyſpepſia.

FLATUS FURIOSUS, i. e. Ambulo.

FLAVII CLEMENTIS MEDICAMENTUM. The name of a medicine for the gout; it is deſcribed by Actuarius.

FLEMEN. A tumor about the ancles. Sometimes it imports callous furrows in the hands or feet.

FLERESIN. A name for the gout.

FLAVUM LIGNUM, called alſo lignum noſtratibus, tatai-ibi, xanthoxylum. Fuſtic wood, or fuſtic tree. It grows plentifully in Jamaica. It is uſed by dyers for ſtaining a yellow colour, but it is not noted as a medicine.

FLETUS. Weeping.

FLEXOR. A name applied to ſeveral muſcles, from their office, which is to bend the parts to which they belong.

FLEXOR CAPITIS. See RECTUS Internus Major.

FLEXOR CARPI RADIALIS. Some call it flexor carpi exterior, and bicornis. It riſes from the anterior part of the inner condyle of the os humeri, paſſes toward the outſide, and runs through the annular ligament, being partly inſerted into the trapezium, and partly into the firſt metacarpal bone.

FLEXOR CARPI ULNARIS. It is alſo called flexor carpi interior. It riſes from the inner condyle of the os humeri, and almoſt from the whole ſurface of the ulna, forming a tendon, which is inſerted into the os piſſiforme.

FLEXORES PRIMI INTERNODII DIGITORUM. Theſe are muſcles that are both on the hands and feet. Winſlow calls them LUMBRICALES, which ſee. Dr. Hunter deſcribes the lumbricales as productions of the flexors, and deſcribes diſtinctly the

FLEXOR PRIMI INTERNODII POLLICIS MANUS. It riſes from the annular ligament of the carpus, and is inſerted into the firſt bone of the thumb.

FLEXOR SECUNDI INTERNODII POLLICIS MANUS. It is made up of two portions, the anterior of which is inſerted into one ſeſamoid bone, the poſterior into the other.

FLEXOR INTERNODII SECUNDI DIGITORUM MANUS, alſo called flexor ſublimis, or perforatus. It riſes from the inner condyle of the os humeri, and from the fore-part of the head of the ulna and radius; it paſſes through the annular ligament, and ſpreads out into four tendons, which are inſerted into the baſis of the ſecond phalanx: they are bound down by what is called an annular ligament, which is really a general ſheath of the fingers, thicker at the joints than elſewhere. Brown calls this muſcle flexor ſecundus.

FLEXOR TERTII INTERNODII DIGITORUM MANUS. Dr. Hunter calls it perforans manus. It riſes from the inner condyle of the os humeri, from the external part of the ulna, about its middle, and from the interoſſeous ligament it runs between the perforatus, and forms four tendons, which paſs through as many ſlits in the perforatus, to be inſerted into the baſis of the laſt phalanx.

FLEXOR POLLICIS BREVIS. It is ſhort, thick, and fleſhy, ſeemingly divided into two muſcles, by the tendon of the flexor pollicis longus paſſing over it. It riſes from the upper part of the os cuneiforme medium, and running over the termination of the muſculus peronæus primus, is implanted into the oſſa ſeſamoidea of the great toe, which are likewiſe tied to the ſuperior part of the ſecond bone of that toe.

FLEXOR POLLICIS LONGUS MANUS. It riſes from the fore part of the radius, and commonly receives one ſlip from the coronoid proceſs of the ulna; it forms a tendon which paſſes deep under the annular ligament, runs between the two ſeſamoid bones, over the firſt and ſecond bone, to be inſerted into the baſis of the third.

FLEXOR POLLICIS LONGUS PEDIS. It riſes from the poſterior part of the fibula; it paſſes in a groove between the aſtragalus and os calcis, is covered by the abductor pollicis, and goes between the ſeſamoid bones, betwixt which is an annular ligament, to be inſerted into the laſt bone of the great toe. It gives ſome fibres to the perforans pedis.

FLEXOR PRIMI & SECUNDI OSSIS POLLICIS. It is a large diſgregated muſcle, ariſing from the ligamentum tranſverſale carpi, the bones of the carpus at the baſis of the mons lunæ, and the os metacarpi of the middle finger, whence it paſſes to its inſertion into the firſt and ſecond bones of the thumb. In its tendon, near the inſertion into the firſt bone of the thumb, are placed two ſeſamoid bones. Its actions are various, as are the directions of the muſcles.

FLEXOR TERTII INTERNODII POLLICIS, vel Longiſſimus Pollicis. It often hath a two-fold beginning, one from the internal ſubſtance of the os humeri, between the perforatus and perforans; this head is ſometimes wanting, and ſometimes ſprings from the upper and fore part of the ulna; the ſecond head riſes on the radius; it paſſes over the articulation of the carpus, and is implanted in the upper part of the third bone of the thumb.

FLEXOR SUBLIMIS, or Perforatus Pedis. Winſlow calls it flexor digitorum brevis, and Brown calls it flexor ſecundi internodii digitorum. It riſes from the lower and inner part of the os calcis; it is divided into four tendons under the ſole of the foot, which are inſerted into the bones of the ſecond phalanx.

FLEXOR LONGUS, or perforans Pedis. It riſes from the poſterior part of the tibia juſt below the popliteus, and from the interoſſeous ligament; then goes on the inſide of the aſtragalus and os calcis (from whoſe internal part a ſhort head riſes, which is called acceſſorius), and paſſing through the ſlit of the perforatus, its four tendons are inſerted into the baſis of the laſt bones of the toes. This muſcle receives ſome fibres from the flexor pollicis longus.

FLEXOR BREVIS MINIMI DIGITI MANUS. It riſes from the unciform proceſs of the carpus, toward the annular ligament, and is inſerted into the baſis of the little finger.

FLEXOR DIGITORUM ACCESSORIUS. See FLEXOR LONGUS PEDIS. Dr. Hunter calls it acceſſorius.

FLEXOR PRIMI ET SECUNDI INTERNODII POLLICIS. Theſe muſcles riſe ſharp and fleſhy about the middle of the back part of the fibula; then running into a tendon in paſſing over the joint, and then through a channel in the inner part of the os calcis, are inſerted into the upper end of the ſecond bone of the great toe.

FLEXOR SECUNDI INTERNODII DIGITORUM PEDIS. See FLEXOR SUBLIMIS.

FLEXOR SECUNDI INTERNODII DIGITORUM PEDIS. See FLEXOR LONGUS PEDIS.

FLORES. Flowers. In chemiſtry they are the moſt ſubtil parts of bodies, ſeparated from the more groſs, by ſublimation in a dry form. Mace is ſometimes called the *flowers* of nutmeg. In botany, *flowers* are conſidered as under the article FLOS, which ſee. In pharmacy, they are directed to be gathered when moderately expanded, on a clear dry day, before noon. Red roſes are taken before they open, and the white heels are clipped off and thrown away. Thoſe *flowers* that are gathered for keeping ſhould be dried in the ſhade, but as quickly as poſſible; in ſome inſtances, the place may be warmed by a fire, though the ſun is not ſo conveniently permitted to ſhine upon them. When the *flowers* are dried, they muſt be kept cloſe and dry; if they become damp, expoſe them to a warm ſun until they are dry, and then they do not ſoon attract moiſture from the air. With their ſcent and colour their virtues go. Conſidered as an article in the materia medica, it may be obſerved, that the virtue of different *flowers* reſide in different parts of them; e. g. Saffron is a production which riſes from the ſtile of the *flower*; it contains all the medicinal qualities of the plant, at leaſt all thoſe for which ſaffron is eſteemed; the active part of camomile *flowers* is in the yellow diſk; in roſes, lilies, and ſeveral others, the virtues are in the petala; and the flavour admired in roſemary *flower* is chiefly in the cups.

FLOS. A Flower. In botany, it is that part of a plant in which are the parts of generation, and that of both the ſexes. In ſome *flowers* are the parts proper to one ſex only, in others both ſexes are included in the ſame flower. Botaniſts diſtinguiſh the flowers of plants as follow:

FLOS AMENTACEUS. See AMENTACEUS.

FLOS APETALUS. Theſe are without petals. They have no other covering on the parts of generation but the calyx.

FLOS CAMPANIFORMIS. Theſe *flowers* are ſhaped like a bell. Thoſe whoſe edges ſpread wide are termed open bell-ſhaped flowers; but thoſe which are much leſs ſpread, are called tubulous bell-ſhaped *flowers*.

FLOS CARYOPHYLLEUS. It is ſuch a *flower* as is ſhaped like a clove gilly-*flower*.

FLOS COMPOSITUS. It is a compound *flower*, compoſed either of florets, or of ſemi-florets, or of both together; of this kind is the blue bottle, and many others.

FLOS CRUCIFORMIS. It is compoſed of four petals, placed in the form of a croſs. Of this ſort are the cabbage, the wall-*flower*, and muſtard.

FLOS FLOSCULOSUS. A floſculous flower. It is compoſed of ſeveral florets, included in one common cup.

FLOS INFUNDIBULIFORMIS. A funnel-ſhaped *flower*; of this kind is the primroſe, &c.

FLOS LABIATUS. Lip-ſhaped flowers. It is an irregular monopetalous *flower*, divided commonly into two lips; the upper is called the creſt, and the under one the beard. Sometimes the creſt is wanting, and then the ſtyle and chives ſupply its place. Some call this an unilabiated *flower*.

FLOS LILIACEUS. A lily-ſhaped flower. It is generally compoſed of ſix petals, which reſemble thoſe of the lily. Of this ſort are the tulip and the aſphodel.

FLOS MONOPETALUS. A *flower* compoſed of one leaf. All thoſe *flowers* whoſe leaves are joined at the bottom, ſo that they fall off entire, are termed monopetalous *flowers*.

FLOS MONOPETALUS ANOMALUS. An irregular *flower* conſiſting of one leaf.

FLOS PAPILIONACEUS. A pea-bloom flower. It is a *flower* which in ſome meaſure reſembles a butterfly with its wings expanded; it always conſiſts of the vexillum, which is a large erect petal, two wings which compoſe the ſides, and the carina, which is a concave petal; this is ſometimes entire, at others it conſiſts of two petals adhering pretty cloſely together.

FLOS PERSONATUS. A perſonated flower. It is an irregular monopetalous *flower*, whoſe upper part reſembles the beaks of fowls, ſuch are the toad-flax, &c.

FLOS PETALODES. A petalous flower. It is a *flower* whoſe organs of generation are ſurrounded with petals.

FLOS POLYPETALUS. A polypetalous *flower* is one compoſed of ſeveral petals. When theſe agree in figure and poſition, it is called a regular *polypetalous flower*; but when the petals do not agree in figure and poſition, it is called an irregular and *polypetalous flower*.

FLOS RADIATUS. A radiated flower. It conſiſts of two parts, viz. the diſk and the rays, which are ſeveral ſemiflorets ſet round the diſk in the form of a ſtar, theſe are called radiated diſcous *flowers*; but thoſe which have no ſuch rays are called naked diſcous *flowers*.

FLOS ROSACEUS. Roſe-ſhaped flowers. They conſiſt of four, or more petals, which are placed circularly in form of a roſe.

FLOS ROSATUS. It is a *flower* in the form of a wheel; ſuch are thoſe of borrage.

FLOS SCORPIOIDES. Thoſe *flowers* are ranged on one ſide of the pedicle, which twiſts at top, in the form of a ſcorpion's tail. Of this ſort is the heliotropium.

FLOS SEMIFLOSCULOSUS. A ſemifloſculous flower. It is compoſed of ſeveral ſemiflorets, included in one common calyx.

FLOS SPICATUS. A ſpiked flower. It is one whoſe *flowers* are ſet thick on the pedicle, ſo as to form an acute cone.

FLOS STAMINEUS. It is one which is compoſed of many chives included in a calyx, having no petals. Of this ſort is the biſtort, &c.

FLOS STERILIS. Barren flowers. Theſe have no embryo adhering to them, ſo are called male *flowers*.

FLOS VENTRICULATUS. Whorle-ſhaped flower. Theſe grow cloſely united, ſurrounding the ſtalk at the joints.

FLOS UMBELLATUS. An umbellated flower. It is when the extremity of the ſtalk, or branch, is divided into ſeveral pedicles, or rays, beginning from the ſame point, and opening in ſuch a manner, as to form a kind of inverted cone like an umbrella. When the pedicles, into which the ſtalk is divided, are ſubdivided into others of the ſame form upon which the *flowers* are diſpoſed, the firſt order is called rays, the ſecond pedicles. That umbel which conſiſts of pedicles only is called a ſingle umbel; that which is compoſed both of rays and pedicles is called a compound umbel.

FLOS URSEOLATUS. Pitcher-ſhaped *flower*. Of this ſort are the arbutus and whortle-berry.

FLUOR. This word, when uſed adjectively, is applied to ſignify the habitual fluidity of any ſubſtance, or that property by which a ſubſtance cannot be rendered ſolid; and it is employed as an epithet to diſtinguiſh ſuch ſubſtances from others of the ſame kind, but which are habitually ſolid, or which may be rendered ſo: e. g. a volatile alkali treated with quicklime is always liquid, and cannot be made to concrete or cryſtallize, ſo is called fluor volatile alkali, to diſtinguiſh it from the concrete and cryſtallizable volatile alkali.

When the word *fluor* is uſed ſubſtantively, it ſignifies a certain kind of ſtone which is fuſible, or which facilitates fuſion. Of this kind are moſt ſpars, which are called *fluors*. Mineralogiſts differ much in deſcribing *fluors*; but by the word *fluor*, that kind of ſtone which we call ſpar is generally underſtood. Spar appears like cryſtal, it is colourleſs and pellucid, but not ſo bright as cryſtal; it commonly riſes in triangular points, and when burnt, it is converted into lime, whereas cryſtal runs into glaſs. Spar is the baſis of moſt ſtones, it is the petrifying matter of all the tribe of animal petrefactions. Springs that are impregnated with ſpar are diuretic. See Dict. of Chem. Neumann's Chem. Works. As an object of foſſiology, the *fluor*, or the *fluſſes*, are an order in the claſs of ſtones; their characters are, that they are foſſile bodies, which ſtrike not fire with ſteel; effervеſce not with acids; very readily are brought into fuſion, either by themſelves, or when mixed with certain other earths and ſtones, eſpecially the calcareous; and more eaſily brought into fuſion, under ſimilar circumſtances, than the foſſil bodies, with which they can be confounded. See Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy.

FLUOR ALBUS The white flux, commonly called the whites. It is a *flux* of matter from the vagina, which is of different colours and conſiſtencies, but generally of a pale or whitiſh colour. Aſtruc diſtinguiſhes this diſorder into the lymphatic, the ſemilacteus, and lacteus. Dr. Shebbear ſays, that the *fluor albus*, the hectic fever, and the diabetes are of the ſame general kind, and that they are cauſed by a defective vital heat in different circumſtances. In Dr. Cullen's Noſology it is a ſpecies of menorrhagia.

The ſeat of this diſorder ſeems moſt probably to be in that part of the uterus next to the os internum, though principally in the vagina. Aſtruc ſays, that the ſeat is in the glands about the fundus uteri; theſe glands he calls colatoria lactea, and ſays, that when they diſcharge more than is required by the deſign of nature in their proper uſe, this diſeaſe is formed. Hoffman ſays, "that in a natural ſtate the uterine exhaling veſſels become blood-veſſels at the menſtrual period, and when their plenitude is regularly diſcharged, they contract to their former dimenſion and tone; but when, by immoderate evacuations, or other cauſes, their elaſtic power is much weakened, they never fully contract, but ſeparate the ſerous part of the blood, which by its ſtagnating, or from the particular ſtate of the body, acquires various degrees of acrimony and conſiſtence." But as pregnant women are liable to this complaint, it does not appear that this matter in them proceeds from the uterus, except, as above obſerved, from about the os internum; for the ſpongy chorion firmly adheres to its inner ſurface in almoſt every part. Some women, it is true, have the menſes returning in every month of pregnancy, which, though deficient both in quantity and quality, yet rather confirms Hoffman's opinion on this ſubject, as well as that the vagina may be a principal ſeat of the diſcharge.

Women who abound with ſerum, thoſe with lax fibres; women at the flower of their age, and girls at the approach of the menſes, are the moſt ſubject to this diſorder; though girls of three years old, &c. up to old age, have been its ſubjects. Hoffman obſerves, that women

who are ſubject to a mucous defluxion at the noſe, are, upon a ſuppreſſion of the menſes, affected with a *fluor albus*.

That the immediate cauſes of a *fluor albus* are debility of the veſſels from which the menſtrual diſcharges are made, or a retarded circulation of the blood through them, appears from that ſome women have always a *fluor albus* whenever their menſes are detained. In ſome languid habits, the *fluor albus* returns periodically inſtead of the proper menſtrual evacuation, until the patient's conſtitution is duly invigorated; and in many inſtances, the *fluor albus* is manifeſt only during the abſence of the menſes, as alſo from ſeveral circumſtances obſervable in the manner of its appearance in different perſons.

The more remote cauſes are whatever can weaken the veſſels from whence this morbid flux makes its exit; and theſe are cold moiſt air, a ſedentary life, poor diet, exceſſive menſtrual diſcharges, abortions, violent extraction of the placenta, &c.

From Hippocrates's deſcription of this diſeaſe it appears to have a great affinity to a cachexy. He ſays, that "the matter diſcharged reſembles the white urine of an aſs; white ſwellings appear in the patient's face, the parts below the eyes ſwell, her eyes are diſordered, and appear as if ſhe was dropſical; the colour of the ſkin is whitiſh, and the lower part of her belly tumid; in her legs appear tumors ſo lax and ſo ſoft, as to retain the impreſſions of the finger; ſhe perceives a biting pain in the ſtomach, and ſeems to feel an acid water lodged in it when ſhe is either faſting, or happens to vomit; when ſhe goes up a ſteep place, ſhe is ſeized with ſhort breathing; her legs are cold, her knees feeble, her uterus is preternaturally opened, and fallen down with a ſenſe of weight to its mouth." In ſome, this diſcharge is daily, and in others, it appears two or three times in a month, and continues each time only a few days; the humour is ſerous and limpid in ſome, and in others more viſcid; ſometimes it is acrid, and occaſions an itching, pricking, or even an excoriation; in its greater degrees of virulence, it appears of different ſhades, from the ſlighteſt yellow to a green, or even a blackiſh green colour, and it is then more or leſs fetid. When the caſe is of the milder kind, the ſymptoms are often not regarded; but when it is more violent, a cachexy is ſoon the conſequence; then there is pain and a ſenſe of weight in the loins, turbid urine, longings and loathings, indigeſtion, ſwelling of the face in the night, and of the feet in the day, palpitation of the heart, fainting, all which ending in a dropſy, or a conſumption, proves fatal.

This diſorder ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from a cachexy, a gonorrhœa, pale and ill-coloured menſes, and from ulcerations and abſceſſes in the parts of generation.

If this diſorder is moderate, it is ſupported a long time without much inconvenience, but in increaſed degrees it ſoon ſpoils the beauty of a fine face, weakens the digeſtive powers, and produces a general bad habit; it produces ſterility in ſome women, and, in more, a diſpoſition to miſcarry. If the flux is unſeaſonably checked, the belly ſwells, a hectic fever comes on, and a train of the moſt diſagreeable ſymptoms follow.

The indications of cure are, to promote digeſtion, increaſe the vital heat, and reſtrain the preternatural diſcharge; in order to which, the diet ſhould be light, cordial, and nouriſhing; iſinglaſs diſſolved in milk is peculiarly uſeful, and ſo is frequent moderate quantities of red port wine. The exerciſe ſhould be moderate, carefully avoiding fatigue. The ſtate of the ſtomach muſt be attended to, and digeſtion promoted by warm ſtomachics. The blood will be beſt improved by warm aromatics, chalybeates, antimonials, and the bark.

An emetic of ipecuanha, or of the antimonial kind, may begin the cure, if any ſymptom attends which may probably be thus relieved. But from the nature of the diſeaſe, a ſpeedy cure is not to be expected, if the degree of diſorder is conſiderable; the patient ſhould, therefore, be guarded againſt impatience at the firſt onſet towards relief; this adverted to, Dr. Cheyne recommends mild mercurials to alter, then chalybeates to invigorate, and at laſt, the bark and cold bathing to finiſh the cure. See his Cure of the Diſeaſes of the Body and Mind.

In the beginning, warm baths made by ſuſpending aromatic herbs in ſoft water, are very uſeful.

Mild purges, ſuch as rhubarb, or, which is yet to be preferred, the ol. ricini, one or other of theſe ſhould be now and then repeated in groſs plethoric habits.

As a mercurial alterative, the following may be uſed; it neither injures the ſtomach, nor diſturbs the bowels. ℞ Mercur. viv. ℥ii. tereb. Venet. ʒii. ad merc. fixand. cui adde rhabarb. ℥i. ſs. cochin. ℥ ſs. elix. prop. q. ſ. f. maſſa pillular. Of this, ſuch doſes may be repeated night and morning as the patient can take, without increaſing the ſenſible diſcharges.

Aſtringents are univerſally prohibited by Hoffman; his cautions in this reſpect deſerve a peculiar regard, notwithſtanding the encomium on the uſe of the vitr. alb. in the Lond. Pract. Phy. in the chapter on this diſeaſe.

Injections of water, mixed with ſmall quantities of vinegar, are uſeful at the latter end of the cure. This mixture may be injected up the vagina two or three times a-day.

Diuretics are peculiarly proper for leſſening the ſerous plethora.

If a procedentia uteri is the effect of this diſeaſe, a peſſary may be formed of ſoft ſponge: make it of ſuch a ſize as when expanded it may fill up the cavity of the vagina; each time that this peſſary is taken out to be cleaned, it may be dipped in ſome ſlightly aſtringent liquor, before it is introduced again.

When the *flux* is much diſcoloured and fetid, and is alſo attended with heat, pain, and ulcers, it is probable that a ſcirrhus is ſeated in the uterus, or that a cancer may be formed there; in this ſituation, palliatives only can be propoſed, ſuch as bleeding once in a month, or at longer periods, as may ſeem moſt needful; purging now and then with manna, a milk diet, and narcotics repeated night and morning.

As to forms for ſtomachic and chalybeate preparations, &c. ſee a ſufficient variety in Brooks's and the London Practice of Phyſic. See Hippocrates de Morb. Mulier. lib. ii. Platerus's Practice, vol. iii. Shebbear's Theory and Practice of Phyſic; Hoffman's Diſſertation on the *Fluor Albus*. This laſt deſerves an attentive peruſal.

FLUS, i. e. Fluor.

FLUXIO, i. e. Catarrhus.

FLUXUS. A Flux. Sometimes it ſignifies a defluxion, and in this ſenſe, it is the ſame as catarrhus. Sometimes it bears a reſtrained ſenſe, as *fluxus* ventris, which is a continued evacuation of humid fæces, without either a teneſmus or lientery; or a *fluxus* hepaticus, which is when from a weakneſs in the liver, the excrements are like water, in which fleſh hath been waſted. Hippocrates uſes the word ῥοῦς, *fluxus*, in his de Nat. Mulieb. of which there are the fluor albus, and fluor ruber, i. e. menſes. *Fluxus*, ῥοὴ, is ſpoken of a falling off the hair, See Trallian, lib. i. cap. ii. In Cullen's Noſology, it is ſynonymous with APOCENOSES, which ſee.

FOCARIUS. Bread broiled on the hearth or gridiron.

FOCILE MAJUS & MINUS. Focile, an Arabic term but a barbarous one. Names formerly given to the ulna and radius, in the arm, and to the tibia and fibula, in the leg.

FOCUS. In metallurgy, Rulandus ſays it is a ſmelting houſe. *Focus* morbi. The *focus* of a diſeaſe is the part where it is ſuppoſed to keep its principal reſidence, and whence it communicates its noxious influence. Some ancient anatomiſts gave this name to the firſt lobe of the liver.

FODINA. A name of the labyrinth of the ear.

FŒDULA. A ſpecies of fungus.

FŒNICULI, vel Fœniculatum Lignum. Saſſafras wood.

FŒNICULUM. Fennel. *Fœniculum* ſeems to be a diminutive of *fœnum*, *hay*; becauſe when withered and dried, it is like hay repoſited againſt winter. Boerhaave mentions eight ſpecies.

FŒNICULUM VULGARE, called alſo *fœniculum* Germanicum, marathrum, common finckle, or common fennel. The anethum *fœniculum*, or anethum fructibus ovatis. Var. B. Linn.

This plant is ſo common on our tables, that its deſcription is here needleſs. Its ſeeds are ſmall and dark coloured, being of a blackiſh brown. The plant is perennial, native in the ſouthern parts of Europe, but thrives in our gardens.

The ſeeds are warm and pungent, more ſo than thoſe of the ſweet kind, but they are not ſo palatable; the ſame difference is obſerved in the waters and oils obtained from theſe ſeeds by diſtillation, and alſo in the extracts which are made from them. Theſe ſeeds are warm and carminative, they are commended againſt nauſeas and loathing, and if eaten in the morning faſting they are ſaid to help the ſight.

The leaves have the ſame flavour with the ſeeds, and ſmell ſtronger; but to the taſte are weaker and leſs agreeable. They impregnate water, ſufficiently ſtrong with their virtues, by diſtillation; and by the ſame proceſs they afford a conſiderable quantity of eſſential oil. Rectified ſpirit of wine extracts an agreeable aromatic from them, which retains the whole ſtrength, after evaporation, to a proper conſiſtence.

The roots, taken up in ſpring, have a pleaſant ſweet taſte, are ſlightly aromatic, and are ranked amongſt the aperient roots.

FŒNIC. DULC. Sweet fennel. This ſpecies of plant is annual, a native of warm climes, and cultivated in gardens. It is the anethum *fœniculum*, vel anethum fructibus ovatis. Linn. A variety of the *fœniculum* vulgare. The ſeeds are larger, paler, and ſweeter than thoſe of the common ſort; they contain a groſs oil, which is eaſily obtained by preſſure; and when freed from the eſſential oil, is perfectly inſipid. The London college directs to diſtil a ſimple water from the ſeeds. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

FŒNICULUM ALPINUM. A name of the meum.

FŒNICULUM ANNUUM. See VISNAGA.

FŒNICULUM ERRATICUM. Engliſh ſaxifrage.

FŒNICULUM MARINUM MAJOR & MINOR. See CRITHMUM.

FŒNICULUM ORIENTALE. See CUMINUM.

FŒNICULUM PORCINUM. See PEUCEDANUM.

FŒNICULUM SYLVESTRE. A name of the baſtard ſpignel; alſo of ſeveral ſpecies of ſeſeli.

FŒNUM CAMELORUM, i. e. Juncus odoratus.

FŒNUM GRÆCUM, Fenugreek. See TRIGONELLA. It is a plant with ſerrated, roundiſh leaves; whitiſh papilionaceous flowers, followed by long, ſlender, crooked, flattiſh pods, containing yelloviſh rhomboidal ſeeds furrowed from angle to angle; or, as Neuman obſerves, oblong, flattiſh, quadrangular, and roundiſh at one end. Theſe ſeeds are ſown annually in the ſouth of Europe, from whence they are brought to us.

The ſeeds only are in uſe, and their prevailing principle is a mucilaginous matter. An ounce of theſe ſeeds renders a pint of water very ſlimy; their chief uſe is in emollient cataplaſms and fomentations, and in emollient and carminative clyſters. See Lewis's Mat. Med. and Neumann's Chem. Works.

FŒNUM GRÆCUM SYLVESTRE. See GLAUX.

FŒTABULUM. So M. A. Severinus calls an abſceſs with a cyſt.

FŒTUS. Fœtus a fovendo vel a φοῦλαν, *coire*, or rather fetus, from *feo*, ſee Voſſ. Etymol. The young of all viviparous animals whilſt in the womb, and of oviparous animals before being hatched: the name is transferred by botaniſts to the embryos of vegetables.

In the human *fœtus* are ſeveral peculiarities not to be found in the adult; ſome of them are as follow: 1. The ductus, or canalis arterioſus. See ARTERIOSUS DUCTUS. 2. The arteries of the navel-ſtring, which are continuations of the hypograſtics, after the birth are ſhrivelled up, and form the ligamenta umbilicalia inferior. 3. The veins of the navel-ſtring, which are formed by the union of all the venal branches in the placenta, and paſſing into the abdomen, become the falciform ligament of the liver. 4. The DUCTUS VENOSUS, which ſee. 5. The lungs, which before being inflated with air, are compact and heavy; but after one inſpiration they become light, and, as it were, ſpongy: and it may be noted here, that the notion of the lungs ſinking in water before the child breathes, and of their ſwimming after the reception of air, are no certain proofs that the child had or had not breathed, much leſs that it was murdered; for the uninflated lungs become ſpecifically lighter than water as ſoon as any degree of putrefaction takes place in them; and this ſoon happens after the death of the child: beſides, where the utmoſt care hath been taken to preſerve the child, it hath breathed once or twice, and then died. 6. The thymus gland is very large in the *fœtus*, but dwindles away in proportion as years advance. 7. The foramen ovale in the heart of a *fœtus*, is generally cloſed in an adult. 8. The circulation of the blood. See CIRCULATIO.

On the nutrition of the *fœtus*, ſee the Edinb. Med. Eſſays, vol ii. They ſeem to be nouriſhed by a ſpecies of abſorption.

The extra uterine *fœtuſes* are generally lodged in the Fallopian tubes; though ſometimes they are in the cavity of the abdomen. Whenever they are formed, they point to the anus, or, as now and then happens, to the navel; and by occaſioning an irritation and inflammation, an abſceſs is formed; on the opening of which, a paſſage is formed for the child, which generally comes away by piece-meal. See inſtances recorded in the Lond. Med. Obſ. & Inq. vol. ii. and iii.

As to marks, &c. impreſſed on the *fœtus* by the force of the mother's imagination, &c. much is ſaid with greater plauſibility than ſatisfaction on both ſides: ſome things of the kind which are gravely related, are doubtleſs abſurd; but that the whole ſhould be rejected, ſeems to be very unreaſonable.

FOLIACEUM ORNAMENTUM. The fringed ſubſtance at the extremity of the tubæ Fallopianæ.

FOLIATA TERRA. A name for ſulphur after it is perfectly prepared by a proceſs mentioned in the Theat. Chym. It is alſo a name for the ſal diureticus.

FOLIATIO. Foliation. It is one of the parts of the flower of a plant, being a collection of thoſe fine-coloured leaves which conſtitute the compaſs of the flower.

FOLIUM. A leaf. It is a part of a plant, extended in length and breadth, ſo as to have one ſide diſtinguiſhed from the other. In Latin it is called folium, to diſtinguiſh it from the *leaf* of a flower, which is called petalum. The different kinds of the *leaves* of plants are thus deſcribed by botaniſts.

FOL. ALATUM. A winged leaf. It is as it were compoſed of ſeveral pinnated *leaves*.

FOL. ANGULATUM. An angular leaf. It is when the margin is cut into ſeveral angles.

FOL. AURICULATUM. An eared leaf. It is one whoſe baſe next the pedicle is indented, ſomewhat reſembling an ear.

FOL. COMPOSITUM. A compound leaf. It is one which is divided into ſeveral parts, each reſembling a ſimple *leaf*.

FOL. CRENATUM. A crenated leaf. It is one which is cut about the edges into ſeveral obtuſe ſegments.

FOL. DIGITATUM. A digitated leaf. It is a compound *leaf*, divided into ſeveral parts, all of which meet together at the tail, ſo as to reſemble a hand.

FOL. HEPTAFOLIATUM. An heptafoliated leaf. It is a digitated *leaf*, conſiſting of ſeven fingers.

FOL. INTEGRUM. An entire leaf. It is one that hath no diviſion on the edges.

FOL. LACINIATUM. A jagged leaf. It is one that is cut about the edges into ſeveral deep portions in an irregular manner.

FOL. PENNATUM. A pennated leaf. It is a compound *leaf*, divided into ſeveral parts, each of which is called a lobe, placed along the middle rib, either alternately or by pairs. When the middle rib is terminated by an odd lobe, it is called an equal pennated *leaf*. When the lobes are all nearly of the ſame form and bigneſs, it is called an uniform pennated *leaf*; when they are not ſo, it is termed diſform.

FOL. QUINQUEFOLIATUM. A quinquefoliated leaf. It is a digitated *leaf*, conſiſting of five fingers.

FOL. RAMOSUM. A ramoſe leaf. It is one which is ſtill farther divided than the winged *leaf*, as is the common or female fern.

FOL. SAGITTATUM. A ſpear-ſhaped leaf. It is one which ends in three ſharp angles, reſembling a dart.

FOL. SIMPLEX. A ſimple leaf. It is one that is not divided to the middle.

FOL. SINUATUM. A ſinuated leaf. It is one that is cut about the edges into ſeveral acute ſegments, like the teeth of a ſaw.

FOL. TRIFOLIATUM. A trifoliated leaf. It is a digitated *leaf* with three fingers,

FOL. TRILOBATUM. It is a trilobated leaf. It conſiſts of three obtuſe lobes which are not divided to the bottom.

FOL. UMBILICATUM. An umbilicated leaf. It is one that hath the pedicle faſtened to the backſide of a *leaf*; ſo that on the upper ſide of the *leaf* there is a ſmall cavity formed like a navel.

FOLIUM. It is a name of the philoſopher's ſtone; alſo of that triangular membranaceous ſinus, where there is a concourſe of the ſagittal and coronal ſutures in infants: it ſignifies a relaxed uvula in Arnaldus.

FOLIUM. Alſo called fol. Indum, malabathrum, tamalapatrum, cardegi Indi, canella ſylveſtris Malabarica, catou karua, canella Javanenſis. Wild cinnamon-tree, and Indian leaf. The tree is the laurus caſſia of Linn.

The bark of the tree is called caſſia lignea, and is often ſubſtituted for the true cinnamon. It is the produce of the Eaſt-Indies. Like the cinnamon it is a cordial, but does not poſſeſs its corroborating quality; it is thicker, more woody, and of a redder colour than the true cinnamon; it is leſs hot to the taſte, and, on chewing, is mucilaginous, by which it is eaſily diſtinguiſhed from true cinnamon. Chuſe that which is ſmall, purpliſh, eaſily broken, fragrant, acrid, ſweetiſh, and mucilaginous when chewed a little.

The leaf, which is called by way of diſtinction, *folium*, is of a firm texture, of an oblong oval ſhape, pointed at both ends, ſmooth and gloſſy on the upper ſide, and leſs ſo on the under; of a yellowiſh green colour on the upper, and of a pale brownith one on the under ſide, furniſhed with three ribs running its whole length, very protuberant on the lower ſide, and two ſmaller ones which bound the edges. Both the leaves and their pedicles are very mucilaginous; chewed, they render the ſaliva ſlimy or glutinous; infuſed in water, they give out a large quantity of ſtrong tenacious mucilage; but of the aroma, which is ſtrong in the bark, they poſſeſs but little. Ray ſays, that theſe leaves are diuretic. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

FOLLICULUS. A follicle, a little bag. In ſurgery, it is a bag which contains the matter of ſome abſceſſes and tumors, and the melliceris, &c. In botany, it is the thin involucrum, or membranaceous cover which incloſes the ſeeds of plants. In anatomy it is a ſimple gland.

FOLLICULUS FELLIS. The gall-bladder.

FOLLIS, i. e. Folliculus. It is alſo the name of a large leather bag filled with wind, and uſed as an exerciſe by the antient Romans.

FOMENTATIO. A fomentation; from *fomen* or *foveo*, *nouriſhing*, or *cheriſhing*. To foment, is to cheriſh with heat, to bathe with warm liquors. *Fomentations* are powders, or dry things in bags; or liquors in a bladder, or ſponge, or flannel, and applied warm to a diſeaſed part. See Fotus.

FOMES. Fewel. From *fovendo*. When ſpoken of diſeaſes, it is the internal or antecedent cauſe which foments and continues the diſeaſe.

FOMES VENTRICULI. A name which the ancients gave to the Spleen, which ſee.

FOMITES. Cloaths, &c. receive contagious matter from human bodies, and retain it in an active ſtate for a long time. The ſubſtances thus imbibed are called *fomites*; and many think, that contagion received from them, is more powerful than that ariſing from human bodies. See Contagio.

FONS CHYMIÆ. The fountain of chemiſtry. An epithet of mercury.

FONS PHILOSOPHORUM. The philoſopher's fountain. An epithet of the balneum Mariæ.

FONS PULLANS, vel PULSATILIS. It is the part on children's heads called fontanella.

FONTALE ACETOSUM. In Paracelſus it is the ſame as acidulæ.

FONTALIS MAJOR. Broad-leaved pond-weed.

FONTANELLA. In anatomy, it is the membranous part which is found in new-born infants at the coronal and ſagittal commiſſures, and which, in length of time, hardens into a bone.

FONTANELLA, a diminutive of *fons*. A little fountain. In ſurgery, it is metaphorically uſed to ſignify the ſmall aperture called an iſſue. Iſſues were made in Hippocrates's time, and have more or leſs maintained their credit down to the preſent age. By iſſues, ſerum is diſcharged from the body. Hippocrates obſerved, that ulcers and iſſues dry up in the beginning of fevers, and experience hath ever confirmed the ſame: others obſerve, that when iſſues dry up, and become livid or black, ſome diſorder is approaching. The parts where iſſues are generally made are, 1. On the coronal ſuture, juſt where it joins the ſagittal; but a perpetual bliſter on this part is to be preferred. 2dly. The neck. 3dly. The arms, near the loweſt part of the deltoide muſcle, in the interſtice between it and the biceps muſcle. 4thly. Above the knee, on the inſide of the thigh, where there is a ſinus, which may eaſily be perceived by the finger. 5thly, Below the knee, on the inſide of the leg, where generally a ſinus may be perceived. 6thly. On the back; but on all occaſions, when theſe laſt are formed, they would be more uſeful and leſs troubleſome, if placed above the knee.

The method of making an iſſue is, firſt to mark the part with ink, then the operator and an aſſiſtant having raiſed the ſkin with their fore-fingers and thumbs, the operator puſhes a lancet through the ſkin, ſo as that an opening may be made into it, large enough to receive a ſmall pea; the pea being introduced, it is ſecured by a ſticking-plaſter and bandage; after which, every twenty-four hours a freſh pea muſt be replaced, and the old one thrown away.

Some apply a cauſtic, and let it continue ſix or eight hours, then cut the eſchar and inſert a pea.

Inſtead of common peas, ſome uſe wooden or ſilver balls to promote the diſcharge; others take the dried oranges, called orange peas, or cut pieces of gentian or orris-roots to a proper ſize; and

When iſſues, or perpetual bliſters are diſagreeable, a plaſter of Burgundy pitch may be worn for ſome time with advantage; when it fails to adhere a freſh one may be put in its place.

See Lera de Fuentes on the theory of Iſſues; and Hoffman's Diſſertation on the ſame, in the 6th vol. of the fol edit. of his Works.

FONTICULUS. In ſurgery; it is the ſame as fontanella.

FONTINALIS. A ſort of moſs with cloſe uniform heads, ſupported by very ſhort pedicles, and when ripe, they open tranverſely in the upper part, and diſcharge a capitellum.

FORAMEN. An hole, from *forando*, *to perforate*. See Os & Caput.

FORAMEN CÆCUM. The name of a hole in the middle of the tongue. See Lingua.

FORAMEN LACERUM. See Caput.

FORAMEN OVALE. On examining the heart of a fœtus, we find this hole: it is ſeated under the tuberculum Loweri, and goes through the ſeptum auriculatum, directly oppoſed to the vena cava inferiora. After the child is born, and a little grown up, this hole cloſes up, though in ſome inſtances it remains a little open, even through old age.

FORAMINULENTUM (Os) i. e. os ethmoides.

FORCEPS Pincers; from *formum*, or *forbum*, an obſolete word, ſignifying *hot*, and *capere*; or from *ferrum* and *capere*.

FORMA. The form. Among the chemiſts it not only ſignifies the outward *form* of things, but alſo it is uſed to expreſs the quinta eſſentia.

FORMICA MAJOR; called alſo hippomyrmaces. The horſe ant. They are not yet noted in medicine. In the Phil. Tranſ. abr. vol. ii. mention is made of three kinds of ants; but the only ſort which is noted is the

FORMICA MINOR. The ant, or piſmire. This inſect contains an acid juice, which it emits on being irritated: this acid is what moſt likely occaſions the uneaſineſs on our ſkins when they are ſaid to have ſtung us. A groſs oil is obtained by expreſſion from ants, after diſtilling them in water; and an eſſential oil ariſes with the acid liquor in diſtillation. The medical qualities of this inſect are not known. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

FOR-

FORMICA. The name of a ſort of black wart with a broad baſe, and cleft ſuperficies: alſo the name of a varicoſe tumour on the anus and glans penis.

FORMICA, or Formica miliaris. A ſpecies of Herpes.

FORMICANS. Formicating. An epithet beſtowed by Galen on a low unequal pulſe.

FORMIX. The ſame as noli me tangere; lupus, or herpes eſthiomenos.

FORMULA. A technical term, ſpoken of the conſtitution of medicines, whether ſimple or compound, both with reſpect to their conſiſtence and deſcription. Morellus and Gaubius have writ treatiſes profeſſedly on the forms of medicines.

FORNAX. A furnace. One principal part of the pharmaceutic apparatus conſiſts in contrivances for containing and applying fire, and for directing and regulating its power.

The moſt ſimple *furnace* is the common ſtove, called the furnace for open fire; it conſiſts of an iron hoop and a few bars placed horizontally to ſupport the fire; over it is placed the veſſel to be heated, but it reſts on a trivet. If a deep hoop is uſed, and the fire-place communicates with a chimney, and hath a place below for the aſhes to fall into, and for the air to paſs through, it is called a wind *furnace*; of the wind *furnaces*, ſome have the chimney over the middle, and others have it on one ſide; the firſt is ſometimes uſed as reverberatory furnace, in which the flame can be returned upon the ſurface of the ſubject expoſed to the fire; the ſecond is uſed for melting certain materials in crucibles, or for fixing a ſtill, or other veſſel which is uſed for boiling in. There are other kinds of *furnaces*, which, from their uſe or form, receive different names. See ATHANOR, BALNEUM ARENA, &c.

A commodious portable *furnace*, for a buſineſs of ſmall extent, may be formed alſo of the larger kind of the common black-lead melting-pots, by cutting a door at the bottom for the aſh-pit, and another above this for the fire-place; and introducing a circular iron grate of ſuch a ſize, that it may reſt between the two doors. See more of *furnaces* in the Dict. of Chem. and in Dr. Lewis's Commercium Philoſophico-technicum, part the firſt.

FORNICATUS, or fornicated petals. are ſuch flower-leaves as are arched, after the manner of the creſt of clary or ſage.

FORNIX. It is part of the corpus calloſum in the brain; and is ſo called, becauſe of a diſtant reſemblance that it hath to the arches of ancient vaults, when viewed in a particular manner.

FORTIS [AQUA.] It is a name which artiſts have given to the nitrous acid, becauſe of its diſſolving power. See NITRUM. In the manufacture of ſoap, the cauſtic alkaline lixivium is called alſo the ſtrong water.

FOSSA. In anatomy it is the ſame as foſſa naviculari. It is properly a ditch.

FOSSA AMYNTÆ. It is a double headed roller, about four yards long, and an inch and an half broad. Begin the application at the tip of the noſe; and croſſing at the neck again, croſs on the noſe, and finiſh with circulars.

FOSSA MAGNA. See FOSSA NAVICULARIS.

FOSSA NAVICULARIS. See AURICULA. Alſo the interior cavity, & rima magna of the pudendum muliebre, which appears on a ſeparation of the labia.

FOSSA PITUITARIA, i. e. Sella turcica.

FOSSILIS SAL. i. e. Sal gemmæ.

FOSSILUS. A name of the libia, alſo of the fibula.

FOTUS. A fomentation. Fomentations are fluids externally applied, uſually as warm as the patient can bear them, and in the following manner: two flannel cloths are dipped into the heated liquor, one of which is wrung as dry as the neceſſary ſpeed will admit, then immediately applied to the part affected; it lays on until the heat begins to go off, and the other is in readineſs to apply at the inſtant in which the firſt is removed; thus theſe flannels are alternately applied, ſo as to keep the affected part conſtantly ſupplied with them warm. This is continued fifteen or twenty minutes, and repeated two or three times a day.

Every intention of relaxation and ſoothing by fomentations, may be anſwered as well by warm water alone, as when the whole tribe of emollients are boiled in it; but when diſcutients or antiſeptics are required, ſuch ingredients muſt be called in as are adapted to that end.

The degree of heat ſhould never exceed that of producing a pleaſing ſenſation; great heat produces effects very oppoſite to that intended by the uſe of fomentations.

FOVEA. In anatomy it is the ſinus of the pudendum muliebre. In the bath rooms it is a ſudatory for receiving one or both the legs, in order to ſweating.

FRACASTORII. (SPECIES) i. e. Pulv. e bolo.

FRACTURA. A fracture. Paulus Æginetæ ſays, that "a *fracture* is ſuch a ſeparation of a bone as is made by external force." Lib. vi. ch. 89. and thus a *fracture* is diſtinguiſhed from a caries. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dialyſes.

Fractures are differently denominated, according to their different direction; as a tranſverſe, oblique, longitudinal, &c. *fracture*. The French diſtinguiſh *fractures* thus: when one bone is broken in one place only, and no remarkable injury is perceived in the adjacent parts, it is called a ſimple *fracture*; 2dly, when a bone is broken in more parts than one, or when two bones that are joined together, as the radius and ulna, are both broken, it is called a compound *fracture*; but, 3dly, if with a *fracture* there is a diſlocation or a wound, it is then a complicated *fracture*.

In *fractures*, the power of nature is great in producing new bone. The re-union of the ſeparate parts of the bone, is by a renewal of the organical bony ſtructure, and not by a gluey matter, which hardens into what is called callus.

Fractures are diſcovered by the eye, the ear, and the touch.

It is never prudent to promiſe a ſpeedy cure, becauſe certain accidents may occur, which may for a time prevent the re-union of the fractured bones: when this accident happens to pregnant women, a cure is ſometimes not effected until after delivery. See an inſtance in the Lond. Med. Obſ. & In. vol. iv. Hildanus mentions three caſes of this kind. Heiſter ſays, that a *fracture* will not heal in a pregnant woman; but this is not always true. A bad habit of body, as when there is a ſcorbutic, or a venereal taint, may prevent the bone from healing; or a caries may retard the union: if a waſting of the limb, or a palſy comes on upon a fractured bone, the cure will be ſlow, if it is ever effected. If a *fracture* happens under where an ulcer hath been a long time, it is very difficultly united. A *fracture* in the cranium, vertebræ, ribs, ſternum, os ilium, or os pubis, are dangerous, on account of the near vicinity of the brain, ſpinal marrow, or other of the viſcera.

In order to a cure, if called after the tumour, or a violent inflammation is come on, the extenſion muſt be deferred until they are removed; but if theſe ſymptoms are ſlight, proceed to extenſion, to prevent their increaſe. If there is a wound, all foreign matters ſhould be removed at the firſt dreſſing, if poſſible; all ſtrictures, &c. made eaſy; if the wound is too ſmall, it ſhould be dilated, and, if poſſible, this ſhould be done before inflammation comes on, for then the parts become more ſenſible. If poſſible, contrive that the matter may have a depending diſcharge from the wound, that all danger from abſorption may be avoided; but do this without altering the relaxed ſtate of the limb, which is of ſuch importance, that hardly any thing ſhould interfere with this particular. If a bone protrudes, it is better to ſaw off a part, than to permit the matter to lodge ſo as to be abſorbed: this operation is but very little trouble to the patient, but the lodging of the matter is extremely ſo. If a luxation accompanies a *fracture*, reduce the luxation firſt, and afterwards proceed with the *fracture*; though if the *fracture* is very near the head of the luxated bone, reduce the *fracture*, and wait its healing before you make any attempt on the luxation.

When a ſimple *fracture* happens, reduce it, and lay the limb eaſy; then apply a cataplaſm of oatmeal, oil, and vinegar, or, as a ſubſtitute, a plaſter of cerat. alb. The bandage with eighteen tails is the beſt, both in ſim-

ple and compound *fractures*; it is more commodious than the roller, as it allows of viewing the limb without diſturbing it. At the concluſion, if the leg is œdematous, the laced ſtocking is the beſt; and rubbing it daily with a flannel, or a fleſh-bruſh, will reſtore the plumpneſs of the calf.

Compound *fractures* are often attended with mortification; but this ſhould not always haſten to amputation. As ſoon as any tendency to this ſymptom appears, make uſe of an antiſeptic fomentation in which ſal ammon. is diſſolved; dreſs the wound twice a day, and wrap the part up with the catap. e cymino; then apply bladders of warm water, one third or half full, to keep up a proper warmth from dreſſing to dreſſing; beſides theſe, give the bark joined with rhubarb; in ſome caſes the bark ſhould be given with nitre, and in others with camphor, volatiles, and ſnake-root. Inſtances deviating from this advice are as follow:

When amputation ſeems neceſſary, conſider, whether, if amputation is omitted, life will not be endangered. It is impoſſible in ſome inſtances to know immediately whether a limb can be ſaved or not. However, when a bone or bones are broken into many pieces, and that to a conſiderable extent, as often happens from cannon ſhot, broad wheels of carriages, &c. paſſing over or falling on a limb, the ſoft parts being ſo torn and bruiſed, as to render a mortification of the part the moſt probable and the moſt immediate conſequence; amputation will be the moſt proper aid, and that without loſs of time. If the ends of a bone or of two bones by which a joint is formed be cruſhed, and the ligaments which make a part of the joint are conſiderably injured, another inſtance occurs in which amputation cannot with propriety be deferred. Some inſtances of compound *fractures* require ſpeedy amputation: all who die from this cauſe, die of an inflammation ſeizing the limb tending to a gangrene; this gangrene makes a rapid progreſs along the cellular membrane to the vital parts, and deſtroys before nature can accompliſh a ſeparation, or art ſtop its career; therefore inſtead of waiting for a ſeparation of the mortified from the ſound part, or inſtead of waiting two or three days to try what art can do, proceed immediately to the ſeparation. To wait in this caſe, is to loſe all opportunity of ſaving life, except perhaps in an inſtance of one in fifty, a diſproportion too great to admit of any heſitation. A very ſhort time makes all the difference between probable ſafety and fatality. If in a compound *fracture* this juſt named inflammation hath taken place, and hath continued ſome hours, amputation would ſurely deſtroy; the only chance then, is to uſe ſuch antiphlogiſtic regimen, &c. as appears to be indicated, and when theſe have no farther uſe, then ſupport the patients with cordials, the bark, &c. Again, inflamation may not run high, yet frequently there are lodgements of matter, and after ſeveral openings, freſh collections are formed; the patient inſtead of being recruited waſtes by the diſcharge, he hath night ſweats, loſs of appetite, &c. In theſe caſes the bone continues diſunited, and amputation at laſt is neceſſary. Mr. Pott obſerves, that in compound *fractures*, there are three points of time in which amputation may become neceſſary. 1. Immediately, or as ſoon as may be after the receiving of the injury. 2. When the bones continue a conſiderable length of time without any manifeſt diſpoſition to unite, and the diſcharge from the wound is ſuch that the patient's ſtrength fails, and general ſymptoms of diſſolution approach. 3. When a mortification ſhall have taken ſuch complete poſſeſſion of the inferior part of the limb, quite down to the bone, that upon ſeparation of ſuch parts, the bone or bones ſhall be left bare in the interſpace. The firſt and ſecond of theſe are matters of ſerious conſideration; the third hardly requires any. The neceſſity of early amputation in the above caſes where it is thus urged, ariſes from the dread of the ill effects of a greatly obſtructed circulation, owing to a large deſtruction of veſſels; theſe added to thoſe ariſing from pain, irritation, and the admiſſion of air, often produce a great degree of fever and inflammation, which hurries on quickly to a gangrene and death; and if a joint is injured the danger is increaſed. If poſſible then, determine for the operation before inflammation approaches; for if this ſymptom, with irritation and tenſion, have taken place, the operation will be too late. In the ſecond inſtance, with reſpect to the point of time for amputation, the patient or his friends muſt determine it; for with the ſurgeon it is not a matter of choice but of abſolute neceſſity. In the third inſtance, with reſpect to the point of time, it requires no conſideration; for if the ſoft parts are deſtroyed down to the bone or bones, either the ſurgeon muſt ſaw them, or they muſt be left to ſeparate. In either caſe, the patient loſes his limb. Theſe are ſome of the principal inſtances which determine in favour of amputation; experience, and the ſeveral authors who have writ well on this ſubject, will ſuggeſt more, and amongſt theſe may be conſulted Pott's Works, quarto edition; alſo, by the ſame author, a pamphlet entitled, Remarks on the Neceſſity, &c. of Amputation in certain Caſes, &c. See Gooch's Works. Obſ. on Mr. Pott's General Remarks on Fractures, by Thomas Kirkland, ſurgeon, and the Syſtems of Surgery, &c. by Bell, Deaſe, Kirkland, &c.

Fracture *of the Carpus.*

Theſe bones are ſmall, and rarely broken; and when they are, they cannot be properly replaced, nor will they conſolidate. Beſides, the ligament and tendons are ſo much bruiſed, that, in conſequence thereof, the joint of the hand becomes rigid; and abſceſſes, fiſtulas, and caries, generally enſue, and relief is ſeldom obtained, but by amputation of the hand. However, an attempt may be made by two aſſiſtants extending, while the ſurgeon endeavours to replace the fractured bone or bones.

Fracture *of the Clavicle.*

Whatever part of the clavicle is broken, the part which joins the ſcapula deſcends below that part which is fixed to the ſternum, on account of the weight of the arm. When this bone is fractured, the patient cannot lift up his arm; it hangs inclined towards his breaſt, and in a ſlight motion of the humerus, the *fracture* in the clavicle will be evident to the touch, ſight, or ear, or them all. To reduce this *fracture* is eaſy, but to retain the bones in their proper ſituation is more difficult. An aſſiſtant ſhould place his knee between the ſcapulæ of the patient, then with his two hands draw the ſhoulders back; thus the clavicles will be extended; the ſurgeon ſtanding before the patient, muſt then reduce the ends of the bone, by raiſing the arm to its proper ſituation, inſtead of loading the other end next the ſternum, with compreſſes to bring down the riſing end of the bone, as they call it, which is only ſo from the other being carried below it by the weight of the arm: this done, apply above and below the clavicles a narrow, but thick bolſter to fill up the cavities; upon theſe lay two narrow bolſters, in the form of the letter X; over theſe place a piece of thick paper moiſtened with vinegar; then put a wad of tow, or a ball made of ſoft rags, under the arm-pit, next to where the *fracture* is, for the ſupport of the ſhoulder; after this apply the bandage, ſo as to keep the fractured ends from moving; and, laſtly, ſuſpend the arm in a ſling fixed about the neck.

Fracture *of the Cubit.*

The cubit hath two bones, viz. the radius and ulna. *Fractures* here are diſcovered by the ſight, touch, and ear: by the touch and ſight, by moving the hand of the affected cubit inward and outward; though a fractured ulna, from its inability to ſupport the joint, will ſhew itſelf ſooner than that of the radius: the ear diſcovers a grating noiſe, if the elbow is held ſteady, and the hand is moved inward and outward.

If the radius is to be reduced, and the fragments have receded towards the ulna, an aſſiſtant ſhould ſtretch the arm, and the ſurgeon ſhould preſs down the patient's hand towards the ulna, until the depreſſed part is elevated; after this, compreſs the arm on each ſide with the palms of the hands, ſo as to reſtore the compreſſed muſcles between the ulna and radius, and the fragments of the radius to their natural poſition; then lay a compreſs and ſtrong paſteboard upon the fore-part of the arm, over the quadratus muſcle, to prevent it drawing the fractured bone toward the ſound one; after which, apply the circular bandage, and ſuſpend the arm in a ſling, with the hand in a prone ſituation.

If the ulna is fractured, proceed as when the accident happens to the radius; only remember to turn the hand towards the radius, until the depreſſed part of the ulna has recovered its former poſition.

If both theſe bones are broken, proceed, as with either of them ſingly. Mr. Pott obſerves in this caſe, that it is neceſſary to put the longitudinal compreſſes as near as may be betwixt the bones, in order to prevent the callus uniting them, which would hinder the rotatory motion of the arm.

It often happens in *fractures* of this part, that, notwithſtanding all poſſible care, a ſtiff joint follows; therefore, though (in this particular inſtance, and in the patella) keeping the whole limb ſtrait, relaxes the particular muſcles of theſe bones; yet if a ſtiff joint is to be feared, as ſoon as ever the benefits from relaxation are over, gently bend the limb. A ſtiff bent cubit being much more uſeful than a ſtrait one.

A fractured Finger.

When the contuſion of the hand or fingers is very conſiderable, amputation is moſt adviſable; but if you can ſave the part proceed as follows; having placed the fractured bone properly, and reduced the fragments, roll it up with a narrow fillet to the next finger. Begin the bandage about the wriſt, carry it over the back of the hand to the finger, and if more fingers than one are fractured, carry it round each ſeparately, and then round them all; then put a ball into the hand, and bind it tight to the fingers; after which continue the roller back to the wriſt, and finiſh by placing the hand in a ſling.

Fracture in the Foot.

Fractures in the tarſus, metatarſus, and toes, are generally accompanied with wounds from the contuſion of the nerves, tendons, ligaments, and membranes. They are cured much in the ſame manner as thoſe of the carpus, metacarpus, and fingers. Fractures in this part, as well as in the hand and leg near the ankle, eſpecially when the malleolus recedes from the principal bone, ſeldom admit of ſo complete a cure as to leave the limb free from ſome inconvenience.

A fractured Humerus.

If this bone is fractured in the middle, no great difficulty attends; but if near the ſuperior and anterior head, both pain and danger are ſometimes preſent. To reduce this *fracture*, place the patient in a chair; his elbow being bent, let an aſſiſtant ſteadily graſp the fractured bone at its lower end, and another aſſiſtant to the ſame a little below the ſhoulder; then the arm being extended gently, the operator takes the fractured part in his hand, and as ſoon as extenſion is ſufficient, the bone being thereby replaced, he applies the bandage, and continues by hanging the arm in a ſling.

It ſometimes happens that when the caſe is an oblique *fracture*, the ſharp ends of the bone is ſo intangled in the adjacent muſcles as to prevent a re-union; but an inciſion being made upon them, and the point ſawed off, makes way for an eaſy replacing them, and a ſpeedy cure. See an inſtance in the Med. Muſ. vol. ii. p. 404, &c.

A fractured Jaw.

When a fracture happens in the under jaw, it is beſt diſcovered by the touch, though generally the pain, and ſometimes convulſions, prove ſufficient ſigns. To replace it, let the patients head be held a little back; then the operator introduces his finger or thumb of one hand into the patient's mouth, applies the other hand on the outſide, and thus brings the part together. If it is broken on both ſides, proceed on one ſide after the other, and with both in the ſame manner. A compreſs may be made of paſteboard, lined with ſoft linen, and properly formed to the ſhape of the chin, &c. The patient muſt lay on his back, and live totally on liquids until the cure is completed.

A fractured Os Innominatum.

When this accident happens there is great danger, eſpecially if the patient vomits a brown or bloody matter. In reducing this kind of *fracture*, the patient muſt lie on the ſound ſide; the fractured parts muſt be reſtored by the ſurgeon's hands alone; then compreſſes dipped in rectified ſpirit of wine muſt be ſecured by means of the ſpica bandage.

A fractured Leg.

In the leg there are two bones, viz. the tibia and the fibula. The tibia is generally fractured near its lower extremity, where it is weakeſt; and often, when the tibia is broken, the fibula ſuffers the ſame at its upper extremity. When there is a diſlocation of the malcolus internus, the fibula is commonly fractured, and has occaſioned it.

A fractured fibula ſeldom gives any uneaſineſs or hinders from walking; however, it may be diſcovered by taking hold of the leg under the ſura with one hand, and with the other moving the foot; for thus the hand which holds the leg will diſtinguiſh the *fracture*. Mr. Pott ſays that in this caſe a tight bandage upon the fractured part is not to be admitted: but that if it is applied to the two extremities, the broken end will be brought into contact, and thus a cure will be effected.

When the tibia is fractured lay the patient on the injured ſide on a flat ſurface, and raiſe the knee of the fractured limb towards the abdomen, at the ſame time bending the joint of the knee; thus the extenſor muſcles of the foot are relaxed, and thus the extenſion required for the reduction will be peformed with eaſe. Having replaced the fractured bone, apply a long ſplint padded with tow to the fibula, and another on the inſide of the leg and over part of the tibia, and ſecure them with ſtraps. The patient may lay on the injured ſide during the cure, and thus a cradle or fracture-box will be needleſs; the knee may alſo continue in the ſame poſture as that in which the *fracture* was reduced.

There is an important difference attends a *fracture* from gun-ſhot, and the like accident from any other cauſe. For example, in caſe the tibia is fractured at its lower end by a gun-ſhot, although the part of the tibia above is apparently unhurt, yet if the amputation is not performed above the next joint, the patient will loſe his life; the limb in this caſe muſt be taken off above the knee. Though if any other cauſe had produced the like *fracture*, the operation would have been performed below the knee.

A fractured Metacarpus.

An aſſiſtant may extend the fractured hand upon a ſmooth table, while the ſurgeon with his fingers endeavours to replace the fragments.

A fractured Neck.

What is called a broken neck is as follows: the proceſſus dentatus of the ſecond vertebra is tied to the ſkull by a ligament, and kept cloſe to the fore part of the firſt vertebra by another in that vertebra, that it may not bruiſe the ſpinal marrow; and when either this ligament or proceſs is broken, it makes that ſort of broken neck whoſe conſequence is ſudden death.

A Fracture of the Noſe.

Both the bones and the cartilages are liable to be broken. If the bones are broken, the noſe appears flat where the *fracture* is; and if the cartilage is the ſuffering part, the noſe leans to one ſide. If the injury is conſiderable, the cure is incomplete; and from the nearneſs of this part to the brain, the danger is conſiderable; an ozæna, a caries, or a polypus, may be the conſequence. In order to a cure, place the patient in a reclining poſture, and elevate the depreſſed parts of the noſe with a quill, replacing them in their proper order with the fore finger and thumb of your other hand; to prevent their collapſing, fill the noſtril with lint, or introduce a cannula there: if there is no wound, a plaiſter may ſuffice to ſecure the whole, and if there is a wound treat it as if on any other part. If a ſplinter is ſo ſituated as not to be re-united but with difficulty, remove it. When the bones are reduced they do not eaſily ſeparate again.

A fractured Knee-Pan.

When a ſmall fragment of the patella is attracted upwards,

wards, if the patient is fat, it is not very eaſy to diſcover this caſe. In ſearching to know whether or no the patella is broken do not bend the knee, becauſe you ſeparate the fragments thereby farther from each other, and occaſion unneceſſary pain. This bone is generally broken tranſverſely, the lower part remains fixed at the knee, but the upper is drawn by the muſcles on the fore part of the thigh. When the caſe is diſcovered, lay the patient on his back, extend his leg, and gently preſs the muſcles above the *fractured* part downwards, until the fragments of the bones approach within an inch of each other; in this ſituation retain them by a compreſs and bandage. The *fractured* parts ſhould never be brought cloſe together, for thus a ſtiff joint would be occaſioned.

Sometimes the ligament which ſecures the knee-pan to the tibia is broken, and this caſe is miſtaken for a *fracture* of the knee-pan; however, the miſtake is not of much conſequence, as the prognoſtics and method of cure are the ſame. See Warner's Caſes of Surgery; Med. Muſ. vol. iii. p. 349, &c.

Fractures *of the Ribs.*

When the ribs are broken, and their ends recede from each other, when they project outward, no conſiderable damages enſue; but if they preſs inward, they produce an uneaſy pricking, inflammation, cough, fever, an abſceſs, or ſpitting of blood, &c. In order to the cure, it is generally completed by applying an exact uniform circular compreſſive bandage, if neither inflammation nor ſwelling forbid; if theſe ſymptoms attend, reduce them by bleeding, &c. then the bandage and a cooling diet will ſucceed.

A Fracture *of the Os Sacrum.*

It is diſcovered by the pain perceived in the part, and by the touch. Endeavour to reduce the fragment with your fingers, but if it be depreſſed inwardly, pare the nail of your fore finger pretty cloſe, then greaſe and introduce the finger into the inteſtinum rectum, and thus the depreſſed part may eaſily be replaced; this done, the T bandage may be applied over a proper compreſs; the patient muſt be directed to keep in bed for two or three weeks, and when he turns from one ſide to the other let him turn over his belly; when he riſes, the propereſt ſeat will be a bottomleſs chair

A Fracture *of the Scapula.*

If the acromion is broken, it is eaſily reduced with the fingers, if the os humeri is raiſed upwards a little; but it is ſo difficultly retained that thoſe patients ſeldom can lift up their arms afterwards freely: after the reduction put a compreſs on it and a ball under the arm-pit; apply the bandage, and put the arm in a ſling.

If the neck of the ſcapula, which is below the acromion, or the acetabulum, be broken, the accident is not eaſily diſcovered; but a ſtiffneſs of the joint, an inflammation, an abſceſs, or other bad ſymptoms follow.

All other *fractures* of this bone are leſs hazardous, and to reduce them an aſſiſtant ſhould extend the arm forward, whilſt the ſurgeon, in the beſt manner he can, is employed in reſtoring the fragments with his hands, laying thereon compreſſes, and paſte-board ſplints, and ſecuring all with the faſcia ſtellata, or quadriga.

Fracture *of the Skull.*

When from an injury done to the head by external violence, there follows a loſs of ſpeech, and of ſenſe, a lethargy, convulſions, &c. as theſe ſigns may be the effect of an extravaſation of matter on the brain, of a concuſſion thereof, as well as of a *fracture*, no certain concluſions can be made therefrom: for certainty, you muſt proceed to inciſion upon the part where the injury was received; if upon making an inciſion you find the pericranium looſe you may certainly conclude there is a *fracture*. In examining for a *fracture*, care is required to diſtinguiſh it from a ſuture, particularly the uncommon ones, as thoſe about the oſſa triquetrae; however, if upon ſcalping we find the pericranium firmly adhering to any part that reſembles a *fracture*, we may be aſſured that there is a ſuture, but if the pericranium eaſily ſeparates the caſe is a *fracture*. If when the head is ſhaved you can feel the pericranium under your finger to be looſe, a fracture is clearly the caſe.

When a *fracture* happens on the ſkull, the trepan is immediately uſed by ſome ſurgeons with a view to obviate or prevent the effects of ſuch a degree of violence, as hath fractured the ſkull; but others of the firſt rank in eminence forbid its uſe, except when a part of the ſkull is depreſſed. Celſus adviſes not to proceed to an operation before the approach of unfavourable ſymptoms, and Ruyſch ſays, that "when the ſymptoms are not augmented, we are not to proceed to inciſion and perforation, but after bleeding, we are to attempt the cure by often repeated application of warm cephalic fomentations." Agreeable to theſe is the advice and practice of Mr. Bromfield, when a concuſſion of the brain happens. See Concussio. The ſame proceeding is equally proper in caſe of a *fracture*.

A Fractured *Sternum.*

After a depreſſion or a *fracture* the part is in pain; this accident is alſo known by the bone grating if moved by the fingers, and by its moving in conſequence of a little preſſure againſt it; though the proper indication is, a manifeſt ſinus or inequality in the part.

The latent veſſels in the ſternum are broken, from whence proceed pains in the breaſt, difficulty of breathing, violent cough, ſpitting of blood, extravaſations of blood on the precordia, or within the mediaſtinum, with other dangerous ſymptoms.

To reduce this kind of *fracture*, lay the patient on his back over ſome hard pillows, that his ſhoulders may be depreſſed and the breaſt elevated; the operator muſt then preſs forcibly, and with ſome violence ſhake each ſide of the breaſt, for thus the ribs are extended and the ſternum puſhed forward. If this fails, make a crucial inciſion into the ſkin, and elevate the depreſſed part of the ſternum with a terebra gently ſcrewed into the part.

After the reduction the napkin and ſcapulary may be applied to keep the thorax firm.

A Fracture *of the Thigh.*

Hippocrates juſtly obſerves, that when either the bone of the humerus, or of the thigh, breaks inwardly, a worſe train of ſymptoms follow, than when the ſame happens outwardly, becauſe of the veſſels and nerves that are lodged in their inner parts.

When the thigh is fractured in its middle or lower part, its reſtitution may be effected by the hand, but when the accident happens on the upper part a greater force is generally required. Wherever the ſeat of the *fracture* is, the poſition of the patient, and of the limb to be reduced, ſhould be ordered as in the caſe of a fractured leg; then a due extenſion being made, and the ends of the fractured bone replaced, ſplints, properly padded with tow, muſt be ſecured; and if Gooch's machine for *fractures* of the thigh bone is made uſe of, little more than patience will be required in order to the cure; but in want of this machine, the poſition propoſed when the leg is fractured may be truſted to, and that particularly when the neck of the thigh is the ſeat of the diſorder.

When a *fracture* of the thigh is complicated with a wound, it is dangerous, and ſometimes incurable. Happening near the joints it is uſually fatal, as the large blood veſſels are then too frequently lacerated. The danger is not much leſs if the wound is on the back part of the thigh, becauſe of the difficulty of dreſſing it. If the hæmorrhage can be reſtrained by uſing the tourniquet, and taking up the wounded veſſel, the *fracture* may then be reduced; but if the bone is much injured, and the hæmorrhage violent, amputation is uſually the moſt eligible method.

A *fracture* of the neck of the thigh bone is ſometimes miſtaken for a luxation, but it is more eaſy to break than to luxate this bone, and *fractures* in its neck are more frequent than in its other parts. A fracture in the neck of this bone is both more difficultly reduced and retained than in the body of it, and a lameneſs uſually follows the re-union. The oblique direction of the neck, with the quantity and ſtrength of the muſcles, are the cauſes of theſe difficulties.

The ſigns of this kind of *fracture* are, according to Gooch, "The thigh and knee turning outwards, the limb

limb is much ſhortened, and conſiderably ſhrunk, pain in the courſe of the ſartorius muſcle, which from its origin and inſertion muſt frequently be put upon the ſtretch, often cauſing pain on the inſide juſt below the knee, and a crepitus is obſerved when the patient moves his limb." When theſe ſymptoms appear, the limb being gently but ſteadily extended until the fractured limb appears as long as the ſound one, let the patient be laid in the poſture recommended when the leg is the part thus affected, and let bleeding, &c. be employed to prevent or to remove inflammation. If Gooch's extending machine could be obtained, its uſe would be the moſt eligible method for preventing future inconveniences.

Fractures *of the Vertebræ.*

When any of the vertebræ are fractured without affecting the ſpinal marrow, then there are only the poſterior apophyſes, or acute tubercles injured, and they are not dangerous. When theſe parts only are fractured, replace them with your fingers, and apply on each ſide the ſpina dorſi, narrow compreſſes moiſtened with ſpirit of wine, and ſecure them with paſteboard ſplints, and the napkin and ſcapulary.

Fractures in theſe parts are eaſily known by the pain there, as alſo on ſlightly touching them.

If the tranſverſe apophyſes which tend towards the cavity of the thorax are broken, then the heads of the ribs which are inſerted into them will likewiſe be broken, and much danger attends this caſe.

When the body of a vertebra is broken, the ſpinal marrow is injured; then the parts of the arms, viſcera, or legs, which are below them, become immediately motionleſs, and death is ſooner or later the conſequence. In this caſe, not to ſeem either negligent or ignorant, lay the injured part bare, elevate the fragments which preſs the medulla, and if looſe extract them; then clean the wound, and dreſs with balſamics as long as life continues. See Boerhaave's Aphoriſms, the Engliſh tranſlation, p. 84—88; Petit on the Diſeaſes of the Bones; Aitkin's Treatiſe on Fractures; Pott's general Remarks on Fractures, and Kirkland's Obſervations on the ſame: and for machines to be uſed after the reduction of *fractures*, ſee Gooch's Caſes and Remarks.

FRÆNUM, i. e. Ligamentum annulare.

FRAGA. The Strawberry. See ARBUTUS. Boerhaave mentions ſix ſpecies. The common wood *ſtrawberry* is the moſt agreeable, flowers in May, and the fruit ripens in June. *Strawberries* are apt to putrify in the ſtomach; hence the cuſtom of eating them with ſugar and wine. A decoction of the whole plant is uſed againſt the jaundice.

FRAGARIA PENTAPHYLLI FRUCTU. A ſpecies of argentina.

FRAGAROIDES. Barren ſtrawberries. See ARBUTUS.

FRAGIFERA. See CHENOPODIO-MORUS.

FRAGILITAS OSSIUM, alſo called friabilitas oſſium. It conſiſts in a too great redundance of the earthy principle in the ſound habit. In the diſeaſed, the ſcurvy, lues venerea, and ſcrophulous diſorders, may be the cauſe. Mr. Sharp ſays, that the cauſe is a defect of the oil.

FRAMBŒSIA. The Yaws. This genus of diſeaſe Dr. Cullen places in the claſs locales, and order impetigines. See YAWS.

FRAXINELLA. See DICTAMUS.

FRAXINUS, called alſo bumelia. The aſh-tree. It is the fraxinus excelſior. Linn. It is a tall tree, common in woods and hedges. Its bark is whitiſh; the ſeeds are oblong, reddiſh, or browniſh-coloured, ſhaped ſomewhat like a bird's tongue, whence their name lingua avis, ornithogloſſum, &c.

The freſh bark is bitteriſh and aſtringent, but loſes much in drying. In doſes of a dram it is diuretic, and the watery extract hath the ſame effect. The middle bark hath been uſeful in intermitting fevers, when aſſiſted by alkaline ſalts.

The ſeeds are diuretic, healing, and drying. Their doſe is a dram or more. Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

FRAXINUS SYLVESTRIS. See BUBULO, and SORBUS.

FRENA. A name for the ſockets of the teeth.

FRIABILITAS OSSIUM. See FRAGILITAS.

FRICTA. Black roſin.

FRICTIO. Rubbing. *Friction* of the body upon its whole ſurface, if duly repeated, will do more in the recovery of health, and towards the ſupport of it, than is generally apprehended; it promotes perſpiration, quickens the circulation, and opens the finer veſſels through which thoſe diſcharges are made, on which health and vigour much depend. *Friction* contributes not only to the conveyance of medicines into the body, but alſo to their action and uſefulneſs there, when introduced. This means of health is beſt uſed when the primæ viæ are moſt empty, when the chylopoetic organs are too languid. *Friction* with rough cloths over the whole belly when the patient is faſting, produces advantageous effects. Gentle *friction* with pinguious ſubſtances relax; but ſtrong *friction* with rough dry cloths ſtrengthen.

FRIESEL. So the Germans call the miliary fever.

FRIGIDARIUM. A veſſel in the baths for holding cold water.

FRIGERARIA. The putrid fever.

FRIGUS. Cold. In Vogel's Noſology, it ſignifies the coldneſs of the feet and hands. *Cold* is ſaid by ſome to be a privation of heat; but heat and *cold* are only the names of certain ſenſations in living animal bodies; and the ſenſe of *coldneſs* is produced by bodies which exiſt, and that are the ſubjects of the ſenſes in the ſame degree as are thoſe which produce the ſenſation called heat. Many ſubſtances excite the ſenſe of *coldneſs*, and extinguiſh fire itſelf; and a greater degree of artificial *cold* making matter is produced by a mixture of the ſpirit of nitre with powdered ice, than nature manifeſts in any inſtance. See the proceſs by which profeſſor Braun produced an artificial *cold*, and by which quickſilver was ſo frozen as to become malleable, in the Med. Muſ. vol. i. p. 123, &c.

The effect of cold on our bodies, ſee CONGELATUS.

FRITILLARIA. The fritillary, or chequered tulip. Boerhaave enumerates twenty-eight ſpecies; but they are not noted in medicine.

FRITTA. Fritt. It is a maſs of ſalt and aſhes concreted to the ſand, by the cold, in making of glaſs.

FRONDIPORA. A ſubmarine plant, called ESCHARA, which ſee.

FRONS. The forehead. It is that part which is above the eyes, deſtitute of hair, and that reaches from one temple to the other.

FRONTALE. A name for any topical medicine which is applied to the forehead; but particularly it means a linen bag, in which cephalic ingredients are tied up, in order to be applied to the forehead.

FRONTALIS, (MUSCULUS). The frontal muſcle, alſo called corrugator coiterii. It riſes thin, broad, and fleſhy, from the upper part of the os frontis near the futura coronalis, and deſcending by the poſterior and forepart of the temporalis, meets with its parner near their inſertions to the ſkin of the eye-brows. They wrinkle the ſkin of the forehead.

FRONTALIS NERVUS. The fifth pair of nerves from the brain ſends off its firſt branch called orbitarius, which is ſubdivided into three, the firſt of which ſubdiviſions is the *frontal*; it ſpreads on the upper part of the orbit of the eye, to the fat which ſurrounds the globe of the eye, the muſculus elevator palpebræ, &c.

FRONTALIS, (SINUS). The frontal ſinus. There are two of theſe, one on each ſide of the noſe. They are formed of the ſeparated laminæ of the os frontis; they are placed above the orbits at the bottom of the os frontis on each ſide the top of the noſe; they are lined with the ſame membrane which lines the noſtrils, and they open into them. Sometimes they are wanting.

FRONTALIS VENA. It is a branch from the external jugular, forming a vein in the forehead.

FRONTIS, (Os). The bone of the forehead. The external ſurface of this bone is ſmooth at its upper convex part, but below, ſeveral cavities and proceſſes are obſerved. At each angle of the orbit the bone jets out to form two internal and two external proceſſes. The ridge which makes the ſupercilium, is called the ſuperciliary proceſs. The naſal proceſs is ſituated between the two internal angular proceſſes. The two orbiter proceſſes are continuations

nuations of the ſuperciliary. There is a notch between theſe for the reception of the ethmoid bone. At the internal angular proceſs, there is a cavity, where the glandula lachrymalis is lodged; at the external angular proceſs there is another cavity for the pully of the muſculus obliquus major. The foramina are three on each ſide; one in each ſuperciliary ridge, through which a nerve, vein, and artery, paſs to the teguments, &c. of the forehead. Near the middle of the internal ſide of the orbit, in the tranſverſe ſuture, or near it, is a ſmall hole called orbiter internus: the orbiter internus poſterior is ſmaller, and lays about an inch deeper in the orbit. On the inſide of the os frontis there is a ridge, which, on the upper part, is imperceptible, and grows more prominent at the bottom, where there is a foramen cæcum; to this ridge the falx is attached. The *frontal* ſinus is placed over the orbits, and is divided by the ſeptum juſt deſcribed.

FRUCTUS. Fruit. Properly it is the part of a plant wherein the ſeed is contained, but in general it is any ſeed or grain covered or uncovered, but with the coverings when there are any. The chemiſts call metals the fruits of the earth.

FRUCTUS UMBILICATUS. Umbilicated fruit. It is that which had the other parts of the flower growing on its top when it was an ovary. They uſually form a cavity, when it is known by the name of the umbilicus, or navel, as in the medlar, roſe, &c.

FRUMENTACEOUS. A term applied to all ſuch plants as have a conformity with wheat, with reſpect either to their fruit, leaves, ears, or the like.

FRUMENTUM. Corn. It is ſpontaneous in no climate, but induſtry raiſes it in all. They are a ſpecies of graſs in their primitive ſtate, whoſe ſeed are improved by culture.

FRUMENTUM. Wheat. See TRITICUM.

FRUMENTUM CORRUPTUM. So Tacitus calls malt.

FRUMENTUM INDICUM. Mays.

FRUMENTUM SARACENICUM, i. e. Fagopyrum vulg. erect.

FRUMENTUM TURCICUM. Mays.

FRUTEX. A ſhrub. It is a plant with many woody perennial trunks, ſuch as roſes, ſyringos, &c. which divide into ſeveral ſtems near the ground; but the word is generally uſed by gardeners for all woody plants of low growth.

FRUTEX ÆTHIOPICUS. A name for the clutia, and a ſpecies of conocarpodendron.

FRUTEX AFRICANUS CONIFER. A name for ſeveral ſpecies of conocarpodendron and lepidocarpodendron.

FRUTEX AFRICANUS AMBARUM SPIRANS, i. e. Comæ Aureæ.

FRUTEX BACCIFER BRASILIENSIS. See CAAGHIYUYO.

FRUTEX CORONARIUS. A name of the ſyringa alba.

FRUTEX INDICUS BACCIFERA. See BELILLA.

FRUTEX INDICUS SPINOSUS. See CARASCHULLI.

FRUTEX PAVONINUS. See POINCIANA FLORE PULCH.

FRUTEX SPICATUS. See SPIRÆ.

FRUTEX TERRIBILIS. See ALYPUM.

FRUTICOSUS. Fruticoſe. Plants which are of a hard woody ſubſtance.

FUCOIDES. A ſpecies of plant which grows in water. It is of a middle nature betwixt conferva and corallina, and fucus. It is often finely divided, and of a more tender ſubſtance than the fucus, and not diſtinguiſhed by nodes and joints like the conferva and corallina.

FUCUS. It is a ſpecies of plant growing in water, whoſe leaves and ſtalks are of various figures. It is generally of a viſcid and coriaceous ſubſtance, and is furniſhed with veſicles on both ſides, which admit of the air being formed to aſſiſt its floating. Its extremities are often ſet with tubercles, which ſeem to contain ſomething of a ſeminal nature.

Botaniſts enumerate many ſpecies, but except two of them, they are not noted in medicine, and theſe are,

1. Alga marina latifolia vulg. See QUERCUS.
2. Lactuca marina. See LACTUCA.

FUCUS TUBULOSUS, &c. See ENTEROPHYTON VULGARE.

FUGA DÆMONUM. See HYPERICUM.

FUGILE. Ear wax. In Paracelſus, it means an appearance in the urine like wax. Some expreſs by it a bubo, and others the tumor called parotides.

FULIGO. Soot. It is the ſhining black concrete, formed by the ſmoak from wood, that is uſed in medicine, and to be here underſtood by ſoot. It hath a diſagreeable ſmell, and a pungent bitter nauſeous taſte; the more reſinous the wood, the more bitter will be the ſoot. By a chemical analyſis it affords a volatile alkaline ſalt, an empyreumatic oil, a fixed alkali, and an inſipid earth. The London college directs the following tincture:

Tinct. Fuliginis. *Tinct. of* Soot.

Take of wood ſoot, two ounces; of aſſa fœtida, one ounce; of proof ſpirit, a quart. After digeſtion ſtrain the ſpirit off.

Fuller's tinct. antihyſterica is much like this. It is uſed in hyſteric and other nervous diſeaſes as an antiſpaſmodic and corroborant. The ſoot gives out its virtues to water, or to proof ſpirit, each of which diſſolves about one-fourth part of good ſoot.

FULMINATIO. Fulmination, of *fulmino, to lighten, or thunder*. In chemiſtry it hath two ſignifications: 1ſt, An exploſion, and is the ſame as detonation. 2dly, In the depuration of the more perfect metals, it is when upon infuſing them with lead, a bright colour ſucceeds a kind of ſulphureous cloud before appearing in the metal during the fuſion.

FUMARIA. Fumitory. Alſo called fumus terræ, and herba melancholifuga. It is the fumaria officinalis, or fumaria pericarpiis monoſpermis racemoſis, caule diffuſo, flore purpureo. Linn. Common purple fumitory. It is a plant with bluiſh green, finely divided leaves, producing towards the tops of the ſtalks ſpikes of irregular purpliſh flowers, followed each by a ſingle ſeed. It is annual, flowers in May and June, and delights in ſhady places. The leaves have a bitter ſaline taſte; an extract obtained by inſpiſſating the expreſſed juice, or a decoction of the leaves in water, is very bitter. The juice of theſe leaves, if dropped into the eyes, are ſuppoſed to cure dimneſs of ſight; whence the name fumaria, becauſe it provokes tears, and clears the ſight after the manner of ſmoke. The whole herb is diuretic, reſolvent, and looſens the belly.

FUMARIA BULBOSA, called alſo ariſtolochia cava, ariſtolochia adulterina. Great bulbous fumitory, or hollow root.

It is found in moiſt ſhady places, and like the above ſpecies its chief ſenſible quality is its bitterneſs.

FUMARIA ALBA, alſo called cyſticapnos Africana ſcandens, African climbing bladder fumitory.

It is a *climbing* plant, chiefly reſembles the fumitory above deſcribed, only that the fruit is an oval bladder, in which are the ſeeds.

FUMIGATIO, from *fumus, ſmoak*. Fumigation. By the ſubtil *fumes* that are inſpired as well as inhaled into our bodies, much benefit or prejudice is produced, according to the nature of the matter, and the conſtitution in which it is received. It is evident from the palſies produced among workers in lead mines, &c. and the benefits received in many caſes when the air is impregnated with ſalutary materials; catarrhs and catarrhous coughs are relieved by *fumes* received with the breath; and, by the ſame method, expectoration is aſſiſted in humoral aſthmas, and even ulcers in the lungs are ſaid to have been healed by this method. The advantage of mercurial *fumigations* in the cure of venereal ulcers is known to every practitioner.

FUMUS TERRÆ. See FUMARIA.

FUNCTIO. See ACTIO.

FUNGOIDES. A ſpecies of fungus without a head or cap, whoſe pedicles or ſtalks are of various ſhapes and diviſions. As to its ſubſtance, it conſiſts of an uniform matter, which is undivided into lamellæ or pores.

FUNGUS. Toadſtool. It is the loweſt, and a very imperfect genus of plants, having neither viſible ſeed nor flowers, as in other vegetables, and remarkably differing from

from other plants, in that it hath not an herbaceous colour nor leaf, properly ſpeaking, nor any thing elſe analogous in its contexture. Moſt of them ſpring up, and are ſoon diſſolved into the mucous matter whence they aroſe. The ſpecies are very numerous. See Ray's Synopſis.

FUNGUS. Muſhrooms. See AMANITA.

FUNGUS. In ſurgery, it is a ſpongy excreſcence which ariſes in wounds and ulcers, commonly known by the name of proud fleſh, though often improperly ſo called. In general, dry lint is the beſt application. But a ſpongy lax fleſh riſing up in ulcers, differs much from the *fungus* in healing wounds; it often requires the knife, or ſome cauſtic application; this ſpongy fleſh is in one maſs, but the *fungus* in healing wounds is in many little protuberances. When this ill-conditioned ſpongy fleſh ariſes, it is of very little uſe to attempt its deſtruction before the general habit of body is improved, and when this is effected, dry lint, or other gentle means, will generally ſuffice. The *fungus* over a carious bone cannot be removed before the caries is put a ſtop to, and the exfoliation completed; but after theſe the *fungus* diſappears ſpontaneouſly.

If *fungus* excreſcences ariſe from the brain, after trepanning, they may be cut away with a knife, and ſuppreſſed with lint dipped in rectified ſpirit of wine, and gentle preſſure.

White ſwellings are called *fungi* by ſome authors. In Vogel's Noſology, it ſignifies a ſoft œdematous tumor of the joints.

FUNGUS. The name of a tubercle about the anus. The cauſe and cure are the ſame as the condyloma.

FUNGUS. See PROPTOSIS, and LYCOPERDON.

FUNGUS ARTICULI, i. e. Spina ventoſa.

FUNGUS IGNIARIUS, i. e. Agaricus.

FUNGUS LARICIS, i. e. Agaricus.

FUNGUS MAXIMUS ROTUNDUS PULVERULENTUS. A ſpecies of lycopordon.

FUNGUS MEMBRANACEUS, i. e. Auriculæ Judæ.

FUNGUS PIPERATUS, i. e. Agaricus piperatus.

FUNGUS SAMBUCI, i. e. Auriculæ Judæ.

FUNICULUS UMBILICALIS, i. e. Funis umbilicalis.

FUNIS BRACHII. The cord of the arm. So the Arabians call the vena mediana.

FUNIS UMBILICALIS. The navel ſtring. It is commonly about half a yard long, though this is uncertain, it being ſometimes not above half this, and at others it is a yard or more. It is uſually fixed near the middle of the placenta, but ſometimes it is near the edge thereof; it is compoſed of two arteries and two veins, though ſometimes there are two arteries and one vein, and at others two veins and but one artery. Theſe veſſels are convoluted, and are ſurrounded by a fine net-work of fibres of a gelatinous texture. The arteries are continuations of the internal iliacs or hypogaſtrics; the veins are formed by the union of all the branches in the placenta; they are continued into the abdomen at the navel, and ſo on to the vena porta in the liver. After the birth, the remaining parts of the arteries in the abdomen form the ligamenta umbilicalia inferiora, and the veins form the falciform or ſuſpenſory ligament.

There is always a point where the *funis* begins, and where the integuments ſeparate from it; whence it is indifferent whether you cut it nearer or further from the belly, ſo that a ligature can be made upon the portion that is left with the child, as it always drops off at the ſame place.

If the *funis* is torn off from the child, ſo that a ligature cannot be made on it, La Motte aſſures us, he ſucceeded in preventing an hæmorrhage by applying pledgits of lint, and confining them with proper compreſſes and bandage; but ſome recommend the needle and ligature.

If the child deſcends to the os externum, but ſeems to be drawn up and down as though it was ſuſpended by a rope, it may be ſuſpected that the *funis* is very ſhort, or that it is entangled, in which caſe ſome practitioners have cut it at about five or ſix inches from the child's belly. But a neceſſity for this can hardly occur, for with a little patience it will ſtretch ſufficiently.

FURCALA, i. e. Clavicula.

FURCELLA. The enciform cartilage.

FURCULA INFERIOR. The enciform cartilage.

FURFUR. Bran. It is commended as excellent for removing offenſive ſordes from the head; and for relieving head achs, by rubbing the head with it after well heating it.

FURFURATIO. See FURFUROSI.

FURFURES. So urine is called which poſſeſſes a ſediment reſembling bran. It is a name for furfuroſi.

FURFUROSI. Thoſe patients are ſo called who are afflicted with a ſort of ſcurf or ſcalineſs on the head, which upon combing diſcharges a ſcaly ſubſtance like bran, whence the diſeaſe is called furfures, and furfuratio; though ſome call it porrigo, and farrea nubes.

FURNUS. See FORNAX.

FURIOSUS. See AMBULO.

FUROR UTERINUS. Dr. Cullen calls it nymphomania. It is a ſpecies of madneſs, or an high degree of hyſterics. Its immediate cauſe is a preternatural irritability of the uterus and pudenda of women (to whom the diſorder is proper) or an unuſual acrimony of the fluids in theſe parts.

Its preſence is known by the wanton behaviour of the patient; ſhe ſpeaks and acts with unreſtrained obſcenity, and as the diſorder increaſes, ſhe ſcolds, cries, and laughs by turns. While reaſon is retained ſhe is ſilent, and ſeems melancholy, but her eyes diſcover an unuſual wantonneſs. The ſymptoms are better and worſe, until the greateſt degree of the diſorder approaches, and then by every word and action her condition is too manifeſt.

In the beginning a cure may be hoped for, but if it continues it degenerates into a mania; long intervals, and a recovery of fleſh alſo give hopes.

In order to the cure, bleed in proportion to the patient's ſtrength. Camphor, in doſes of 15 or 20 grains with nitre, and ſmall doſes of the tinct. Theb. ſhould be repeated at proper intervals. Some venture to give the ſac. Saturn. in doſes of three to five grains. Beſides bleeding, cooling purges ſhould alſo be repeated in proportion to the violence of ſymptoms, &c. What is uſeful in maniac and hypochondriac diſorders, is alſo uſeful here, regard being had to ſanguine or phlegmatic habits, &c. When the delirium is at the height, give opiates to compoſe, and uſe the ſame method as in a phrenitis, or a mania. Injections of barley water, with a ſmall quantity of hemlock juice, may be frequently thrown up into the uterus; this is called ſpecific, but matrimony, if poſſible, ſhould be preferred. See Riverius's Practice of Phyſic.

FURUNCULUS, from *furo, to rage.* A boil or bile. It is a phlegmonous humour which commonly terminates in a ſuppuration of a peculiar kind. It is a variety of the phlogoſis phlegmone. See INFLAMMATIO.

It breaks open at firſt on its top, or the moſt pointed part, when ſome drops of pus, like that from an abſceſs, comes out; after which the germ, or what is commonly called the core, is ſeen; this core is a purulent ſubſtance, but ſo thick and tenacious, that it appears like a ſolid body, which may be drawn out in the ſhape of a cylinder, like the pith of elder, ſometimes to the length of an inch. The emiſſion of this core is uſually followed by the diſcharge of a certain quantity of liquid matter, ſpread through the bottom of it. As ſoon as this diſcharge is made, the pain entirely ceaſes, and in a few days the ſwelling diſappears.

Suppuration is the beſt method of removing this kind of tumour, for if repelled it almoſt as certainly returns on ſome other part; but indeed the ſurgeon is ſeldom applied to on account of it, the common method of applying a poultice of flour and honey anſwering every purpoſe.

FUSANUS, or Fuſaria. See EUONYMUS.

FUSIO. Fuſion. It is the reduction of ſolid bodies into a ſtate of fluidity by fire. Fuſio and ſolutio per ignem mean the ſame thing; but in the common mode of ſpeech, by fuſion, we underſtand a ſolution, or liquation of metals or minerals; by liquefaction, a ſolution of pinguious and concreted ſubſtances.

G.

GABIANUM OLEUM, i. e. Petroleum.

GABIREA. A pinguious ſpecies of myrrh, mentioned by Dioſcorides

GÆDA. The abbreviation of Johannes Gædartius Metamorph. & Hiſt. Nat. Inſectum, in part. iii.

GÆODES. A ſpecies of ætites, or a round ſort of belemnites.

GAGATES. See SUCCINUM NIGRUM.

GAGEL, i. e. Gale.

GAIDEROTHYMUM. A name of the ſtachys ſpinoſa Cretica.

GAL. The abbreviation for Galen.

GALACIA, i. e. Galaxa.

GALACORTA. A ſpecies of ſcorzonera.

GALACTIA. An exceſs or overflowing of milk.

GALACTINA. See LACTICINIA.

GALACTIRRHOEA, i. e. Galactia.

GALACTITES, (LAPIS) from γάλα, milk, the milk ſtone. It is alſo called galaractis, and galaricides. Dioſcorides ſays, that in one year one may perceive its growth to have been conſiderable. It ſeems to be an inferior kind of French chalk. When it is ground down with water, it renders it milky in appearance; whence its name.

GALACTODES. In Hippocrates it ſignifies both milk warm, and a milky colour.

GALACTOPHORA MEDICAMENTA. Medicines which increaſe the milk.

GALACTOPHORI DUCTUS. The lacteal veſſels, from γαλα, milk and φερω, to carry.

GALÆNA INANIS. Biſmuth.

GALACTOPŒTICA, from γαλα milk, and ποιέω, to make. Milk making. An epithet applied to the faculty of generating milk.

GALACTOPOSIA. The method of curing by a milk diet.

GALANGA. Galangal. It is the maranta galanga, Linn. It is a graſſy leafed plant, which grows in China and in the Eaſt Indies. The dried roots are brought into Europe in pieces of about an inch long, and half an inch thick: it is branched, full of knots and joints, with ſeveral circular rings: it is of a reddiſh brown colour on the outſide, and of a pale red within.

This root hath an aromatic ſmell, and bitteriſh hot biting taſte; but the heat and pungency prevail more than the bitter. Dr. Lewis obſerves, that the pungent matter appears to be of the ſame nature with that of pepper; that it reſides not in the volatile oil, but in a more fixed matter. Neumann ſays, it reſembles ginger in its ſmell, taſte, and chemical compoſition, but that ginger is to be preferred, as it is more agreeable.

There is a *galanga* major, but as it is weaker and much more diſagreeable, it is not uſed. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

GALARACTIS, or galaricides. See GALACTITES.

GALASTIVIDA. A ſpecies of moth mullein.

GALBANUM (GUM). It is the concrete, gummy, reſinous juice of an ever-green plant, with leaves like thoſe of aniſe, growing in Syria, the Eaſt Indies, and Ethiopia. This plant is named ferula Africana, &c. and oreoſelinum Africanum, &c. The plant is the bubon galbanum, or the bubon foliolis rhombeis dentatis glabris ſtriatis, umbellis paucis. Linn. The gum is brought to us in pale coloured, ſemitranſparent, ſoft, tenacious maſſes, of different ſhades from white to brown; the better ſorts of which on being opened, appear compoſed of clear, whitiſh tears, often intermixed with little ſtalks or ſeeds of the plant. It partakes more of the reſinous than of the gummy quality, though it is nearly all ſoluble in water. It hath a ſtrong unpleaſant ſmell, and bitteriſh warm taſte, is unctuous to the touch, and ſoftens in the finger.

In medical virtue, and ſenſible qualities, it reſembles the gum ammoniacum, but is leſs efficacious than it is in aſthmas, though more efficacious than it is in hyſteric diſorders. When aſſa fetida is too ſtrong, galbanum may be tried; and if it diſagrees, give ammoniacum.

A mixture of ſpirit of wine, two parts, with one part water, diſſolves all but the impurities, which are commonly in conſiderable quantities.

Great part of the virtue of *galbanum* conſiſts in its eſſential oil, and is carried up in diſtillation, either with water or with ſpirit; whence great care is required in purifying it. For making of plaſters, and ſuch like inferior purpoſes, the beſt method is to expoſe it in winter to a ſharp froſt, and whilſt it is brittle to powder it: thus the impurities may in ſome meaſure be ſeparated in the ſearce; for internal uſes, it is beſt managed by including it in a bladder, and keeping it in hot water, until it is ſoft enough to be ſtrained by preſſure through an hempen cloth.

Beſides the eſſential oil yielded by diſtillation with water, an empyreumatic oil is obtained, by diſtilling in a retort without mixture. This empyreumatic oil is of a fine blue colour, but changes in the air to a purple.

It is common to ſpread galbanum on leather, and to apply it to the belly in hyſteric diſorders, and when ſpaſms diſorder the belly of a woman ſoon after delivery; but the following is to be preferred. ℞ Gum aſſ. fetid ʒ vi. camph. ʒ ſs. f. empl. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

GALBEI, or Galbeum. A ſort of ornamental and medical bracelets worn by the Romans.

GALBULA. In the plural number it ſignifies cypreſs nuts.

GALBULI. The cones or nuts of the cypreſs tree.

GALBULUS. When the ſkin of the body is naturally yellow.

GALE. See ELÆAGNUS, and MYRTUS.

GALEA. Galea, a helmet. See PILEUS. In anatomy it is the name for the amnios. In ſurgery, a bandage for the head is thus called. In botany, the upper-lip of a labiated flower is called its galea or creſt. Among diſeaſes, it is by analogy a name for a ſpecies of head-ach, which ſurrounds the head like an helmet.

GALEANIONES. People with one arm ſhorter than the other.

GALEANTHROPIA. It is a ſpecies of madneſs in which a patient imagines himſelf to be a cat, and then he imitates its manners. The name ſeems to be from γαλη, a *cat*, and ἀνθρωπος, a *man*.

GALEGA, called alſo ruta capraria, and goat's rue. It is the *galega* officinalis, Linn. The root is perennial; on the ſtalk are pods with oblong kidney-ſhaped ſeeds. It is a native of Spain and Italy, where it is eaten as food, but it is not noted in medicine.

GALEGA NEMOROSA VERNA. A ſpecies of orobus.

GALEGÆ. A ſpecies of ſenna.

GALENA, from γαλήνη, a *calm*. It was a name of the theriaca, before the addition of vipers to it. It is the name of a lead ore, in which is a little ſilver. According to ſome it is the ſame as plumbago, or molybdæna. Some ſay that no metal can be extracted from it, and others ſay it is an ore of zinc, but mixt with various other ſubſtances. This laſt is the moſt proper aſſertion.

GALENION. The name of malagma in P. Ægineta.

GALENUS. Galen. He is ſaid to have been born at Pergamus, about the year of Chriſt 131. The medicine of *Galen* had much affinity with that of Hippocrates, with this difference, that Hippocrates's depends on facts or experience, and *Galen*'s on reaſoning. The genuine works of Hippocrates ſtand the teſt of ages, and improvements are rather additions to, than alterations in him; but this is not the caſe with reſpect to *Galen*, &c. From *Galen*, the next eminent phyſician is ORIBASIUS, which ſee.

GALEOBDULON. See GALEOPSIS, and LAMIUM.

GALEOPSIS, alſo called lamium maximum ſylvaticum fœtidum, urtica iners magna fœtidiſſima, ſtachys fœtida, and hedge-nettle. Boerhaave enumerates fourteen ſpecies. This ſpecies, he ſays, is a good antihyſteric, and an infuſion of the leaves and flowers is uſeful in a nephritic colic. He attributes ſome degree of virtue to the ſpecies called clown's all-heal; ſee PANAX COLONI; to the yellow archangel, ſee LAMIUM; to the ſpotted archangel, ſee ditto: but to the reſt nothing medicinal is known to belong to them.

GALEOPSIS. The name for a ſpecies of clary.

GALEOPSIS. Anguillare. A ſpecies of baſtard dittany.

GALERITA, i. e. Petaſites.

GALEXIUS. See MOROCHTHUS.

GALI. See INDICUM.

GALIA, from *gallæ*, galls. There are two compoſitions, one called pure, the other aromatic, and galls were a part of the compoſition. *Galia* moſchata, or muſcata; in this was nutmeg. *Galia* zibettina; in this was civet.

GALIANCON, i. e. Ancus. Alſo when one arm is ſhorter than the other.

GALIOPSIS, i. e. Galeopſis.

GALLÆ, called nuces gallæ, gallæ maximæ orbiculatæ, gallæ ſpinoſæ, galls. The *Gallæ* Robur 3, vel quercus, cerris. Linn.

They are hard round excreſcences, cynipidis nidi; found in the warmer countries on the oak-tree. They are produced from the puncture of an inſect, and affording a lodgement for its young, until they are capable of eating a paſſage through; the tear which iſſues from the wound, gradually increaſed by acceſſions of freſh matter, forms a covering to the eggs and ſucceeding inſects. Thoſe galls which have no hole are found to have the dead inſects remaining in them. Two ſorts are diſtinguiſhed in the ſhops, one ſaid to be brought from Aleppo, called Oriental, or Aleppo nut, or *galla* ſpinoſa; the other from the ſouthern parts of Europe, called European galls. The former are generally of a bluiſh colour, or of greyiſh, or blackiſh, and verging to a blue; unequal to their ſurface, hard to break, and of a cloſe texture: the others are of a pale browniſh or whitiſh colour, ſmooth, round, eaſily broke, leſs compact, and of a much larger ſize. The two ſorts differ in ſtrength, but in other reſpects are of the ſame quality.

Chuſe the ſmall, protuberant, bluiſh, and heavy ones.

Galls are a ſtrong aſtringent, ſuppoſed to be one of the ſtrongeſt in the vegetable kingdom. They have no peculiar ſmell or taſte; their medical character is ſimple aſtringency. Both water and ſpirit take up nearly all their virtue. The ſpirituous extract is the ſtrongeſt preparation, but the ſimple powders is as good as any other mode of adminiſtering them. The doſe of the powder is from a few grains to a dram.

They are not much uſed in medicine, but are much employed for making black writing ink, and the colouring matter for dying black with. A decoction of gall ſeems more rough and aſtringent to the taſte; but an infuſion of them in cold water ſtrikes a deeper black with green vitriol. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

GALLATURA. That part of the white of egg which is more denſe and cloſe than the reſt.

GALLENA TESSULATA. Cubic dice lead ore. One hundred pounds weight of this ore yields from ſixty to ſeventy of pure lead.

GALLI GALLINACEI CAPUT, i. e. Gallinaginis caput.

GALLIA MOSCHATA. A compoſition of troches, in which are only aloes, amber, and muſk, made up with ſome mucilage.

GALLICUS MORBUS. The French diſeaſe. See LUES VENEREA.

GALLINAGINIS (CAPUT). When the proſtata is cut open, we diſcover the eminence called caput gallinaginis. It is thick behind and ſlender before; on each ſide of this eminence appears the orifices of the veſiculæ ſeminales.

GALLION. See GALLIUM.

GALLITRICHIS. Wild clary.

GALLITRICHUM. A ſpecies of baum. Alſo a name of ſeveral ſpecies of clary.

GALLIUM, called gallion, cheeſe rennet, lady's bedſtraw. It is the *Galium* verum, Linn. It is a plant with ſquare ſtalks, long narrow leaves, which commonly ſtand eight at a joint in the form of a ſtar. On the tops appear thick cluſters of ſmall yellow monopetalous flowers, which are followed each by two ſeeds. It is perennial, found in dry waſte grounds, and flowers in June and July.

The flowers have a ſtrong, not diſagreeable ſmell; the leaves little or none: but they both poſſeſs a degree of acidity, on which account they are uſed in ſome places for turning milk, or ſeparating its curd from the whey, whence its name cheeſe rennet. The whole plant is ſaid to be cooling and reſtringent, but is not much uſed in medicine. Boerhaave mentions five ſpecies.

GALLIUM. A name for madder.

GALLIUM LATIFOLIUM FLORE LUTEO. A ſpecies of croſs-wort.

GALREDA. A kind of jelly made by boiling the cartilaginous parts of animals. In Paracelſus, it ſignifies an excrementitious mouldineſs.

GAMAHÆI, or Gamaheu. Stones on which are the figures of the conſtellations; they are formed naturally in the earth, and have more attributed to them than they deſerve.

GAMANDRA, i. e. Gambogia.

GAMATHA, i. e. Gamahaei.

GAMBOGIA. The largeſt quantities are produced in the province of *Cambogia*, or Cambodia, from whence it is called Cambodia, Cambugium, *Gambogia*, &c. From the virtues aſcribed to it againſt the gout, it is called gummi ad podagram, gummi gutta, &c. By a corruption of the above names it is called gummi gotta, gummi ghitta, gutta gamba, gamon, gamandra, cattagemu, jemon, gamma, &c. From its gold colour it hath been called chryſopus, and from its purgative quality it is named ſuccus laxativus, ſuccus Indicus purgans, & ſcamonium orientale. With us it is uſually called gamboge.

It is a gummy reſinous concrete, brought from the Eaſt-Indies, ſaid to be the produce of certain trees called coddam-pulli; but ſome ſay it is obtained from a ſhrub of the eſſula, or tithymalus kind. The tree is the *Cambogia* Gutta, or *Cambogia* of Linn. Indian *Cambogia*. It is brought to us in large cakes and rolls; it is ſolid, brittle, of a ſmooth ſurface, perfectly opake, free from any viſible impurities, of a deep reddiſh yellow colour, equal and uniform throughout its whole ſubſtance. It ſtains the moiſt hands of a yellow colour: when chewed, it hath little or no taſte, but ſoon after it impreſſes a pungent acrimony and heat, and occaſions a dryneſs in the mouth. It eaſily melts over the fire; it takes flame from a candle, it burns with a white flame, and leaves a grey aſh.

In medicine it is chiefly uſed as a draſtic purge, but it weakens the ſtomach. It produces copious diſcharges by ſtool, and its operation is uſually very quick. On the firſt uſe of it, it generally vomits, and then purges; in dropſies it hath been much recommended; but in a hot, dry habit, it ſhould never be ventured on. The doſe is from gr. iii. to xx. When given with merc. dulc. or other purgatives, it is not ſo apt to be diſcharged upwards. If given in a liquid form, and duly diluted, it needs no corrector; boiling it in water leſſens its activity; ſolutions of it in alkalized water, acts only by ſtool and urine; the latter it promotes very freely.

Rectified ſpirit of wine diſſolves five parts out of ſix, and acquires a deep gold colour from it; water, aſſiſted

by heat, takes up nearly as much, but, on cooling, it depoſits much of the reſin; but if the water is firſt impregnated with an alkaline ſalt, it depoſits none. See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Lewis's Mat. Med.

GAMBOIDEA, i. e. Gambogia.

GAMMA. i. e. Gambogia.

GAMMATA (FERRAMENTA). An inſtrument mentioned by P. Ægineta, made like the Greek letter γ; it was uſed for cauterizing an hernia aquoſa.

GAMPHELE. The cheek. The jaw, from γαμφὸς, *crooked*.

GANGAMON. A name of the omentum, from its ſuppoſed likeneſs to a fiſhing-net, which the Greeks call gangamon. Some call that contexture of nerves about the navel thus.

GANGILA, i. e. Seſamum.

GANGLION. A primitive in the Greek. In anatomy, it imports a knot frequently found in the courſe of the nerves, and which is not morbid; for wherever any nerve ſends out a branch, or receives one from another, or where two nerves join together, there is generally a ganglion or plexus, as may be ſeen at the beginning of all the nerves of the medulla ſpinalis, and in many other places of the body. See PLEXUS.

GANGLION. In ſurgery, it is a moveable tumor formed any where about the tendons of muſcles, and the ligaments; the moſt frequent ſituation is about the carpus: but whatever part of the body it is in, it is near the ſkin, and is not attended with any conſiderable uneaſineſs to the patient. They are formed of lymph, which is ſecreted within the vaginæ of tendons; they are different in their form, conſiſtence, and other appearances, but they never ſuppurate. Mr. Sharp reckons theſe tumors among thoſe encyſted ones called meliceris. For the moſt part the matter of a ganglion reſembles the white of egg. Dr. Cullen ranks it as a genus of diſeaſes in the claſs locales, and order tumores.

As to the cure, Mr. Sharp aſſures us that he hath frequently ſucceeded, by making an inciſion through its whole length, and at the ſame time dividing the ligament of the wriſt, and afterwards dreſſing as in wounds in general. Mr. Warner gives two inſtances of his ſucceſsfully extirpating them: he obſerves, that the objection from danger of wounding the ſubjacent tendon or ligament, is of no weight, ſince the accident can be generally avoided, and, ſhould it happen, the diſaſter may be eaſily healed, as happens daily in wounds of this ſort; he recommends the cutting away part of the cyſt, and then digeſting the reſt away. See Sharp's Operations in Surgery, in the chapter on encyſted tumors. Warner's Caſes in Surgery. Heiſter's Surgery.

GANGRÆNA, from γραω, *to graze*. A gangrene, or beginning mortification. See MORTIFICATIO.

GANGRÆNA OSSIS. A name for the ſpina ventoſa.

GANGRINOS (SAL). Fuchſius ſays it is the ſal foſſilis.

GANNANA, & Gannanaperide. Names for the cort. Peru.

GARAB. An Arabic name for the diſorder called ægilops.

GARATRONIUS. See BUFONITES.

GARB. A Mooriſh name for an Arabian ſpecies of willow.

GARENT-OUGUAN. A name for genſing.

GARGALE, GARGALOS, GARGALISMOS. Irritation, or ſtimulation.

GARGAREON. The uvula

GARGARISMA, or Gargariſmus, from γαργαρίζω, and that from γαργαρων, *the throat*. To waſh the mouth. A gargle. Its uſe is, for waſhing the mouth and throat with when inflammations, ulcerations, &c. are there. A ſmall quantity may be taken into the mouth, and moved briſkly about, and then ſpit out; or if the patient cannot do this to any advantage, the liquor may be injected with a ſyringe. When gargles are required, their uſe ſhould be more frequently repeated than is done in common practice. See more particular obſervations on this ſubject in the article ANGINA.

GARGATHUM. A bed on which lunatics, &c. were formerly confined.

GARID. HIST. The abbreviation of Petrus Garidel, M. D. HIST. PLANT.

GARIDELLA. A plant ſo called by Tournefort, in honour of Dr. Garidel, of Aix, in Provence. It is called by C. Bauhine, nigella Cretica folio fœniculi. It is not noted for any medical virtue.

GARON, or Garum. A kind of pickle prepared of fiſh; at firſt it was made from a fiſh which the Greeks called garos; but the beſt was made from mackrels. Among the moderns, garum ſignifies the liquor in which fiſh is pickled.

GAROSMUM, i. e. Atriplex fœtida.

GARROTILLO. So the Spaniards have named the cynanche maligna, or ulcerated ſore throat.

GARYOPHYLLATA, i. e. Caryophyllata.

GARYOPHILLI, i. e. Caryophilli.

GARYOPHYLLON PLINII. See CASSIA CARYOPHYLLATA.

GARYOPHYLLUS. The aromatic cloves.

GARZ. The abbreviation of garzia ab horto aromat. ſimpl. &c.

GAS. From *geiſt*, which in the German language is ſpirit. The word *gas* is an invention of Helmont's; in general it is a ſpirit incapable of coagulation, ſuch as riſes from fermenting liquors, &c. It is now called fixed air. See Prieſtley on Air. Introd. p. 3.

GAS FRUCTUUM. Elementary water which exhales from fruits.

GAS PINGUE SULPHUREUM. The lethiferous exhalations from caves, &c.

GAS SALIUM. See GAS FRUCTUUM.

GAS SICCUM, i. e. Sublimate.

GAS SULPHURIS. The ſpirit of ſulphur, now called aqua ſulphurata.

GAS SYLVESTRE. The ſubtil ſpirit which riſes from fermenting liquors.

GAS VENTOSUM. The air.

GAS VITALE. The ſpirit of our life.

GASCOIGNI PULVIS. Gaſcoign's powder. See BEZOAR.

GASELLA, or Gaſſela. The African wild goat, from which a ſpecies of bezoar is taken.

GASTER. In Hippocrates it generally ſignifies the ſame as abdomen; but ſometimes it means only the uterus; at others, the ſtomach.

GASTERANAX. See BITHINIMALCA.

GASTRICA. Pain of the ſtomach.

GASTRICA ARTERIA DEXTRA, vel GASTRICA MAJOR. It proceeds from the hepatica arteria; it paſſes behind the pylorus, and beyond it ſends out the duodenalis or inteſtinalis; then runs along the right ſide of the great curvature of the ſtomach, to the neighbouring parts of which, on both ſides, it diſtributes branches, and at laſt ends in the gaſtrica ſiniſtra.

GASTRICA SINISTRA ARTERIA, vel GASTRICA MINOR. It is a branch of the ſplenica; it runs from the left to the right, along the left portion of the great curvature of the ſtomach. It ſupplies the omentum with branches called gaſtro-epiploicæ ſiniſtra, and then it communicates with the gaſtrica arteria dextra; and from this union, the gaſtro-epiploicæ mediæ are produced.

GASTRICA EPIPLOICA SINISTRA VENA. See GASTRICA SINISTRA VENA.

GASTRICA RECTA VENA. It is ſometimes a branch from the vena portæ ventralis, or from its principal branches. It goes to the pilorus, to the great curvature of the ſtomach, and communicates with the gaſtrica ſiniſtra, &c.

GASTRICA SINISTRA VENA. It goes out from the ſplenica, at the left extremity of the pancreas, from whence it runs to the great extremity of the ſtomach, and along the great arch, until it meets the gaſtrica dextra. In its paſſage it ſends branches to the ſides of the ſtomach, and communicates with the coronaria ventriculi.

GASTRITIS. Inflammation of the ſtomach; which ſee. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ and order phlegmaſiæ. He obſerves two ſpecies. 1. Gaſtritis phlegmonodea. 2 Gaſtritis eryſipelatoſa.

GASTRICUS

GASTRICUS SUCCUS. The gaſtric juice. It is ſo called from gaſter, the ſtomach. It is a thin, pellucid juice, which diſtils from certain glands in the ſtomach for the dilution, &c. of the food.

GASTRINUM. Pot-aſh.

GASTROCELE, from γαστηρ, the *ſtomach*, and κηλη, *tumor* or rupture of the ſtomach. The tumor is in the upper part of the linea alba. When this accident happens, there is continual vomiting; every thing taken is immediately rejected; ſo an atrophy ſucceeds. All herniæ of the linea alba require the ſame management, but this of the ſtomach deſerves particular attention. They are eaſily reduced, and ſhould be kept up by a truſs. See ABDOMEN.

GASTROCNEMII, from γαστηρ, a *belly*, and κνημη, the *leg* or *ſhin-bone*. Albinus calls theſe muſcles by the name gemellus. At the origin of each of theſe muſcles, it is a biceps riſing from each condyle of the femur; the heads ſoon join and leave a notch, through which the large veſſels and nerves paſs, and is inſerted into the upper poſterior part of the os calcis. The tendon of the ſoleus, with the tendon of this muſcle, forms the tendo Achillis. Theſe muſcles form the greateſt part of the calves of the legs. Brown calls them *gaſtrocnemii* externi, and ſays that ſome call them ſuræ.

GASTROCNEMIUS INTERNUS. So ſome call the ſoleus muſcle.

GASTRO-COLICO VENA. It is a branch from the meſaraica minor, and is ſoon divided into two branches, one of which runs to the head of the pancreas, and forms the gaſtrica recta vena, and the colica recta vena.

GASTRODYNIA. Pain in the ſtomach. It is an inſtance of dyſpepſia.

GASTRO-EPIPLOICA, from γαστηρ, the *ſtomach*, and επιπλοον, the *omentum*. An epithet for the arteries and veins that go to the ſtomach and omentum.

GASTRO-EPIPLOICA VENA. A branch of the gaſtrica ſiniſtra is thus named.

GASTRO-EPIPLOICA DEXTRA, i. e. Gaſtrica recta.

GASTRO-EPIPLOICA SINISTRA ARTERIA. See SPLENICA ARTERIA.

GASTRORAPHIA. Gaſtroraphy, from γαστηρ, a *belly*, and ραφη, a *ſuture*. In ſtrictneſs of etymology this word ſignifies the ſewing up of any wound of the belly; yet in common acceptation it implies that an inteſtine is wounded as well as the belly. This operation is uſeleſs in ſmall wounds, but neceſſary in large ones. The beſt method is to paſs double ligatures in one needle, in order to include the rolls at one end, and be tied upon them with bow knots on the oppoſite ſide, which gives an opportunity of ſtraitening and looſening the knots at pleaſure. After paſſing in as many ligatures as ſeems neceſſary, bring the lips of the wound gradually together, and keep them ſo until the knots are tied.

As to the operation of ſtitching the bowels, it can only take place where they fall out of the abdomen ſo as to ſee where the wound in the inteſtine is, or how many wounds there are. See Sharp's and Le Dran's Operations.

GASTROTOMIA. Gaſtrotomy. Opening the belly and uterus, as in the Cæſarean operation, from γαστηρ, *belly*, and τεμνω, to *cut*.

GATRINUM. Pot-aſh.

GATTARIA. Catmint.

GAUDIUM. Joy. If ſudden and immoderate it ſo wears away the ſtrength, that madneſs or ſudden death ſometimes enſues.

GAZAR. The bay tree.

GAZELLA. The goat which affords the oriental bezoar. Gazella Africana is the antelope.

GAZOPHYL. The abbreviation for gazophylacium.

GECHYTON. The external parts of the earth which are ſoft.

GEDWAR, Geid, or Geidwar. See ZEDOARIA.

GEISON. Properly the eaves of houſes, but by a metaphor is uſed for the prominent part of the eye-brows.

GELASINOS, from γελως, *laughter*. An epithet for the four middle fore teeth, becauſe they are ſhewn in laughter.

GELASMUS. The Sardonic laugh.

GELATINA. Jelly. Jellies, gums, and mucilages are ſomewhat ſimilar. Jellies are the productions of art, and are either vegetable or animal; mucilages are alſo either animal or vegetable; jellies are made of the juice of ripe fruit boiled up with ſugar to a proper conſiſtence, or of ſtrong decoctions of horns, ſoft bones, &c. The jellies of fruits are aceſcent; thoſe of animal ſubſtances are alcaleſcent.

GELATIO. Freezing. Sometimes it expreſſes the rigidity of the body which happens in a catoche or catalepſis.

GELBUM, Geldum, or Gelſum. The name of a ſort of marcaſite.

GELSEMINUM. A name of a ſpecies of apocynum; alſo a ſpecies of jeſſamine.

GEMELLÆ (CYSTICÆ). A name given to the blood veſſels which run on the gall-blader, becauſe they are often only two in number.

GEMELLI. See GEMINI (Muſc.)

GEMELLUS. So Albinus calls the gaſtrocnemii muſcles.

GEMELLUS MAJOR, i. e. Brachiæus externus.

GEMINI. Thus Albinus calls the two muſcles which Winſlow calls gemelli. They are two flat, narrow, ſmall muſcles, ſituated almoſt tranſverſely one above the other, between the tuberoſity of the iſchium and the great trochanter, immediately below the pyriformis, and parted by the tendon of the obturator internus.

GEMINUS. A twin. It is alſo called gemellus and didymus. According to the preſent theory of conception twins are formed by two ova ſwimming in the uterus, and are impregnated by the animalculæ in the male ſeed.

GEMINUS, i. e. Extenſor carpi exterior muſc.

GEMMA SAMOTHRAICA. See SUCCINUM NIGRUM.

GEMMA. A gem, or jewel. Gems are certain ſtones conſiſting of the ſiliceous, or what is improperly called vitrifiable earth, much valued for their luſtre, tranſparency, colour, hardneſs, weight, and rarity. Theſe are diamonds, rubies, ſapphires, topazes, emeralds, chryſolites, amethyſts, garnets, hyacinths or jacinths, beryls or aqua marinas. The order in which they are enumerated ſhews their different or relative degrees of hardneſs. Formerly theſe were held in much eſteem in medicine, but the preſent practice neglects them all, being abſolutely inſoluble in the human ſtomach. See QUARTZ. And ſee Dict. of Chem. and Numann's Mat. Med.

GEMMA (SAL), alſo called ſal gemmeus, ſal foſſilis, rock ſalt, foſſil ſalt, common ſalt, and ſal gem. Sal gemma, or ſal gem. It is ſo called by reaſon of its tranſparency. It is found in many high mountains of Europe, &c. as in Poland, Catalonia, Perſia, Eaſt-Indies, &c. It is probable the rocks of this ſalt are in the ſea, whence the ſaltneſs of the water is preſerved; for as ſalt ſoon loſes its ſavourineſs and antiputreſcent property, freſh ſalt is neceſſary for the purpoſes which it effects in the waters it impregnates. The ſalt in the ſea water all comes from the earth. It is the ſame as the ſal marinus; but when found in rocks in the earth, it receives the names of ſal gem, and ſal foſſilis. It is purified by ſolution in water, and when the pure ſolution is evaporated to dryneſs, the ſalt is uſed as the common or alimentary ſalt. In the mines of Wilizca is a ſort that is hard enough for making into toys, vaſes, &c. but the ſofter they uſe in the kitchen. There are ſpecies of different colours, but the pellucid is that which is uſed in medicine; it is eſteemed more penetrating than the other ſalts which are formed by evaporation.

GEMONIS, i. e. Lapis ætites.

GEMS. A ſpecies of goat, called alſo capra Alpina.

GEMURSA. The name of an excreſcence betwixt the toes.

GENA. The upper part of the face between the noſe and ears.

GENEIAS. The downy hairs which firſt cover the cheek; alſo the name of a bandage mentioned by Galen; it comes under the chin.

GENEION. i. e. Antheron.

GENERATIO. Generation. The parts of generation proper to men are thoſe which prepare the ſeed and ſeparate it from the body; theſe are the teſtes, the veſiculæ ſeminales, and proſtatæ, and thoſe which convey the ſeed

ſeed into the womb, which office is performed by the penis. The parts of generation proper to women are the vulva, mons Veneris, labia pudendorum, nymphæ, clitoris, hymen, vagina, uterus, and ovariæ.

Much is ſaid that is both curious and entertaining with reſpect to the manner how generation is effected; but, except that the ſemen is ejected through the penis into the uterus, where it renders the female ovum prolific, the whole is hypotheſis. However, the curious may ſee what is ſaid by Ariſtotle and Galen among the ancients, and by Harvey, Steno, de Graaf, Swammerdam, Van Horn, and Lewenhoeck, among the moderns. It may be noted that Lewenhoeck's doctrine of animalculæ ſeems to fall to nothing, when it is conſidered that they cannot be diſcovered before the ſemen begins to corrupt. See alſo Haller's Phyſiology, lecture 33.

GENIALIS ARTERIA, i. e. Maxillaria externa arteria.

GENICULUM, or Geniculus. A knot. Such roots and pods of plants are ſaid to be geniculated as are divided into joints.

GENIO-GLOSSI, from γενειον, *the chin*, and γλωσσα, *the tongue*. Theſe muſcles ariſe from the chin, above the genio-hyoides, and enter the middle of the tongue to move it forwards. Winſlow ſays that they can puſh the tongue out, retract, or expand it.

GENIO-HYOIDÆUS, from γενειον, *the chin*, and *hyoides*, *the bone of the tongue*. A ſmall muſcle ariſing from a tubercle above the beginning of the mylo-hyoides, and is inſerted into the upper part of the baſe of the os hyoides.

GENIO-PHARYNGÆI. Theſe are muſcular fibres joined to the ſide of the genio-gloſſi, and inſerted into the ſides of the pharynx, and continue their conjunction with the genio-gloſſi all the way to the chin.

GENIPAT, i. e. Janipaba.

GENIPI, i. e. Abſinth. Alp.

GENISTA, called alſo cytiſo-geniſta, and common broom. It is the ſpartium ſcoparium, or ſpartium fol. ternatis ſolitariiſque, ramis inermibus angulatis, flore luteo. Linn. It is a ſhrubby plant, with numerous angular twigs; the leaves are ſmall, and ſomewhat oval, ſet three on a pedicle; the flowers are papilionaceous, and of a deep yellow colour; after the flowers there follow broad pods, with flat, hard, and browniſh ſeeds. It is common on heaths, and uncultivated ſandy grounds; it flowers in May and June.

The leaves and ſtalks have a nauſeous bitter taſte, which they give out by infuſion in both water and ſpirit, and which, on inſpiſſating the liquors, remains concentrated in the extracts. A decoction of the tops of green broom is taken as a diuretic in dropſies; but the medicinal qualities of this ſhrub are not well known. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

GENISTA ARBORESCENS AFRICANA. A ſpecies of crotalaria.

GENISTA HISPANICA. A ſpecies of ſpartium. See GENISTA JUNCEA.

GENISTA JUNCEA, called alſo geniſta Hiſpanica, ſpartium arboreſcens, ſpartium Hiſpanicum frutex, and Spaniſh broom. It is common in gardens, flowers in June and July. It is of the ſame nature as the common broom, but more efficacious.

GENISTA SPARTIUM. See ALHAGI.

GENISTA SPARTIUM SPINOSUM, i. e. Echinopoda.

GENISTA SPARTIUM, alſo called nepa Theophraſti, geniſta ſpinoſa minor, and the leſſer furze. It is ſo generally known as not to need a deſcription. Its virtues are the ſame as thoſe of the common broom.

GENISTA SPINOSA MAJOR, alſo called ſpartium majus, ſcorpius, geniſtellæ ſpinoſæ affinis, nepa, furze, or gors. Its medical virtues are the ſame as thoſe of common broom.

GENISTA TINCTORIA, alſo called geniſtella, tinctorius flos, green-weed, and dyer's weed. It is found in paſture ground; it flowers in June and July, and ſeems to be of a ſimilar nature, as a medicine, with the common broom.

Botaniſts enumerate twelve or more ſpecies of broom. See Raii Hiſt. Plant.

GENITALIUM. Diſeaſes of the genital paſſages.

GENITURA. The ſemen maſculinum; alſo the pudendum virile.

GENOU. This word is uſed to expreſs the articulation called diarthroſis; it may be ſynonyme with enarthroſis, but does not agree ſo well with other ſpecies, though uſed for them all.

GENSING, called alſo ginſeng, ninzin, nindſin, niſi, ſiſarum montanum Coræenſe, zingin, &c. It is the panax quinquefolium. Linn.

Genſing, is the root of a ſmall plant growing in China, Turkey, and in ſome parts of America, particularly in Canada and Penſylvania. It is two or three inches long, taper, about the thickneſs of the little finger, often forked at the bottom, which gives it a diſtant reſemblance of a man, whence it is called *ginſeng*; it is elegantly ſtriated with circular wrinkles; it is of a browniſh yellow colour on the outſide, and whitiſh, or of a pale yellow within; on the top are commonly one or more little knots, which are the remains of the ſtalks of the preceding years, and from the number of which the age of the root is judged of. Thoſe roots which are brought from China are ſomewhat paler than thoſe from America, but in no other reſpect is any difference found.

Ninzin hath been ſuppoſed to be a ſynonymous name with *genſing*; but ninzin is a root of a different ſpecies; it virtues are weaker, but of the ſame kind as thoſe of *genſing*: the ninzin root is larger, lighter, and leſs firm than the *genſing*; it is whitiſh on the ſurface, yellow within, hath a ſlight aromatic ſmell, an acrid bitteriſh taſte, and is a ſpecies of ſium.

The Chineſe eſteem this root as a general reſtorative and corroborant: to the taſte it is mucilaginous, and ſweet like liquorice, yet accompanied with a degree of bitterneſs and a ſlight aromatic warmth, with little or no ſmell: the ſweet matter of theſe roots is preſerved in the watery as well as in the ſpirituous extract, and ſo is their aroma; the ſpirituous extract is a pleaſant warm bitteriſh ſweet.

A dram of the *genſing* root may be ſliced and boiled in a quarter of a pint of water to about two ounces; then a little ſugar being added, it may be drank as ſoon as it is cool enough; the doſe muſt be repeated morning and evening, but the ſecond doſe may be prepared from the ſame portion of root which was uſed at firſt, for it may always be twice boiled. M. Reneaume ſays that the hepatica nobilis Tragi is endued with the principal virtues of the *genſing*. See Raii Hiſt. Plant. Kempf. Amæn. James's Med. Dict. Lewis's Mat. Med.

GENTIANA. Gentian, greater yellow gentian, or felwort. Some have called it the European kinkina. It is the *gentiana* lutea, or *gentiana* major lutea, corollis quinquefidis rotatis verticillatis, calycibus ſpathaceis. Linn. N. B. In ſome editions it is writ corollis ſubquinque fidis.

This plant is ſaid to be called *gentiana*, becauſe Gentius, a king of Illyria, firſt took notice of it. Boerhaave enumerates ſeven ſpecies; but the above, whoſe root only is uſed, is the principal one of note in medicine. The ſtalk is unbranched and jointed; the leaves are oblong, acuminated, ribbed, and ſet in pairs at the joints; the flowers are in cluſters at the top of the ſtalk; they are of a pale yellow colour, ſomewhat bell-ſhaped, and deeply cut into five ſegments; the ſeeds are contained in oblong capſules; the root is moderately long, ſlender, branched, browniſh on the outſide, and of a deep gold colour within; its pith is woody, though more ſpongy than the reſt of the root. It is perennial, a native of the mountainous parts of Germany, Switzerland, France, and their neighbouring countries, from whence the dried roots are brought to us; but the plant is ſometimes found wild in England.

Sometimes another root is ſold for that of *gentian*, but ſhould be carefully diſtinguiſhed, as it is poiſonous; it is thought to be the thora valdenſis of Ray, or aconitum primum pardalianches of Geſner: it is known from the true *gentian* by being of a paler colour externally, having longitudinal wrinkles; when cut into its texture is cloſer than that of *gentian*; it is whitiſh within, and it is not bitter, but when chewed is only perceived to be mucilaginous.

The beſt roots of *gentian* are of a middling ſize, of a lively yellow colour, tough, and moſt free from fibres.

The older and larger the roots the more porous, and the younger and ſlenderer are more compact.

Neumann obtained from ʒ xvi of this root, by means of ſpt. vin. R. to the quantity of ʒ viiſs. of reſinous extract; and by means of water, ʒ ix. of a gummy one. The London college directs a watery extract, but the ſpirituous is to be preferred; their doſes may be from gr. x. to ℈ ii. or ʒ i. In diſtillation ſpirit carries nothing over, and water too little to deſerve notice.

It is a ſtrong flavourleſs bitter, and by any agreeable addition is rendered very grateful to the ſtomach. Of all the preparations, an infuſion in cold water is the moſt acceptable to the palate, and it poſſeſſes more of the virtue of this root than a decoction does; but indeed, when a warm vehicle is required, the tinct. amara is to be preferred.

The *gentian* root is ſtomachic, corroborant, and antiſeptic: when uſed as a tent in wounds, it does not make callous lips, whence it is often uſed for imbibing the moiſture in iſſues, which it alſo dilates. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Raii Hiſt. Neumann's Chem. Works.

GENTIANA MINOR, called alſo gent. cruciata, and croſs-wort gentian. It grows in Hungary on hills and in dry meadows, but is rarely brought to us.

GENTIANA ALBA. See Laserpitium.

GENTIANA NIGRA. See Oreoselinum.

GENTIANELLA. A ſpecies of gentian.

GENU. The knee; alſo the knee-pan. The *knee* is the articulation of the thigh and leg bone; the joint of the *knee* being a ginglymus joint, admits, conſequently, of only flexion and extenſion, except when it is bent, when it will allow of a ſmall rotation by the ligaments being relaxed. This joint is made up of the femur patella and tibia; the fibula does not reach the joint, and therefore hath no part in its compoſition. The patella in extenſion is drawn up, in flexion it is pulled down. Under the ligament of the patella is a facculus mucoſus; this mucus is very like the ſynovia. The ſtrength of this, as of all the joints of the ginglymus kind, is on the ſide. The capſular ligament is large, and admits of the collection of a fluid within the joint; in which caſe the ſwelling appears above and on each ſide the patella, but chiefly above, on account of the ligaments being thinner there; what is called the ſynovial gland, Dr. Hunter thinks is not one; in general, he thinks that there are are no ſynovial glands; and that this, like all the reſt called ſynovial, is mere fat; and that what is called ſynovia, is ſecreted here and in all the other joints, by the veſſels of that vaſcular membrane covering the cartilages, and this fatty ſubſtance under the internal lamen of the capſular ligament of each joint. Beſides the capſular ligament, there are two others covering the poſterior parts of the condyles of the femur, and fixed into the head of the tibia, between its two cavities; theſe ligaments are ſtretched when the leg is extended, and relaxed when the leg is bent, at which time they allow the little lateral motion of the joint by their being relaxed. Between the tibia and the femur are two ſemilunar cartilages; they are thick on their external edges, and thin in their centre. They are tied to the tubercle by their horns; they alter their figure according to the ſituation of the bones, to make the ſhape of one correſpond to that of the other.

It ſometimes happens, that pieces of cartilage, or bone covered by cartilage, are found looſe in the cavity of the joint of the *knee*. Theſe are of different ſizes. Some of them are as large as common garden beans. They are generally flat, oblong, having their edges rounded. It is ſeldom that there are more than one of theſe looſe cartilages in a joint; but ſometimes there are two. Mr. Cruikſhank ſays, that he formerly conſidered them as belonging to the patella; and that, like the oſſa triquetra in the ſkull, they owed their origin to diſtinct points of oſſification. But having ſince found one entirely cartilaginous, and another, which, though bone covered by cartilage, was formed on the lower end of the femur, and this convinced him of his miſtake. In the laſt mentioned caſe Mr. Cruikſhank ſays, that there was a cavity in the lower end of the femur, correſponding to the looſe bone, ſhewing that they had been connected with one another; though, as both ſurfaces were nearly ſmooth, the manner of their connection was not evident. He ſuppoſes that, during their growing, theſe cartilages and bones are connected to the neighbouring parts by veſſels; and that, when either their determined growth is finiſhed, or their ſize is too large for the eaſy motion of the joint, they become looſe. When they become looſe, the ſynovia, from the irritation they induce, is ſecreted in greater quantity; the capſular ligament becomes diſtended, the *knee* appears ſwelled, a degree of ſtiffneſs takes place in the motion of the joint, with more or leſs of external inflammation. There is alſo the diſtinct feel of a fluid underneath; and the looſe bit of cartilage gets frequently above the condyles of the femur, on the out or inſide of the *knee*, and may be laid hold of with the thumb and finger through the integuments. When the patient hath walked much, the ſynovia is ſenſibly increaſed, and on remaining more quiet, for two or three days, is as ſenſibly diminiſhed. The ſymptoms are ſometimes ſo mild as not to need an operation, but at other times it is the only expedient for relief. Mr. Cruikſhank here obſerves, that much ſeems to depend on the ſurgeon, whether this operation ſhall be a dangerous one or not. Mr. John Hunter recommends the moving them by inciſion; but thinks the particular ſpot where the operation is to be performed, as well as the manner of operating, deſerve the greateſt attention. There is a part within the cavity of the joint of the *knee*, which receives the baſis of the patella, during the extenſion of the leg. It partakes more of the nature of cellular membrane, than capſular ligament, and lies under the lower extremities of the vaſti and crureus muſcles, before they are inſerted into the patella. Mr. Hunter propoſes to lay hold of the cartilage or bone, and cut down upon them at this place; the inciſion, he thinks, ſhould be no larger than juſt to allow of their being eaſily thruſt out. A ſtitch or two is then to be paſſed through the divided integuments, and the lips of the wound, by theſe means, are to be brought together. Theſe ſtitches, however, muſt not paſs into the cavity of the joint; inſtead of uniting the parts in this caſe, they would act as ſetons, and produce inflammations in place of preventing it. To be convinced of this laſt aſſertion, he ſays, one needs only to be put in mind of the introduction of a ſeton into the tunica vaginalis teſtis, for the radical cure of the hydrocele. The aim of the ſurgeon then is, if poſſible, to heal the wound by the firſt intention. A piece of ſticking plaſter, with proper bandage, and poſition of the joint, may even make ſtitches in the integuments unneceſſary. Mr. Hunter recollects ſix or ſeven caſes in which theſe cartilages were removed by exciſion, though not juſt in the manner recommended: all of theſe, except one, did well. The operation in this one was attended with great inflammation, and followed by an anchyloſis of the joint. Other inſtances of ill ſucceſs I have heard of, but it muſt be obſerved that, there are conſtitutions where any wound, much more a penetrating wound into the cavity of the joint of the *knee*, will be attended with danger. The circumſtances which the operator has moſt to avoid, Mr. Hunter aſſerts, is the expoſing the cavity of the joint too much; the lacerating or bruiſing of the capſular ligament; the not properly cloſing the oriſice in the integuments; or the employing a blunt or dirty inſtrument in the dividing them. All, or any of theſe circumſtances, he thinks, will produce inflammation in the joint, and render the operation exceeding dangerous. But in tolerably ſound conſtitutions, the operation now recommended, performed with the neceſſary precautions, he is convinced, is as ſafe a one as moſt operations in ſurgery. When the cavity of the joint has inflamed, the danger, he owns, is very great. Ligament and cartilage, the ſubſtances compoſing joints, have fewer veſſels than any other parts perhaps of an animal body; they inflame, ſuppurate, or go through the uſual proceſſes of parts under irritation, with greater difficulty; and, when they have gone through them, the conſequences are generally deſtructive of the ordinary intentions of theſe proceſſes; the joint anchyloſes is deſtroyed inſtead of being recovered. The irritation, meanwhile, attending ſuch fruitleſs proceſſes, generally prove fatal. See Mr. Cruikſhank's Letter to Dr. Duncan, in the Edinb. Med. Commentaries, vol. iv. p. 342, &c.

GENUFLEXIO. Kneeling. In *kneeling*, the oſſa

pubis are lower than when we ſtand; and this not only increaſes the hollow of the loins, and throws the belly and its viſcera more outward and forward, but alſo, in ſome meaſure, ſtrains the abdominal muſcles; which is ſo uneaſy to ſome perſons as to cauſe them to faint away. This depreſſion of the os pubis in *kneeling*, depends partly on the tenſion of the two muſculi recti anteriores, the lower tendons of which are, in this ſituation, drawn with violence under the condyloid pulley of the os femoris. Winſlow.

GENUGRA. A name in Paracelſus for the gout in the knee.

GENUS. In botany is a claſs or order of plants which agree in ſome common character that diſtinguiſhes them from all others.

GEODES LAPIS, λιθος γεωδες, *a ſtone*, ſo called from γη, *earth*, which it contains. It is rather aſtringent and drying, ſomewhat detergent when applied to the eyes, and mitigates inflammations in the breaſt, &c. if mixed with water and rubbed thereon. Dioſ. lib. v. cap. 169. The *geodae* are the figured ſpecies of clay; ſome are ſolid and hard, ſome laminated, and others hollow. See Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy.

GEOF. M. M. The abbreviation of Step. Franc. Geoffroy Tractatus de Materia Medica.

GEOFFRÆA INERMIS. From this tree is obtained the bark called cabbage-bark. See Phil. Tranſ. vol. lxvii. p. 507. Tab. x.

GEOPILYSIA. Rulandus ſays that it means a ſeparation by ſolution.

GER. The abbreviation of Gerarde: by it is often to be underſtood the herbal gathered by John Gerarde, and which was improved by Thos. Johnſon.

GER. EMAC. The abbreviation for Gerarde's Herbal enlarged, &c.

GERANIS. A bandage uſed by the ancients in caſe of a fractured clavicle, or a diſlocated ſhoulder.

GERANIUM. Crane's bill. Of this kind of plant Boerhaave enumerates ſixty-eight ſpecies. It hath its name from the remarkable long beak of its ſeed-veſſel, which reſembles that of a crane: it conſiſts of five capſules opening inwards, and containing each a ſingle ſeed: the flowers are pentapetalous.

GERANIUM ROBERTIANUM, Linn. alſo called gratia Dei, and herb Robert. It hath reddiſh or purpliſh flowers on one pedicle; the leaves are divided quite to the foot-ſtalk into three ſegments, and theſe again are deeply cut. It is the only ſort uſed in medicine.

GERANIUM BATRACHIOIDES, alſo called gratia Dei Germanorum, and crow's foot crane bill. It is the *geranium* pratenſe, Linn. It hath two blue (but ſometimes white) flowers on one pedicle; the leaves are large, wrinkled, and divided into five or ſeven ſegments, which again are deeply cut on their edges.

GERANIUM COLUMBINUM, called alſo pes columbinus, dove's foot, and dove's foot crane's bill. It hath purple flowers, ſtanding two on a pedicle; the leaves are ſhaped like thoſe of mallows, and have long foot-ſtalks.

GERANIUM MOSCHATUM, called alſo acus moſchata, Muſcovy, and muſked crane's bill. It hath a number of red flowers on one pedicle; the leaves are indented, oval ſhaped, ſet in pairs along a middle rib, which is terminated by an odd one.

GERANIUM SANGUINARIUM, called alſo hæmatodes, and bloody crane's bill. It hath ſolitary flowers, which on their firſt appearance are red, but ſoon change to a bluiſh colour; the leaves are roundiſh, but divided almoſt to the pedicle into five ſegments, which are often ſubdivided at the extremities into three.

All theſe plants are found wild in different parts of this kingdom; they flower in May, June and July. They have an aſtringent taſte; the firſt ſpecies hath an unpleaſant ſmell; the ſecond, third, and fifth have no ſmell; the fourth hath a muſky ſcent, but it is ſoon loſt by bruiſing the plant. Their ſtyptic matter is extracted both by water and by rectified ſpirit, and on evaporating the filtered liquor remains in the extract. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

GERANIUM. A bandage which from the days of Hippocrates was thus named, but is now called ſpica ſimplex.

GERARAT. A name in Avicenna for ſome poiſonous animals.

GERARDI HERBA. See ANGELICA.

GERMANDRA, i. e. Gambogia.

GERMANIS (OLEUM). See CARPATHICUM.

GERMEN, i. e. Blaſtema.

GEROCOMIA, from γερων, *an aged perſon*, and κομεω, *to be concerned about*. It is that part of medicine which preſcribes to old age.

GERONSTERRE WATER. One of the chalybeate waters at Spa.

GERONTOPOGON. Purple flowered tragopogon.

GERSA. Ceruſs.

GERULA. In Paracelſus it is a monſtrous plant.

GERYON. Quickſilver.

GESN. The abbreviation of Conradus Geſnerus Hiſt. Plant.

GESNERA. An American plant ſo named by Father Plumier, in honour of Conrad Geſner. Miller deſcribes three ſpecies.

GESOR. Galbanum.

GESTATIO. A ſpecies of exerciſe. See ÆORA.

GESTATIO. Geſtation or pregnancy. It is the progreſs of the fœtus from the time of conception to that of parturition.

When the ovum falls into the uterus, it is ſaid to be about the ſize of a poppy head; that in ten days it weighs half a grain; in thirty days twenty-one grains; in three months about three ounces, and at the end of nine months children are of different ſizes from four to nine pounds in weight: ten or eleven pounds are very rare.

Women with the firſt child frequently have great pain in the parietes of the belly from the uterus dilating the muſcles; in this caſe ſome relief is obtained by rubbing the parts in pain with warm oil.

The time of a woman's *pregnancy* is nine ſolar months, each of which is reckoned to be about thirty days, ten hours and a half; but it often happens that the child is born at ſeven months, and ſometimes at ten.

After conception the face ſoon points out that an alteration in the conſtitution hath taken place. It is from encreaſed irritability that the chief of the ſymptoms attending *pregnancy* ariſe; they proceed from the uterus as the principal ſituation of the firſt cauſe. The uterus becoming more habituated to diſtenſion, &c. ſome of the ſymptoms abate, but there ſtill remains a ſufficient number to prove that *pregnant* women are attended with an increaſed ſpaſmodic irritability, and which ſeems to be neceſſary for promoting the delivering of the fœtus at the proper period; for it is increaſed during labour, but after that it diſappears.

Women who conceive whilſt they give ſuck, frequently have not the menſes to count from; therefore, the beſt way is to reckon four months when the firſt motions of the child are perceived: thoſe who have the menſes ſhould count from the middle of each period, and they will ſeldom differ more than four or five days.

Though, in ſome few inſtances, women are met with who know their ſtate from the moment of conception, yet in general it is not eaſy to aſſure a patient of her *pregnancy*, or the contrary, until the end of the fourth month, and then the only proof is by the touch, which, in this caſe may be thus performed: place the woman on her feet, with her buttocks againſt a chair that is rather higher than common, let her lean forward with her breaſts, and then introduce two fingers into the vagina; then, if ſhe is *pregnant*, the os internum will be found entirely cloſed, the neck of the uterus will be felt, but it is yet very little or not at all altered: as the *pregnancy* is more advanced, the nearer it is to parturition, the thinner or flatter is the neck of the uterus, and the larger the uterus itſelf. If the touch is attempted before the fourth month, when you endeavour to preſs againſt the uterus, it being light, evades the touch, and riſes above the finger. If on thus examining you feel the flat, ſmall, and hard body of the uterus, ſhe is not *pregnant*; but if ſhe is, the uterus will be in ſome degree enlarged. La Motte, before he makes his eſſay by the touch, lays the woman on her back, with her knees elevated, and the heels near the buttocks, and if he finds the belly more hard and diſtended in the hypogaſtrium than in the epigaſtrium, he judges the woman to be *pregnant*.

As to all the other uſual ſigns of pregnancy they are uncertain, as they may be produced by obſtructed menſes. A nervous fever, tympany, aſcites, dropſy of the uterus, hydatids forming themſelves on remaining pieces of the placenta, a ſcirrhous womb, dropſy of the ovaries, a polypus in the uterus, &c. from all which a pregnancy ſhould be diſtinguiſhed

Many intereſting obſervations on this ſubject may be ſeen in the practical treatiſes on midwifery, and on the management of pregnant and puerperal women.

GESTICULATIO. Geſticulation. Two ſpecies of gymnaſtics, conſiſting of a ſpontaneous agitation of the parts, and throwing the body into different poſtures, much like actors on the ſtage. Oribaſius, ſays, it is a middle kind of exerciſe betwixt dancing and mock fighting.

GEUM. A name of ſome ſpecies of ſaxifrage.

GHAHALA ZEYLANICA. A ſpecies of colocaſia.

GHANDIROBA. An hederaceous ſcandent plant growing in Braſil; it bears a fruit of the ſize of an apple, in which is an oily kernel of a yellowiſh colour. *Raii Hiſt. Plant.*

GHITTA i. e. Gambogia.

GHODHAKADURA. Vomic nuts.

GHORAKA A ſpecies of carcapuli.

GIALAPPA, or Gialapium. Jalap.

GIBBER. See GIBBOSITAS.

GIBBOSITAS. Gibboſity, crookedneſs. The cheſt and ſpine are both diſtorted by a faulty arrangement of the vertebræ.

GIFFÆ. Tumors behind the ears.

GIGARUS. A name for dracontium.

GILARUM. A name for ſerpyllum.

GILLA VITRIOLI, i. e. Vitriolum album.

GINGIBERIS AMARITUDINEM, i. e. Canella Alba.

GINGIBRACHIUM. A name for the ſcurvy, becauſe the gums, arms, and legs, are affected with it.

GINGIDIUM. Common chervil; alſo the Oriental tooth-pick, and a ſpecies of carrot.

GINGIDIUM DIOSCORIDIS, i. e. Caucaliſarvenſis echinata magno flore.

GINGIHIL. See ZINGIBER.

GINGIPEDIUM. A name for the ſcurvy, becauſe the gums and legs are affected.

GINGIVÆ. The gums. They are that reddiſh compact fleſhy ſubſtance which covers the two ſides of the whole alveolary border of both jaws, and that inſinuates itſelf betwixt the teeth, and adhering to them. Arteries from the carotids run in the gums and nerves from the fifth pair.

The gums are apt to become ſpongy, and to ſeparate from the teeth; but the cauſe is frequently a ſtony kind of cruſt, which forms itſelf therein, which when ſeparated, the gums ſoon return to their former ſtate, eſpecially if rubbed with a mixture of the infuſion of roſes four parts, and the tincture of myrrh one part.

The ſcurvy is another diſorder which affects the gums. This diſorder, when not manifeſt in any other part, ſometimes appears in this: indeed when a ſcorbutic diſorder invades the whole habit, its firſt ſymptom is a putrid ſtate of the gums. Sometimes a ſcorbutic complaint attacks the gums, and occaſions heat, pain, and itching there, and preſently after, if they are ſlightly touched, they bleed; then white ſpots appear here and there, which are red and inflamed about their circumference. If this caſe is neglected, eſpecially in young perſons, it ſpreads, and a copious diſcharge of thin fetid ſaliva is diſcharged, which corrodes all around it. In Holland it is called the water cancer. Beſides proper internal antiſcorbutics, the beſt external application is the ſp. ſal marin. diluted with water.

GINGLYMUS. It is a ſpecies of diarthroſis. It reſembles the motion of a hinge, whence its name. There are properly but two ſpecies of this ſort of articulation. The firſt is confined to flexion and extenſion. Winſlow calls this the angular ginglymus. In this ſort of ginglymus either each bone partly receives and partly is received by the other, as in the articulation of the humerus with the ulna; or many eminences in one bone are received into as many cavities in the other. The ſecond is adapted only to ſmall turns towards each ſide, or to ſmall lateral rotations; hence Winſlow calls it a lateral ginglymus; it is either ſingle, as in the articulation of the firſt vertebra of the neck with the apophyſis dentiformis of the ſecond, or double, that is in two different parts of the bone, as in the articulation of the ulna with the radius.

GINSEN, or Ginſeng, i. e. Genſing.

GINSENG. A ſpecies of panax. It is the panax quinquefolium, or panax foliis ternis quinatis. Linn.

GISCARA. A ſpecies of palm-tree.

GIRASAL. A ſpecies of jaca.

GIR. Quicklime.

GIRMER. Tartar.

GISCARA, i. e. Palma coccifera minor Braſil.

GISISIM. Gum.

GIT, or Gith. Fennel flower.

GITHAGO. A name for the lychnis ſegetum major.

GLABELLA. The ſpace betwixt the eye-brows.

GLABULÆ. The cones or nuts of the cypreſs tree.

GLACIES MARIÆ. See SPECULARIS LAPIS.

GLADIOLUS. French corn flag, alſo called xiphion. Its root is tuberous and double; the leaves are like thoſe of the iris; the flower is like that of the lily, funnel-ſhaped below, but expanded above, and divided into ſix ſegments. It is cultivated in gardens, and flowers in June. The root is diſcutient externally; internally it is alexipharmac. See Raii Hiſt.

GLADIOLUS FŒTIDUS. Stinking gladdon. See IRIS.

GLADIOLUS LUTÆUS. See IRIS PALUSTIS.

GLAMA, or Glame. The ſordes of the eye in a lippitude; alſo ſordid and tumid eyes.

GLANDES TERRÆ. See LATHYRUS ARVENSIS REPENS TUBEROSUS.

GLANDES UNGUENTARIÆ. Myrobalans.

GLANDIUM, i. e. Thymus.

GLANDOSUM CORPUS, i. e. Proſtatæ.

GLANDULA. A gland. A gland may be defined a circumſcribed apparatus of the ſoft parts, whoſe office is to ſecern a certain juice, and throw it out of the immediate circulation.

The glands are roundiſh bodies, ſeated in the cellular membrane, generally near the large veſſels; their ſubſtance is firm, and of various colours. Sylvius was the firſt who divided the glands into conglobate now called lymphatic and conglomerate. Malpighi added what he calls the folliculus or ſimple gland; inſtances of which are the ſmall glands behind the ears, but the moſt remarkable are thoſe in the fauces.

Dr. Nicholls divides the glands into ſinuous, tubular, and equal. What he means by ſinuous gland is when each little gland hath its own excretory duct, thro' which it tranſmits its liquor to a common baſon, as the kidnies; his tubular is the ſame as the conglobate gland of Sylvius, of which the teſtes are an inſtance. By an equal gland he means where the veſſels are branched, as in the liver.

Ruyſch proves by ſubtle injections, that the ſubſtance of the glands is vaſcular, conſiſting of a rameſying artery, partly terminating in a vein, and partly in an excretory duct.

Mr. Hewſon ſays, that the little corpora globoſa, which moſt modern anatomiſts call cryptæ and folliculæ, are nothing but convoluted arteries.

The glands are often diſordered by becoming large and indurated; when they are ſwelled and hard they are ſaid to be indurated; if they grow harder they are ſaid to be ſcirrhous: if when hard they become painful, they are incipient or occult cancers; if their hardneſs and pain continue long, they are called carcinomata, or inveterate occult cancers; and if the ſkin breaks they are called ulcerated cancers.

Indurated glands in children's necks are generally from voracity, or a bad diet; the cure therefore will conſiſt in moderating the quantity, and amending the quality of their aliment. Theſe tumors, even though they tend to ſuppuration, may generally be removed by the uſe of ſmall doſes of merc. dulc. Sea water is alſo uſed before ſuppuration begins, and the extract. cicutæ powerfully reſolves them. See SCROFULA, SCIRRHUS, CANCER, and ENCYSTED TUMORS.

On the glands, as a ſubject of anatomy, ſee Sylvius, Malpighi, Ruyſch, Cowper, Havers, de Bordeu, &c.

GLANDULÆ CERUMINOSÆ. See AUDITORIUS MEATUS.

GLANDULÆ MYRTIFORMES. When the hymen is torn, its fibres contract in three or four places, and form what is thus named.

GLANDULÆ ODORIFERÆ. They are ſituated on the inſide of the corona glandis, i. e. of the glans penis; they ſecrete a fluid, whoſe thin part flies off, and the thicker remaining, acquires a particular odour, whence the name. Theſe glands are often the ſeat of a clap, in thoſe who have a long prepuce; and when affected they emit a pus exactly ſimilar to that which flows from the urethra.

GLANDULÆ SUPRA RENALES, i. e. Renes ſuccenturiati.

GLANDULOSOCARNEUS. Glanduloſocarneous. An epithet given by Ruyſch to ſome excreſcences which he obſerved in the bladder.

GLANDULOSUM CORPUS. The proſtatæ.

GLANS. See GLANS PENIS, and BALANOS. It is alſo a ſtrumous ſwelling; alſo a name for a peſſary, or a ſuppoſitory.

GLANS JOVIS THEOPHRASTI. The cheſnut tree.

GLANS PENIS, called alſo balanus and nut. It is formed by the corpus ſpongioſum uretheræ, which is turned over the corpora cavernoſa penis. Its external ſurface is a continuation of the integuments, and when the cuticle is taken off, every little villa ſeems a veſſel. In the fifth volume of the Edinb. Med. Eſſays, is an account of a glans penis being regenerated after amputation.

GLANS TERRÆ. A ſpecies of cataputia minor.

GLANS UNGUENTARIA. See BEN.

GLASTAVIDA CRETENSIUM. A ſpecies of blattaria.

GLASTEA BILIS. A ſort of bile.

GLASTUM. Woad. It is alſo called iſatis ſativa vel latifolia. It is the iſatis tinctoria, Linn. It is cultivated only for the uſe of dyers, who obtain from it their beſt blue; an inferior ſort is called by the French vouede; and indigo is reckoned the produce of the worſt ſpecies. This plant is not uſed in medicine, though it is ſaid to be aſtringent. From the iſatum ſylveſtres, a volatile ſalt hath been obtained by fermenting the herb only, and without the aſſiſtance of fire. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

GLASTUM INDORUM, i. e. Indicum.

GLAUBERI SAL. Glauber's ſalt. It is alſo called ſal mirabilis, and ſal catharticum Glauberi. The ſal Dauphiny is a natural production of this kind, but that in general uſe, and which receives the name of Glauber (its author) is artificial. They conſiſt of a vitriolic acid in union with the mineral alkaline ſalt, and ſo are neutral ſalts.

The London college directs to take the cake which remains of the diſtillation of Glauber's ſpirit of ſea-ſalt, to diſſolve it in water, to filtre the ſolution through paper, and then to evaporate, until by ſetting it in a cool place, cryſtals may ſhoot. In cold weather it will ſhoot in forty-eight hours, and in warmer weather in about twice the time.

The fineneſs and largeneſs of the cryſtals depend, in a good meaſure, on the quantity of acid. The Edinburgh college directs one part of the oil of vitriol to two parts of ſea-ſalt for obtaining the ſpirit of ſalt, and the reſiduum is as nearly of a due degree of acidity as can be aſcertained by a general rule.

Mr. Fergus in Piccadilly, London, ſays, that from kelp ℔ ii. ß and ſomething leſs than two ounces of the oil of vitriol, he obtained half a pound or more of Glauber's ſalt. This is cheaper than when the ſoda is uſed. He prepares it as follows: Take calcined kelp, ℔ i. powder and diſſolve it in a glazed earthen pan with boiling water, ℔ ii. then filter or decant the clear liquor into another glazed earthen diſh, which being placed over a gentle fire, as ſoon as it is hot gradually pour into it as much oil of vitriol, diluted in the proportion of one part oil with one and a half of water, as is neceſſary to ſaturate it; when no effervescence is obſerved on adding the diluted oil of vitriol, then filter the mixture through paper, or let it ſtand to depurate; then decant and evaporate to a pellicle, and ſet it by to cryſtallize.

The ſal. cath. amar. is nearly of the ſame quality with the ſal Glauberi, and is often ſubſtituted for it, after being ſhot into cryſtals reſembling the ſal Glaub. but tho' both theſe ſalts have the vitriolic acid, their baſes are not the ſame. The Glauber ſalt hath the mineral fixed alcaline ſalt for its baſis, but the ſal cath. amar. hath the alcaline earth called magneſia alba for it baſis. When one is impoſed for the other, the deception may be detected as follows: diſſolve a little of the ſuſpected ſalt in water; then add to it a ſmall quantity of a ſolution of any fixed alcaline ſalt; let both theſe ſolutions be clear; if no change happens on the mixture, the ſuſpected ſalt is the genuine Glauber ſalt; but if a milky turbidneſs ſucceeds, which after a while falls in the form of a powder, it is the ſal cath. amar.

The true Glauber ſalt is apt to loſe ſo much of its water as to become opake, and at length, if kept in a dry place, it falls into a white powder.

In doſes of a few grains it is aperitive, in larger ones it is diuretic and cathartic; as a purge it is given from ʒ ſs. to ʒ ii. and if it is diluted in water from ℔ i. to ℔ ii. It anſwers every purpoſe of the Epſom and other ſuch purging waters. It is cooling, and ſo checks the vis vitæ, that Dr. Alſton obſerves it to be a ſpecific in hæmorrhages from a rarefaction of the blood. Some ſurgeons waſh gangrenes with a ſolution of it in vinegar; and Dr. Kirkland finds it uſeful as a topic in ophthalmias. But on the other hand, a too free uſe of it hath often produced paſſies and dropſies, which no means could remove, ſo that prudence is required in the adminiſtration of it. See Lewis's Mat. Med. and Dict. of Chem. for many curious properties diſcovered in this ſalt. See Glauber, Boyle, Becher, and Stahl.

GLAUCEDO, i. e. Glaucoma.

GLAUCIUM. The yellow horned poppy.

GLAUCIUM GALLIS. A ſpecies of poppy.

GLAUCOMA VOGELII, i. e. Caligo humerum.

GLAUCOMA WOOLHOUSII, i. e. Caligo lentis.

GLAUCOMA MAITRE JEAN and S. IVES. i. e. Caligo lentis.

GLAUCOMA, or Glaucoſis, from γλαυκος, *a ſky blue colour*, or from γλαυξ, *an owl, whoſe eyes are of that colour*. Mr. Sharp, in his Operations of Surgery, p. 158—163, ſays, that the glaucoma of the ancient Greeks is the ſuffuſio of the Latins, and the cataract of the preſent times. See CATARACTA. Mr. St. Yves ſays, it is a cataract accompanied with a gutta ſerena; according to which nothing need be added, except that, in ſuch a caſe, the operation, and all other means are uſeleſs, except to eaſe pain, and to mend the figure of the eye.

GLAUCOS, or Glaucus. Sky-coloured, or a blue and grey like that in the ſky. Pliny takes notice of a fiſh thus called.

GLAURA. Thus Paracelſus calls immature amber.

GLAUX DIOSCORIDIS, called alſo glaux Hiſpanica, milk-wort of Dioſcorides, and ciceri ſylveſtri minori affinis. It is much diſputed what it is. Dale.

GLAUX VULG. LEGUMINOSA. Alſo called aſtragalus; glycyrrhiza ſylveſtris flore luteo palleſcentibus; fœnum Græcum ſylveſtre; hedyſarum glycyrrhizatum; & liquorice vetch. It grows in thickets and about buſhes, and under hedges; it flowers in July: the herb and ſeed are commended for increaſing the milk in women's breaſts; the root is ſweetiſh, aſtringent, and diuretic, but it is very rarely uſed. This plant is often ſold for the galega. Raii Hiſt.

GLAUX. Wild chiches; alſo a ſpecies of owl.

GLEBA ALANA. See ALANA TERRA.

GLECHON. Pennyroyal.

GLECHONITES. Wine impregnated with pennyroyal.

GLENE γλην, *the ſocket of the eye*. Properly, it is the cavity of the eye, and the pupil; but it is uſed to expreſs any ſlight depreſſure, or cavity of a bone, which receives another bone in articulation. Cotyle is ſuch a cavity, but deeper. See Os.

GLENOIDES. The ſame as glene; but, particularly it is an epithet for two cavities, or ſmall depreſſions in the inferior part of the firſt vertebra of the neck.

GLEUCINUM (Oleum) Gleucine oil. It was formerly made by infuſing ſeveral aromatic vegetables in wine and olive oil.

GLEUCOS. Muſt; and ſometimes it ſignifies ſweet wines.

GLEUXIS. Wine in which is much ſapa, or defrutum.

GLISCHROCHOLOS. An epithet for bilious viſcid excrements.

GLISOMARGO. White chalk.

GLOBULARIA FRUTICOSA, i. e. Alypum.

GLOBULARIA MONSPELIENSIUM, vel Vulgaris. French daiſy.

GLOBUS HYSTERICUS. In hyſteric diſorders a globe ſeems to aſcend from the ſtomach or from the breaſt into the throat, and almoſt ſuffocates the patient: this ſeeming ball is a ſpaſmodic affection, and is produced by the ſpaſm of the upper orifice of the ſtomach being relaxed, and the air ruſhing up into the œſophagus, where it is confined in conſequence of a ſpaſm in the muſcles of this part. Put the feet in warm water, and give an opiate.

GLOSSA. The tongue.

GLOSSAGRA. A rheumatic pain in the tongue.

GLOSSOCATOCOS. An inſtrument in P. Ægineta for depreſſing the tongue. A ſpatula linguæ, from γλωσσα, *tongue*, and κατεχω, *to repreſs*.

GLOSSOCELE. An extruſion of the tongue.

GLOSSOCOMA. A retraction of the tongue.

GLOSSOCOMON. Properly a caſe for the reeds of an hautboy, from γλωσσα, *a tongue*, and κομεω, *to guard*, or Gloſſocomion. An inſtrument or caſe for containing a fractured limb.

GLOSSOPETRA; alſo called dens ſerpentis petrefactus; lingua ſerpentis; tooth ſtone; ſerpent's tongue petrified; and ſhark's tooth petrified. Certain pedants in the ſixteenth century obſerving foſſils which they imagined to reſemble the tongues of ſerpents, called them gloſſopetræ. They are the petrified teeth of the white ſhark, and are found on the iſland of Malta, &c.

GLOSSO-PHARYNGÆI. Theſe muſcles are fibres which come from the tongue, running along its lateral edges, from which they are parted backward, and run down on the ſides of the pharynx under the ſtylo-pharyngæi. Alſo a name of the cephalo-pharyngæi.

GLOSSO STAPHYLINI. Theſe two muſcles are fixed in the lower and lateral part of the baſis of the tongue, whence they run up obliquely backward, along the anterior half arches of the ſeptum palati, and terminate inſenſibly on each ſide near the uvula. The thickneſs of the two anterior arches of the palatum mollis is occaſioned by theſe.

GLOSTOPETRA, i. e. Gloſſopetra.

GLOTTA. The tongue.

GLOTTIS, from γλωττα, *the tongue*. It is the narrow ſlit at the upper part of the aſpera arteria, and is covered by the epiglottis when we hold our breath, and when we ſwallow. The glottis, by its dilatation and contraction, modulates the voice.

GLOTTIS. The bird called the great plover.

GLUS. The ſame as dyſuria mucoſa.

GLUTÆA ARTERIA. It is a branch of the hypogaſtric artery, which ſee. It is generally the largeſt of theſe branches; near its beginning, it ſometimes ſends out the iliaca minor, and ſometimes the ſmall branch that goes from that artery to the os ſacrum, and other parts fixed to that bone; afterwards this artery paſſes out of the pelvis in company with the ſciatic nerve, through the upper part of the great ſinus of the os innominatum, below the muſculus pyriformis, and is diſtributed in a radiated manner to the three glutæi muſcles. In its paſſage it gives branches to the os ſacrum, os coccygis, the muſculus pyriformis, the muſcles of the anus, and to the neighbouring parts of the rectum, forming a particular hæmorrhoidalis interna. It ſends twigs to the bladder, and parts near it; and detaches a pretty long branch, which runs down along with the ſciatic nerve.

GLUTÆUS MAXIMUS. Brown calls it glutæus major. This muſcle riſes from the poſterior lateral part of the os coccygis, from a ligament which is extended between the os ſacrum and os coccygis from the flat ſurface of the ileum, where it is connected to the os ſacrum, and from the ſpine of the ileum. Its anterior portion grows tendinous, where it runs over the trochanter major, and makes part of the faſcia of the thigh. Its poſterior portion is inſerted into the hind part of the femur, ſerving to extend it. This muſcle, with the glutæus medius & glutæus minimus, make up the fleſhy part of the buttocks; whence their name.

GLUTÆUS MEDIUS. It riſes as high as the ſpine of the os ileum, and is inſerted into the very uppermoſt part of the trochanter major, ſerving to bring the thigh backward and outward.

GLUTÆUS MINIMUS. It riſes rather lower than the preceding, and forms a middle tendon, which is inſerted into the trochanter major, blended with the medius. It is an abductor of the thigh.

GLUTIA. The two ſmall protuberances in the brain, called nates.

GLUTOS. A buttock, from γλουτος, *buttock*.

GLUTTUPATENS. An epithet for the ſtomach.

GLYCIPICROS. Woody night-ſhade.

GLYCYRRHIZA, called alſo liquiritia; radix dulcis; adipſon; & liquorice. It is the glycyrrhiza glabra, or glycyrrhiza foliolis ovatis, impari petiolato, ſtipulis nullis, floribus pallide cœruleis, leguminibus glabris. Linn. Smooth legumened, or common liquorice. It is a plant with oval leaves, ſet in pairs along a middle rib; the flowers are ſmall, bluiſh, and papilionaceous, ſtanding in ſpikes or naked pedicles; the flower is followed by a ſmooth pod, containing flat kidney-ſhaped ſeeds; the root is long, ſlender, flexible, of a browniſh colour on the outſide, and yellow within. This plant is perennial, a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, and plentifully cultivated in England. The roots may be taken up the third year after the ſlip or off-ſets have been planted.

The Engliſh liquorice is as good as any of the foreign: the root, when carefully dried and powdered, is of a richer and more agreeable taſte than when freſh, and of a dull yellow colour, with a caſt of brown; but what is commonly ſold is adulterated by a mixture of flour. The dry root is as good as the freſh; the freſh may be kept from drying, if buried in dry ſand; wet ſand rots it.

Liquorice is almoſt the only ſweet that quenches thirſt; and for this quality the Greeks call it adipſon: if it is mixed with other unpalatable medicines, it covers their offenſive taſtes; it is the leaſt diſpoſed to ferment, of any of the ſweets: it is attenuant, detergent, diuretic, expectorant, and alſo demulcent; it gives out all its virtue to water; but as ſpirit diſſolves leſs of the mucilage, the ſpirituous tincture and extract are the ſweeteſt.

Extractum, vel ſuccus glycyrrhiza.

Extract, or juice of liquorice.

Boil freſh liquorice roots very lightly in water, preſs the decoction through a ſtrainer when the feces have ſubſided; evaporate until it will not ſtick to the fingers, carefully guarding againſt a burning.

Before boiling the root, it ſhould be cut into thin ſlices: much boiling deſtroys the ſweetneſs; two or three pints of water is enough to boil one pound of the roots in. This extract would be beſt made, by preſſing the freſh roots betwixt iron rollers, and then the juice might ſoon be inſpiſſated without the loſs of any of its virtue.

This extract is adulterated by mixing the pulp of prunes with it. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

GLYCYRRHIZA INDICA, i. e. Abrus.

GLYCYRRHIZA SYLVESTRIS FLORE LUTEO. Liquorice vetch.

GNAPHALEUM. German goldilocks.

GNAPHALIO. See AMARANTOIDES.

GNAPHALIUM. Cudweed. Boerhaave enumerates ſeven ſpecies under the name of filago.

GNAPHALIUM VULG. MAJ. Alſo called filago; herba impia; gnaph. Germanicum; and common cudweed. It grows about a foot high, uſually with one woolly ſtalk, with long, narrow, crumpled, ſharp-pointed, whitiſh leaves, ſet pretty cloſe to the ſtalk; on

the top of the branches are round globules or heads, compoſed of a number of ſmall naked flowers in cluſters, and from the middle of theſe ſpring ſmaller branches, bearing on their heads the like, but ſmaller flowers; theſe heads paſs away in down, holding very ſmall ſeed. It grows on dry barren grounds, and often on fallow fields.

GNAPHALIUM MONTANUM; alſo called pes cati; elichryſum montanum flore rotundiore; helychryſum montanum; piloſella minor; mountain cudweed, or catsfoot. It is very common in France, &c. A ſyrup made of it hath been noted there, under the names of ſyr. de hiſpidula ſeu æluropo.

GNAPHALIUM AUREUM; called heliochryſum; heliochryſon; coma aurea; abſinth. tenuifol. corymb. and golden cudweed.

It is cultivated in gardens, and flowers in July.

GNAPHALIUM MARITIMUM; called alſo *gnaphalium* marinum; *gnaphalium* cotonaria; cotton weed, or ſea cudweed.

All the ſpecies of cudweed are drying, and eſteemed for ſtopping fluxes and hæmorrhages.

GNAPHALIUM. See LINAGROSTIS, & Gnaphalodes.

GNAPHALIUM. A name of ſome ſpecies of baſtard dittany.

GNAPHALIUM ALPINUM. See LEONTOPODIUM.

GNAPHALIUM VETERUM. A ſpecies of baſtard dittany.

GNAPHALODES. It is a plant whoſe flowers conſiſt of florets, which are followed by a creſted fruit, full of oblong ſeeds; but it is not of any medical uſe.

GNATHOS. Sometimes it ſignifies the entire cheek; ſometimes only the lower part, between the angles of the mouth and ear, which the Latins call *bucca*; it ſometimes is uſed to expreſs the jaws and the jaw bones.

GNIDIA GRANA, i. e. Cnidia.

GOACONEZ. The name of a large tree in America; it affords the balſamum purius, vel album, vel Americanum. See Raii Hiſt.

GOAN. The name of a tree in Perſia, of whoſe aſhes a ſort of putty is made.

GOBIUS. The fiſh called the gudgeon. See AMYGDALOIDES.

GOHCATHU, i. e. Cambogium.

GOLDABENGENSIS (TERRA.) See TERRA SICILLATA.

GOMPHIASIS. It is when the teeth are looſe and pained.

GOMPHIOI, i. e. Dentes molares.

GOMPHOMA, from γομφος, *a nail*, or Gomphoſis, from γομφος, a Greek term, for that ſpecies of ſynarthroſis which reſembles a nail driven into a piece of wood, of which the teeth in their ſockets are an inſtance.

GONAGRA, from γονυ, *a knee*, and αγρα, *a prey*. The gout in the knee.

GONANDINA. The name of a large tree in Braſil. See Raii Hiſt.

GONE. The ſeed. But in Hippocrates it is the uterus.

GONGRONA, from γογγος, *a round tubercle in the trunk of a tree*. Any hard round tumor of the nervous parts, but particularly a bronchocele, or other hard tumor of the neck.

GONGYLION. A pill.

GONOIDES, from γονη, *ſeed*, and ειδος, *form*. Reſembling ſeed. Hippocrates often uſes it as an epithet for the excrements of the belly, and for the contents of the urine, when there is ſomething in them which reſembles the ſeminal matter.

GONORRHŒA, from γονη, *ſeed*, and ῥεω, *to flow*. It is an involuntary efflux of ſeminal juice. Dr. Swediar obſerves, that this name is improperly applied to the diſeaſe known by it. He propoſes, if a Greek word is neceſſary to name it *Blennorrhagia*, from βλεννος, *mucus*, and ῥεω, *to flow*, i. e. *muciſluxus activus*; and thus he diſtinguiſhes it from the real gonorrhœas, and from gleets, to which latter he gives the name *blennorrhœa*, *muciſluxus paſſivus*, i. e. *without phlogiſtic ſymptoms*.

Some reckon three ſpecies of this diſorder. 1ſt. A ſimple *gonorrhœa*, alſo called a benign *gonorrhœa*, and a gleet. 2dly. A virulent or venereal *gonorrhœa*; improperly ſo called from its reſemblance to the preceding. 3dly. An involuntary efflux of a whitiſh fluid from the urethra, in conſequence of a venereal *gonorrhœa*. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order apocenoſes. He diſtinguiſhes four ſpecies, 1. *Gonorrhœa* pura, when, without venereal engagements, a purulent diſcharge is obſerved from the urethra, without dyſuria, &c. 2. *Gonorrhœa* impura, when, after impure coition, there is a purulent diſcharge from the urethra, with heat of urine, &c. 3. *Gonorrhœa* laxorum, when there is a pellucid diſcharge from the urethra, without erections of the penis, but with venereal thoughts while awake. 4. *Gonorrhœa* dormientium, when during ſleep, but, in dreaming of venereal engagements, there are erections of the penis and conſequent ſeminal diſcharges.

The benign *gonorrhœa* is defined by Dr. Fordyce, in his Elements of the Practice of Phyſic, part the ſecond, to be "an increaſed ſecretion from the mucous glands of the urethra, without infection." The matter diſcharged is whitiſh and mild, producing no excoriation or other diſorder on the parts through which it paſſes, or on which it falls.

The principal cauſe is a weakneſs in the parts, which are the ſeat of the diſorder; occaſional cauſes, are acrimony in a cacochymic, ſcorbutic, or arthritic habit, violent or too frequent purging, violent exerciſe, too frequent coition, cold, exceſs of ſpirituous liquors, &c.

Dr. Swediar well obſerves, that the virulent *gonorrhœa* is a local inflammation, attended with the diſcharge of a puriform matter from the urethra in men, and from the vagina in women; accompanied with a frequent deſire of making water, which occaſions a ſcalding, or pricking and burning pain, during the time of its paſſage; and ariſing from any ſtimulus applied to theſe parts, provided it be ſufficiently ſtrong. Sometimes, by the violence of the irritation, the ſecretion of mucus ſeems to be totally ſuſpended, or at leaſt conſiderably diminiſhed, ſo that no diſcharge, or only a very ſmall one, takes place, though the other ſymptoms rage with the utmoſt violence. In this caſe the diſeaſe hath obtained the very improper name of *gonorrhœa* ſicca. He adds, though the matter (i. e. of the diſcharge) hath a purulent appearance, it is not a real pus; it is only the mucus of the urethra or vagina ſecreted in a larger quantity than uſual, and changed in its colour and conſiſtence by the ſtimulus applied to the parts; like the mucous diſcharge from the noſe or lungs, on taking cold, where the mucus aſſumes nearly the ſame appearance. That the diſcharge from the urethra, &c. is only an increaſed diſcharge of the mucus of the parts, hath been ſome time ſuppoſed, but is firſt rendered undoubted by Dr. Stoll, of Vienna, with which evidence Dr. Swediar hath favoured us, by a note in his valuable publication on this ſubject. It is as follows: "Dr. Stoll had, about the year 1782, the inſtructive opportunity of diſſecting a man who died while labouring under a virulent *gonorrhœa*. On opening the urethra carefully, he found its internal ſurface preternaturally red; two of the lymphatics preternaturally white and enlarged; and the puriform matter ouzing out from the internal membrane, eſpecially at the lacuna, where the ſeat of the diſorder was, without the leaſt appearance of an ulceration or excoriation."

When this complaint is the conſequence of a venereal taint, the matter of the diſcharge is commonly adheſive and whitiſh, and capable of communicating infection, though the inflammatory ſymptoms are entirely carried off; though ſome ſay it is incapable of communicating infection, even when the inflammatory ſymptoms are not entirely removed. When it takes place from any other cauſe, it begins with a running nearly ſimilar to that in a venereal *gonorrhœa*, but generally leſs in quantity, and is not attended with ſo much inflammation, and is never infectious. In both caſes, the inflammatory ſymptoms may, by expoſure to any of the cauſes, be encreaſed to as great a degree as when there is infection; but they go off of themſelves in a few days, and ſometimes the running with them. The running ſometimes ceaſes of itſelf in a week or two; ſometimes it continues for years without any detriment to the patient; and now and then a caſe occurs, in which the patient is much weakened by it; for when

when it occaſions involuntary emiſſions of ſemen, it may be fatal.

It is the moſt obſtinate after a venereal taint, in phlegmatic habits, and in thoſe who when young, were ſubject to catarrhous defluxions; for the fibres of ſuch perſons are very lax. Sometimes it reſiſts all means, and at laſt departs ſpontaneouſly.

The indications of cure are, 1. To deſtroy the venereal virus. 2. To defend the parts from its acrimony. 3. To abate the irritation which it occaſions.

To anſwer theſe ends, oleous and mucilaginous injections are well adapted, particularly if they have opium, and the mildeſt mercurial preparations combined with them.

A mild regimen, in all reſpects, is the moſt proper; mucilaginous drinks, as the almond emulſion and ſuch like, ſhould be plentifully drank; and if required, an anodyne may be given at bed-time. Much and ſtrong exerciſe, and external cold, are to be avoided. Thoſe of a leſs robuſt frame may be leſs ſparing in their diet, and be not ſo abſtemious with reſpect to cordial liquors.

If the venereal taint gave riſe to it, and mercury hath been either not uſed at all, or in an undue quantity; or if there is any ſuſpicion of any remaining infection, the ſafeſt method is to begin the cure by a mercurial courſe.

If ſymptoms of an inflammatory fever appear, bleeding may ſometimes be uſeful; but, in general, more ſervice will be derived from topical evacuations of blood, and from emollient and ſedative fomentations and poultices. Dr. Swediar obſerves, that on the other hand, when the patient is of a weak and irritable habit of body, the diſcharge very thin and copious, attended with violent pains and quick pulſe, the cort. Peruv. given internally, according to circumſtances, with or without opium, is the moſt uſeful adminiſtration; and that opium given in emollient glyſters, is ſometimes particularly uſeful in theſe caſes: it allays or prevents the frequent painful erections, the return of which ſhould be prevented as much as poſſible.

To prevent the more violent ſymptoms, the patient ſhould, from the beginning of the diſeaſe, wear a bag truſs, or other means to keep the ſcrotum ſupported and warm.

Neutral ſalt, and other purgatives than thoſe which keep the bowels lax, are injurious.

When the ſymptoms are more exaſperated, as when the heat of urine is great, a tenſion is perceived in the length of the urethra, the urine is only paſſed by a few drops at a time, erections are frequent, pains ſhooting through the urethra, ſtreaks of blood paſſing with the urine, or other ſigns of ulceration: in this ſituation, beſides what is already recommended, mercurial frictions will be neceſſary along the perinæum, and the inſide of the thighs.

The ſame treatment will be proper when the diſcharge, during the inflammatory ſtage, is ſuppreſſed, and a hernia humoralis is threatened or hath taken place.

If a ſcorbutic or other acrimony is the cauſe, allay it at leaſt before ſtrengtheners are begun with.

When no circumſtance, beſides a weak habit, requires our notice, an infuſion of the bark in red wine may be given to two ounces three times in the day; and other means of ſtrengthening the general habit may be uſed.

Sometimes it happens that the cold bath increaſes the running; but when there is neither plethora, nor a bad habit of body, nor any other contraindication, the patient may go into the bath every morning and evening; and after each immerſion he may go into bed; and, whilſt there, he may drink two cups of ſome warm infuſion, by which the humours will be derived to the ſkin.

Reſinous aſtringents, ſuch as the balſ. capivi, &c. may be given three or four times a day; but in inflammatory habits much caution is required, to avoid the exciting any new degree of inflammation.

The following injection may be uſed at proper intervals, during two or three weeks. ℞ Aq. puræ vel aq. calcis ſi. ℥ vj. pulv. e ceruſs. c. ʒ i. vitr. alb. gr. x. adde ʒ ſs. m.

See Aretæus de Caus. & Sign. Chron. Morb. lib. ii. c. 5. Fordyce's Elements, part 2. Tabes Dorſalis. Swediar on Venereal Complaints.

GONORRHŒA VIRULENTA. See LUES VENEREA.

GONORRHŒA BENIGNA, i. e. Gonorrhœa pura.

GONORRHŒA SYPHILITICA, i. e. Gonorrhœa impura.

GONORRHŒA MALIGNA, Gonorrhœa impura.

GONORRHŒA MUCOSA. A Gleet. This is only a mode of the *gonorrhœa* impura terminating; and is when after a virulent *gonorrhœa*, a mucous humour, with little or no dyſury, is diſcharged from the urethra.

GONORRHŒA LIBIDINOSA, i. e. Gonorrhœa laxorum.

GONORRHŒA ONEIROGONOS, i. e. Gonorrhœa dormientium.

GONORRHŒA SPURIA. This is not a diſcharge from the urethra, but the corona glandis.

GONORRHŒA BALANI, i. e. Gonorrhœa ſpuria.

GONORRHŒA CORDATA, when a chordee accompanies a *gonorrhœa*.

GONYALGIA, from γονυ, *the knee*, and αλγος, *pain*. i. e. Gonagra.

GOR. The name of a large tree in Africa, which bears a bitter fruit, in appearance like a cheſnut.

GORGONIAS. A name for coral.

GOSSAMPINUS. A tree in the Eaſt-Indies, which produces a kind of wool or cotton.

GOSSIPIUM. Cotton. See MOUL-ELAVOU. & XYLON.

GOSSUM, i. e. Bronchocele.

GOTNEMSEGIAR, i. e. Xylon arboreum.

GOTTE. Gamboge.

GOUDBOOM. A ſpecies of conocarpodendron.

GOUI. A name for the ſeeds of the baobab.

GRACILIS. The name of ſome muſcles; ſo called from their thinneſs and flatneſs.

GRACILIS. It riſes cloſe to the edge of the os pubis, where it joins to the iſchium, and runs to the internal condyle. It ſerves to bend the thigh forward.

GRACILIS ANTERIOR. See RECTUS ANTERIOR Musc. Winſlow gives the name of *gracilis anterior* to the rectus cruris.

GRACILIS INTERNUS. See RECTUS INTERNUS.

GRAMEN. Graſs. Tournefort enumerates 86 ſpecies; and others add many more. See SCEUCHZER'S AGROSTOGRAPHIA.

Graſſes are one of the ſeven natural families, into which all vegetables are diſtributed by Linnæus. They are defined to be plants which have very ſimple leaves, a jointed ſtem, a huſky calyx, termed gluma, and a ſingle ſeed. In Tournefort, they conſtitute a part of the 15th claſs, termed *apetali*; and in the ſexual ſyſtem of Linnæus they are moſtly contained in the ſecond order of the third claſs, termed *triandria digynia*. Wheat, oats, barley, and rye, are *graſſes* improved by culture.

GRAMEN CANINUM; alſo called gramen dioſcoridis; gramen repens; gram. loliaceum radice repente; quick *graſs*; couch *graſs*; and dog's *graſs*. The French call it *chien-dent*. It is the triticum repens. Linn. It is a creeping *graſs*, of a whitiſh green colour, with knotty ſtalks, bearing a ſpike of imperfect flowers ſomewhat reſembling a wheat-ear; the roots are whitiſh or a pale yellow, long, ſlender, jointed at diſtances, variouſly bent and interwoven. It is perennial. Scheuchzer deſcribes ſixteen ſorts of this *graſs*.

The roots are ſweetiſh, mildly aperient in obſtructions of the viſcera, diluent, deobſtruent, diuretic, of uſe in ulcers of the bladder, difficulty of urine, and the ſtone in the gall-bladder. But in order to any good advantage, Boerhaave's direction to take ſome pints of the expreſſed juice of freſh roots every day, muſt be attended to; he obſerves, that ſheep and cattle, when afflicted with the ſtone, indurations of the liver, &c. in winter, are relieved in ſpring by the freſh *graſs*, which produces a diarrhœa at the firſt, and then a reſolution of obſtructions, &c.

GRAMEN POLYGONUM; alſo called ſanguinaria; polygonum mas, & latifolium; common knot-*graſs*.

GRAMEN ARUNDINACEUM; alſo called gramen dumetorum;

dumetorum; gram: paniculatum arundinaceum; gram: tomentoſum arund: gramen ſpica candida, &c. calamagroſtis; reed *graſs*. It is a ſpecies of reed, of ſimilar virtues with the common reed. See CALAMUS. The root only is uſed.

GRAMEN DACTYLON; alſo called dactylon radice repente; gramen dactyloides; gramen canarium iſchæmi paniculis; gramen legitimum; cock's foot graſs. It grows in fields and vineyards, in ſandy places: its virtues are the ſame as thoſe of dog's graſs.

GRAMEN MANNÆ; alſo called gram: dactylon eſculentum; iſchæmon ſativum: Ruſſia ſeed, and manna-graſs. It grows in Germany and Poland; its ſeeds are uſed: they are ſmall, oblong, pellucid, white, of a faint taſte, and, when decorticated, they reſemble, and are found to poſſeſs, the ſame qualities as rice.

GRAMEN. A name of ſeveral ſorts of triticum.

GRAMEN ALOPECUROIDES & ALOPECUROS. Fox-tail.

GRAMEN AVENACEUM. See BROMUS.

GRAMEN CRUCIS. See NEIEM-EL-SALIB.

GRAMEN DACTYLON AROMATICUM, i. e. JUNCUS ODORATUS.

GRAMEN DACTYLON PLUMEUM. A ſort of graſs in Braſil.

GRAMEN FUCHSII. A ſpecies of chickweed.

GRAMEN LOLIACEUM, i. e. LOLIUM.

GRAMEN LEUCANTHEMUM. A ſpecies of chickweed.

GRAMEN PARNASSI. See PARNASSIA.

GRAMEN POLYANTHEMUM MAJUS. A ſpecies of ſtatice.

GRAMEN SPICATUM, &c. Fox-tail.

GRAMEN TOMENTARIUM. See LINAGROSTIS.

GRAMIA. The ſordes of the eyes.

GRAMINULÆ. Tadpoles.

GRAMME. The iris of the eye.

GRANADILLA. The paſſion flower. Miller mentions ſeventeen ſpecies: it is a fine ornament in gardens, but not noted in medicine.

GRANADILLA PERUVIANA. A name of the cataputia major.

GRANAL. An evergreen tree in America, of a poiſonous quality.

GRANA PONDUS. A grain weight. It is the weight of a wheat corn.

GRANA TIGLIA. See MOLUCCENSE LIGNUM.

GRANATA MALA; alſo called mala punica; malus punica; punica; malum granatum; pomegranate. It is the punica granatum. Or punica ſylveſtris Italica, foliis lanceolatis caule arboreo var. β Linn. It is a prickly tree, or ſhrub, with long narrow leaves, deep red flowers, ſet in bell-ſhaped cups of the ſame colour; the fruit is about the ſize of an orange; it conſiſts of a thick tough rind, externally browniſh, and internally yellow, with a juicy pulp, and numerous ſeed in cells like a honeycomb. It is a native of the ſouth parts of Europe.

The flowers are a mild aſtringent, ſimilar to thoſe of the wild pomegranate; which laſt are preferred only on account of their being larger. The pulp of the ripe fruit is a grateful ſubacid ſweet, and of the ſame general qualities as the ſummer fruits. The rind is moderately aſtringent, and is called cortex granati; malicorium; pſidium, & ſidium: it gives its virtue out moſt abundantly to water, but the flower yields its virtue moſt freely to ſpirit. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

GRANATRISTUM. A name for a carbuncle.

GRANATUM, i. e. GRANATA MALA.

GRANATUS. The granate, or garnet. It is one of the precious ſtones. The Latins call it carchedonicus, and garamanticus. Garnets are from the ſize of a large pin's head to an inch diameter; their colour is always of a ſtrong red, with a plain admixture of bluiſh. Jewellers divide them into the garnet, the rock ruby or almandine, and the ſerain. There is an ore of tin, which is of a dirty purple colour: it is ſold for the garnet.

GRANATUS SYLVESTRIS. See BALAUSTIUM.

GRANDEBALÆ. The hairs under the arm-pits.

GRAND-GOR, i. e. LUES VENEREA.

GRANDINES. Tumors on the eye-lids reſembling hail-ſtones. See CHALAZA.

GRANDINOSUM, from its reſemblance to an hail-ſtone. Os, i. e. OS CUBOIDES.

GRANDO. See CHALAZA.

GRANULATIO. It is a reduction of metals into ſmall grains.

GRANULOSA. See RADIX.

GRANUM MOSCHI. See ABELMOSCH.

GRANUM REGIUM, i. e. CATAPUTIA MAJOR.

GRAPHIOIDES, from γραφις, *a pencil*, and ειδος, *a form*. i. e. PROCESSUS STYLIFORMIS. Alſo a proceſs of the ulna towards the wriſt.

GRAPHISCUS. An inſtrument for extracting darts with. Diocles invented it, and Celſus deſcribes it.

GRAPHOIDES, or STYLIFORMIS, from γραφις, *ſtylus*, becauſe of its ſuppoſed origination from the proceſs of the temple bone, ſo called, i. e. BIVENTER MUSCULUS.

GRAPHOY. Broad-leaved leopards-bane.

GRATIA DEI. A name of the herb robert; of the hedge hyſſop, and of ſeveral other vegetables.

GRATIA DEI GERMANORUM. Crowfootcranebill.

GRATIOLA; alſo called digitalis minima; gratia dei; water hyſſop, and hedge hyſſop. Gratiola officinalis, or gratiola floribus pedunculatis, folii lanceolatis ſerratis. Linn. It is a low plant, with finely ſerrated leaves ſet in pairs on the ſtalks without pedicles; the flowers are whitiſh, jointed, and ſurrounded with fibres. It is perennial; a native of the ſouth of Europe; but it is raiſed in our gardens.

The leaves have a nauſeous, bitter taſte, but no remarkable ſmell; they purge briſkly, and vomit alſo; ʒ i. of the dry herb, infuſed in wine and water, is a full doſe; a ſlight decoction of it in milk, operates the moſt mildly; an extract made with wine is given to two ſcruples. Kramer ſays, that this root is ſimilar to ipecacuanha, and equally uſeful in diarrhœas and dyſenteries; he ſays it cures intermittents, and is preferable to the decoction of the woods in the lues venerea. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

GRATIOLA CŒRULEA. Hooded willow-herb.

GRATTERONA, i. e. Aparine.

GRAVATIO, i. e. Caros.

GRAVATIVUS. An epithet for a ſort of pain, attended with a ſenſe of weight.

GRAVEDO. A cold. Gravedo imports a pain in the head with a ſenſe of heavineſs, or ſuch a running from the noſe as is when we take cold; it is the ſame with catarrhus and coryza. Celſus tranſlates κορυζα, by the word gravedo; and Cœlius Aurelianus tranſlates it by the words catarrhus ad nares. It is moſt properly, that weight or liſtleſſneſs, which accompanies a leſſened tranſpiration, or taking of cold, as it is commonly called, and, as Dr. Cullen obſerves, is generally a ſymptom of catarrh. See CATARRHUS.

By a cold is generally underſtood, a ſudden check of perſpiration from an improper expoſure to cold; the conſequences of which, whilſt confined to the general notion of a cold, are the ſame as attend the leſſer degrees of catarrh: in its further advances, it is productive of fevers, conſumption, and other diſorders both troubleſome and dangerous.

Perſons who eaſily take cold, ſhould uſe frequently moderate exerciſe, and take ſuch medicines as increaſe the vigour of the circulation, and ſtrengthen the general ſyſtem: the too great irritability of their conſtitutions may be diminiſhed by opium, bark, reſiding in dry cold places, &c. The diſpoſition to take cold may be in a good degree leſſened, by gradually acquiring the habit of being expoſed to ſudden changes of heat and cold.

Beginning diſorders of this kind are much and ſpeedily relieved by immerſing the feet in warm water juſt before going to ſleep.

On the ſubject of taking cold, ſee Dr. Fordyce's Elements, in the article Catarrh; Heberden's Obſervations in the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 521, &c. and Dr. Stern's Advice to the Conſumptive, &c. edit. 7. p. 9, &c.

GRAVIDITAS. Pregnancy. Alſo an extraordinary diſtenſion of the abdomen during pregnancy.

GRE-

GRENETTE, i. e. Santonicum.

GRESSURA. The part between the pudenda and anus.

GRINDERS ROT. Scythe grinders are ſubject to a diſeaſe of the lungs, from the particles of ſand mixed with iron duſt, and this diſorder is among themſelves called by this name.

GRIPHOMENOS. Pains which go from the loins to the hypochondres.

GROSSULARIA, alſo called uva criſpa, and gooſeberry buſh. It flowers in April, and its fruit ripens in July. The unripe fruit is ſaid to abate the longings of pregnant women.

GROSSULARIA. Currants. See RIBES.

GROSSUS. An unripe fig.

GRUMUS. A concentrated clot of blood, milk, &c.

GRUTUM. A ſort of groſs oatmeal.

GRYPA. An ointment deſcribed by N. Myrepſus.

GRYPHIUS PES. An inſtrument mentioned by Parey for extracting a mole from the uterus.

GRYPHUS. The philoſopher's ſtone.

GRYPOSIS. An incurvation of the nails.

GUABAM. A ſweet cooling fruit which grows in the Weſt Indies. See Raii Hiſt.

GUACATANA, alſo called ſcrophularia Indica. It is a plant which grows in New Spain. A cataplaſm of it eaſes the piles. See Raii Hiſt.

GUAIABARA. A tree that grows in Hiſpaniola; the Spaniards call it uvero; the leaves are large, and uſed as paper.

GUAIACUM. Guyac. Alſo called guaiacan, lignum benedictum, lignum vitæ, palus ſanctus, palma ſancta, euonymo adnis occidentalis, &c. pockwood. The blacker ſort the Americans call hiacan or huican, that which is mixed with yellow they call hoaxecan. The ſpecies uſed in medicine is the guajacum officinale, or guajacum Jamaicenſe, foliolis bijugis obtuſis, flore cœruleo, fructu ſubrotundo. Linn. Common guaiacum or lignum vitæ.

Ulric Hutten ſays this wood was introduced into Europe in 1517; but Braſſavolus ſays, not until 1525. It is brought from Jamaica, Mexico, and other parts of the Weſt-Indes, particularly from the Antilles. It is brought over in large pieces, each weighing from four to five hundred weight; it is hard, compact, and ſo heavy as to ſink in water; the outer part is often of a pale yellowiſh colour, but the heart is blacker, or of a deep brown. Sometimes it is marbled with different colours. It hath little or no ſmell, except when heated, and then a ſlight aromatic one is perceived. When chewed, it impreſſes a mild acrimony, biting the palate and fauces. Its pungency reſides in its reſinous matter, which it gives out in ſome degree to water by boiling, but ſpirit extracts it wholly.

Of the bark of guaiac there are two kinds, one ſmooth, the other unequal on the ſurface; they are both of them weaker than the wood.

The gum, or rather reſin, exudes from the tree, and is of a brown colour, partly reddiſh, and often greeniſh, brittle, having a gloſſy ſurface when broke, of a pungent taſte, affecting the tongue and palate in the ſame manner as is ſaid of the wood. The chief of what is brought to us is in irregular maſſes, of a duſky green colour. There is a ſort in drops; it is the beſt, but is very rarely met with.

In the choice of the wood, that which is the freſheſt, moſt ponderous, and of the darkeſt colour, is the beſt; the largeſt pieces are to be preferred too; and the beſt method is to raſp them as wanted, for the finer parts are apt to exhale when the raſpings or the chips are kept a while. In chuſing the gum prefer thoſe pieces which have ſlips of the bark adhering to them, and that eaſily ſeparate therefrom by a few quick blows.

Neumann aſſures us, that a compoſition of colophony and balſam of ſulphur is impoſed on the unwary for true gum guaiacum; but the cheat is eaſily detected by expoſing it to a due degree of heat, by which the odour of the falſe is perceived to be quite different from that of the true.

The guyac wood was firſt introduced in Europe as a remedy for the venereal diſeaſe; it is a good aſſiſtant to mercury, as it warms and ſtimulates, and ſo promotes perſpiration and urine; it alſo proves a gentle purgative in a ſomewhat increaſed doſe, and theſe ſeem to be its primary virtues. When the excretory glands are obſtructed, the veſſels lax and flaccid, the habit replete with ſerous humours, in many cutaneous and catarrhous diſorders, ſome female weakneſſes, in gouty complaints, and rheumatic diſorders, it produces good effects. The hectic fever which ſometimes follows a ſalivation gives way to a decoction of the woods.

A long uſe of this medicine hath been obſerved to produce a yellowneſs of the ſkin. In thin emaciated habits, and an acrimonious ſtate of the fluids, it often does harm. It is alſo improper in hot bilious habits, and where the fibres are very tenſe.

Three ounces of the wood, or four ounces of the bark, may be boiled in ℔ iv. of water to ℔ ii. and if a little liquorice is added at the latter end of the boiling, or when the decoction is taken from the fire, it will abate the diſagreeable pungency of this medicine, which affects the throat very much in ſwallowing it. Of this decoction, at leaſt, half a pint ſhould be taken in a day. Of the gum, or extracts, the doſe may be from gr. v. to ʒ ii. which laſt purges pretty much. Theſe ſhould be diſſolved by the mediation of egg, or the mucilage of gum arabic, for otherwiſe they do not eaſily mix with the juices in the ſtomach.

If the thin ſhavings of guyac are diſtilled in a retort, at firſt there ariſes a liquor which is almoſt purely water; then on increaſing the fire, an acid, reddiſh empyreumatic liquor paſſes over with a little fluid reddiſh oil; beſides theſe, much air is ſeparated from this wood; the reſiduum is a perfect coal. A pound of guaiacum wood, diſtilled over an open fire, gave ʒ iiiſs. of acid, which is called ſpirit, and ℥ iſs. of empyreumatic oil.

Extractum Ligni Guaiaci, molle & durum. Extract of Lignum Vitæ, ſoft and hard.

Boil ℔ i. of guaiacum ſhavings in a gallon of water until half of the liquor is waſted, repeating the operation by adding the ſame quantity of freſh water to the ſame ſhavings four or five times. The ſeveral decoctions paſt through a ſtrainer, are to be mixed and inſpiſſated together: when the aqueous parts are almoſt exhaled, a little ſp. vini. rect. may be added, that the whole may be reduced into a uniform tenacious maſs. This extract is called ſoft when of the conſiſtence of a maſs for pills, and hard when it can be powdered. The ſpirit is added at the concluſion of the boiling, that the reſinous part may be perfectly mixed with the gummy.

Beſides the virtues attributed to guyac in general, the harder extract is an excellent errhine.

Reſina Guaiaci. Reſin of Guaiac.

It is prepared in the ſame manner as the reſin of JALAP, which ſee.

The reſin is the only active part of this wood; it is obtained pure by means of rectified ſpirit of wine both from the wood and the gum. The natural reſin is never pure; and by this proceſs about ℥ xii. of pure reſin is obtained from ℥ xvi. of gum.

Balſ. Guaiac. Balſam of Guaiacum.

℞ Gum guaiac ℔ i. balſam Peruv. ʒ iii. ſp. vini rect. ℔ i. ſs. m. This was formerly called balſ. polychreſtum.

Tinct. Guaiacina Volatile. The Volatile Tincture of Guaiac.

Take of gum guaiac four ounces; volatile aromatic ſpirit a pint and a half; mix, and digeſt with heat. The doſe is from a ſmall tea-ſpoonful to a large table-ſpoonful two or three times a day. Dr. Dawſon frequently directs the larger of theſe doſes with great advantage in rheumatic and arthritic complaints, in which caſes, and againſt palſies from lead, he extols this tincture as almoſt a ſpecific.

See Raii Hiſt. Plant. Miller's Dict. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works; Dict. of Chem.

GUAIANA (CORT.) i. e. Simarouba.

GUAJABO, i. e. Guajava.

GUAJABO POMIFERA INDICA, i. e. Guajava.

GUAJACANA. The name of a plant, three ſpecies of which are mentioned by Boerhaave. They are not much known, but the leaves and fruit are ſomewhat aſtringent.

GUAJACUM PATAVIUM ANGUSTIFOLIUM i. e. Guajacana.

GUAJAPALA, i. e. Moluccenſe lignum.

GUAJAVA. The guava. The name of a tree in the Weſt Indies, whoſe fruit is cooling and moderately aſtringent; the root is alſo aſtringent. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies. See Raii Hiſt.

GUAO. A Weſt Indian tree called thetlatian; its juice is ſo acrid as to be injurious to thoſe who ſleep under it.

GUAPARAIBA. The mangrove tree. It grows in the Weſt Indies. It is alſo called mangle, and paretuvier. If the root is ſlit and toaſted, then applied to the punctures made by the poiſonous fiſh called niqui, it performs a cure. See Raii Hiſt.

GUARERVA-OBA. Wild cucumber.

GUARIRIGUIMYMIA. A ſhrub in Braſil like a myrtle. Lemery ſays its ſeed deſtroys worms.

GUARERVA. A ſort of cucumber which grows in Braſil. See Raii Hiſt.

GUASSEM. Certain black ſcorbutic ſpots mentioned by Avicenna.

GUATIMALA. An inferior kind of indicum.

GUAVA, and Guayava, i. e. Guajava.

GUAZUMA. Baſtard cedar.

GUIDONIS, (Bals.) Guido's balſam. See Anodynum Bals.

GUILAND. The abbreviation for Melchior Guilandinus de Papyro.

GUIRAPARIBA. The name of two ſorts of trees in Braſil, one of which is a ſort of ebony. See Raii Hiſt.

GUITY COROGA. The fruit of the guity-iba. It contains a ſtone as large as a gooſe's egg, the kernel of which is aſtringent

GUITY-IBA. A tree growing in Braſil, and bearing the fruit called guity-coroga. Two other trees are thus named, viz. the guity-toroba, and the guity-iba.

GULA, i. e. Œſophagus.

GUMA. Mercury.

GUMMA. Plur. Gummata, a ſort of tumor, ſo called from the reſemblance of their contents to gums. It is a tumor ariſing out of the ſubſtance of a bone; it is ſo ſoft as to yield to the finger. When theſe tumors are harder they are called tophs; when harder ſtill, they receive the name of nodes: but the hardeſt tumors in bones are exoſtoſes. In venereal patients ſuch tumors often happen on the head, and even in the middle of the moſt ſolid bones. They ſeem to be produced when the veſſels running between the bony laminæ being either obſtructed or inflamed are dilated, and ſo raiſe the incumbent laminæ. Perhaps the bone degenerates too into a morbid ſoftneſs. A ſoftneſs of the bones ſometimes ſucceeds abſceſſes of the adjacent parts, and ſometimes the origin of the diſorder is lodged in the ſubſtance of the bone, eſpecially in the lues venerea; gummata have, however, been diſcovered, when no ſuch adequate cauſe could be obſerved. Perhaps there is an acid cacochymy, or a partial degree of what cauſes the molietes. See Petit on Diſeaſes of the Bones. See Lues Venerea.

GUMMI. Gum. It is a concrete vegetable juice of no particular ſmell or taſte, becoming viſcous and tenacious when moiſtened with water; totally diſſolving in water into a liquid more or leſs glutinous in proportion to the quantity of the gum; not diſſolving in vinous ſpirits or in oils; burning in the fire to a black coal without melting or catching flame; ſuffering no diſſipation in the heat of boiling water.

The true gums are gum arabic, gum tragacanth, gum ſenega, the gum of cherry and plum-trees, and ſuch like. All elſe have more or leſs of reſin in them.

The virtues of gums are ſimilar to all mucilaginous ſubſtances in general, vegetable and animal; the more tenacious, glutinous, vegetable productions, are called gums; thoſe that are leſs ſo are mucilages. The firſt diſtil naturally from trees, the ſecond are the produce of art. See Neumann's Chem. Works.

GUMMI ARABICUM, called alſo gum. acanthinum, gum. Thebaicum, gum. Serapionis, gum arabic, and the true gum acacia. It exudes from the Egyptian acacia, or thorn tree, whoſe fruit affords the inſpiſſated juice of that name. See Acacia. In Linnæus's ſyſtem: this tree is called mimoſa nilotica. The true Egyptian acacia. It is brought from Turkey in ſmall irregular maſſes, of a clear whitiſh, or very pale yellow colour.

The gum Senegal is generally ſold for it, but they are thus diſtinguiſhed; the gum Arabic is in whitiſh tranſparent pieces; it is dry and brittle; but the gum Senegal is clammy, tenacious, rougher, of a deeper colour, and in larger pieces.

The gum does not diſſolve in ſpirit, nor in oil; yet when it is ſoftened with water into a mucilage, it is eaſily miſcible with both, alſo with reſins, and renders them miſcible with water. Dr. Grew was uſed to mix eſſential oil with water by means of gum arabic; and in the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. i. a variety of experiments are inſerted, by which it appears that oils both expreſſed and diſtilled, reſins, balſams, &c. may by the ſame means be mixed uniformly with water or with ſpirit. Alcaline ſalts both fixed and volatile, though they render pure oil miſcible with water, they prevent the mixture of gum with oil. Acids do not in the leaſt prevent the effect of the gum in this particular.

Animal glues have the general qualities of the vegetable gums, with this difference that the former are more nutrimental, and apt to run into a putrid ſtate. Conſidered as the ſubject of chemiſtry their difference is very great; thoſe of the animal kind are changed by fire into a volatile alkaline ſalt, and a fetid oil; the vegetable into an acid liquor, and a very minute portion of oily matter conſiderably leſs fetid than the former.

The medical character of gum Arabic is its glutinous quality, in conſequence of which it ſerves to incraſſate and obtund thin acrid humors, ſo proves uſeful in tickling coughs, alvine fluxes, hoarſeneſſes, in fluxes of the belly with gripes, and where the mucus is abraded from the bowels, or from the urethra. In a dyſuria the true gum Arabic is more cooling than the other ſimple gums, ſo ſhould be preferred.

One ounce of gum Arabic renders a pint of water conſiderably glutinous; four ounces gives it a quick ſyrupy conſiſtence; but for mucilage one part gum to two parts water, is required, and for ſome purpoſes an equal proportion will be neceſſary. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

GUMMI FUNERUM, i. e. Bitumen.

GUMMI RUBRUM ASTRINGENS GAMBIENSE. The red aſtringent gum from Gambia. Some call it ſang. dracon. offic. or the fineſt and true dragon's-blood. Dr. Oldfield calls it true gum Senegal. In the inland parts of Africa it is called pau de ſangue; pau is ſaid to be a corruption of the Portugueſe word palo, which ſignifies wood.

It is ſuppoſed to exude from inciſions made in the trunks of certain trees called pau de ſangue, which grow in the inland parts of Africa. It is very friable, eaſily breaking between the fingers; it is of an opake, dark, reddiſh, colour, appearing almoſt black in the maſs, and, when powdered, it is of a deep brick red. In chewing, it firſt crumbles, then ſticks together a little, and in a ſhort time ſeems wholly to diſſolve, impreſſing a very conſiderable aſtringency, accompanied with a ſlight ſweetiſhneſs. It hath no ſmell.

It differs from the red lumps of the common gum Senegal in being much more brittle; and from the dragon's blood, in diſſolving in water; and from both, in having ſo remarkable a ſtipticity when taſted. It diſſolves both in ſpirit and in water; they each take up about two-thirds of it.

This gum hath been uſeful in obſtinate chronical diarrhœas. It ſeems calculated for uſefulneſs in many diſorders from laxity and acrimony. It is the moſt gummy of all the aſtringent drugs, and yet it far exceeds the terra Japonica in aſtringency. See the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. i. p. 258, &c.

GUMMI SENEGALENSE, called alſo gum. Senega, gum. Senica. gum. Orientalis, and gum. Senegal. It is brought from the iſland Senegal, on the coaſt of Africa. It is ſaid to be the produce of a tree of the ſame genus with that which afford the gum Arabic, acacia ſiliquis compreſſis ph. Pariſ.

Greateſt part of this gum is in larger and darker pieces than the *gum* Arabic; it is rough on the outſide, but *gum* Arabic is ſmooth: and in theſe two circumſtances conſiſts the chief known difference, except that the *gum* Arabic is dry and brittle, whereas this is clammy and tenacious.

The cleareſt pieces of *gum* Senegal are ſold for *gum* Arabic; in general their qualities are the ſame: but the *gum* Arabic is thought to be more cooling, and the *gum* Senegal is certainly more adhefive.

GUMMI TRAGACANTHA, alſo called dragacanthæ, adraganth, gum dragant, and tragacanth. This *gum* exudes from a prickly buſh of the ſame name which grows in Crete, Greece, and Aſia, (tragacantha, or ſpina hirci, goat's-thorn). The aſtragalus Maſſilienſis, Linn. according to ſome writers; and the aſtragalus tragacantha albus, Linn. according to others. The Edinburgh Pharmacopœia directs the firſt. It is chiefly brought to us from Turky in irregular lumps, or in long vermicular pieces. In Candy it begins to exude about June, and is more or leſs pure and white according to the weather after its exudation, and its accidental mixture with duſt.

Chuſe that which is white, light, ſmooth, and tranſparent in vermicular ſtriæ, of a ſweetiſh taſte, and without ſmell. A yelloviſh or browniſh colour is no mark of imperfection or impurity.

It differs from all other *gums* in giving a thick conſiſtence to a much larger quantity of water, and in being much more difficultly diſſolved in water. It is the ſtrongeſt of the ſimple *gums*. In common with other *gums* it ſoftens and thickens acrid humours.

The pulvis e tragacantha compoſitus of the London college was formerly called pulv. diatragacanthi; it is mild, emollient, and uſeful in tickling coughs, and for obtunding thin acrid humours. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

GUNDELIA. A plant ſo called from Dr. Gundelſheimer, who found it in his travels with Mr. Tournefort.

GURGEATIO, i. e. Sudor Anglicus.

GURGULIO. The uvula; alſo the inſect called a weavil.

GUSTATORII. A name of the ninth pair of nerves.

GUSTATORIUS. A name of the third maxillary branch of the fifth pair of nerves.

GUSTUS. The taſte. Upon the tongue, towards the apex and ſides under the ſkin, are obtuſe papillæ of various figures. Theſe papillæ are prominent in the tongue of a living faſting perſon, when put out and applied to any body to be *taſted*. In dead perſons they abſolutely diſappear, but are very prominent in living hungry ones. They riſe from the nervous body which covers the muſcular fleſh of the tongue, whence they paſs through the perforations of the corpus reticulare in the ſame manner as in the ſkin, and are covered with ſmall vaginæ formed by the exterior membrane of the tongue. Theſe vaginæ are porous, that what is *taſted* by preſſure may have the greater influence on them. Laurentius Bellini has ſhewn that theſe papillæ only are the medium of taſte, and that the other parts of the mouth, tongue, and palate, contribute nothing to it, except perhaps thoſe parts of the inner ſide of the cheek which lie near the meeting of the dentes molares.

It hath been generally ſaid that the parts of ſubſtances which contain an oil and a ſalt are the true object of *taſte*; whence ſalt, ſpirit, ſoap, and oil, muſt alike be the ſame. It hath been alſo aſſerted that the diverſity of *taſtes* are owing to the different figures which are natural to ſalts; but as to this, profeſſor Haller replies to the contrary, and ſays that the mechanical reaſon of the diverſity of flavours, ſeem to reſide in the intrinſic fabric, or appoſition of their elements, which do not fall under the ſcrutiny of the ſenſes. He ſays, that in general whatever contains leſs ſalt than the ſaliva is inſipid, but that the nature or diſpoſition of the covering with which the papillæ are cloathed, together with that of the juices and of the aliments lodged in the ſtomach, have a conſiderable ſhare in determining the ſenſe of *taſte*; inſomuch that the ſame flavour does not equally pleaſe or affect the organ in all ages alike, nor in perſons of all temperatures, nor even in the ſame perſon at different times.

In general the *taſte* determines what aliment is ſalutary; for the moſt part whatever offends the *taſte* is injurious in the ſtomach. See Haller's Phyſiology, in his Lecture of the Taſte.

GUTTA. A drop. *Drops* are an uncertain form of adminiſtering medicines, and where great exactneſs is neceſſary they ſhould not be preſcribed. The ſhape of the bottle from whence the *drops* fall occaſions a conſiderable difference in the quantity ſo adminiſtered; the conſiſtence of the fluid is often a ſtill greater cauſe of difference.

GUTTA. A name of the apoplexy, from a ſuppoſition that its cauſe was a drop of blood falling from the brain upon the heart.

GUTTA ROSACEA, (ſee VARUS), alſo called ſimply roſacea, from the little red drops or fiery tubercles diſperſed about the face and noſe; ſome call it rubedo maculoſa, or rubercum macules. Nicolaus Florentinus diſtinguiſhes three degrees of it, viz. 1. Rubedo ſimplex, ſeu facies rubra. 2. Rubedo puſtuloſa. 3. Ulceroſa. He alſo ſays that the cauſe is a hot viſcous blood, generated from an intemperies in the liver, which being brought to the face ſtops there, and cauſes redneſs, and when it does not ſoon obtain a paſſage through the ſkin, it riſes into pimples, and at laſt ulcerates, having vitiated the frame of the cutaneous glands by its long ſtagnation.

That the cauſe is in the liver ſeems to be ſupported by obſerving that often, on the diſappearance of fiery pimples in the face, an indurated liver is a conſequence, and thence a dropſy; and, on the contrary, diſorders of the liver are ſometimes relieved by eruptions in the face, whence great care ſhould be uſed in applying topics.

Though tipplers are moſt ſubject to this complaint, the moſt abſtemious are ſometimes affected with it, by ſuddenly drinking a draught of cold water when they are hot.

The prognoſtic is doubtful as to the cure. If the caſe is recent and mild, and the habit of body good, there is hope; if of long ſtanding, inveterate or malignant, a cure is a deſideratum.

In general a temperate regimen is proper; but if the patient is accuſtomed to a generous diet, a ſudden alteration is not adviſeable; all violence ſhould be avoided as to exerciſe; the mind ſhould be kept as calm as poſſible: Scarborough water is generally eſteemed very uſeful; ſpirituous and ſpicy food ſhould be omitted; ſo ſhould pork, cheeſe, and all that does not eaſily digeſt.

As to topicals, practical writers abound with variety of them: but great caution is required in their uſe; nay, they are often dangerous. Heiſter ſays that the pimples or puſtules in the face are ſmall biles, and as ſuch are cured with whey and mineral waters.

Internally, the ſpring juices, mercurial deobſtruents, with antimonials, ſaponaceous, and after theſe ferruginеous preparations are to be preferred. Antimonials, as they have the beſt effect in the emunctories of the ſkin are moſt to be relied on, and, as purges, the mercurial kind are not to be omitted. The bowels ſhould be kept conſtantly lax. And during the ſeaſon the ſpring juices may be conſtantly taken. Bitters, particularly an infuſion of the Seville orange peel, is an excellent auxiliary. See Heiſter's Surgery; Turner's Diſeaſes of the Skin; Brooks's and the London Practice of Phyſic.

GUTTA RUBEA, vel Ruonia. See GUTTA ROSACEA.

GUTTA ROSEA, i. e. Gutta roſacea.

GUTTA SERENA. See AMAUROSIS and AMBLYOPIA.

GUTTÆ VITÆ, i. e. Balſ. traumat.

GUTTALIS, i. e. Arytænoides.

GUTTETA. Caſtellus informs us that the word *goutte* in French ſignifies convulſions; hence the name of a preparation called pulvis ad *guttetam*; it conſiſted of dittany, human ſkull, contrayerva, &c. but many mix only equal parts of peony and valerian roots. It was originally an invention of Riverius, and by ſome is called epileptic powder.

GUTTUR, i. e. Bronchocele.

GUTTURALIS ARTERIA. The firſt conſiderable branch of the external carotid is the ſuperior *guttural* which ariſes juſt where it parts from the internal and runs to the thyroid gland, and to the muſcles and other parts of the larynx or pharynx.

The inferior guttural artery is the TRACHEALIS ARTERIA, which ſee.

GUT-

GUTTURALIS VENA. The right goes from the upper part of the bifurcation above the mammaria of the ſame ſide, and ſometimes from the ſubclavia. The left from the left ſubclavian near its origin.

GUTTURIFORMIS CARTILAGO. The arytænoid cartilage.

GYCYPICROS. Woody nightſhade. See SOLANUM.

GYMNASTICA. Gymnaſtics. Theſe are the exerciſes of the body which were propoſed for the reſtoration and preſervation of health, and for the cure of diſeaſes. Theſe exerciſes were of Greek origin; they are ſo called from the word γυμνος, *naked*; for theſe exerciſes were performed by naked men in the public games. Theſe exerciſes were wreſtling, running, leaping, and other acts of agility and force.

Herodicus, the father of Hippocrates, was the firſt who introduced theſe exerciſes into medicine.

The Egyptians thought *gymnaſtics* not neceſſary; they thought that by them a genuine health was not generated, but in its ſtead a ſhort-lived ſtrength, highly dangerous to young people. See Hieronymus Mercurialis de Arte Gymnaſtica; Fuller's Medicina Gymnaſtica.

GYMNOSPERMOS. See ANGIOSPERMOS.

GYNÆCIA, from γυνη, *woman*. It ſignifies the menſtrua, and ſometimes the lochia.

GYNÆCIUM, from γυνη, *a woman*. A ſeraglio, alſo a name for antimony.

GYNECOMASTON. An enormous increaſe of the breaſts of women.

GYNÆCOMASTOS. A man whoſe breaſts are large, like a woman's, from γυνη, *a woman*, and μαστος, *breaſt*.

GYNÆCOMYSTAX, from γυνη, *a woman*, and μυσταξ, *a beard*. The hairs on the female pudenda.

GYNANTHROPOS. That ſpecies of hermaphrodite which partakes more of the female than of the male; that ſpecies which partakes moſt of the male is called androgynus. Theſe diſtinctions are groundleſs, for all hermaphrodites, ſo called, are properly women.

GYNECANTHE, i. e. Black bryony.

GYPSOPHYTON. The great ſaxifrage.

GYPSUM. Gyps, called alſo terras, plaiſter ſtone, and hall-plaiſter. Authors differ much about the *gypſum*; one ſays it is the calx of alabaſter; another that of alum of Scajola; others that of Muſcovy glaſs; and others again ſay it is the calx of the ſelenite ſtone. But our gypſum is a lime made of common whitiſh ſtones, and opake bits of talc, ſlightly burnt till they ſparkle. See Lewis's note in Neumann's Chem. Works. The gypſum and ſelenites are formed of the vitriolic acid and calcareous earth; ſo, though they generally are found in the ſtate of ſtones, yet they may be conſidered as a kind of chemical ſalts. In foſſilogy they are arranged both as ſtones and ſalts. When conſidered as ſtones, they conſtitute an order of ſtones called gypſum, plaſter ſtones, &c. The characters of this order are foſſil bodies, which cut and ſcrape eaſily; in the fire readily fall or calcine, but with water concrete again into a maſs, which ſoon becomes hard. When conſidered as ſalts, they conſtitute a genus of the order of earthy neutral ſalts. This genus conſiſts of the vitriolic acid and calcareous earth. See Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy. When the gypſum is ſolid, and its characters of a ſalt are not ſufficiently apparent, it is called a ſtone. When it is a part of the contents of mineral waters, or common waters, it is in a ſaline ſtate, often called ſelenites.

H.

HABASCUM. The name of a Virginian root which reſembles a parſnip, and is as ſalutary food.

HABENA. The name of a bandage, contrived to keep the lips of wounds together.

HABITUS PLANTÆ. The habit of a plant is the outward appearance of plants, or what is called their port.

HACUB. A ſpecies of carduus, the young ſhoots of which are eat by the Indians, but the roots are emetic.

HADID. Iron.

HÆCCEITAS. The quinta eſſentia of the chemiſts.

HÆMA. Blood.

HÆMAGOGOS, from αιμα, *blood*, and αγω, *to bring away*. The name of an antidote in Nicolaus Myrepſus, which was uſed for promoting the menſtrual and hæmorrhoidal fluxes.

HÆMALOPIA. A variety of the pſeudoblepſis imaginaria. In which all things ſeem to be of a red colour.

HÆMALOPS, from αιμα, *blood*, and ωψ, *the countenance*. The livid marks of ſugillations in the face and eyes.

HÆMATAPORIA. A waſting from a poverty of blood.

HÆMANTHUS, from αιμα, *blood*, and ανθος, *a flower*. The blood flower, or African tulip. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies, but no medical virtue.

HÆMATEMESIS. Vomiting of blood. See vomiting of blood. It is always ſymptomatic. See VOMITUS.

HÆMATIA, or Hæmation. An epithet for a ſort of garum, made of the inteſtines of fiſh, macerated in ſalt.

HÆMATITES, from αιμα, *blood*. The Greeks call this ore of iron thus, from its ſuppoſed virtue of ſtopping blood. It is called alſo blood ſtone. When it was in flattiſh cakes, with knobs on the ſuface, then the ancients called it hæmatites; but when it was in long ſtriated pieces, they call it ſchiſtus, but they poſſeſs no diſtinguiſhing qualities different from each other. The terra ſinopica is alſo called blood ſtone.

From twenty-four parts of good hæmatites, nineteen parts of iron hath been extracted, but half its weight it often affords. Plenty of it is met with in Germany, France, and Spain, but we have as good as any in England. It is very hard, of a dark red colour; but on powdering it, the redneſs becomes brighter. As a medicine, nothing can be expected from it that is not afforded with more advantage by iron; and as it is very difficultly powdered, the crocus martis may be ſubſtituted in its room, or the rubigo ferri. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

HÆMATITINOS. An epithet of a collyrium in Galen, in which is the hæmatites.

HÆMATOCELE, from αιμα, *blood*, and κηλη, *a tumor*. It is a ſpecies of falſe hernia in the ſcrotum; it conſiſts

conſiſts of a collection of blood in the tunica vaginalis; its appearance is the ſame as when an hydrocele is the diſorder, and ſo is the method of its cure. See Celſus, P. Ægineta.

HÆMATOCELE ARTERIOSUM. The ſame as aneuriſm.

HÆMATOCHYSIS, from *αιμα*, *blood*, and *χεω*, *to pour out*. It is a term uſed by Willis to ſignify an hæmorrhage.

HÆMATODES. Bloody crane's-bill.

HÆMATOMPHALOCELE. A tumor in the navel, turgid with blood, from *αιμα*, *blood*, *ομφαλος*, *navel*, and *κηλη*, *a tumor*.

HÆMATOPEDESIS. Bloody ſweat.

HÆMATOPHLŒBŒSTASIS, from *αιμα*, *blood*, *φλεψ*, *a vein*, and *ϛασις*, *a ſtation*. It is a ſuppreſſion of the impetuous current and intumeſcence of the blood in the veins. But Galen ſays, that ſome underſtand by it the veins full and tumeſcent with blood.

HÆMATURIA. Bloody urine. See URINE, BLOODY. It is always ſymptomatic.

HÆMITRITÆUS. A ſpecies of fever. See SEMITERTIANA.

HÆMOCERCHNUS. Blood brought up from the fauces, with a noiſe, or rattling, or bloody excretions diſcharged in a dry form.

HÆMODIA. A painful ſtupor of the teeth, cauſed by acid and auſtere ſubſtances touching them.

HÆMOPTOE, i. e. Hæmoptyſis.

HÆMOPTYICUS. A perſon who diſcharges blood from the mouth is thus called.

HÆMOPTYSIS, from *αιμα*, *blood*, and *πτυω*, *to ſpit*. A ſpitting of blood; alſo called hæmoptoe, and hæmoptys. If blood is diſcharged from the noſe or mouth, it is generally called a ſpitting of blood; but it ſeems more proper when blood flows from the noſe, to call it a bleeding at the noſe; when from the ſtomach, a vomiting of blood; and only when from the lungs, a ſpitting of blood.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order hæmorrhagiæ. He obſerves five ſpecies. 1. *Hæmoptyſis* plethorica, when no other diſorder is attendant than the exceſs of blood. 2. *Hæmoptyſis* violenta, where ſome external violence hath been the cauſe. 3. *Hæmoptyſis* phthiſica, where there is a waſting and continued debility takes place after a cough. 4. *Hæmoptyſis* calculoſa, when with the diſcharges by coughing there are calcareous concretions thrown up. 5. *Hæmoptyſis* vicaria, when accuſtomed evacuations being imprudently checked is the cauſe.

Paſſionate people, weakly ſlender people with long necks, and flat breaſts, and thoſe who while young were ſubject to bleed at the noſe, are moſt ſubject to an *hæmoptyſis*.

An hæmoptoe may happen three ways: 1. By an accidental rupture of the veſſels, in which caſe, if the veſſels are ſmall, and the patient is quiet, there is no danger, but if large, the danger is conſiderable. 2. From an ulcer in the lungs, whence in coughing it will be forced up, and mix with phlegm or pus, in which caſe danger is great, as ſome large veſſel may be eroded. 3. By anaſtomoſis, this is without danger, and oft relieves women whoſe menſes are ſuppreſſed.

Sometimes the bronchial artery is ruptured. If the orifice is ſmall, the diſcharge is ſoon at an end, for the blood ſtagnating in the cellular ſubſtance of the lungs, the artery is compreſſed, and the rupture cloſed: in ſome inſtances this blood is abſorbed, in others it corrupts and excites an inflammation, which terminates in ſuppuration, then making its way into the bronchia, is by degrees ſpit up, but often a conſumption follows.

Sometimes the rupture happens in the pulmonary artery, and then the diſcharge of blood is ſudden, more copious and florid, than when from the bronchial artery; it is alſo without pain, and unmixed with phlegm.

When this diſorder is from a rupture of the pulmonary artery as juſt obſerved, the following ſymptoms are not ſo generally attendant; but for the moſt part the preceding ſymptoms are anxiety about the præcordia, difficulty of breathing, an oppreſſive undulatory pain about the diaphragm, flatulencies in the belly, a coldneſs of the extremities, hoarſeneſs, a dry tickling cough, &c. as theſe ſhew a general ſtricture on the veſſels, and a tendency of the blood to inflammation, ſo they are commonly the fore-runners of a copious diſcharge of blood from the fauces, by which means it may always be diſtinguiſhed from an hæmoptoe. Though the diſcharge be from the bronchial artery, if it hath not laid any time in the breaſt, it may appear thin and florid; but in this caſe its ejection is not ſudden, and its appearance is blackiſh and ſomewhat thick; though a frothy cough attends, there is a a pain and heat in the breaſt, with a ſenſe of weakneſs there during the diſeaſe, ſometimes a feveriſhneſs appears, but it abates with each diſcharge of blood, which returns at intervals until the cure is effected. Sometimes matter is mixed with, or follows after the diſcharges.

Spitting of blood is generally uſeful in pleuriſies, and peripneumonies; in a dropſy, the ſcurvy, and conſumption, it denotes an ulcer in the lungs; in the robuſt, a ſpitting of blood is not very dangerous, but in the tender and feeble the cure is very difficult, and often impoſſible; if blood proceeds from an ulcer it is fatal.

The patient ſhould be kept cool and quiet both in body and mind; his diet ſhould be ſoft, cooling, and ſlender, but yet ſufficiently nouriſhing; ſpirituous liquors and fermented ones ſhould be at leaſt ſo ſparingly uſed, that the blood may never be rarified thereby; the voice ſhould not be exerted in any extraordinary degree.

Medicines need not be given before the patient ſeems weakened by his complaint; and then in proportion to the ſtrength of the patient, bleeding in the arm may be repeated. When the conſtitution will admit of this operation, the diſcharges by it ſhould be copious, for one free bleeding is far more uſeful than many ſparing ones.

Nitre, if taken early in this diſorder, is much to be depended on. The following method is the moſt convenient and uſeful: ℞ Sal nitri ʒ ſs. conſ. roſar. ʒ iv. m. cap. q. n. m. major, 6ta vel 3tia quaq. hora pro re nata.

Purges of the ſal Glaub. ver. are ſingularly uſeful in checking internal hæmorrhages, and may be ſo repeated as to keep the bowels always lax.

De Haen recommends the drinking of cold water.

Styptics are not to be depended on.

If the cough is troubleſome, an electary with nitre and ſperma cæti will be uſeful; and as an opiate the pil. e ſtyrace may be given in ſuch doſes as juſt to allay this troubleſome ſymptom. See Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham, edit. ii. p. 267. Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 206, and Med. Muſeum, vol. ii. p. 257—259. Brook's Pract. of Phyſ.

HÆMOPTYSIS ACCIDENTALIS, i. e. Hæmoptyſis violenta.

HÆMOPTYSIS HABITUALIS, i. e. Hæmoptyſis violenta.

HÆMOPTYSIS TRAUMATICA, i. e. Hæmoptyſis violenta.

HÆMOPTYSIS EX TUBERCULO PULMONUM, i. e. Hæmoptyſis phthiſica.

HÆMOPTYSIS CATAMENIALIS, i. e. Hæmoptyſis vicaria.

HÆMOPTYSIS PERIODICA, i. e. Hæmoptyſis vicaria.

HÆMORRHAGIA, from *αιμα*, *blood*, and *ῥηγνυω*, *to break forth*, or *ῥηγνυμι*, *to break forth*. There are but few *hæmorrhages* (not owing to external violence) which would prove fatal, if no means were uſed to ſtop them; hence many medicines have, at different times, had the repute of being ſpecifics. Periodical and critical *hæmorrhages* have generally their cauſe in the primæ viæ, and their propereſt remedies are ſuch as thoſe that purge, and render the bile temperate, of which kind are the ſal Glaub. but ſtill to be preferred is the ol. ricini ver. The ſeat of ſpontaneous *hæmorrhages* is generally where the veſſels are tender, and not braced up by neighbouring membranes, &c. as in the noſtrils, bronchia of the lungs, the gums, ſtomach, inteſtinum ileum, the extremity of the inteſtinum rectum, the uterus, and vagina; though rare inſtances are recorded of *hæmorrhages* from veſſels which lie deeper and are more defended.

Thoſe who abound with thick fibrous blood rarely are affected with this diſorder; a diſpoſition to it is generally hereditary, and is increaſed by action, cloſe thinking, hot

acrid aliments, &c. thoſe who have too much ſerum in their veſſels, who have a ſoft texture of body, are ſedentary, or have a defective perſpiration, and who eat more than they can eaſily diſcharge, are moſt ſubject to *hæmorrhages*.

The cauſes are not directly a redundancy of blood, its acrimony, or thinneſs; but rather from an irregular unequal circulation, which happens when the parts remote from the heart are by a ſtricture ſo braced up that the blood cannot eaſily return through the veins, hence the ſmall arteries and particularly thoſe that are the leaſt defended are ruptured. But the cauſes of thoſe *hæmorrhages* that are of the ſymptomatic kind are to be ſought for in infarctions and obſtructions or indurations of the veſſels and the viſcera, which put a ſtop to the free circulation of the fluids, and occaſion a glut on particular parts. From what is juſt ſaid, acrimony and rarefaction are not excluded from the occaſional cauſes, as is evident in ſcorbutic habits, &c.

In acute diſeaſes, when there are ſmall diſcharges of blood which ſuddenly ceaſe, they indicate at leaſt a tedious diſeaſe. *Hæmorrhages* are ſalutary when no inconvenience is obſerved from them, for then the habit is one way or other relieved. When this accident happens from diſordered viſcera, eſpecially if the liver, ſpleen, or lungs, are the parts affected, the conſequence is generally fatal, by producing a dropſy, a hectic, &c. which uſhers in death.

As to the cure, the beſt remedies, where topical applications cannot be admitted, are, a cool air, reſt, a ſparing mild diet given in ſmall quantities at a time, acidulated drinks, nitre & ſal. Glaub. as directed in the hæmoptyſis, and opiates in ſmall doſes; Hoffman adds to theſe, frictions of the feet, and bathing them in warm water. If the diſorder is ſymptomatic, the cure depends chiefly on the removal of the original diſeaſe. Perſons rarely die of *hæmorrhages*, unleſs the large arteries are divided; but thoſe who ſuffer a great loſs of blood fall into a deliquium, and then the *hæmorrhage* ſtops: if the patient is thus left dead, as it were, in a moderately warm room, give only a ſmall quantity of fleſh broth frequently, and thus drooping life may be ſupported, until the divided veſſels contract themſelves and conſolidate. Thoſe who endeavour to recover perſons from the deliquiums which *hæmorrhages* occaſion, by giving cordial liquors, do not reſtore the loſt quantity of fluids, but increaſe the action of the veſſels on their remaining contents, by which more blood is ſtill diſcharged: again, if a large artery is not wounded, or ſuch a one as being affixed to a bone cannot retract itſelf and cloſe, the orifice, by the elaſticity of the veſſel, is contracted and concealed within the lips of the wound. Dr. Hunter recommends to leave all internal *hæmorrhages* to nature; and ſays, that life is ſafe if the patient is permitted to faint.

As to external *hæmorrhages*, which admit of topical aſſiſtance, it may be obſerved, that almoſt all the blood diſcharged from wounds, are diſcharged from the arteries; for pretty large veins, when divided, diſcharge but little blood. Sometimes the bleeding veſſel admits of a compreſs on the ruptured or wounded part; but when this cannot be effectually applied, the needle and ligature are the propereſt means of relief. *Hæmorrhages* in the mouth ſometimes require the actual cautery: but in other caſes eſcharotics are not adviſeable. See Wounds of the arteries. See the word Profusio.

Hæmorrhages from the noſe. In perſons of a ſpungy habit they are copious and frequent; eſpecially if the veſſels are ſmall and numerous. In lean perſons, whoſe veſſels are large, they do not ſo frequently happen; but when they do, they are profuſe. Fernelius obſerves, that "perſons whoſe viſcera and liver are weak and ſcirrhous, are ſubject to frequent *hæmorrhages* of the noſe, as well as dropſical patients."

The cauſes in general are the ſame as in other morbid *hæmorrhages*,

Bleeding at the noſe is often preceded by ſome degree of quickneſs in the pulſe, a flushing in the face, pulſation in the temporal arteries, heavineſs in the head, dimneſs of ſight, heat in the noſtrils, an itching there, &c. All *hæmorrhages*, but eſpecially from the noſtrils, are generally accompanied or preceded by a ſtricture of the ſkin and external parts, a detumeſcence of the veſſels, a refrigeration, laſſitude in the limbs, coſtiveneſs, and pains in the belly.

In many inſtances the loſs of blood by the noſe is ſalutary, as the vertigo, head-ach, epilepſy, dimneſs of ſight, &c. Thoſe who in childhood often bleed at the noſe, when older become ſubject to diſorders in the breaſt, the rheumatiſm, piles, nephritic, or colic pains.

In attempting a cure, it ſhould be remembered, that periodical bleedings at the noſe ſhould not be ſtopped, at leaſt before the patient is much weakened by it, leſt an apoplexy or a lethargy ſhould be the conſequence. What is related above, concerning *hæmorrhages* in general, ſhould be remembered in this particular caſe. Gently purging with the ſal. Glaub. ver. is in this inſtance almoſt a ſpecific; putting the hands and feet in warm water aſſiſts in removing the ſpaſm of the veſſels in the extremities.

When notwithſtanding internal medicines, and doſſils of lint put up the noſtrils, the blood continues to flow from the noſe, the following method, communicated (if I remember right) by a ſurgeon in Birmingham. The hint of this method of ſtopping up the noſtrils and paſſage into the throat, is mentioned alſo in Le Dran's Operations, Caſe vi. in the Remarks, eaſily and effectually puts an end to the complaint. "Take a piece of ſtrong ſewing ſilk, wax it well, and to one end of it faſten a doſſil of lint; then take a piece of catgut (about the ſize of a ſecond ſtring of a violin) and introduce it up the bleeding noſtril; when you perceive it in the mouth, take hold of its end with a forceps, and draw it out thereat, make a knot upon it, and faſten the end of the waxed ſilk to it; then withdraw the catgut back again by the noſtril; take hold of the ſilk, and pull the doſſil of lint into the poſterior noſtril: after which, ſtuff the anterior noſtril full of lint, and thus you certainly ſtop the bleeding. After a few days the lint may be taken away." See Hoffman; and Van Swieten's Comm. on Boer. Aph.

HÆMORRHAGIA. Bleeding at the noſe. It is alſo ſynonymous with profuſio, and in Cullen's Noſology, it ſignifies active or febrile *hæmorrhages*.

HÆMORRHAGIA UTERINA. Exceſſive menſes.

HÆMORRHOIDALE, or Hæmorrhoidalis herba, i. e. Chelidonium minus.

HÆMORRHOIDALES ARTERIÆ. Hæmorrhoidal arteries. They are the external and internal.

HÆMORRHOIDALIS. Hæmorrhoidal fever.

HÆMORRHOIDALIS EXTERNA ARTERIA. See Pudica Communis Arteria.

HÆMORRHOIDALIS INTERNA ARTERIA. See Mesenterica Inferiora Arteria. It ſoon divides into branches, one of which runs down behind the inteſtinum rectum, to which it is diſtributed by ſeveral ramifications, and it communicates with the arteriæ hypogaſtricæ.

HÆMORRHOIDALES EXTERNÆ VENÆ. The external hæmorrhoidal veins. They ſpread about the inteſtinum rectum and anus; and proceed from the hypogaſtricæ venæ: they communicate with the hæmorrhoidales internæ.

HÆMORRHOIDALIS INTERNA VENA. The internal hæmorrhoidal vein; alſo called the leſſer meſaraic vein. It is called hæmorrhoidal, from the tumors often found at its extremity next the anus, which are called hæmorrhoides. It is one of the three great branches of the vena portæ ventralis; though ſometimes it ſprings from the ſplenica: it ſends a branch to the duodenum from near its beginning: then it is divided into two branches, one of which aſcends, the other deſcends; the deſcending branch runs down on the left portion of the colon on its lower incurvations, and on the inteſtinum rectum to the anus. The hæmorrhoidal veins have no valves.

HÆMORRHOIDES, from *αἷμα*, *blood*, and *ῥέω*, *to flow*. The hæmorrhoids, or piles. A diſcharge of blood from the hæmorrhoidal veins is thus named, and is alſo called the open, or bleeding piles: when inſtead of this hæmorrhage there are large tumours, which are generally painful at the lower part of the rectum, they are called the blind piles. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and orders hæmorrhagia. He diſtinguiſhes four ſpecies: 1. Hæmorrhois tumens, when there are external ſwellings on the edge of the anus.

2. Hæmorrhois

2. Hæmorrhois procidens, when the piles are external, and cauſed by a bearing down of the anus. 3. Hæmorrhois fluens, when the piles are internal without external tumor, ot bearing down of the anus. 4. Hæmorrhois cæca, when there are pains and tumor about the anus, and no diſcharge of blood.

From diſſections this diſeaſe ſeems to be an echymoſis in the cellubar membrane of the lower part of the rectum, from the extremities of the neighbouring veſſels: if this be true, it accounts for the great loſs of blood this way, without loſs of ſtrength, for it is gradually emptied into the echymoſis, and it is from thence that it pours out ſo ſeemingly plentifully.

There is ſeldom much diſcharge from the external hæmorrhoidal veſſels, but they readily admit of varices being formed in them, which are painful. But the internal hæmorrhoidal veſſels not only diſcharge a large quantity, but when ſuppreſſed, thoſe diſorders are generated which ariſe from diſorders of the liver, ſpleen, pancreas, meſentery, and inteſtines.

Near the extremity of the inteſtinum rectum, internally, are little jagged proceſſes, ſomewhat like the caruncułæ myrtiformes in the vagina, which are the ſeat of the internal, as well as of the external piles.

Thoſe who are of a lax, ſpongeous habit, and diſpoſed to feed; who eat heartily, and drink freely; who indulge in eaſe; who are habitually coſtive, &c. are the moſt ſubject to this diſorder.

The piles often affect pregnant women, from the preſſure of the uterus on the hæmorrhoidal veins. In all other caſes, the immediate cauſe is a difficult circulation of the blood through the hæmorrhoidal veins, in conſequence of their perpendicular ſituation, and want of valves. The diſcharge happens when the extremities of the veſſels in the inteſtinum rectum are ſo diſtended by the accumulated blood, as to be returned. Whatever generates a redundance of blood, retards its paſſage through the ramifications of the vena portæ, or invites it in too large quantities to the hæmorrhoidal veins, diſpoſes to this complaint. Aloes, garlic, jalap, and even rhubarb in ſome conſtitutions, bring on the piles, by deriving an afflux of humours to their ſeat: aromatic food, ſweet and ſtrong wines, anger, grief, or any violent commotion of body or mind do the ſame.

The blind piles appear in the form of tubercles of different ſizes, from that of a pea, up to a pullet's egg. They are diſtinguiſhed from other tubercles about the anus, by their colour and reſiſtance to the touch, for they appear livid or black, and, when preſſed by the finger, they feel like a bladder filled with water; which circumſtances are not obſerved in other tubercles in the anus, or about it: ſome of theſe are ſoft and not painful, others are hard, painful, and inflamed. This kind of piles generally appear in coſtive habits that are plethoric, and in women that are pregnant, or after difficult labour, or ſuppreſſed menſes. If theſe blind piles burſt, they form the open, or bleeding piles. The blind piles ſometimes cauſe ſuch a ſpaſm in the anus, as renders ſitting difficult, and the adminiſtration of a clyſter impoſſible; and ſometimes give riſe to a fiſtula.

The eruption of the hæmorrhage in the open piles is often preceded by ſpaſmodic ſtrictures, flatulencies, pain about the os ſacrum, and various other ſymptoms, which diſorder the whole frame. In the beginning of exceſſive diſcharges, the blood is black and grumous; after this, it appears of a redder colour, and after this the diſcharge is ſerous and mucous, reſembling the white of egg: at length the ſtrength is impaired, the pulſe is languid and trembling, and a cachexy, an hectic fever, or a dropſy comes on, and the caſe becomes deſperate.

The piles are not always readily diſtinguiſhed; and ſome attention is ſometimes required, leſt they be confounded with the colic, or a dyſentery, or other tumors about the anus.

When the cauſe is a tumor in the liver or ſpleen, a fatal atrophy, or hectic is the conſequence. Exceſſive hæmorrhoidal diſcharges often terminate in dropſies; but if they ſucceed a dropſy from an indurated liver, death is at hand. On the contrary, moderate diſcharges from the hæmorrhoidal veins give great relief to the conſtitution that is oppreſſed by the gout, aſthma, iſchiadic pains, diſeaſes of the kidnies or bladder, hypochondriac, hyſteric, or maniac diſorders, &c. Only thoſe diſcharges of blood from the anus are to be deemed morbid, by which the patient is enfeebled, and the digeſtion, &c. are hurt.

The general indications are, 1. To take off the increaſed impetus to the ſeat of the diſeaſe, by bleeding, and ſmall doſes of ipecacuanha. 2. To induce an aſtriction to the relaxed veſſels; this ſhould be done ſlowly; and to this end, alum is a proper application, or the bark may be uſed, but other vegetable aſtringents are too powerful. 3. To avoid all irritation, by regulating the ſtools.

An incautious uſe of improper diet will render the beſt medicines ineffectual in this diſeaſe; for which reaſon carefully avoid all known cauſes of it, and every accident that can increaſe it.

Bleeding at proper intervals, where there is a ſanguine plethora, will in ſome meaſure prevent the returns, or at leaſt moderate the violence of them; a light diet, that is cooling and laxative, ſhould be kept to; broths and gruels are uſeful, but inflaming liquors ſhould be cautiouſly drank.

When the piles do not bleed, they are attended with conſiderable pain; in which caſe, doſſils of lint, dipped in warm olive oil, may be applied, or other emollient liniment may be ſpread on ſoft rags, and kept on with proper bandages: if the piles are troubleſome by their bulk, dreſs them with a mixture of ſimple lime-water, in which is a ſmall quantity of camphorated ſpirit of wine and a little ſugar of lead.

The bowels muſt be kept lax; and for this end, the elect. e caſſia is far preferable to the elect. lenitiv. ſulphur, and the ol. ricini, are alſo proper laxatives.

If the want of tone in the rectum be a cauſe, chalybeate tinctures, with bitters, and caſcarilla, may be taken for ſome time.

If other diſorders attend, which conduce to the production or continuance of the piles, ſuch remedies as are adapted to their removal, muſt not be omitted.

Forms of medicines, both internal and external, are abundantly preſcribed in thoſe practical authors in common uſe to them; therefore the reader is deſired to ſelect, as circumſtances may ſeem to require.

If the caſe requires the aſſiſtance of a ſurgeon to check the hæmorrhage, a cooling purge may be adminiſtered, and five or ſix hours before the operation, inject a clyſter, then laying the patient with his belly acroſs a bed or table, let an aſſiſtant ſeparate the nates, then the operator may tie up the bleeding veins with a needle and thread; but if there are tubercles, take hold of them with the forceps, and cut them off, tying them up alſo; but be careful to leave the ſmalleſt vein open. If the profuſion ceaſes not thus, apply lint, with proper compreſſes, and the T bandage. If the veins are high in the rectum, diſtend it with a convenient inſtrument until the veins can be come at. If the blind piles encompaſs the anus, ſo as to prevent the diſcharges by ſtool, and to prove otherwiſe troubleſome, remove the largeſt of them by a ligature, which may be tightened daily until the tumor drops off: but before this attempt, let warm ſpirit of wine be uſed, in order to diſperſe it. If the diſtended vein is high and inflamed, open it with a lancet.

See Hoffmann; Heiſter's Inſtitutes; Lobb on painful Diſtempers; Le Dran's Operations; Brooks's and London Practice of Phyſic.

HÆMORRHOIDES EXCEDENTES, i. e. Hæmorrhois tumens.

HÆMORRHOIDES DECOLORATÆ. The Hæmorrhois tumens, when the diſcharge is mucous, not bloody.

HÆMORRHOIDES ALBÆ, i. e. Hæmorrhois decoloratæ.

HÆMORRHOIDES MUCIDÆ, i. e. Hæmorrhois decoloratæ.

HÆMORRHOIS, ſo Dr. Cullen names the hæmorrhoides.

HÆMORRHOIS IMMODICA, i. e. Hæmorrhois tumens.

HÆMORRHOIS POLYPOSA, i. e. Hæmorrhois tumens.

HÆMORRHOIS, ab Exenia, i. e. Hæmorrhois procidens.

HÆMORRHOUS. The name of a poiſonous ſerpent, ſee P. Ægineta, lib. v. cap. 15. Hippocrates calls thoſe

thoſe large veins thus, which, when opened, diſcharge the blood copiouſly.

HÆMOSTASIA. A general ſtagnation of blood from a plethora.

HÆMOSTATICA, from αιμα, *blood*, and ιστημι, *to ſtop*. Medicines which ſtop hæmorrhages.

HÆMOTOICUS, one who ſpits blood, from αιμα, *blood*, πτυω, *to ſpit*.

HÆRMIA. A ſort of Indian fruit like pepper. See Lemery de Drogues.

HAGIOSPERMON, i. e. Santonicum.

HAGIOXYLON, i. e. Guiacum lignum.

HAIMACHATES, i. e. Achates.

HALCHEMIA. The art of fuſing ſalts.

HALCYONIUM. The ſpume or froth of the ſea. It is oily, or bituminous.

HALEC; alſo called harengus, the herring. Pickled herrings are applied to the ſoles of the feet as ſinapiſms are. Freſh ones produce the alkaline putrefaction in the ſtomach, ſo are uſeful when an acid prevails there.

HALICACABUM. See ALKEKENGI & PISUM.

HALICACABUM INDICUM RECTUM. A ſpecies of ſolanum.

HALICACABUM PEREGRINUM. A ſpecies of corindum.

HALICES. Pandiculations after ſleep, or upon awaking.

HALIMUS; called alſo portulaca marina; atriplex maritima anguſtiſſimo folio; common ſea purſlane, and tree ſea purſlane. Dioſcorides tells us, that the leaves are eaten as food; and Actius ſays, the buds are uſed as pickles.

HALINITRON. Nitre.

HALLUCINATIONES. Deceptions, miſtakes: Dr. Cullen places it as ſynonymous with his order of dyſæſtheſiæ.

HALMYRAX. A ſort of nitre produced in the valleys of Media.

HALMYRIS, The name of a ſpecies of a ſea cabbage.

HALMYRODES. Salt, or ſalſuginous. Hippocrates uſes this word as an epithet for ſome fevers, in which, according to Galen, the external parts, when touched, communicate ſuch an itching ſenſation as is perceived from handling ſalt ſubſtances. When applied to the ſkin, it ſignifies a ſort of roughneſs as if it was ſalted. It is alſo an epithet for many excretions that are ſalt and acrimonious.

HALO. In anatomy, it is the areola round the nipples.

HAMMONIACI LACRYMA, i. e. Gum ammoniacum.

HAMUS, or Hamulus. An hooked inſtrument for extracting a dead child from the uterus.

HANDAL, or Handala, i. e. Bitter apple.

HAPSIS. The ſenſe of feeling. It alſo ſignifies connexion with reſpect to bandages. And αψις φρενων, in Hippocrates, ſignifies madneſs, delirium, or loſs of reaſon.

HAPSICORIA. A ſort of loathing. See PICA.

HARMALA. Wild rue.

HARMEL, called alſo harmala; ruta ſylveſtris; harmel, or Aſyrian wild rue. Its leaves are longer and narrower than the common rue; it hath but little ſcent: it grows in Spain, and ſome of the Eaſtern countries; it is rarely uſed, but is much like the common rue in its qualities. Raii Hiſt.

HARMONIA. In anatomy, it is a ſpecies of articulation, and is when two thin bones meet, and lay over each other a little way,

HARMOS. The fleſh that grows betwixt the teeth.

HARONKAHA, i. e. Zedoaria.

HARPAGA. Ambar.

HARPASTRUM. A ſpecies of exerciſe with a ball.

HARPAX. Ambar. Alſo a mixture of quick-lime and ſulphur.

HARROWGATE WATER. It is one of the ſulphureous kind.

HARTFELL WATER. It is one of the ferruginous kind, and is ſaid to keep better than any other of its kind.

HARUNDO. The Indian reed.

HARVEY (Dr. Wm.) In the beginning of the 17th century he diſcovered the circulation of the blood; and introduced, or gave occaſion to be introduced, mechanics into medicine. After him, as eminent, follows Malpighius.

HASACIUM. Sal ammoniac.

HASTA REGIA. The true yellow aſphodel.

HASTELLÆ. Splints uſed in fractures.

HAUD. Wood. The Arabs call the agallochum thus, by way of eminence; it is alſo called haud alcumeri, haud hend, and haud heud.

HAUSTUS. A draught. Draughts differ not from any liquid form, only in their being in ſingle doſes; vomits, purges, opiates, and ſuch others as requires great nicety in determining the doſe.

HAVERI GLANDULÆ. Haver's glands. They are the ſinovial glands, and are thus called, becauſe Haver firſt diſcovered them.

HEAUTONTIMORUMENOS. One who torments or excruciates himſelf.

HEBDOMADARIA. It is one of the febres erraticæ.

HEBE. The hairs which grow upon the pubes; the part on which they grow, or the age when they appear.

HEBISCOS. Marſhmallow.

HECTICA, from εξις, habit. An epithet for a ſpecies of fever. It is alſo named by different writers, the ſymptomatic fever; irregular intermittent fever; fever of ſuppurations, and ſlow fever. Hippocrates deſcribes this fever under the name of phthiſis; Celſus is the firſt who ſpeaks of it under the name of an *hectic* fever, and he directs the cure: what were afterwards called ſlow *hectic* fevers, were among the firſt phyſicians called tabid, or long continued fevers, or maraſmi. At preſent, by ſlow and *hectic* fevers are meant thoſe which are chronical, and continually, by a preternatural, though by a mild and remitting heat, conſume the juices, induce a conſumption, and impair the ſtrength There is a confirmed ſteady health when it is ſaid that there is a good habit of body: and when it is ſaid that there is a *hectic* cough or fever, it is underſtood that the diſorder is not caſual, but permanent, or that it makes a part (as it were) of the conſtitution. Dr. Cullen does not rank this kind of fever as a genus, but conſiders it always as ſymptomatic.

On diſſecting patients whoſe death was the conſequence of an *hectic* fever, there were found abſceſſes in one or other of the viſcera, or ſcirrhous tumors, or thoſe of the ſteatomatous kind; whence it is evidently a ſymptomatic fever.

Lying-in-women, and thoſe in whom the menſes ceaſe, are liable to this diſorder: intemperate drinkers by the injury they do the ſtomach and liver, are very ſubject to it; as are all in whom are diſordered glands, or abceſſes, or ulcers in the internal parts.

The principal cauſe, is the matter of internal ulcers, which is abſorbed into the blood: this matter, according to its quality and quantity, excites a fever more or leſs frequent and violent. The matter, producing this kind of fever, may be formed in any part of the body indifferently, though perhaps the glands of the meſentery may be its moſt frequent ſource. A ſcirrhous gland in any part, almoſt conſtantly excites this fever; hard drinking, by injuring the ſtomach and liver, produces the ſame effect. A ſalivation is ſometimes the cauſe. Dr. Reid, in his Eſſay on the Nature and Cure of the Phthiſis, denies that the abſorption of pus is the cauſe of the fever which attends the pulmonary conſumption. He attributes it to the following cauſe; viz. In a ſtate of health, a very large quantity of perſpirable matter is diſcharged from the ſurface of the lungs: but when the lungs, from inflammation, or the formation of tubercles and vomicæ, are rendered in part impervious to the air in inſpiration, the uſual quantity of fluid cannot be carried off by the action of reſpiration; the quantity ſo retained will remain in the habit, till excreted by ſome other emunctory. That quantity of fluid ſo retained in the habit, he conceives to be the great and principal cauſe of the *hectic* fever, which invariably abates as ſoon as it is diſcharged by the pores of the ſkin: and as the impediment to its exit by the lungs continues, ſo the fever is daily renewed, that the

conſtitution may be relieved from its accumulated burden. He adds, as the lungs become more and more dry and fit for exhaling the uſual quantity of lymph, we find the morning ſweats proportionably increaſed, and the exacerbations of the fever more violent, till towards the cloſe of the diſeaſe, when the patient's ſtrength is ſo exhauſted, and the muſcular force and action of the veſſels ſo much weakened, as probably to be unable to produce ſuch a degree of fever as is neceſſary to force the fluid through the pores of the ſkin; it falls upon the inteſtines, and produces a diarrhœa. From being uſually coſtive, the patient hath frequent motions in a day; till in a ſhort time the purging becomes confirmed: we then find the fever and ſweating conſiderably diminiſhed, and the expectoration of purulent matter in leſs quantity. The quickneſs of the pulſe betwixt the paroxyſms of the fever, he ſuppoſes to have ariſen from the progreſſive inflammation of one ſet of tubercles after another.

Its appearance is like that of an intermittent of an irregular kind, but the pulſe is rarely ſettled to a natural ſtate; but remains quick, though weak; the chillneſs of the hectic fever is not regularly ſucceeded either by a dry heat or ſweat, though one or other of them generally follows it; and the hot fit ſometimes approaches without any ſenſible degree of chillineſs preceding. The ſweat coming on does not ſeem to relieve the patient much; when the ſweat is over, the fever will ſometimes continue; and in the middle of the fever the chillneſs will return, which Dr. Wm. Heberden notes, as a certain ſign of the preſence of this fever. This fever is very irregular in its returns. In the fit, the urine is ſo various, that nothing can be aſcertained from its appearances. When the cauſe is an ulcer on the ſurface of the body, there are often pains which reſemble the rheumatiſm; but theſe pains are generally ſituated very remote from the ulcer which is their original cauſe. A ſudden puffing up of ſome part of the body is ſometimes obſerved in this diſorder, which ſoon ſubſides ſpontaneouſly. For the moſt part its approach is gradual, but its iſſue is not the leſs to be dreaded on that account. The ſkin is dry, the tongue hard and parched, the cheeks flushed, the ſleep is not refreſhing. Hippocrates obſerves, in his Treatiſe de Internis Affectionibus, that, on the approach of the fit, the whole breaſt is pained as far as the back; that a cough is often an attendant, and a quantity of thin ſaline ſaliva is diſcharged: that in the progreſs of the diſeaſe the whole body is emaciated, except that the legs becoming rather tumid, ſeem not much affected; the breathing reſembles a whiſtling through a reed.

Galen ſays, that the pathognomonic ſign is, the fever being increaſed after eating and drinking.

The hectic fever ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the intermittent, the common inflammation, and the ſlow or nervous fevers. Dr. Reid diſtinguiſhes the hectic from a pulmonary conſumption, as differing from the hectic from abſceſſes or ulcers in other parts: the hectic fever occaſioned by abſceſſes in the liver, under the pſoas muſcle, and other parts of the body, he ſays, have not the remiſſions and morning ſweats like the pulmonary hectic; on the contrary, it is continued leſs violent; and the ſkin uſually dry.

If the pulſe runs on to 90, or as ſometimes happens, to 120 in a minute, much danger attends; though ſometimes the pulſe will be unaffected under a variety of other fatal ſymptoms. In laying-in women it is generally fatal; though it muſt be confeſſed that ſome have recovered, when attended with every ſign of a fatal caſe. The fatal ſigns are, a continually weak, quick pulſe, an entire loſs of appetite and ſtrength, an hippocratic countenance, a little red or oily urine made with an hiſſing noiſe, the hair falling off, a diarrhœa, immoderate ſweats, and ſwelling of the feet.

As a variety of circumſtances give riſe to fevers of this kind, a diverſity muſt be expected in the cure.

As far as this diſeaſe is conſidered of the putrid kind, the bark will be that on which relief will principally depend; but if there is no manifeſt ulcer, it does not promiſe much; if it affects the breathing, add to each pint of the infuſion, two or three drams of balſam of Peru. In ſome inſtances, the cort. elutheria is preferable to the bark, and vice verſa.

In moſt caſes the ſole intention is to relieve the ſymptoms, ſuch as moderating the heat, preventing coſtiveneſs and its oppoſite, checking the night ſweats, and at the ſame time to put the body into as good a general health as may be, by exerciſe, air, and a proper diet.

When a ſalivation is the cauſe, a milk diet, with the decoction of guaiacum, is generally ſucceſsful.

Bleeding in ſmall quantities give a temporary relief.

When it follows other diſeaſes, and is attended with a bad digeſtion, internal heat, ſweating in the hands and feet, give an emetic, and repeat it every two or three days: then let the ſal. diuret. with as much rhubarb be given as ſuffices to keep the bowels moderately lax for a few days; and after theſe the bark, joined with bitters, and a nouriſhing diet. The columbo root is here to be preferred.

In cacochymic and ſcorbutic habits, in caſes from a defect of the menſes or hæmorrhoids, or the abuſes of ſpirituous liquors, the Bath waters may be uſed with ſome advantage.

In general, a milk diet is to be preferred. Aſſes milk is the moſt cooling; but in want of it, mix barley water with equal quantities of cow's milk, and let two or three pints be taken in a day. Seltzer water may be uſed with the milk inſtead of barley-water.

Riding is to be regarded, as noticed in the article phthiſis. See Hippocrates de Intern. Affect. Aretæus de Cur. Acut. lib. ii. Fernelius, Hoffman, Shebbear's Theory and Practice of Phyſic, Dr. Wm. Heberden's Obſ. in the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 1—17. Dr. Fordyce's Enquiry into the Cauſes, &c. of putrid Fevers. Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. ii. 221, &c.

HEDERA. Joy.

HEDERA ARBOREA. Common, or tree ivy. It is the hedera helix. Linn. It is an ever-green plant, climbing and ſpreading on old walls and trees; the leaves are angular; the flowers appear in autumn, and are followed in winter by cluſters of black berries.

The leaves are nauſeous to the taſte, are not uſed with us, but are commended by the Germans, as being uſeful in the atrophy of children: the doſe is from ℈ i. to ʒ i. Quercetanus uſed to make an extract from the berries, which he called extractum purgans. From the ſtalks of the plant, a reſinous juice exudes in warm countries, which is called gummi hederæa; it is of a reddiſh brown colour outwardly, and of a bright brown yellow inwardly, of a vitreous gloſſineſs, but not pellucid; when rubbed, it emits a light agreeable ſmell, and is of a reſinous ſubaſtringent taſte: it is chiefly uſed as other reſins in plaſters.

HEDERA TERRESTRIS. Ground-ivy. Called alſo chamæciſſus; chamælema; calamintha humilior; corona terræ; ale-hoof; ſun-hoof; Jack in the hedge; and Gill go-by-the-ground. Glecoma hederacea, or glecoma foliis reniformibus crenatis, floribus ex cœruleo purpureis. Linn. It is a low, hairy, creeping plant, with ſquare ſtalks; roundiſh, or kidney-ſhaped leaves ſet in pairs at the joints; the flowers are bluiſh and labiated; the upper lip is cloven, and turned backwards; it is common in hedges and ſhady places; it flowers in April, and moſt of the warm months after, and is generally found greeniſh all the winter. There are four ſpecies.

This herb hath a quick, bitteriſh, warm taſte, an aromatic, but not very agreeable ſmell, which is in a great meaſure diſſipated by drying. It is ſuppoſed to be uſeful in diſorders of the breaſt, and is an attenuant. Dr. Pitcairn ſpeaks highly of it in conſumptions. Ale, in which ground-ivy is infuſed, is rendered very fine by it, and is called gill-ale. It gives out its virtue moſt perfectly to water by infuſion, on inſpiſſating the filtered liquor, only the unpleaſant ſmell is diſſipated. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

HEDRA. The anus; alſo the excrements thence voided; it ſometimes ſignifies the baſis of an abſceſs, or that part which is ſubjected to that which is converted into matter. Hippocrates ſometimes uſes this word to ſignify a ſpecies of fracture.

HEDRICOS. An epithet for remedies appropriated to the anus.

HEDYCHROI. A name for certain troches. Their compoſition is in ſome of our later diſpenſatories.

HEDYOSMOS. A name of mint, on account of its ſweet ſmell.

HEDYPNOIS. Boerhaave mentions four ſpecies: it is ſaid to agree with ſuccory in its virtues, but is not of any note in medicine.

HEDYPNOIS. A name of the dens leonis.

HEDYSARUM. French honey-ſuckle. Boerhaave mentions eight ſpecies; they are ſaid to be deobſtruent and vulnerary, but do not obtain in practice.

HEDYSARUM, i. e. Errum; alſo fœnum Græcum ſylveſtre.

HEDYSARUM GLYCYRRHIZATUM. Liquorice vetch.

HEDYSMATA. See STYMMATA.

HELCYDRION. A ſmall ulcerous puſtule.

HELCYSTER, from ελκω, *to draw*. An hook for extracting the fœtus.

HELEAGNUS. A ſpecies of gale.

HELENIASTRUM. Baſtard elecampane. Miller takes notice of two ſorts. They are natives of America, but not remarkable for medicinal qualities.

HELENIUM, i. e. Enula.

HELENIUM CANADENSE. Some ſpecies of ſun-flower are thus named.

HELENIUM INDICUM. A name of ſome ſpecies of ſun-flower; alſo of potatoes.

HELEOSELINUM, i. e. Apium.

HELIANTHEMUM. Potatoes; alſo chamæciſtus; a ſpecies of ſun-flower.

HELICALIS MAJOR. A ſmall muſcle, which only acts upon the cartilage of the ear. See AURICULA.

HELICALIS MINOR. A muſcle of the external ear. See AURICULA.

HELICHRYSUM, from ηλιος, *the ſun*, and χρυσος, *gold*. Goldylocks. See ELICHRYSUM.

HELICHRYSUM. See GNAPHALIUM.

HELICHRYSUS, i. e. Amarantus.

HELIDÆI (PULV.) See EUPHRASIA.

HELIOCHRYSON. Some ſpecies of goldilocks. See ELICHRYSUM.

HELIOCHRYSUM. Golden cudweed. See GNAPHALIUM.

HELIOSCOPIOS. Sun-ſpurge.

HELIOTROPIUM. Turnſole, or heliotrope. Botaniſts enumerate ten or eleven ſpecies; but they are not much uſed medicinally. The flowers of this kind of plants are funnel-ſhaped; their brims are cut into ten unequal ſegments; they are collected into a long reflexed ſpike, reſembling a ſcorpion's tail; each flower is followed by four naked gibboſe ſeeds.

HELIOTROPIUM MAJUS. The great turnſole. Its leaves are bitter; they give a deep red colour to blue paper. The juice of this plant deſtroys warts; a decoction of it is ſaid to purge off pituitous humours.

HELIOTROPIUM TRICOCCUM; called alſo ricinoides; French, or colouring turnſole. This ſpecies grows plentifully in France; the leaves are of a pale green, almoſt of an aſh colour; the flowers are yellow: when the berries are expreſſed, linen rags are dipped in the juice, and then expoſed to the vapour of urine, which gives them a red colour. The colour of turnſole is extremely ſuſceptible of alteration in acids, which, according to their ſtrength, give different degrees of redneſs to it. Alcaline ſalts do not affect it. See Raii Hiſt. Plant.

HELIOTROPIUM; called alſo heliotropius; lapis porraceus guttatim, &c. heliotrope, or common bloodſtone.

It is an opake gem, of a green colour, marked with bloody ſpots or veins.

HELIOTROPIUM INDICUM. Potatoes.

HELITIS, i. e. Squama æris.

HELIX. A ſpiral line, from ελιω, *to turn*. The external circle or border of the outer ear.

HELLEBORASTER, HELLEBORASTRUM, or HELLEBORINE. Bear's-foot. See HELLEBORUS.

HELEBORIZE. Hippocrates and others after him uſed, prepared hellebore, which they introduced into the rectum, both for vomiting and purging, which they made ſtronger or weaker as they required, and the vomiting purging, or both, produced thus, they called helleboriſing.

HELLEBOROIDES. The leaves are like thoſe of the aconitum; but in general it agrees both in appearance and virtues with black hellebore.

HELLEBORO-RANUNCULUS. The leaves are ſingle, and roundly turned like thoſe of the ranunculus. They are of the ſame colour with the flower. The flower is roſaceous. It is ſaid to be cauſtic.

HELLEBORUS, from ελλειν βορα, *to kill by eating*. This name is applied to ſeveral roſaceous flowered plants.

HELLEBORUS NIGER HORTENSIS FLORE VIRIDI; called alſo helleboraſter minor; helleboraſtrum; pegwort, and bear's-foot.

HELLEBORASTRUM; called alſo helleborus niger fœtidus; helleboraſter maximus; conſiligo; great baſtard black hellebore; fetid black hellebore; ſettle-wort, or ſetter-wort. This plant runs up higher than the bear's-foot, with which it is generally confounded; but this hath white flowers with a purple edge, and is poiſonous: whereas the bear's-foot hath green flowers, and is more ſalutary. Theſe plants are uſed for deſtroying worms in children, but are not very ſafe. Perhaps the moſt uſeful and ſafe inſtance of their uſefulneſs, is to ſprinkle the powder of them in iſſues, to increaſe their diſcharge. They grow wild in ſhady places. See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Raii Hiſt. Pl.

HELLEBORUS ALBUS; alſo called veratrum; common white hellebore. Veratrum album, or veratrum album ſibircum, racemo ſupra de compoſito, corollis exalbidis erectis, caule ramoſo. Linn. This plant hath large, oval, ribbed leaves, placed alternately on a round ſtalk, which they embrace by a tubulous baſis; in their boſoms, towards the top, appears cluſters of hexapetalous, greeniſh white flowers, followed each by three flat pods, containing whitiſh, triangular ſeeds; the root is ſhort, commonly near an inch thick, with numerous fibres hanging from it: externally it is of a browniſh colour, but internally much more white. It is common on mountainous places in Germany, Switzerland, &c. It is not certain that our hellebore is the ſame as the ancients, though generally this ſpecies is thought to be ſo.

When the root of white hellebore is freſh, it hath a diſagreeable ſmell, which is loſt in drying; to the taſte it is nauſeous, bitteriſh, acrid, penetrating, and durable. When powdered it is uſed externally againſt ſome cuticular eruptions, and for deſtroying cutaneous inſects; but if applied to any ſore, it excites vomiting and other diſagreeable ſymptoms; ſnuffed up the noſe it proves a violent ſternutatory. If the powder is taken from gr. x. to xv. it operates powerfully both upward and downward, but except in maniac caſes it is rarely uſed. If on taking this root it does not work off freely, give an emetic to bring it upwards, or it will probably produce convulſions. Hoffman obſerves that it affects the fauces, producing ſtrangulation and danger of ſuffocation, with great anxiety; and he recommends the juice of quinces as the cure.

Tinctura Veratri. Tincture of white Hellebore.

Take of powdered white hellebore roots, eight ounces; of proof ſpirit, two pints. Digeſt and filter through paper.

This is the beſt internal preparation. It is given to actuate cathartics, &c. in apoplectic, lethargic, and maniac caſes. In chronical diſorders it might be uſed to great advantage, if ſmall doſes were begun with, and gradually increaſed.

The London college directs a mel helleboratum, but it is rarely uſed, becauſe of the uncertainty of its ſtrength; ʒ i. or ʒ ii. is a common doſe. Geſner in his treatiſe on this plant ſays, that an oxymel with the root is a powerful expectorant, and opens all the natural ſecretions.

HELLEBORUS NIGER, called alſo veratrum nigrum, melampodium, Chriſtmas flower, black hellebore.

It is the helleborus niger, or helleborus ſcapo ſubbifloro ſubnudo, foliis pedatis. Linn. The Chriſtmas roſe.

It is called melampodium, from Melampus, who was the firſt that uſed it in medicine. He obſerved its purging quality

quality in the goats which fed on it, and thence introduced it into the materia medica. It is a low plant, without any other ſtalk than the pedicles of the leaves and flowers; the leaf is divided quite to the pedicle, into ſix, ſeven, or more ſmooth, firm ſegments, reſembling bay-leaves, indented from about the middle to the extremity; the flower is large, naked, pentapetalous, of a pale roſe-colour, with numerous ſtamina in the middle, which are followed by five or ſix pods full of ſhining black ſeeds, the petala continuing and changing greeniſh; the root conſiſts of numerous fibres, hanging generally from a knotty head, externally of a blackiſh colour, internally white. It is perennial, grows wild in the mountainous parts of Germany, Switzerland, &c. It flowers in our gardens in January.

The root is the part in uſe. In doſes from gr. x. to ʒ ſs. it purges. The hellebore of the ancients is generally believed to have been a more active kind than ours. In the preſent practice the black hellebore root is only uſed in ſmall doſes as an attenuant and deobſtruent. Its peculiar and principal uſe is in obſtructions of the menſes, when the habit is plethoric, and the conſtitution ſanguine, in which caſe, ferruginous preparations would be improper; it promotes urine and perſpiration; in hypochondriac diſorders, it may be joined with chalybeates, and if the pulſe is low, add the fetid gums, with a julep of volatile ſalt; in dropſies it is uſeful, if joined with lixivial ſalts. In all nervous caſes which do not admit of chalybeates, its advantages are conſiderable.

To the taſte this root is bitter and pungent; if chewed for a few minutes it benumbs the tongue. Dr. Grew obſerves, that it is firſt felt on the tip of the tongue, and then on its middle. The fibres are ſtronger, and more active than the tuberous head, and the cortical part of this than the internal. It frequently loſes its virtue by long keeping; and when it hath loſt its ſmell it is good for nothing.

The roots of the poiſonous aconites reſemble thoſe of black hellebore, but are diſtinguiſhed by their colour; the aconitum being lighter coloured than the paleſt black hellebore roots; therefore, for ſafety, chuſe the darkeſt coloured.

Long coction deſtroys the active parts of theſe roots; water extracts by boiling, and ſpirit by digeſtion, nearly all the virtue of the root. Rectified ſpirit takes up chiefly the irritating reſinous part. After due coction in water it gives out little to ſpirit; but after repeated digeſtion in pure ſpirit, it yields to water a large portion of mucilaginous diuretic matter.

The London college directs a watery extract, and a tincture with proof ſpirit. The extract is a good and ſafe preparation when deſigned for a cathartic; it contains alſo all the diuretic part; the irritating power is in a good degree deſtroyed by boiling. The doſe is from gr. x. to ʒ ſs. but as an alterative the tincture is far preferable, for it poſſeſſes the whole virtue of the roots. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Tournefort's Mat. Med. Lewis's Mat. Med.

HELLEBORUS. A name of the female ſanicle.

HELLEBORUS NIGER SANICULÆ FOLIO, i. e. Imperatoria Helminthagoga, or Helminthica, i. e. Anthelminthica.

HELMONT (Van.) He introduced chemiſtry into medicine; he was followed by Silv. de la Boe, and Tachenius, and now acids, alkalies, &c. were the ſole principles of medicine, almoſt; but after them aroſe the celebrated Harvey, whom ſee.

HELOCAPOLLIN. A ſort of cherry. See Capollin.

HELODES, from ἕλος, *a fen*. An epithet for certain fevers, attended in the beginning with profuſe but uſeleſs ſweats. The ſudor Anglicus is of this kind. It is the ſame as the Typhodes, which ſee.

HELOSIS. A diſorder of the eye, conſiſting in an everſion or turning up of the eye-lids.

HELOTIS, i. e. Plica Polonica.

HELW. LITHOGR. The abbreviation of M. G. A. Helwing, Lithographia.

HELXINE. A name for the parietaria, and a ſpecies of convolvulus.

HEMALOPIA. Sight divided into two. A ſpecies of pſeudoblepſis.

HEMERALOPS, from ἡμέρα, *a day*, and ὤψ, *the eye*. A defect in the ſight, which conſiſts in being able to ſee in the day time only, but not in the evening.

HEMERIS, i. e. Quercus, cum longo pediculo.

HEMEROCALLIS. Red lily.

HEMEROLOPIA. Blindneſs in the night. A ſort of pſeudoblepſis.

HEMICERAUNIOS. The name of a bandage, in Galen, for the back and breaſt.

HEMICRANIA, from ἡμισυ, or ἡμι, *half*, and κρανιον, *the ſkull*. A pain in only one ſide of the head. It is called megrim.

HEMICRANIA LUNATICA. A kind of febris erratica.

HEMIOBOLION, or Hemiobolon. Half an obolus.

HEMIOLION. The ſame as ſeſquialtera. But in Galen de C. M. S. L. it particularly ſignifies an ounce and half.

HEMIONIS, from ἡμιονος, *a mule*. Mule's dung.

HEMIONITIS. Mule's fern. It grows in Italy. It reſembles the hart's tongue in appearance and virtues.

HEMIONIUM. A name for the aſplenium.

HEMIPAGIA, i. e. Hemicrania.

HEMIPLEGIA, from ἡμισυ, *half*, and πλησσω, *to ſtrike*. Dr. Cullen arranges it as that ſpecies of palſy, in which one ſide or the other of the body is affected. It uſually begins with, or follows a paroxyſm of apoplexy; and when the *hemiplegia*, after ſubſiſting for ſome time, becomes fatal, it is commonly by paſſing again into the ſtate of apoplexy. The relation, therefore, or affinity between the two diſeaſes, is ſufficiently evident, and is further ſtrongly confirmed by this, that the *hemiplegia* comes upon perſons of the ſame conſtitution, and is preceded by the ſame ſymptoms that are obſerved in caſes of apoplexy.

HEMIPLEXIA, i. e. Hemiplegia; or, as ſome ſay, when half of the body is affected as in the apoplexy.

HEMIRHOMBION, or Hemitomon. A ſort of bandage mentioned by Hippocrates, called alſo ſemirhombus, from its figure.

HEMITRITÆUS, from ἡμισυ, *half*, and τριτος, *third*, or *tertian*. It is the ſame as ſemitertiana.

HEPAR. HEPER. Martinius and Gorrœus derive it from ἑπειν, *to work*, and ἑαρ, *blood*; upon a ſuppoſition it was to prepare the blood. The liver. See Jecur.

HEPAR UTERINUM, i. e. The placenta.

HEPALALGIA. Inflammation, or pain in the liver or its region.

HEPATARIUS. Hepatic.

HEPATEROS, from ἡπαρ, *the liver*. It is an epithet for a ſort of dyſentery, in which an aqueous blood is excreted.

HEPATICA. Liverwort. Alſo a pain in the region of the liver.

HEPATICA VULGARIS, called alſo lichen petræus latifolius, hepatica fontana, hepatica terreſtris, jecoraria, hepatica ſtellata. Stone, or ſtar liver-wort. It is a ſpecies of moſs; it grows in moiſt ſtony places; it is perennial, and runs up to ſeed in March and April. It is ſaid to be aperient and reſolvent, but it is very little known in practice.

HEPATICA NOBILIS, called alſo hepatica alba, trifolium aureum, hepatica trifolia, herba trinitatis, trifolium hepaticum, ranunculus tridentatus vernus, hepatica. Herb trinity, and noble liverwort. It is the anemone *hepatica*, Linn. It is a low plant, without any other ſtalk than the pedicles of the leaves and flowers; the flower is commonly blue, ſometimes reddiſh or white, and are followed by white ſeeds. It is perennial, grows in gravelly ſhady grounds in Germany and other parts of Europe. It flowers in our gardens in March, or ſooner.

This plant is eſteemed a mild reſtringent and corroborant, and infuſions of it are ſometimes drank as tea. Its aſtringent matter is equally diſſolved in water or ſpirit, and wholly remains in the extract made by inſpiſſating the infuſion or tincture over a gentle fire. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Raii Hiſt.

HEPATICA ALBA. A name of the parnaſſia.

HEPATICA ARTERIA. The hepatic artery. As ſoon as this artery leaves the cœliaca, it runs to the upper and inner part of the pylorus. Sending off two branches, a ſmall one called pylorica, and a larger one called gaſtrica dextra,

dextra, or gaſtrica maior. Having ſent out theſe two, it advances behind the ductus *hepaticus*, towards the veſica fellis, to which it gives two branches, called arteriæ cyſticæ, and another called bilaria, which are loſt in the great lobe of the liver. Afterwards this artery enters the fiſſure of the liver, and joins the vena portæ, with which it runs in the capſula Gliſſonii, and accompanies it through the whole ſubſtance of the liver by numerous ramifications, which may be termed arteriæ *hepaticæ* propriæ.

HEPATICA BRACHII, (Vena). See Basilica Vena.

HEPATICA MINOR, (Vena). A branch from the vena portæ ventralis. Or, ſometimes it is a branch of the cyſticæ venæ.

HEPATICA STELLARIS, i. e. Aſperula.

HEPATICÆ VENÆ. They ſpring directly from the vena cava inferior, as it paſſes down through the poſterior part of the great fiſſure of the liver. Sometimes theſe branches riſe from the vena cava by one main branch, and then divide. Theſe correſpond with the venæ portæ. The vena cava alſo ſends others, which correſpond with the *hepatic* artery.

HEPATICO-CYSTICI DUCTUS. That ſide of the body of the gall-bladder which lies next the liver, is connected to that bowel by a vaſt number of filaments which run a great way into the ſubſtance of the liver; and among theſe filaments there are ſome ducts which form a communication between the pori bilarii and gall-bladder. Theſe ducts are the moſt numerous about the neck of the bladder.

HEPATICUS. Hepatic, from ἧπαρ, *liver*. It is an epithet for any thing belonging to the *liver*. The antients confined the word to an inflammation of the *liver*; but the moderns uſe it to ſignify thoſe perſons whoſe *livers* are diſordered from any cauſe.

HEPATICUS DUCTUS. See Portæ Venæ.

HEPATICUS FLOS. A name for the parnaſſia paluſt. & vulg.

HEPATIRRHŒA. A ſpecies of diarrhœa, which ſee. All other *hepatirrhœas* are ſymptomatical.

It is that ſpecies of diarrhœa, in which a crude and ſerous diſcharge is very frequent and without pain.

HEPATIRRHŒA INTESTINALIS, i. e. Diarrhœa hepatirrhœa.

HEPATITES. Pliny ſays it is a precious ſtone, and ſhaped like the liver.

HEPATITIS. An inflammation of the liver.

An inflammation may be in different parts of the liver, as in the membranes only, or in its ſubſtance; in the concave or the convex ſide thereof, &c. Inflammation in the hepatic arteries is ſaid to cauſe ſome ſymptoms not unlike thoſe of the hydrophobia. See Hippocrates Coac. lib. cxxxix. Aretæus de Cur. Acut. lib. i. and Trallianus, lib. i. c. xv.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order phlegmaſiæ. This diſeaſe ſeems to be of two kinds, viz. acute and chronical.

Winſlow ſays, that the ſeat of inflammation in the liver is in the ramifications of the vena portæ, or the hepatic artery; but Dr. Heberden gives it as his opinion, that the inflammation is firſt in ſome of thoſe parts to which the liver is contiguous, and ſo is communicated to it from them. Dr. Cullen aſſerts, that the inflammation is only in the extremities of the hepatic arteries.

The acute *hepatitis* may be ſeated either on the convex or on the concave ſide of the liver. In the former caſe, a more pungent pain and hiccup may be produced, and the reſpiration is more conſiderably affected. In the latter, there occurs leſs pain, and a vomiting is produced, commonly by ſome inflammation communicated to the ſtomach. The inflammation of the concave ſurface of the liver, may be readily communicated to the gall-bladder and bilious ducts; and this perhaps is the only caſe of idiopathic *hepatitis*, attended with jaundice.

This diſorder is moſt frequent in warm climes; it is produced by the common cauſes of internal inflammation, and by obſtruction of the hepatic ducts, or of the ductus communis choledochus. It ſometimes ariſes at the beginning of a fever, as other internal inflammations. Dr. Cullen obſerves, that the remote cauſes of *hepatitis* are not always to be diſcerned.

When the ſeat of the diſorder is in the membranes, the pain is more acute, and it reſembles a pleuriſy more than when the ſubſtance of the liver is the part affected. In this acute kind, the pain is pungent, the fever very conſiderable, the pulſe is frequent, ſtrong, and hard, and the urine is high coloured.

In general when the ſubſtance of the liver is inflamed, a pain is perceived there, which is not often very acute, at the firſt, but gradually increaſing it ſhoots up to the top of the left ſhoulder, and ſometimes into the throat and about the clavicle. Some reckon the pain darting into the throat to be the pathognomonic ſymptom. The pulſe is not much altered in the beginning, if there is not much fever, which ſometimes is the caſe during the firſt days, and indeed during the whole of the time of inflammation in many inſtances; in which caſes the inflammation is only known to have happened, by the conſequent abſceſs in the liver. In this chronical kind, it ſometimes happens that very little diſeaſe is obſerved until the ſuppuration takes place. When the ſwelling is large, or when the convex part of the liver is affected, a tumor is viſible externally, and occaſions a cough, a difficulty of breathing; the pulſe then is quickened, and the patient cannot well lay on his left-ſide. When the inflammation chiefly affects the concave, in proportion as it is near the ſtomach, it brings on ſickneſs, thirſt, hiccough, and vomiting; or if near the hepatic ducts, or the ductus communis choledochus, it prevents the paſſage of the bile into the duodenum, and the ſymptoms of a jaundice appear; but in all caſes of inflammation in this viſcus, the quantity of the bile thrown into the duodenum is increaſed, and the evacuations become bilious.

Dr. Cullen ſays, that the acute *hepatitis* may be known by a pain more or leſs in the right hypochondrium, increaſed by preſſing upon the part. The pain is very often in ſuch a part of the ſide as to make it appear as that of a pleuriſy, and frequently, like that, is increaſed on inſpiration. The diſeaſe is ſometimes alſo attended with a cough, which is commonly dry, but ſometimes humid. When the pain thus reſembles that of apoplexy, the patient cannot lie eaſily, except upon the ſide affected. In every kind of acute *hepatitis*, the pain is often extended to the clavicle, and to the top of the ſhoulders. The diſeaſe is attended ſometimes with hiccup, and ſometimes with vomiting. The jaundice is often mentioned as a conſtant ſymptom of the *hepatitis*; but experience ſhews that the diſeaſe may often occur without this ſymptom.

The importance of this ſubject, particularly to thoſe who may be ſituated where their actual attention to it is required, will, it is hoped, apologize for ſeeming repetition, when improvement in the deſcription and cure of this diſeaſe, are the attending advantages. Mr. Mathews, in his excellent obſervations on *hepatic* diſeaſes, ſays, that the diagnoſtics of this diſeaſe vary conſiderably in different conſtitutions. It is not only in the firſt attack of the diſorder, that we are to form our opinion reſpecting the certainty of the complaint, but in the ſecond alſo; for men who are in the zenith of health are more frequently affected with the diagnoſtics of the ſecond ſtate, than with the ſymptoms of the prior; and although in the healthy, the modes of the diſorder are the ſame, yet, according to the ſtrength of the afflicted perſon, we find the ſymptoms more or leſs violent. Thus a robuſt, athletic man, will have the ſymptoms in every ſtage of the diſeaſe much more violent on him, than a thin perſon, whoſe frame is more irritable. Thoſe who are of a coſtive habit of body generally ſuffer very much by this complaint, and frequently after the cure, are ſubject to ſanguinary drainings from the hæmorrhoidal veſſels. Men who are reduced by diſeaſes, or by medicines for imaginary evils, are always attacked by this diſorder in a regular manner, and are generally relieved before the ſecond or final effects take place; therefore, to be well acquainted with the various approaches and progreſs of the complaint, it is neceſſary to diſtinguiſh the ſymptoms as they occur in an enervated habit, which may be divided into two claſſes, the firſt of which, attended with inflammation and pain, is removed by evacuations and mercury; the ſecond, that originates in obſtructions of this viſcus, with all its alarming ſymptoms, is cured by mercury only: then we will remark the diagnoſtics peculiar to the healthy and vigorous, which

may be alſo claſſed in the former, with this difference, that the ſecond ſtage of the afflicted becomes the firſt in the healthy, and is cured by the like means: the ſecond, or final period in the healthy patient, is ſuppuration or ſchirrus; the method of cure the ſame. The ſymptoms of the firſt ſtate of the diſeaſe, in the reduced habit, conſequent on medicine, or the effects of a bilious remitting fever, are a great flatulency in the ſtomach, with ſour and fetid eructations; putrid and hot borborygmi; acute pains in the muſcles of the thighs and legs; drowſineſs, particularly after taking any nouriſhment, with univerſal laſſitude and inactivity; in the morning, an inclination to vomit, and ſometimes a little frothy bilious fluid is brought off; a ſevere periodical pain in the right lumbar region, ſtretched along the ſpermatic chord, frequent deſire of making water, which is always crude and pale. In thoſe who have a ſmall abdomen and large thorax, the pain of the loins does not follow, but a dull fixed pain under the enſiform cartilage, with tenſion of the recti muſcles; frequent ſneezings, and a plenitude about the epigaſtric region; the pulſe generally tenſe, ſmall, and rather full, ſometimes riſing to the natural ſtate; the ſkin hot and dry, and the circle of the hepatic region remarkably heated. This is the deſcription of the early part of the diſeaſe, which, if properly attended to, may generally be prevented from running into the ſecond ſtage. But if from ſome cauſe, the diſorder gets worſe, the next effects will follow, and muſt be treated accordingly. This, though tedious and alarming, ſeldom proves fatal, and is thus diſtinguiſhed; a rotundity of the hepatic region, with great pain under the falſe ribs, and the liver very ſenſible to the touch; a ſlight, dry, hectic cough; oppreſſive ſighing, and great difficulty to read, or repeat long ſentences; frequent periodical purgings, attended with griping in the umbilical region; depraved appetite, vagrant pains on the right ſide of the thorax, with laborious reſpiration, particularly when by accident a larger quantity of air than uſual is received into the lungs; total inability of blowing the noſe, followed by acute pains in the diaphragm and inferior parts of the ſcapula; inflammation of the eyes, with ſmall, quick, tenſe pulſe; an univerſal parched dry ſkin, with inſatiable thirſt; a contraction of the right pectoral muſcle, and an aptneſs to incline the body forward; tremor of the hands, and a remarkable pale whiteneſs of the nails; the urine voided in ſmall quantities, and ſeldom; though always exceedingly high coloured and hot. Theſe are the moſt material indications of a fixed *hepatitis* in the female habit, which, according to the age or ſtrength of the patient, will be more moderated or increaſed. We now come to that mode of the *hepatitis* which acts on the body of a healthy, vigorous man, reducing him in a few days to the moſt feeble ſtate. It hath been before noticed, that the ſecond ſtage of the valetudinarian is the firſt of the healthy; but we are alſo to remark, that the diagnoſtics of this period in this caſe are amazingly more acute and rapid than in the former; but in one day all this train of evils will be complained of, but in the other, the complicated ſymptoms move ſlowly. We next deſcribe the final ſtage of the diſeaſe, by deſcribing it as operating on the body of an healthy perſon. The diagnoſtics of this diſorder are very violent and ſevere; grievous pains in the forehead; ſtaring wildneſs of the eyes; exceeding acute fixed pain under the ribs, extended to the right pap; hard laborious cough, and by reclining the body forward, in the action of ſtooping, an immediate inclination to vomiting follows, with a ſtupid dizzineſs, and a reflection of green rays; but the patient on reſuming an erect poſture, in a few minutes recovers his ſight; the urine is rendered in ſmall quantities, turbid, and of a ſaffron colour, the breathing ſhort and oppreſſively heavy, with frequent ſingultus, and an univerſal parched heat over the body; total loſs of appetite and perſpiration; coſtive and inſatiably thirſty; ſtartings and twitchings of the muſcular ſyſtem; the countenance remarkably pale, with a black maſs ſurrounding the mouth and the eyes, tinged with an inflammatory yellowneſs; the right ſide of the abdomen conſiderably enlarged, very denſe and hard, and, if forcibly preſſed, occaſioning a pain in the ſcapula, and an inſtantaneous ſickneſs, with coughing and ſneezing; the pulſe ſmall, hard, and quick, frequently flattering, and very often the vibrations are not to be diſtinctly felt; then inſtantly falling and riſing to almoſt the natural ſtate, and again returning and ſinking as before; amazing periodical tremor of the hands, and in ſome plethoric thin habits, the ankles are puffed and ſwelled; thoſe who do not cough much, have always a great diſcharge of acrimonious fluid from the noſe, with continual ſpitting, ſometimes accompanied with large ulcerous blotches in the mouth and tonſils. In this mature ſtate of the diſorder, the patient can reſt on either ſide, but not on his back, without being immediately affected with incubus; but in the leſs advanced ſtate of it, or after plentiful evacuations, this is a common ſymptom, and is occaſioned by the ſize and weight of the liver, which when lying on the left ſide, falls down from the diaphragm, and rends the adheſion, or ſtretches the acreted part, either of which will occaſion the ſymptom; but in the former caſe, the liver is ſo much increaſed in ſize, that there is not ſufficient room in the abdomen for this accident to occur, which reaſoning will hold good alſo before the adheſions have taken place, or before the bulk of the liver is conſiderable. The ſeverity of the diſeaſe does not always depend upon the immediate ſize of the liver, but frequently on that of the gall-bladder, or ducts, or the adheſions formed to the diaphragm, which is always the caſe when the upper or gibbous portion of the liver is the ſeat of the diſeaſe. When the ſymptoms are ſevere, without any apparent enlargement on the right ſide of the abdomen, with little tenſion and hardneſs, yet, on preſſing the liver, a ſickneſs, cough, &c. are brought on, it is a certain and manifeſt teſtimony that the diſeaſe is ſituated about the region of the gall-bladder, and that the bladder with the bilious ducts are principally affected; but when the liver is in the large ſtate before related, it is the actual bulky ſubſtance of that viſcus which is diſeaſed. Sometimes the belly is univerſally ſwelled, with pain in the umbilical region; this originates from the entire maſs of liver being affected, and occupying a great portion of the left abdominal ſphere; when the ſuppuration is matured, and breaks out with ſevere coughing and moſt copious ſpitting, the mercurial courſe will be improper. The great object now is, to ſupport with nutritious food and emollient ptiſans. This is the firſt ſtate of the *hepatitis* that does not admit of a cure by mercury; and it is worth notice, that medical aſſiſtance in the firſt appearance of the diſorder will ſometimes intirely prevent the fatality of it. The ſecond ſtate of the *hepatitis*, which does not require mercury, is, where the matter points outwards; when the ſuppuration is in the ſuperior part of the liver, it appears in a conical form, but when the collection is lower down, and tends externally, the tumor is of a round, flat ſhape; both may be diſtinguiſhed by the great fluctuations in them, and their yielding ſo readily to gentle preſſure, without creating pain.

Inflammation in the liver may terminate by reſolution, &c. but moſt frequently it ends in a ſuppuration, and ſo proves fatal by bringing on an incurable hectic fever, though when the matter can be diſcharged externally a cure may be expected. If properly treated in the beginning, it is rarely mortal.

The reſolution of the *hepatitis* is often the conſequence of, or is attended with evacuations of different kinds. An hæmorrhage, ſometimes from the eyes, ſometimes from the hæmorrhoidal veſſels, gives a ſolution of the diſeaſe. Sometimes a bilious diarrhœa contributes to the ſame event; and the reſolution of the *hepatitis*, as of the other inflammations, is attended with ſweatings, and with an evacuation of urine, depoſiting a copious ſediment.

This kind of inflammation ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from inflammation of the pleura, of the diaphragm, of the ſtomach, and of the muſcles of the belly, alſo from ſpaſmodic pains.

The ſymptoms in the beginning do not much alarm the patient, whence early aſſiſtance is not always required. However, if called in before the fifth day, bleed, and repeat the operation; if the ſymptoms do not ſoon ſubſide, the ſtrength of the patient, and other attendant circumſtances, will determine the quantity of blood to be taken away, and the frequency of repeating the operation. After a free bleeding, a large bliſter may be laid over the part affected. This done, if there is a free paſſage for

the bile into the duodenum, keep the bowels lax with proper doſes of tart. emit. cum pulv. rhab. vel infuſ. tamarind, cum ſal Glaub. &c. In other caſes, the pulv. antimon. hauſt. ſalin. and ſuch other antiphlogiſtics as are generally uſeful againſt internal inflammations; but in all caſes, bliſtering, as juſt named, is neceſſary.

If theſe means fail, or if it is too late for their proper uſe, and the ſymptoms of a beginning ſuppuration are manifeſt, begin with the bark, give ʒ ſs. of the powder four or five times a day, and increaſe the quantity, until ℥ ſs. is taken every twenty-four hours.

If the abſceſs points externally, encourage it by maturating cataplaſms, and open it as ſoon as poſſible, particularly if from its immobility the liver ſeems to adhere to the peritoneum, and then the bark may be given to two ounces in twenty-four hours, if the ſtomach will retain it, and thus proceed until a good ſuppuration appears. If from purulent or ichorous ſtools, it is evident that the abſceſs is burſt into the duodenum; or from other ſymptoms, that it hath made its way into the cavity of the belly, the ſame methods may be uſed, though the ſame effects cannot be ſo fully expected.

In the Eaſt-Indies, it is uſual after bleeding to excite a ſalivation, and ſupport it according to the ſtrength of the patient; but the bark ſeems to be a preferable method. A looſeneſs coming on anſwers as well as a ſpitting.

See Dr. Pringle on the Diſeaſes of the Army; Dr. Fordyce's Elements, part the ſecond; Dr. Brooks's, and the London Practice of Phyſic; Dr. Cullen's Noſology; and his Practice of Phyſic; Mathews on Hepatic Diſeaſes; Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. 1. p. 319.

HEPATIZON. Brown itching morphew.

HEPATOCELE. Rupture of the liver.

HEPATORIUM, i. e. Eupatorium.

HEPATORIUM AQUATILE, i. e. Bidens.

HEPSEMA, i. e. Defrutum.

HEPTAPHARMACUM, from ἑπτὰ, *ſeven*, and φαρμακον, *a medicine*, or remedy, a plaiſter or ointment, in which were ſeven ingredients was thus called. It was compounded of litharge, wax, colophony, fat, &c.

HEPTAPLEURON, from ἑπτὰ, *ſeven*, and πλευρὰ, *a rib*. So the plantago major was called, becauſe it is furniſhed with ſeven ribs.

HERACANTHA. Common carline thiſtle.

HERACLEA, i. e. Sideritis; alſo water horc-hound.

HERACLEIOS, or Heracleius, from Ἡρακλῆς, Hercules. Herculean. An epithet of the epilepſy, and of the mania. It is a name alſo of the loadſtone.

HERACLEOTICUM. Origanum. So called from Heraclea, where the beſt was produced.

HERACLEUM. A ſpecies of ſphondylium.

HERACLIDES TARENTINUS. He was the moſt learned phyſician of the empiric ſect. The next to him, as eminent, was Aſclepiades.

HERACLION. This was an eminent phyſician, and the firſt author of the empiric ſect.

HERACLIUM, [Ol.] It is thought to be the oſſign. buxi.

HERACLIUS, [Lap.] Loadſtone.

HERBA. An herb. All ſuch plants whoſe ſtalks die to the ground every year. Thoſe whoſe roots continue only one year, are called annual; if they continue two years, they are called biennial; and, if they continue many years, they are perennial.

Herbs are to be gathered when the leaves are at their full growth, before the flowers unfold, except it be thoſe whoſe flowery tops are preferred. They are beſt when quickly dried, and that in a room that is heated by a fire to a degree equal to the hotteſt ſummer's day with us. Aromatic plants ſhould be gathered from warm dry ſoils; fetid ones from moiſt and rich ſoils. All herbs and leaves ſhould be gathered in clear dry days, as ſoon as the morning dew is diſſipated. When herbs are well dried, they are good as long as their colour remains, both for decoctions, and for diſtilling; thoſe that are good when dry, are better than when they are green.

HERBA PARIS, alſo called uva lupina, ſolanum quadrifolium, bacciferum, herb Paris, herb true-love, or one-berry. It is the Paris quadrifolia, Linn. It is a low plant, grows wild in ſhady woods; it flowers April and May; the berry is ripe in July. Geſner ſays its juice is narcotic, but it is not in much uſe. See Raii Hiſt.

HERBATUM CANADENSIUM, called alſo panaces moſchatum, and ſweet ſcented all-heal of America. This plant is found in Canada; it is more an alimentary than medicinal one.

H. BEAUM. The abbreviation of Herbertus à Beaumont, Horti Beaumontiani Exoticarum Plantarum Catalogus.

HERCULES. The name of an ancient noted hero. And from him is the name of ſeveral potent medicines.

HERCULIS BOVII. The name of a once famous emetic and cathartic preparation.

HERCULIS CLAVA. Hercules's club. It is a thorny tree, its bark is hot to the taſte, but of no remarkable medical virtue.

HERMANNIA. The name of an herb in Africa, of which Boerhaave enumerates ſeven ſpecies; their virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of marſhmallows.

HERMAPHRODITUS, from Ἑρμῆς, *Mercury*, and Ἀφροδίτη, *Venus*. An *hermaphrodite*. One who is ſuppoſed to be of both ſexes; but the truth is, the clitoris of a woman being of an extraordinary ſize, is all the peculiarity in this ſuppoſed ſpecies of the human kind. See Cheſelden's Anatomy.

HERMES. The Greek name of Thoth, or Thouth; the Latins call him Mercury. He was Chanaan, the ſon of Cham. To him is aſcribed the invention of all arts, particularly that of medicine.

HERMODACTYLUS. Hermodactyl. It is the colchicum Illyricum, Linn. It is the root of a plant, brought from the Turkiſh dominions. It is of the ſhape of a heart, of different ſizes and colours, ſome are reddiſh, others yellowiſh, browniſh, or white; the white and hardeſt are the beſt. Each root is flatted on one ſide, and hath a furrow on the other. Some reckon it a ſpecies of colchicum.

It hath a viſcous farinaceous ſweetneſs to the taſte, but no ſmell. The ancients ſay it is cathartic, but the dried ones which we receive, are quite inert. Proſper Alpinus informs us, that the Egyptian women eat them as a means of becoming fat. They are not of any known uſe in medicine. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

HERMODACTYLUS FOLIO QUADRANGULO, called alſo iris tuberoſa, iris bulboſa, and ſnake's-head iris.

The root of this plant hath a tubercle, which is both emetic and cathartic.

HERN. The abbreviation of Franciſ. Hernandez Nova Plantarum Animalium & Mineralium Mexicanorum Hiſtoria.

HERNANDIA. It is a well known herb in the American iſlands, generally called Jack in the box, but of no medical note.

HERNIA, from ἔρνος, *a branch*. A rupture. In conſequence of ſome ſudden effort, part of the abdominal contents are forced through the interſtices left between the tendinous expanſions of the abdominal muſcles, for the paſſage of nerves and blood-veſſels, or ſome other part, and a tumor is formed, which, from its reſemblance of the budding, or puſhing forth of a branch, hath been called an *hernia*. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order ectopiæ.

According to the ſituation of theſe tumors, or from their contents, or both, they obtain their reſpective denominations; though ſome take their name from attending circumſtances. 1. Thoſe from the ſituation are the umbilical, ſcrotal, ventral, &c. 2. Thoſe from the contents are the enterocele, epiplocele, entero-epiplocele, pneumatocele, &c. 3. Thoſe from attending circumſtances, are the incarcerated *hernia*, &c. Diſtinction hath been made indeed betwixt the true and falſe *herniæ*; they are all tumors of the ſcrotum, but the true are from the abdominal viſcera deſcending into it, and exiſt either in the groin or ſcrotum; whereas the falſe are from other cauſes, they begin below and aſcend upwards, they are the *hernia* humoralis, hydrocele, hæmatocele, ſarcocele, &c. they are not diſplacements of parts, but a morbid ſtate of, or diſeaſes in the part where the tumor appears.

This accident being unattended with rupture, or diviſion of the containing parts, the whole of the diſeaſe muſt at firſt be conſidered as a change of ſituation of the contained parts; and as ſuch, were they immediately return-

ed, and kept in their place, the diſorder would entirely ceaſe; but continuing in that preternatural ſituation, they are preſſed upon by the tendons through which they paſs, and the circulation of blood being obſtructed, inflammation and mortification ſpeedily ſupervene; which, however, is not owing to any change of ſtate in the tendons, but merely to their natural elaſticity, acting upon an increaſed and yielding ſubjacent bulk. The obſtacle to the reduction of the prolapſed contents is, therefore, the increaſed bulk which they have acquired from ſtricture, by which they become incapable of returning through the ſame paſſage at which they eſcaped.

If aſſiſtance is called to the patient in time, the return of the protruded parts muſt be attempted by ſuch means as cauſe the veſſels to contract, thereby diminiſhing the bulk of the ſolids, and repelling the fluids, ſuch as cold, aſtringent, and ſtimulating applications. Emollients are abſolutely to be avoided, for they cannot relax the tendons; but they may, and often do, enlarge the bulk of the *hernia*, and render its reduction more difficult, if not impoſſible. Cold aſtringents ſhould be immediately applied, ſuch as Goulard's ſaturnine water; at the ſame time theſe may be aſſiſted by a gentle but continued compreſſion on the part with the fingers, or with ſmall bolſters of ſoft linen cloth; by continuing theſe efforts for ſome time, the veſſels become viſibly leſs diſtended, the ſwelling grows flaccid, at length the ſtricture gives way, and the diſorder is removed.

When all proper attempts fail to reduce the contents of an *hernia*, the ſooner the operation is performed the better; but when there are evident ſigns of the inteſtine being in a mortifying ſtate, ſuch as the tumor having loſt its tenitence, &c. Mr. Gooch recommends it as a very reaſonable practice to make an inciſion into the tumor, ample enough to evacuate the feces freely, which may effectually remove the ſtrangulation of the inteſtine at the abdominal ring, and then to treat the wound as a mortification, not being over buſy with the knife in cutting away what appears to have loſt its vitality, but allowing nature to throw off the mortified ſlough. If it is a doubtful point what condition the parts contained in the tumor are in, proceed with caution in the operation, until you come to the inteſtine, and if that is mortified, open it too, and if the evacuation of the feces do not effectually make way for the return of the parts, the abdominal ring muſt be opened by inciſion.

But, after replacing the *hernial* contents, to retain them requires very often the aſſiſtance of a bandage, or a proper compreſs. Mr. Pott obſerves, "all that can be done by ſurgery towards the cure of a *hernia*, is to replace the prolapſed body or bodies in the cavity of the belly, and to prevent them from ſlipping out again. When whatever formed the tumor is replaced, the ſurgeon hath done his part, the reſt is nature's; whether the tendinous aperture will ſo contract as to prohibit a future deſcent or not, is matter of uncertainty, and not to be known but from the event."

When a rupture happens, and is unattended with any ſigns of ſtricture, or other violent ſymptoms, a bandage or a truſs will be the moſt eligible means of relief. As to the modes of operation, when the knife is neceſſary, ſee the reſpective ſpecies of this diſorder, and the authors referred to at the concluſion of this article.

HERNIA AQUOSA, i. e. Hydrocele.

HERNIA CARNOSA, i. e. Sarcocele.

HERNIA CONGENITA. It is a rupture where the inteſtine and teſticle are found in contact. The teſtes are originally ſituated in the abdomen, juſt beneath the kidneys, and gradually deſcend near the time of birth through the ſheath of the ſpermatic chord into the ſcrotum, each carrying along with it a peritoneal coat, which makes the tunicæ vaginales. This diſcovery was made by Dr. Hunter, in the year 1755, aſſiſted by his brother Mr. John Hunter; it was demonſtrated by the doctor in his public lectures that year.

Soon after the birth of the child, the communication between the tunicæ vaginales and the abdomen, is obliterated by the ſtricture of the parts; but if the inteſtine falls very ſoon, it prevents this ſtricture from taking place, and thus this kind of *hernia* is formed.

HERNIA CRURALIS. See HERNIA FEMORALIS.

HERNIA CYSTICA. The *hernia* of the urinary bladder. The urinary bladder may be thruſt forth through the abdominal ring, or under Poupart's ligament. The fluctuation of a liquor which can be preſſed into the body ſo as to occaſion a deſire to make water, or to run immediately out by the common urinary paſſage, are the ſymptoms by which this ſpecies of *hernia* may be diſcovered; if it ariſes to any ſize, the patient cannot diſcharge his urine without lifting up and compreſſing the tumor.

While recent it is eaſily reduced, and kept from returning by a proper bandage; but if it is adherent, a ſuſpenſory is the beſt relief. If this bladder adheres to a rupture of an inteſtine, great caution is required (if the operation becomes neceſſary) to avoid opening the bladder.

HERNIA FEMORALIS. This ſpecies of rupture is the ſame in both ſexes, and formed by the falling of the omentum, or inteſtine, or both of them, into the inſide of the thigh, through the arch made by the os pubis and ligamentum Fallopii, where the iliac veſſels and tendons of the pſoas and iliacus internus muſcles paſs from the abdomen. See BUBONOCELE. Treat it firſt firſt by the ſame general methods as is propoſed for ruptures in general; if the operation is neceſſary, proceed as for the bubonocele, with the difference of dilating the ligament inſtead of the rings of the muſcles; the dilitation muſt be made obliquely outwards, inſtead of perpendicularly upwards, to avoid dividing the veſſels.

HERNIA FLATULENTA. See PNEUMATOCELE.

HERNIA FORAMINIS MAGNI ISCHII. It is when the inteſtines or omentum fall through the great hole of the iſchium into the internal part of the thigh, between and under the two anterior heads of the triceps muſcle. In ſuch a caſe there muſt be great laxity of the ligament, and the inteſtine muſt lie behind the pectineus muſcle, wherefore no preſſure can be uſed to keep it up, and the operation cannot be attended with ſucceſs; becauſe as the inteſtine is ſtrangulated, the orifice cannot be dilated, by reaſon of the vicinity of the veſſels.

HERNIA GUTTURIS, i. e. Bronchocele.

HERNIA HUMORALIS. This is often a diſeaſe of the tunica vaginalis of the teſticle: it conſiſts of an inflammation and ſwelling there; but any of the integuments of the teſticles, or the teſticles themſelves, may be the ſeat. Dr. Swediar ſays, that the teſticle itſelf is never ſwelled, or in the leaſt affected, in the beginning of this complaint, and that the only affected and ſwelled part is the epididymis. He adds, that if the teſticle becomes ſwelled, it is not until after the other part is affected, and that from bad treatment. It is moſt frequently a venereal ſymptom, but may alſo happen from irritation, from bruiſes, and other external injuries. It may terminate any of the ways that are common to inflammation in other parts.

It is often cauſed by a ſtoppage of a venereal gonorrhœa, or rather from a tranſpoſition of the venereal poiſon, or, in other words, the irritation of the poiſon tranſpoſed to a different place in the urethera; viz. the caput gallinaginis, or the mouth of the excretory ducts of the ſeminal veſicles; in which caſe, briſk purgatives, if they produce a return of the running, are uſeful. Vomits, when the conſtitution can bear them, powerfully aſſiſt in removing this diſorder whilſt in its inflammatory ſtate; but they ſhould not be given until the inflammation begins to give way, and then the pulv. ipecac. is as uſeful as the merc. emet. flav.

Whatever be the cauſe, endeavour to remove the inflammation and tumor, by bleeding according to the ſtrength of the patient; let the bleeding be immediately ſucceeded by a briſk purge, and let the topical application be of the common aſtringent and ſtimulating kind, ſuch as Goulard's ſaturnine water; let them be applied cold by means of rags folded ſeveral times, and repeat them as often as they grow warm and begin to dry. In want of this water, a mixture of vinegar and brandy may be uſed; thus, if the part is ſuſpended properly, and if the patient can conform to lay much on his back, this tumor will be removed in a ſhort time, without the uſual violent pain or the hardneſs remaining afterwards, which is almoſt the conſtant effect

fect of emollients. As ſoon as the inflammatory ſymptoms abate, mercury may be preſcribed internally, and the ungt. coerul. fort. may be rubbed on the ſcrotum every night, either to prevent or remove any degree of induration. If, notwithſtanding every endeavour to the contrary, a ſuppuration cannot be prevented, an emollient cataplaſm muſt be applied warm, and continue until a due diſcharge of the matter is effected. The knife is uſually preferred for opening this kind of abſceſs with, but care is required leſt the teſticle ſhould be wounded: the dreſſings may be the ſame as directed for abſceſſes in general. Dr. Swediar propoſes, in caſes of virulent gonorrhœa, in order to prevent the hernia humoralis, that the patient avoids expoſing himſelf to cold, violent exerciſe, venery, ſtrong purges, and that he keeps the ſcrotum duly ſuſpended. If the hernia humoralis takes place, he propoſes, firſt, to allay the irritation, and then to recall the poiſon to its former original ſeat: to this end if the pulſe is quick, full, and ſtrong, bleed immediately, but with due regard to the conſtitution. If coſtive, a glyſter ſhould next be adminiſtered, to empty the preſent contents of the inteſtines; after this, if it can be conformed to, the patient may ſit half an hour in a warm bath, or on a perforated chair over the ſteam of hot water, for the ſame length of time, previouſly ſuſpending his teſticles. From thence he muſt go to bed, and a warm dry bag-truſs ſhould be immediately applied. After this, a warm bread poultice may be applied to the penis to reproduce the running, or determine the retropulſed poiſon to its original ſeat again. And what is peculiarly beneficial is, to give a full doſe of opium by the mouth; or in its ſtead, a glyſter of ol. linn. and aq. hord. aa p. æq. cum Ll. gt. xl. lx. The diet muſt be low. When the running returns, relief is proportionably obtained. If required, repeat the opiate every twenty-four hours; and the parts muſt be expoſed two or three times a day to the ſteam of hot water. Dr. Swediar's Obſ. on Venereal Complaints. See Aikins's Obſ. on Prep. of Lead; Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii. p. 152, &c.

HERNIA INCARCERATA. An incarcerated, impriſoned, or confined hernia. It is either when the protruded inteſtine ſo adheres that it cannot be returned, or when it cannot be returned, becauſe of the flatus or other matter which is deſcended into it, not being capable of a return. Its ſymptoms are, a ſwelling in the groin and upper part of the ſcrotum, larger or ſmaller according to the quantity of contents, very painful to the touch, and reſiſting the impreſs of the fingers; the pain is increaſed by coughing, ſneezing, or ſtanding upright, and there is a frequent vomiting, with a ſuppreſſion of all diſcharge by the anus, and a fever preſently comes on.

If ſpeedy relief is not obtained, the conſequence is fatal.

Very copious or repeated bleeding, and a proper poſture, are the principal helps; the patient ſhould be laid with his hips much higher than his ſhoulders, and thus by gently raiſing the ſcrotum, and a light preſſure on the tumor, the inteſtine may return; ſmall doſes of opium may be given at due intervals: but if there is an adheſion, the operation is neceſſary, and if a gangrene is obſerved in the detained inteſtine, keep the ſound part of it ſo united with the aperture in the groin as to be the future anus.

HERNIA INGUINALIS. See Bubonocele.

HERNIA INTESTINALIS. See Hernia Scrotalis.

HERNIA LACHRYMALIS. When the tears paſs through the puncta lachrymalia, but are ſtopped in the naſal duct, they ſtagnate in the ſaeculus lachrymalis, and generally diſtend it; whence this name. Anel calls it a dropſy of the lachrymal ſac.

If the inner angle of the eye is preſſed, and an aqueous humour flows out, it is only the hernia lachrymalis; but if matter is preſſed out, it is the fiſtula lachrymalis.

HERNIA OMENTALIS, i. e. Epiplocele.

HERNIA SCROTALIS. It is when the omentum, the inteſtine, or both, protrude and deſcend into the ſcrotum. It is called a perfect rupture, in contradiſtinction to a bubonocele, which is the ſame diſorder, only that the deſcent is not ſo low. The hernia ſcrotalis is diſtinguiſhed into the true and falſe; the true is when the omentum, or inteſtine, or both, fall down into the ſcrotum; the falſe is when a humour or an inflammation cauſes a tumor in this part; ſuch as in the caſe of an hydrocele, hernia humoralis, &c.

HERNIA UMBILICALIS. It is when the omentum, or inteſtine, or both, protrude at the navel. It rarely admits of other relief than the palliative.

HERNIA UTERINUS. Inſtances have occured of the uterus being thruſt through the rings of the muſcles, but this is hardly to be diſcovered, if there is no child in it, whoſe ſtrugglings would lead us to the proper diſtinction of it from the rupture of any other part.

HERNIA VAGINALIS. There is naturally a deep ſort of cavity between the rectum and the back part of the uterus, made by the peritoneum deſcending pretty low, and forming a kind of pouch, in which a portion of the ſmall inteſtines, when the uterus is not pregnant, is commonly lodged, and ſometimes the inteſtines themſelves, by preſſing hard againſt the peritoneum at this moſt depending part of the abdomen, gradually ſtretch this membrane ſo as to deepen this cavity much, and thereby diſſect as it were the back part of the vagina from the fore part of the rectum, and thus form the tumor in the vagina, which is called an hernia vaginalis.

HERNIA VARICOSA. See Circocele.

HERNIA VENTOSA. See Pneumatocele.

HERNIA VENTRALIS. This may happen in almoſt any point of the fore part of the belly, but is moſt frequently found between the recti muſcles, either above or below the navel. It is generally large, and is only to be relieved by returning the protruded parts, and preventing their return by a proper bandage. The tumor which requires this operation is ſeldom bigger than a walnut; ſo when there are the ſymptoms of a hernia, and yet no appearance of one in the groin, the belly ſhould be examined. The manner of relieving the ſtricture will be by dilating the part, as in other caſes. But after the operation a bandage muſt always be worn, as the cicatrix cannot be truſted to.

HERNIA VESICALIS, i. e. Hernia cyſtica.

See Le Dran's Operations; Mem. de l'Acad. Roy. de Chirurg. Sharp's Operations; Sharp's Critical Enquiry; Monſ. Arnaud on Ruptures; Pott on Ruptures; Gooch's Treatiſe on Wounds, p. 427, &c. Aikins's Obſ. on Prep. of Lead, p. 91, &c.

HERNIARIA. Rupture-wort, alſo called polygonum minus, and miliegrana major. It is the *herniaria* glabra, Linn. It is a ſmall ſpreading plant, found in ſandy ground; it flowers in June and July; is ſaid to be diuretic and aſtringent; but is not of much note.

HERNIARIA ALSINES FOLIO. Sea chickweed, alſo called paronychia alſinas folio incana, and anthyllis maritima.

Boerhaave mentions other ſpecies alſo.

HEROPHILUS. He was a pupil of Praxagoras: he was a celebrated phyſician; he died about 317 years before the Chriſtian æra. He was an anatomiſt and ſurgeon; he alſo applied to the ſtudy of botany. He is ſaid to be the firſt who was of the dogmatic ſect who uſed compound medicines freely; and he is ſaid to be the firſt who treated the doctrine of pulſes with any degree of accuracy. The firſt grand change that happened in phyſic after Herophilus and Eraſiſtratus (who were contemporaries) was occaſioned by the founding of the Empiric ſect; this happened about 287 years before Chriſt; of whom Serapion was the firſt, whom ſee.

HERPES, from *ερπω, to ſpread or creep*. Theſe diſorders are apt to creep on and ſpread about in the ſkin. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe, in the claſs locales, and order dialyſes.

Theſe ulcers in the ſkin are divided by ſome into five ſpecies.

1. The ſimple. Theſe conſiſt of ſingle puſtules of a yellowiſh white colour, and ſharp pointed; they are inflamed about their baſes, and are naturally dry; theſe burn, itch, and ſmart a day or two, and then diſappear.

2. The tetter, ring-worm, or ſerpigo. Theſe are the ſame in appearance as the firſt, only that they run in heaps; they more difficultly paſs away; for they contain more corroſive matter; their ſmarting and itching is more violent;

violent; they eat ſometimes through the ſkin, and ſpread conſiderably; they neither form matter nor come to digeſtion. The cure is ſometimes difficult; in ſome perſons they return at certain ſeaſons. If the habit of body is faulty, reſtore it, purge gently with mercurials, and then apply the following to the parts affected: ℞ Merc. cor. A. gr. xvi. aq. calc. ſi. ℔ i. m. f. lotio. Vel, ℞ Merc. precip. A. ℈ ii. ungt. ſimplex, ℥ i. m. When a ſerpigo is a ſymptom of the ſcurvy, the great water-dock root is an excellent remedy, as indeed it is in all the ſpecies of herpes.

3 and 4. Shingles, or zona aurea, &c. Dr. Cullen makes this, i. e. Herpes zoſter, ſynonymous with his eryſipelas phlyctænodes. It is ſometimes accompanied with inflammation and fever. This kind appears in large cluſters, on the neck, breaſt, loins, hips, or thighs; the heads are white and watery, and are ſucceeded by a ſmall round ſcab reſembling millet ſeed, whence the name herpes miliares; and now the diſorder is ſtill more grievous. In theſe caſes the ill habit of body being firſt attended to, it muſt be remembered that the external applications muſt be more mild than thoſe above preſcribed. Internally the treatment may be as in the eryſipelas: the chief indication is to take off the irritability of the ſyſtem; which is beſt done by a proper uſe of the cort. peruv. The prognoſtic of death from its ſurrounding the body is falſe; the malignity of the tumor alone being the only ground of fear.

Theſe two kinds were called by the ancients by the names vermis repens, vermis mordicans, formica miliaris; Celſus calls them ignis ſacer; Wiſeman calls them ambulativa.

5. Herpes exedens, alſo called nome, noli me tangere, ulcus depaſcens, herpes depaſcens, and Celſus calls it ignis ſacer. According to Dr. Cullen it is of the ſpecies of inflammation which he calls erythematous. It reſembles an ulcerous eryſipelas; its humour is the moſt corroſive of any of the ſpecies; it corrodes down the fleſhy parts, and ſeparates it into ſcales: when it diſappears it leaves hard tumors behind it, on the parts that were ulcerated. In order to the cure, the merc. cor. A. may be given as directed in the lues venerea, with a decoction of the woods or ſarſa. The ſores may be waſhed with a ſolution of merc. cor. A. in aq. calcis.

Mr. Bell, in his Treatiſe on Ulcers, places the tinea and the *herpes*, as varieties in his ſpecies of ulcer, which he denominates cutaneous. He further obſerves that the cutaneous ulcer may in all its varieties be included in the four following; viz. 1. The *herpes* farinoſus; which includes what ſome call the dry tettar. 2. *Herpes* puſtuloſus; which includes the cruſta lactea, and the tineæ capitis. 3. *Herpes* miliaris; of this variety is the ulcerous eruption called the ringworm. 4. *Herpes* exedens; this includes the ulcers called depaſcent, and phagedenic.

The *herpes* farinoſus is the moſt ſimple kind. It appears on any part of the body, moſt frequently on the face, neck, arms, or wriſts; it comes out in broadiſh ſpots, which conſiſt of very ſmall red pimples, which are attended with a troubleſome itching; they ſoon fall off in the form of a white powder which reſembles fine bran; they leave the ſkin perfectly ſound, but are apt to return in the form of a red efflorescence, fall off, and renew as before.

The *herpes* puſtuloſus occurs moſt frequently in children, generally attacks the face, and behind the ears; often on other parts of the head alſo, but rarely elſe where. It appears in the form of puſtules, which are originally ſeparate and diſtinct, but afterwards run together in cluſters. At firſt they ſeem to contain nothing but a thin watery ſcum, which afterwards turns yellow, and exuding over the whole ſurface of the part affected, at laſt dries into a thick cruſt or ſcab: when this falls off, the ſkin below frequently appears entire with only a ſlight degree of redneſs on its ſurface; but on ſome occaſions when the matter hath probably been more acrid upon the ſcab falling off, the ſkin is found gently excoriated. See ACHORES.

The *herpes* miliaris generally appears in cluſters, though ſometimes in diſtinct circles of very minute pimples. Theſe are at firſt perfectly ſeparate, and contain only a clear lymph, which, in the courſe of the diſeaſe, is excreted upon the ſurface, and there forms into ſmall diſtinct ſcales; theſe at laſt fall off, and leave a conſiderable degree of inflammation below, that ſtill continues to exude freſh matter, which likewiſe forms into cakes, and ſo falls off. The itching in this ſort of ulcer, is always very troubleſome, and the matter diſcharged from the pimples is ſo tough and viſcid, that every thing applied to the part adheres ſo as to occaſion much trouble and uneaſineſs to the patient on its being removed. The whole body is ſubject to this diſorder, but it moſt frequently appears on the loins, breaſt, perinæum, ſcrotum, and groins.

The *herpes* exedens diſcovers itſelf on any part of the body, but moſtly about the loins, where it ſometimes ſpreads to ſuch a degree as to extend quite round the waiſt. At firſt it uſually appears in the form of ſeveral ſmall ulcerations, collected into larger ſpots of different ſizes and of various figures, with always more or leſs of an eryſepelatous like inflammation. Theſe ulcerations diſcharge large quantities of a thin, ſharp, ſerous matter, which ſometimes forms into ſmall cruſts that in a ſhort time fall off; but moſt frequently the diſcharge is ſo thin and acrid, as to ſpread along the neighbouring parts, and there to produce the ſame kind of ſores. Though theſe excoriations or ulcers, do not in general proceed further than the true ſkin, yet ſometimes the diſcharge is ſo very penetrating and corroſive as to deſtroy the ſkin, the cellular membrane, and, on ſome occaſions, the muſcles themſelves.

Dr. George Fordyce ſpeaks of an inſtance of this diſeaſe, under the name of *herpes* rapiens; and ſays, it ariſes upon the head in ſmall ulcers, covered with a brown moiſt cruſt, and ſhining, but ſimilar to venereal ulcers. He adds, its cure is the ſame as for the venereal ulcers, which ſee.

In the cure of theſe various cuticular diſeaſes, it hath been generally believed to be unſafe, and even dangerous, to proceed in any other way, than by correcting the original diſorder of the fluids, which was ſuppoſed to produce them. It may occaſionally happen, that ſome diſorder in the general habit is attendant on any of theſe ulcerous complaints, and that a regard thereto may be required; but in the greateſt number of inſtances, they are more certainly and more ſpeedily removed by the uſe of local remedies merely. In many diſeaſes of the ſkin, antimonials are frequently given with advantage, but their efficacy ſeems principally to depend upon their producing a determination to the ſkin, and keeping up a free diſcharge of the matter of perſpiration; which from various cauſes is long retained on the ſurface of the body, and there becomes acrid, and doubtleſs is a frequent cauſe of diſordered affections in this part. Accordingly, all ſuch remedies are more or leſs effectual, as they are more or leſs powerful in keeping up a free perſpiration. This is further evident by obſerving, that a due uſe of the warm bath, is as efficacious in theſe caſes, as the uſe of antimonials and other medicines ſuppoſed to carry off morbid particles through the ſkin. In the treatment of every herpetic diſorder, the firſt and principle circumſtance to be attended to, is, that not only the parts affected, but even the whole ſurface of the body, be kept clean and perſpirable as poſſible; to this end the frequent uſe of warm bathing, and of frequent gentle frictions, with clean linen cloths (in the dry ſorts of theſe complaints) are ſingularly ſerviceable. In the milder inſtances, the following externals generally ſuffice: 1. The aq. calcis ſi. uſually is all that is required in *herpes* farinoſus. 2. The ſolutions of lead in vegetable acid, is alſo very effectual; the following is a uſeful general form. ℞ Sac. Saturn. ℥ſs. Acet. acerim. ℥ iv. aq. font. diſt. ℔ij. m. This may be applied in the form of cataplaſm, mixed with bread, or by means of ſoft rags dipped into it, and laid directly on the parts. In ſome particular and more inveterate caſes, the following is ſometimes to be preferred; viz. ℞ Merc. cor. A. gr. x. aq font. diſt. ℔j. m. This is very efficacious as an embrocation in any of theſe diſorders. In the more obſtinate inſtances of this complaint, the greateſt care is required that perſpiration is duly ſupported, viz. warm diluent drinks frequently taken, as well as the uſe of the warm bath. The ant. crud. ppt. to ʒii. in the day, if mixt with a little g. guaiac. is an admirable aſſiſtant to the diſcharge through the ſkin,

and contributes further aid by its efficacy in unloading the bowels. In the more vigorous and plethoric habits, cooling laxatives, are peculiarly beneficial. Iſſues are ſometimes neceſſary in the more inveterate ſorts of *herpes*. In the *herpes* exedens, a degree of inflammation often attends that requires attention; here the ſaturnine applications, above all others, check its progreſs, and at length totally remove it. But if, as it ſometimes happens, the herpetic ulcer hath made its way into the muſcles, the following ointment is preferable to either the ſaturnine ſolution, or that of merc. cor. a. The ungt. ſaturnine of the different diſpenſatories, is alſo an uſeful application in this laſt mentioned inſtance. But care muſt be taken that this ointment is not become rancid. If notwithſtanding the uſe of the above, the diſorder is unconquerable, it may be ſuſpected that a venereal taint at the ſame time ſubſiſts in ſuch a patient. A ſlight herpetic diſorder becomes obſtinate by being accompanied with the itch: in ſuch caſes, attention muſt be had to ſuch diſeaſes reſpectively, before thoſe of the herpetic kinds can be removed. In ſome inſtances of the *herpes* exedens, the following bolus has been uſed with conſiderable advantage; ℞ Merc. calcin gr. iſs. Philon. Lond. ℈i m. omn noct ſumend.

See Tulpius, lib. 3. Marc. Aurel. Severinus, lib. 4. de Abſceſſ. cap. 9. Turner de Morbis Cutaneis. Bell on Ulcers.

HERPES FERUS, i. e. Eryſipelas.

HERPE TON. In Hippocrates it is a creeping puſtule or ulcer.

HERVA DE ANIL LUSITANIS, i. e. Indicum.

HESP. An abbreviation of Heſperides.

HESPERIS. Boerhaave mentions twenty-four ſpecies of this plant: it is ſaid to be diaphoretic and antiſeptic; but is not of much note in practice.

HESPERIS ALLIUM. See ALLIARIA.

HETEROGENEUS. Heterogeneous, from ἕτερον, *alterum*, and γενος, *kind, of another kind.*

HETERORRYTHMUS. See ARYTHMUS.

HETICH INDIS, AMERICANUM, vel Æthiopicum. A ſpecies of turnip in America, with leaves like thoſe of bryony: the root is as thick as two fiſts, and a foot and a half long. It is agreeable food, and aperitive.

HEUD, Heud hen, or Heudeen, i. e. Agallochum.

HEXIS. An habit. From ἔχω, *to have*. It is a permanent habit, in oppoſition to diathesis, or a tranſient diſpoſition, which may more eaſily be removed. Habit from cuſtom or uſe. See CONSUETUDO.

H. OX. See MORISON.

HIACAN. Guaiacum wood.

HIBERNICUS LAPIS. Iriſh ſlate, called alſo tegula Gallis, ardeſia vel hardeſia Hibernica, lap. Hibernici, lap. fiſſilis Hiber. It is a kind of ſlate or ſoft ſtone, found in Ireland and other countries, of a bluiſh black colour; it ſtains the hands. When powdered it is whitiſh at firſt, but ſoon grows blacker. In the fire it yields ſulphureous fumes, acquires a pale red colour, and becomes harder. It is an argillaceous earth, impregnated with alum and iron in a very ſmall portion, and ſeems to be much of the ſame nature as the boles. To its aluminous contents it owes its aſtringent property. It is inwardly taken againſt bruiſes, but on account of the variability of its contents, it is not much to be commended. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

HIBISCUS. Marſhmallows.

HIDROA, from ἱδρως, *ſweat*. A kind of puſtules which ſpring up on ſome conſtitutions, from ſweating in hot weather. It is the ſymptomatic kind of miliary fever called boa, which ſee.

HIDROCRITICA, from ἱδρως, *ſweat*, and κρινω, *to judge*. Signs taken from ſweat.

HIDRONOSOS, or Hidropyretos, i. e. SUDOR ANGLICUS, which ſee.

HIDROTICA, or Hidrotopſea, ſudorifics.

HIDUS, i. e. Flos Æris.

HIERA DIACOLOCYNTHIDOS. An electary was formerly prepared under this name, but it hath long been neglected.

HIERANOSOS, i. e. Convulſio. Some expreſs by it a continued kind of convulſion without pain, or loſs of ſenſibility.

HIERA PICRA. The holy bitter. It was formerly called hiera logadii, and was made in the form of an electary, with honey, but now the ſpecies is kept in dry powder.

The London college directs the ſpecies to be prepared as follows: Take the gum of ſuccotrine aloes, one pound; of winter bark (ſo called) three ounces. Mix and make them into a fine powder.

HIERABOTANE, from ἱερος, *holy*, and βοτανη, *an herb*. Holy herb. In Dioſcorides, it is a ſpecies of verbena.

HIERACANTHA. A name in Boerhaave for the carlina ſylveſtris vulgaris.

HIERACEUM. A name of ſome ſpecies of ſonchus.

HIERACEUM. Golden lungwort.

HIERACIUM, from *hierax*, a *hawk*. Hawkweed. Boerhaave mentions forty ſpecies, but only four have any medical virtues attributed to them.

HIERACIUM LONGIUS RADICATUM. Long-rooted hawkweed. The ſtalks of all the kinds are full of branches, ſlender, and elegant; the leaves are diſpoſed alternately; the calyx is thick, firm, and expanded; the ſeeds are ſmooth and angulous, or ſtriated.

The root of this ſpecies ſtrikes deep into the ground; is long, thick, and but little branched; the leaves lie flat on the ground, are rough and hairy; the flowers are like thoſe of the dandelion, but leſs of a yellow colour, but turn into down; the ſeeds are long and ſlender. It grows in fields and meadows, and flowers in May, and ſo on to Auguſt or September. It is cooling, aperitive, and diuretic.

HIERACIUM ALPINUM, alſo called Pannonicum, herba coſta, coſta pulmonaria, piloſella major, dens leonis, pulmonariæ luteæ. Broad-leaved Hungarian hawkweed. It grows on chalky hills, flowers in June, and is extolled in pulmonary diſorders.

HIERACIUM MINUS, called alſo hieracium leporinum. Leſſer hawkweed. It grows in paſture-ground, flowers in June and July, and its virtue the ſame as the hieracium majus, but bitterer, and otherways preferable.

HIERACIUM MAJUS, alſo called ſonchus repens multis. Greater hawkweed. It is found in fields; it flowers in July; the leaves cool, and are moderately aſtringent. See Raii Hiſt.

HIERACIUM MINUS FOLIO DENTIS LEONIS OBLONGO, i. e. Hyoſeris.

HIERACIUM MONTANUM. A ſpecies of chondrilla.

HIERACULUM. Hawkweed.

HIERA PICRA. Ἱερος πικρος, *holy bitter*.

HIERATICUM. The name of a malagma, formerly appropriated to diſorders of the liver, ſtomach, and other of the abdominal viſcera.

HIERAZUNE, i. e. Lotus pentaphyllos ſiliqua cornuta.

HIEROPYR. The ſame as the erythematous ſpecies of inflammation.

HIGUERO. The calabaſh tree. It is a large tree, common in all the American iſlands, and on that continent. The flowers are ſhaped like thoſe of a lily, of a white and greeniſh colour, but a diſagreeable ſmell. The fruit is of various ſizes and figures; it is green at the firſt, but when ripe it is black and hard, containing ſeeds like a gourd, and a yellow kernel. The unripe fruit contains a white juicy pulp, that ſmells like naſturtium, but of a ſweetiſh taſte. The unripe fruit is preſerved with ſugar, and is uſed in fevers. The ripe affords a ſhell for cups, &c. See Raii Hiſt.

HILUM. The blackiſh ſpot in a bean, called its eye.

HIMANTOSIS. Relaxation or lengthening, and ſmallneſs of the uvula.

HIMAS. Properly a leather thong or ſtrap. But in medicine it is a laxneſs of the uvula, when it becomes long and ſlender. It differs from the cionis, which is when the uvula is thickened.

HIN, i. e. Aſafœtida.

HIN-AWARU, i. e. Indicum.

HINDISH, i. e. Aſafœtida.

HING. The Indian and Perſian name for aſafœtida.

HINGISH. The plant which affords aſafœtida, alſo the gum itſelf.

HIPPACE. The rennet of a colt. Alſo cheeſe made of mare's milk.

HIPPECACUANNA, i. e. Ipecacuanha.

HIPPION. A name for the gentiana Alpina pumila vera major.

HIPPOCASTANUM. The horſe cheſnut-tree, called alſo caſtanea equina. The ſort recommended by the Edinburgh College, is the æſculus *hippocaſtanum*, or æſculus floribus heptandris, Linn.

In England we have the white, yellow, and ſcarlet flowering cheſnut-trees. They are cultivated in gardens and walks, and flower in May and June. The fruit is a good errhine. Jo. Jac. Zannichelli affirms, that after many trials he has found the bark of theſe trees to have the ſame effect as the Peruvian-bark hath. See Raii Hiſt.

HIPPOCRATES. He was the ſeventeenth in lineal deſcent from Æſculapius of Greece, by his ſon Podalirius. This family had the general name of Aſclepiade. *Hippocrates* was born at or about four hundred and ſixty years before Chriſt. He was no leſs diſtinguiſhed among the philoſophers than among phyſicians. He was defective in anatomy and chemiſtry; but his phyſiology, in many inſtances, deſerves our notice, and his curative method is admirable. He gained his reputation chiefly by his exact obſervation of the moſt minute circumſtances of diſeaſes, and the care with which he gives the detail of what preceded them, the ſymptoms with which they were attended, what afforded relief, and what exaſperated the diſorder. He ſays that he was the firſt who attended to prognoſtics. He was ſo well acquainted with ſymptoms, that this branch may be ſaid to be his maſter-piece. He excels in diagnoſtics and prognoſtics. His writings are elegant and conciſe, but ſometimes they are obſcure.

Hippocrates left two ſons, viz. Theſſalus and Draco; alſo one daughter, whom he married to Polybus, one of his pupils. The ſon-in-law made a greater figure than either of his own ſons. The next in eminence was Diocles Caryſtius, whom ſee.

HIPPOCRATICA FACIES. See FACIES HIPPOCRATICA.

HIPPOGLOSSUM. Double-tongue; alſo called biſlingua, bonifacia, uvularia, laurus Alexandrina, ruſcus anguſtrifolius, It is the ruſcus *hippogloſſum*, Linn. This plant is nurſed up in gardens chiefly as a curioſity. Raii Hiſt.

HIPPOGLOSSUM. See RUSCUS.

HIPPOLAPATHUM. Monk's rhubarb. See LAPATHUM.

HIPPOLITHUS, from ἱππος, *a horſe*, and λιθος, *a ſtone*. A ſtone found in the ſtomach or inteſtines of a horſe.

HIPPOMANES, from ἱππος, *a horſe*, and μαινομαι, *to be mad*. It is a name for the cynocrambe, or apocynum, becauſe it makes horſes mad if they eat of it. It is alſo a name of the juice of tithymallus. Some take it to ſignify the ſecundines of a mare. Laſtly, the fleſhy ſubſtance which ſometimes adheres to the forehead of a new foaled colt is thus named.

HIPPOMARATHRUM, from ἱππος, *an horſe*, and μαραθρον, *fennel, horſe fennel*, alſo Engliſh ſaxifrage. See Raii Hiſt. Plant.

HIPPONE. The name of a malagma which Ætius deſcribes.

HIPPOPHÆS. Dioſcorides deſcribes it in lib. iv. cap. 162, but it is not certainly known what it is. The ſynonyme, according to Dale, is the hippophæs, hippophæſtum, hippomanes, ſpina purgatrix, rhammus catharticus, tithymalus maritimus vel ſpinoſus. The purging thorn. It grows in the Morea. The juice purges powerfully.

HIPPOPOTAMUS. The river-horſe. It is ſaid that when he grows unwieldy he comes to the land, takes a reed, opens a vein in the leg; and when he hath loſt a ſufficient quantity of blood, he ſtops it with mud.

Another ſpecies is the equus marinus, roſmarinus, waleus, mors, or morz. The teeth of which are very large, and are a ſort of ivory.

HIPPOSELINUM, Alexander's, alſo called oluſatrum, Smyrnium, macerone, & herba Alexandrina. It is the Smyrnium oluſatrum, Linn. It is an umbelliferous plant, with leaves like ſmallage, but larger. It was formerly blanched in gardens for culinary uſe. The ſeeds are bitteriſh, aromatic, and carminative; they give out all their virtue to rectified ſpirit of wine, but not fully to water. The roots are bitter, and are recommended as reſolvent, diuretic, and emmenagogue. On inciſion they yield a whitiſh juice, which when inſpiſſated, reſembles myrrh; whence the plant hath been called, from one of the names of that gummy reſin, Smyrnium. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies. See Raii Hiſt. Plant.

HIPPOSELINUM. See APIUM.

HIPPURIS, from ἱππος, *a horſe*, and ουρα, *a tail*. It is the name of ſeveral ſorts of equiſetum.

HIPPURIS MINOR, i. e. Ephedra maritima minor.

HIPPUS, from ἱππος, *equus, a horſe*. It is an affection of the eyes, under which they are continually trembling and twinkling, as is uſual with thoſe who ride on horſeback. The author of the Definitiones Medicæ, ſays, that it is an affection contracted from the birth, and is owing to a defect in the muſcle which ſuſtains the eye.

HIRA. This word is variouſly underſtood: however, ſome expreſs by it the inteſtinum jejunum; others extend it to all the inteſtines, and others mean by it all the contents of the abdomen.

HIRAPITANGA BRASILIENSIBUS. Braſil wood.

HIRCI BARBA, i. e. Tragopogon.

HIRCUS BEZOARTICUS. The goat which affords the oriental bezoar.

HIRQUUS. The great angle of the eye.

HIRSUTIES. Unnatural hairineſs of the body.

HIRUDO. The leech, alſo called ſanguiſuga, and hirudo medica. Themiſon is the firſt who takes notice of leeches. Thoſe ſhould be choſen whoſe backs are ſtriped, and bellies ſpotted, and which are taken from running waters that are clear, and have a ſandy bed.

They are only uſed for drawing of blood, where and when the lancet cannot be conveniently uſed; and for this end, many prefer thoſe which have been kept in a veſſel or clean water for ſome time, to thoſe which are but newly taken from the running waters where they originally reſided.

Some think that leeches have a poiſonous quality, becauſe that the wound they make ſometimes heals with difficulty; but this happens when the lancet is uſed, and depends on the bad habit of the body. Perhaps from the manner of their biting it is, that the eryſipelatous kind of inflammation ariſes, but be that as it may, it almoſt always goes off in a day or two.

To make leeches faſten ſoon, keep them hungry, and rub the part to which they are to be applied with warm milk or blood; if they ſtick longer than is thought convenient, they muſt not be pulled off; but if their heads are touched with common ſalt, they ſoon drop off of themſelves: if they are thought not to have drawn a ſufficient quantity of blood, apply cloths wrung out of warm water upon the orifice, or, if convenient, put the part into warm water, and thus the bleeding may be prolonged.

Keep the leeches in bottles not quite filled with water, and renew it every three or four days at the lateſt: a little ſugar may be added to the water in which they are kept.

Leeches are ſometimes applied to the anus, when the hæmorrhoids are ſuppreſſed; but bleeding in the ankle or foot ſeems more likely to be uſeful, for the leeches can only be applied to the external hæmorrhoidal veins. When local inflammation, &c. is to be removed, in many inſtances, topical bleeding is preferable to general. By applying leeches we moſt probably open the ſmall veins only, and as no preſſure is made as is done when the lancet is uſed, the veſſels of the part are certainly more evacuated than the reſt of the ſyſtem. Though one leech may be allowed only to draw one ounce of blood, yet as it makes a kind of lacerated wound, the diſcharge may be continued until double that quantity is evacuated. In ophthalmies, leeches have been uſeful when general bleeding hath failed; ten or twelve leeches applied about the temples have relieved a violent cephalalgia almoſt immediately, &c.

The curious may conſult the following writers on leeches, viz. Aldrovandus, Geſner, Botallus, Sebizius, Heurnius, Cranſius, Schroder, and Stahl.

HIRUNDINARIA. Swallow-wort. See alſo nummularia.

HISMAT. Litharge.

HISPANICUM VIRIDE. Verdegriſe.

HISPIDITAS. Hairineſs in general; but in a particular ſenſe, it is uſed to ſignify either the diſeaſe called phalangoſis, or that called diſtichiaſis.

HISTIDULA. A name of the helychryſum mont. flor. rotund.

HISPIDULA [Syr.] See Gnaphalium.

HISTORIA. An hiſtory. In medicine, it is the ſame as a medical caſe or obſervation.

HOAXACAN, i. e. Lign. guaiacum.

HOBUS. A ſpecies of plum-tree growing in the Weſt-Indies.

HOCIAMSANUM. Agrimony.

HOITZILOXITL. Balſam of Peru.

HOLCIMOS, from ολκω, *to draw*. An epithet applied to what may be drawn out, and ſtill preſerve its continuity. It is alſo ſpoken of the liver affected with a tumor. Se Galen De Loc. Affect.

HOLCUS, i. e. Hordeum ſpontaneum ſpurium.

HOLERA. An antiquated word for cholera.

HOLIPPÆ. Thin cakes made with flour and ſugar, poured upon a hot iron, figured, and then ſet to the fire. The name is now appropriated to ſweet-meats; though in ſome diſpenſatories are purging, and other holippæ.

HOLLI. The Indian name for what the Spaniards call alli; which is a reſinous liquor, that diſtils from the tree called holquahuytl, or chilli. It is uſed in dyſenteries. See Raii Hiſt.

HOLOPHLYCTIDES, i. e. Phlyctænæ.

HOLOSCHOENOS. See Juncus.

HOLOSTEO. See Myosuros.

HOLOSTEUM. See Myosuros.

HOLOSTEUM CRETICUM. A ſpecies of plantane.

HOLOSTIUM. A ſpecies of plantane.

HOLOTHURION. Whether plant or animal is not known; but according to Bontius, it is poiſonous.

HOLOTONICOS, from ολως, *whole*, and τεινω, *to ſtretch*. It is ſpoken of a univerſal convulſion, or rigor of the whole body. It is the ſame as tetanus.

HOLQUAHUILT. Peruvian bark.

HOMA. A kind of anaſarcous ſwelling.

HOMOGENEOUS, from ομον, *like*, and γενος, *kind of the ſame kind*.

HOMOLINON. Crude flax, or coarſe flaxen cloth, of which towels were made in the public baths.

HOMONOPAGIA. Head-ach.

HOMOPLATÆ. The ſhoulder blades.

HOMORUSIA. A medicine mentioned by Avicenna.

HOMOTONOS. Equable. It is an epithet for a continual putrid fever, which preſerves the ſame tenor through all ſtages.

HOMUNCULUS. See Adolescens.

HOPLOCHRISMA. The weapon ſalve, Χρισμα το οπλον.

HORÆUS. Properly it is fruit that is ripe about autumn: but modern authors expreſs by it any fruits which are ripe.

HORDEACEUM VINUM. Beer.

HORDEOLUM. It is a tubercle on the eye-lids, reſembling a barley-corn in ſhape; it is alſo called crythe, which ſee. It is ſmall, red, hard, and immoveable: it is ſeated above the eye-laſhes. It is an encyſted tumor which contains a thick matter. It is painful; ſometimes hurts the ſight. Its ſeat is either on the inſide or the outſide of the eye-lid. It is a ſpecies of wen, according to Dr. Aitken's ſyſtem; but Dr. Cullen places it as a variety of phlogoſis phlegmone

HORDEUM. Barley. In the ſhops there are two kinds of barley; or at leaſt the ſame kind of barley in two forms.

HORDEUM DISTICHON; alſo called hordeum Gallicum vel mundatum; common, and Scotch barley. It is the hordeum vulgare, Linn.

Barley is leſs nutrimental, leſs glutinous, and more cooling, than either wheat, oats, or rice. It was the principal aliment and medicine amongſt the antients in acute diſeaſes and from the common uſe of ſhelled barley, ptiſana, in the form of decoctions, other preparations of the ſame general nature have been diſtinguiſhed by that name. The common barley is freed from the ſhells in mills, and in this ſtate is called French or Scotch barley. A ſort of ſhelled barley is formed into ſmall round grains in Holland and Germany, which, from their pearly whiteneſs, are called pearl barley.

Decoctions of theſe in water, contain their lighter and more agreeable parts, and are important aſſiſtants in acute and inflammatory diſorders: but decoctions of barley are moſt uſeful, when accompanied with ſaline ſaponaceous medicines; for otherwiſe they run off by urine, without mixing with the blood.

HORDEUM CAUSTICUM. See Cevedilla.

HORMINUM. Clary; called alſo gallitrichum; ſclarea; orvala; garden clary. It is the ſalvia horminum, Linn. It is a whitiſh, green, ſlightly hairy plant, with ſquare ſtalks, on the tops of which are long ſpikes of bluiſh flowers. It is perennial, a native of warmer climes, cultivated with us in gardens, and flowers in July and Auguſt.

The leaves are bitteriſh, have an aromatic kind of ſmell, but diſagreeable to many people; they are recommended as antiſpaſmodic; their active part reſides in an unctuous, reſinous matter, which is wholly taken up by ſpirit of wine, and on inſpiſſating, the tincture remains in the extract. Water takes up the greateſt part of their virtue by infuſion; and in diſtillation, carries the whole of it over. The ſeeds poſſeſs the ſame qualities as the leaves.

HORMINUM SYLVESTRE. Wild clary; called alſo ſelares Hiſpanica, & oculus Chriſti. This ſpecies reſembles the other in appearance and qualities; but as to the latter, it is much inferior. See Raii. Hiſt.

Boerhaave enumerates 29 ſpecies of garden clary, and 14 of the wild ſort.

HORROR, from *horreo, to ſhake with cold*. A tremor, is only a vibration of one limb. A refrigeration is becoming very cold. A perfrication is when great coldneſs is accompanied with a gentle unequal motion of the ſkin. An horror is, when the coldneſs ſpoken of in a perfrication is conſiderable, and attacks by fits, without attacking the whole body; ſo that an horror is ſuch an affection of the ſkin alone, as a rigor is of the whole body. A rigor is an irregular agitation of all the body.

HORTUS. A name for the female genitals.

HOTTONIA. Water violet. It hath a roſe-ſhaped flower, conſiſting of only one leaf; it is of a roſe colour too, and grows in watery places. It is not noted for any medical virtue. See Miller's Dict. vol. ii.

HUCIPOCHOTL: alſo called Huaxacenſis; Ricinus novæ Hiſpaniæ. Hernandez deſcribes it as a ſhrub which creeps like a vine, with a fruit like a hazel nut, the kernels of which operate upwards and downwards, but not violently.

HUDDA MULLA. A ſpecies of jeſſamy.

HUICAN, i. e. Guaiacum.

HUITZASE. A name of the ſeeds of the meſquite tree.

HUMERALIS ARTERIA. The humeral artery. It riſes from the lower and fore-ſide of the axillaris, and runs backward between the head of the os humeri and teres major, ſurrounding the articulation, till it reaches the poſterior part of the deltoides, to which it is diſtributed. In its courſe it gives off ſeveral branches to the neighbouring parts. A puncture of this artery near the ſhoulder, though the hæmorrhage may be reſtrained by ligature, yet ſuch a mortification will probably enſue, as without amputation will generally occaſion the loſs not only of the perſon's limb, but life alſo.

HUMERALIS MUSCULUS, i. e. Deltoides.

HUMERALIS NERVUS. See Cervicales.

HUMERI OS. The bone of the arm. It is articulated by its head, to the ſcapula: in children this head is an epiphyſis; immediately below the head is the part called the neck of the humerus. This bone grows broader at its lower extremity, and at the end it is formed into two condyles, on the external of which the head of the radius moves; and in the cavities betwixt theſe condyles, the ulna chiefly hath its motions.

HUMILIS (Musc.) See Depressor Oculi.

HUMIRUBUS. Dewberry.

HUMOR. Humour. A general name for any fluid. The ancients ſeem to have called the nutritious juices the radical humours.

HUMORALIA. In Linnæus's Noſology, it is an order of diſeaſes in the claſs vitia: and ſignifies diſorders attended with vitiated or extravaſated fluids.

HUMORARIA. A kind of continued fever, which ſeems to be inflammatory. It is noticed by Sagar.

HUMULUS. The hop.

HUNGARICA AQUA. See ROSMARINUS.

HURA. The ſand-box tree; alſo called hura Americana; Jamaica walnuts; warnelia, & havelia. It is a native of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies; the leaves are full of a milky juice; the ſeeds purge upwards and downwards. The ſhell is uſed for holding ſand, after the ſeeds are taken out; whence the name. Miller's Dict.

HUTZOCHITL, i. e. Balſ. Peru.

HYACINTHUS. The iacinth. It is a precious ſtone; and is ſo called from its reſemblance, with reſpect to colour, to the plant of this name. This ſtone is polygonal, more or leſs tranſparent, of a yellowiſh red colour; the ninth in degree of hardneſs from diamonds, and fuſible by fire.

HYACINTHUS. Harebells. Boerhaave enumerates fifty-eight ſpecies, but none of them are noted for any medical quality, except the hyacinthus oblongo flore cœruleus major; called alſo hyacinthus Anglicus, five Belgicus, vel Hiſpanicus. The roots of all the kinds are bulbous: the flowers of this ſpecies are agreeably ſcented, and of a purple or blue colour. It is found in woods, hedges, and thickſets: it flowers in May. Galen ſays, that the roots are antihiſteric; and others ſay, that they reſtrain all kinds of fluxes. See Miller's Bot. Off.

HYACINTHUS. A name of ſeveral ſorts of muſcaria.

HYACINTHUS STELLARIS. See LILIO HIACINTHUS.

HYALODES, from ὑαλος, *glaſs*, or *glaſſy*. An epithet applied to urine which depoſits much vitreous, white, viſcid ſediment.

HYALOIDES, from ὑαλος, *glaſs*, and εἰδος, *likeneſs*. An epithet of the vitreous humour of the eye.

HYANCHE, from ὑς, *a ſwine*, and ἀγχω, *to ſtrangle*. A quinſey, accompanied with an external tumor on each ſide the throat; is thus called, becauſe the necks of *ſwine* are ſubject to ſwellings.

HYBOUCOUHU AMERICANUS. The name of an American fruit, of the ſize of a date, but not eatable; but an oil is expreſſed from it, which they keep in the ſhell of a fruit called carameno, whence the oil itſelf is ſometimes ſo called. This oil is chiefly uſed againſt an American diſorder called tom, which ſeems to be the ſame with chigres, or a collection of very ſmall worms in the fleſhy parts, which cauſe a tumor.

HYDARTHROS, from ὑδωρ, *water*, and ἀρθρον, *a joint*. A ſort or clear water which iſſues from wounded joints. It is alſo a name of the ſynovia.

HYDARTHRUS. A white ſwelling. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order tumores. See SPINA VENTOSA, which he places as a variety of phlogoſis phlegmone.

HYDATINON. The name of an ancient collyrium.

HYDATIS. See AQUULA.

HYDATIS. Hydatids. They are tranſparent bags filled with water. Sometimes they are ſingle, at others in cluſters; generally on the liver, but are alſo on any other part. Hydropic patients, for the moſt part, have them on their livers. In the Lond. Med. Tranſ. p. 486, is an inſtance of hydatids coughed up from the lungs.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order tumores.

There are two ſpecies of hydatids in human bodies.

The firſt ſort is organized, and is connected with veſſels by peduncles. It conſiſts of a bag, or bags of different ſizes, filled with ſerum; as theſe bags increaſe they thicken. Sometimes their contents are bloody, and flakes of coagulable lymph are floating in them. This kind of hydatids only diſturb by their ſize. The hydatids of the ovaria are of this ſort, ſo are thoſe in the kidnies, uterus, &c.

The ſecond are ſuppoſed to be confined to the liver, and conſiſt of a ſtrong bag formed in the ſubſtance of that viſcus; this bag is vaſcular, and is lined with a ſoft pulpy opake coat, reſembling the retina of the eye. It contains a liquor of a whey colour, in which a number of detached veſicles are found ſwimming, or there is a ſeries of them, one within another. This ſpecies is productive of worſe effects than the former. This bag ſometimes burſts, and its contents falling into the cavity of the belly, a kind of aſcites is the conſequence; its external cyſt is ſubject to inflammation, and adheſion to the adjacent parts, whence, if ſuppuration takes place, various ill conſequences may follow.

HYDATODES, or Hydatoides, from ὑδατος, the genitive caſe of ὑδωρ, *water*, and εἰδος, *a ſhape*. Watery. It is an epithet for wine much diluted with water; for limpid urine; for the aqueous humour of the eye; and for one in an anaſarca.

HYDEROS. A general name for a dropſy; but by Galen it is particularly applied to anaſarca.

HYDRAGOGOS, from ὑδωρ, *water*, and ἀγω, *to bring away*. Hydragogue. Remedies that evacuate much water are thus named. In Hippocrates, Epidem. lib. vi. it imports a perſon grown dropſical from drinking water.

HYDRARGYRUM. Quickſilver; from ὑδωρ, *water*, and ἀργυρος, *ſilver*.

HYDRELÆUM. A mixture of oil and water. Oribaſius and P. Ægineta.

HYDRENTEROCELE, from ὑδωρ, *water*, ἐντερον, an *inteſtine*, and κηλη, *a tumor*. A dropſy of the ſcrotum. Vogel deſcribes this diſorder as compounded of a dropſy and a hernia.

HYDROA. A ſymptomatic kind of miliary fever: the ſame as Boa; which ſee.

HYDROCARDIA, from ὑδωρ, *water*, and καρδια, *the heart*. Hildanus coined this word to ſignify a ſerous, ſanious, or purulent tumor of the pericardium.

HYDRO-ENTERO-CELE, i. e. Hydrocele. Of the ſame derivation as hydrenterocele.

HYDROCELE, from ὑδωρ, *water*, and κηλη, *a tumor*. It is when water is in the contents of ruptures, but particularly is applied to a dropſy in the ſcrotum, called alſo hydrops teſtis, and hernia aquoſa. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs cachexiæ, and order intumeſcentiæ.

There are two kinds: the firſt is when the water is lodged in the cells of the membrana cellularis ſcroti, but this is generally a ſymptom of an anaſarca. The ſecond, and only proper ſpecies, is formed by water lodged within the tunica vaginalis of the teſticle. The firſt is known by pits remaining for a time where it is impreſſed by the finger; the ſecond is not ſubject to this accident.

The cauſe, when not anaſarcous, is a preternatural diſcharge of that water, which is continually ſeparating on the internal ſurface of the tunica vaginalis, for the moiſtening, or lubricating the teſticle.

From the time of its firſt appearance, it is ſeldom known to diſappear, or diminiſh, but generally continues to increaſe, though in ſome much faſter than in others. In one it grows to a painful degree of diſtenſion in a few months; in another, it continues many years, with little diſturbance. As it enlarges it becomes more tenſe, and is ſometimes tranſparent, ſo that if a candle is held on the oppoſite ſide, a degree of light is perceived through the whole bulk of the tumor; but the only poſitive ways of knowing that a fluid is the contents, is to feel for the fluctuation thereof, or to diſcover that the diſtenſion of the tunica vaginalis is the cauſe of the tumor, and not an hernia of the omentum or inteſtines, or ſome other diſorder of the part.

The *hydrocele* muſt be diſtinguiſhed from an hernia of the abdominal contents, an hernia humoralis, and a ſarcocele.

In order to the cure, if the water is lodged only in the cellular membrane, ſcarifications may be made in the legs, as in an anaſarca; for in this caſe an anaſarca is attendant, and the cauſe of the diſtenſion of the ſcrotum.

If the caſe is a proper *hydrocele*, if any other diſorder is ſuſpected to give riſe to it, the original diſorder muſt firſt be removed. If no ſuch diſorder attend, as a palliative cure, the trochar, or a lancet, may be puſhed into the ſeat of the water, in order to its diſcharge; and as the

teſticle lies always on the poſterior part of the tumor, the perforation muſt be made into the anterior and lower part of it. Mr. Pott propoſes a radical cure, by exciting an artificial inflammation in the tunica albuginea, and the tunica vaginalis, by means of a ſeton, ſo as to produce an obliteration of the cavity, which is the ſeat of the diſeaſe.

See Monro on Tumors of the Scrotum, in the Edinb. Med. Eſſays, vol. v. Bertrandi's Diſſertation on the Hydrocele, in the Mem. de l'Acad. Roy. de Chirurgie, tom. iii. Le Dran's Operations; Sharp's Operations, and his Critical Enquiry; Douglas on the Hydrocele; and Mr. Pott's Account of the Method of obtaining a radical Cure of the Hydrocele.

HYDROCELE SPINALIS, i. e. Spina bifida.

HYDROCELE PERITONÆI. The ſame as aſcites.

HYDROCELODES (ISCHURIA). A ſuppreſſion of urine from a rupture of the urethra opening into the ſcrotum.

HYDROCEPHALUM, i. e. Hydrocephalus.

HYDROCEPHALUS, from ὑδωρ, *water*, and κεφαλη, *the head*. It is an effuſion of water in the cranium, between it and the brain; and taking riſe from the ventricles, the ſerum is infiltrated through the whole ſubſtance of the brain; or the water is betwixt the ſkull and the ſkin. Dr. Cullen places the external *hydrocephalus* as a genus in the claſs cachexiæ, and order intumeſcentiæ. The internal *hydrocephalus* he places as a ſpecies of apoplexy. Dr. Fothergill names the internal *hydrocephalus*, the dropſy of the ventricles of the brain, for the ventricles are the proper ſeat of the diſeaſe.

It hath been termed internal when the water is ſeated between the brain and the ſkull; and external, when betwixt the ſkull and the ſkin.

This diſorder, whether external or internal, moſt frequently happens to children; but inſtances have occurred of adults being the ſubjects of it.

The beginning ſymptoms of the internal *hydrocephalus* may ſomewhat vary in different ſubjects; but in general, a pain in the nape of the neck, or the ſhoulders, or ſometimes in the lower limbs; very rarely, though it now and then happens, that the arms are complained of: when theſe parts are not the ſeat of complaint, the head and ſtomach are more or leſs uneaſy, a ſickneſs comes on, and various other ſymptoms, which ſo reſemble diſorders from worms, that ſome difficulty attends the judging the diſorder to have any other cauſe; after a few days, ſymptoms are more alarming; a violent pain is deep ſeated in in the head, extending from temple to temple, and acroſs the forehead; ſickneſs is at times conſiderable; now and then the patient doſes, the breathing becomes irregular, and the patient frequently ſighs; the pulſe becomes ſlow and irregular; at the beginning, and a little before death's approach, feveriſhneſs attends, eſpecially towards evening; at laſt the pulſe quickens, the breathing is very laborious and difficult, the heat exceſſive, almoſt every ſymptom, from irritation in the brain, by turns attend; the patient is averſe to the light, takes things greedily, and cannot bear any poſture but to lie horizontally; the excrements are inſenſibly voided; the hands are commonly kept about the head; the eyelids become paralytic, and the iris immoveable; a great heat and ſweat ſpreads all over the body; the pulſe trembles, and ſtrength ſoon fails, if a ſudden convulſion does not end the cataſtrophe.

Many of theſe ſymptoms are ſo common to worm caſes, teething, and other irritating cauſes, that it is difficult to fix upon any which particularly characteriſes the diſeaſe. The moſt peculiar ſeem to be the pains in the limbs, with ſickneſs and head-ach, which laſt is inceſſant, and which though frequent in other diſeaſes of children, are neither ſo uniformly nor ſo conſtantly attendant as in this. Another circumſtance obſerved to be familiar, if not peculiar to this diſtemper, is, that the patients are not only coſtive, but it is with the greateſt difficulty that ſtools can be procured: theſe are generally of a very dark greeniſh colour, with an oilyneſs or glaſſy bile, rather than the ſlime which accompanies worms; and they are for the moſt part extremely offenſive. In complaints ariſing from worms, from dentition, and other irritating cauſes, ſpaſms are more frequent than in this diſorder.

No cauſe is diſcovered of theſe violent ſymptoms, but a quantity of pure ſerum in the ventricles of the brain; in a natural ſtate there is not more than half an ounce in all the four cavities, whence four ounces may be eaſily ſuppoſed to be the adequate cauſe of this diſorder, as well as that a ſmall degree of depreſſion of the ſkull is the cauſe of its uſual effects.

In infancy, before the bones of the cranium are fully formed, a much larger quantitity of water is contained under them, without the attendance of any of theſe violent ſymptoms. When the diſorder is begun thus early, the head is ſometimes greatly enlarged, the bones then grow ſoft, the features are greatly changed, and the eyes goggle.

There is a ſpurious kind of *hydrocephalus*, much of the ſame nature as the ſpina bifida. It appears on the lower part of the occiput like a bladder of water, underneath which is a deficience of bone. Opening it would be as fatal as the opening the ſpina biſida.

Many authors have wrote on this ſubject; but Dr. Whytt's Hiſtory of the Hydrocephalus, in a tract at the end of his works, is the beſt of any other. To this may be added, the Obſervations on it, by Dr. Fothergill and Dr. Watſon, in the London Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv.

As to the cure none is pretended to, as from the ſituation of the cauſe no remedy can be applied: however, as the ſymptoms from worms are ſo ſimilar to the beginning ſymptoms of the *hydrocephalus*, which happens to thoſe whoſe ſkull is perfectly oſſified, anthelminthics are to be tried; as when worms are the cauſe, relief is thus obtained; and when the *hydrocephalus* produces them, ſuch remedies are not in any degree injurious.

Much hath been aſſerted in favour of exciting a ſalivation by means of mercury, at leaſt of uſing it ſo as to reſtore the neceſſary abſorption of the fluid in the ventricles of the brain; but it is objected, that when mercury hath been uſeful, the diſeaſe hath been miſtaken, and that it was not the internal *hydrocephalus*. See the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. Edinb. Med. Com. vol. v. vii. and viii.

Dr. Monro, in his Obſervations on the Structure, &c. of the Nerves, proves, that the four ventricles of the brain communicate with each other. He obſerves, that in the bodies of every one of fifteen children, who died from internal *hydrocephalus*, that all the ventricles were diſtended, and their paſſages from one to the other were much enlarged: in none of theſe caſes was there any water between the dura mater and ſurface of the brain, but on cutting into one of the lateral ventricles, all the ventricles were emptied. He further adds, that in the chronic ſpecies of internal *hydrocephalus*, where the head is enlarged by water within the ventricles, ſome ſurgeons have ventured to diſcharge the water by a puncture with the trochar. But in two or three caſes, where children had died from a great collection of water within the ventricles, he hath obſerved that, when the brain collapſed after cutting into one of the ventricles, ſome part of the ſeptum lucidum was lacerated by the weight of the brain, or of the water in the oppoſite ventricle, which did not readily enough eſcape by the natural communication. So that, upon the whole, if we properly conſider the various dangers which muſt ariſe from the puncture of the brain, and the laceration of the ſeptum between the ventricles, from the unequal bending and preſſure of the parts when the brain collapſes; from the admiſſion of the air to the ſurface of the brain, which cannot well, or at all, be prevented, becauſe the bones cannot, by the application of a bandage, be brought to yield inwards, ſo as to be adapted exactly to the ſhape of the brain, ſuch propoſals will appear improper in the higheſt degree. If, indeed, the water is ſituated between the dura mater and ſurface of the brain, and of courſe between the ſpinal marrow and its ſheath from the dura mater, a caſe which, perhaps, more rarely happens than is generally ſuppoſed; or if, from a very evident fluctuation, chiefly about the bregma, we ſtrongly ſuſpect this to be the caſe, it will, probably, be adviſeable to give the patient the only, though ſmall, chance of cure by the operation. In one caſe, of a boy of three years of age, whom I viſited in 1764, with the late Dr. Whytt, &c. the head was greatly enlarged, with all the ordinary ſymptoms of *hydrocephalus*. Dr. Whytt, who had ſeen ſeveral patients killed by a few ounces of water within the ventricles, and had never ſeen

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the head ſenſibly enlarged by water lodged in the ventricles, inſiſted, that the water muſt be ſituated on the outſide of the brain; and, as I could not prove what I ſuppoſed, that it was within the brain, it was agreed that a ſurgeon ſhould be called, and a puncture made. Mr. James Rae was aſked to attend, and I propoſed that the puncture ſhould be cautiouſly made with a lancet, at the outer ſide of the bregma, as far as poſſible from the ſuperior longitudinal ſinus. The ſkin being accordingly firſt cut, and then the dura mater, and a probe introduced without diſcharging water, we deſiſted from making any farther attempt. The puncture ſoon cloſed, and the child ſurvived three months. After death I opened the head; we drew from the ventricles above two pounds of water.

HYDROCISTIS. Encyſted dropſy, or dropſy of a particular part.

HYDROCERATOPHYLLON. See CERATOPHYLLON.

HYDROCOTYLE. The name of a plant mentioned by Boerhaave, but of no note in medicine.

HYDROGARON. Garum diluted with water.

HYDROLAPATHUM, i. e. Lapathum aquaticum folio cubitali.

HYDROMELI. Hydromel. It is water impregnated with honey. It is alſo called mulſum, aqua mulſa, or melicratum. After it is fermented, it is called vinous hydromel, or mead.

HYDROMELON. It is made of one part honey, impregnated with quinces, and two parts of boiled water, ſet in the ſun, during the dog-days.

HYDROMETRA. Dropſy of the womb. In this caſe the hypogaſtric region in women is gradually increaſed, and the ſwelling reſembles the ſhape of the womb; on preſſure a fluctuation is perceived; it may take place during pregnancy, but uſually it is not attendant. It is formed by ſeroſity accumulated in the cavity of the womb. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs cachexiæ, and order intumeſcentiæ. See HYDROPS UTERI.

HYDROMETRA OVARII. Dropſy of the ovaries.

HYDROMPHALON, from ὕδωρ, *water*, and ὀμφαλος, *a navel*. A tumor of the navel, containing water.

HYDRONOSOS, from ὕδωρ, *water*, and νοσος, *a diſeaſe*, i. e. the ſudor Anglicus.

HYDROPEGE. Spring-water.

HYDROPEDESIS. The ſame as EPHIDROSIS, which ſee.

HYDROPHOBIA, from ὕδωρ, *water*, and φοβεω, *to fear*. A dread of water. It is a ſymptom of that ſpecies of madneſs cauſed by the bite of a mad animal, whence the diſtemper is called ſo itſelf; but this ſymptom is not peculiar to this diſeaſe, nor always attendant on it. This diſorder is alſo called rabies canina. Dr. James obſerves, that this kind of madneſs properly belongs to the canine genus, conſiſting of three ſpecies, viz. dogs, foxes, and wolves, to whom only it ſeems inherent and natural, ſcarcely ever appearing in other animals, except it be inflicted by thoſe of the dog-kind. Dr. Heyſham defines it to be an averſion and horror at liquids, as exciting a painful convulſion of the pharynx, occurring at an indetermined period, after the canine virus has been received into the ſyſtem.

The *hydrophobia* is a nervous diſorder, though followed by inflammatory ſymptoms. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſis, and order ſpaſmi. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies. 1. *Hydrophobia* rabioſa, when there is a deſire of biting. 2. *Hydrophobia* ſimplex, when there is not a deſire of biting.

The general diviſions of this diſorder is into the dumb, and the raving madneſs; but inſtances are related in which it hath appeared periodically.

The principal and original ſeat ſeems to be about the ſtomach, and parts contiguous to it. Dr. Seleg thinks that it is in the par vagum and intercoſtal nerves; for moſt of the ſymptoms happen where theſe nerves are interſperſed.

The ſmalleſt quantity of the ſaliva of a mad dog, and that either freſh or dry, produces this diſeaſe. The infection may lay dormant for many months, but in general it appears in three or four weeks, and if in ſix weeks no ſign of diſorder manifeſts itſelf, the patient is uſually concluded to be ſafe. Some have obſerved, that the nearer the place bitten is to the ſalivary glands, the ſooner the ſymptoms appear. In order to communicate the infection, a wound ſeems to be no more neceſſary than it is in the ſmall-pox; to man it is communicated by the ſaliva only, but dogs have received it by being in the kennel where mad dogs have been before. It is above obſerved, that the dog kind have only this diſorder naturally, but other animals having received the infection, may communicate it to other ſpecies. The dread of water is a ſymptom in ſome fevers, and in ſome particular inflammations. &c.

The material or proximate cauſe ſeems to be in the irritation of the nerves that are the more immediate ſeat of this complaint.

According to Boerhaave, the ſigns of madneſs in a dog are as follow: he becomes dull, ſolitary, and endeavours to hide himſelf; he ſeldom barks, but makes a kind of murmuring noiſe, at the ſame time he refuſes all kinds of meat and drink; he is enraged at and flies upon ſtrangers, but in this ſtage he remembers and reſpects his maſter; his ears and head hang down; he walks nodding, as if overpowered with ſleep: this is the firſt ſtage, and a bite now, though dangerous, is not ſo bad as afterwards. After theſe ſymptoms, the dogs begin to pant; he breathes quick and heavy; hangs out his tongue to emit a great deal of froth from his mouth, which he keeps perpetually open; ſometimes he walks ſlowly, and as if half aſleep, and then ſuddenly runs, but not always directly forward as is pretended; at length he forgets his maſter, his eyes look diſpirited, dull, full of tears, and red; his tongue is of a lead colour; he is ſuddenly extenuated; he grows faint and weak, oft falls down, then riſes up, and attempts to fly at every thing, and now grows mad and furious: this ſecond ſtage ſeldom continues thirty hours, death putting by that time an end to the diſeaſe, and a bite received now is incurable.

To theſe ſymptoms the following may be added, which are conſidered as certain ſigns of a dog's being mad: 1. All other dogs, upon ſmelling the dog that is going mad, will avoid him, and run away with horror. 2. The tone of the dog's voice, when he barks, ſeems hollow and hoarſe. In the dumb madneſs, if the dog is confined, he barks inceſſantly for a day or two.

When the human ſpecies are the ſubjects of this diſorder, though in particular inſtances ſome variation may be obſerved, the ſymptoms are in general a ſlight pain in the wound, ſometimes attended with itching, but always reſembling a rheumatic pain; it extends alſo into the neighbouring parts, and, at length, from the extremities it paſſes into the viſcera; the cicatrix (if there hath been a wound) begins to ſwell, inflames, and at length diſcharges an ichor; this pain is conſidered as the primary invariable mark of a beginning *hydrophobia*. There are other more general pains reſembling rheumatic ones; they are of a quick, flying, convulſive kind; they affect the patient in the neck, joints, and other parts; often a dull pain ſeizes the head, neck, breaſt, belly, and even runs along the back bone; towards the concluſion of the diſorder, the patient complains of this kind of pain ſhooting from the arms towards the breaſt and region of the heart: beſides theſe ſymptoms, a laſſitude, a dull pain in the head, and a vertigo come on; the patient is gloomy, murmurs much, is forgetful, drowſy, at times his mind ſeems diſordered, by turns he is wrathful, his ſlumbers become diſturbed, and, awaking from them, convulſive agitations immediately follow; a deafneſs is ſometimes complained of, the eyes are watery, the aſpect ſorrowful, the face becomes pale and contracted, ſweat alſo breaks out about the temples, an unuſual flow of ſaliva at length comes on, with a dryneſs of the fauces, a foulneſs of the tongue, and in ſome the breath becomes fetid. Beſides theſe, from the beginning there is a peculiar ſtricture and heavineſs on the breaſt, a ſtruggling as it were for breath, a ſighing, a naufea, and vomiting. This oppreſſion of the præcordia, is one of the primary and conſtant ſymptoms of this diſorder; it begins, increaſes, and ends only with it: this is the firſt ſtage, under which different patients vary as to their continuance. As the above ſymptoms increaſe, the ſecond ſtage advances; a fever comes on, which at firſt

firſt is mild, and attended with momentary horrors, but in ſome there is no fever; wakefulneſs becomes continual, the mind is more and more diſturbed, a delirium approaches, and an averſion to fluids and poliſhed bodies. At firſt a conſtriction of the gullet is perceived, and difficulty of ſwallowing, but as yet liquids are freely taken; afterwards, however, they are refuſed; this ſymptom augments ſo viſibly, that when any liquid comes before their ſight, immediately an horror ſeizes them, and if they ſtrive to drink, ſpaſms are produced, on which anxiety and loſs of ſenſes follow: as ſoon as the ſurface of the liquid is touched, a ſtrangulation in the throat is felt, the ſtomach is inflated, the larynx outwardly is ſwelled, and that quite ſuddenly, and as ſuddenly falls; though liquids are thus obſtructed, ſolids are nevertheleſs ſwallowed with tolerable eaſe; yet this ſymptom may become ſo violent as totally to prevent the ſolids from paſſing as well as liquids. In ſome an exquiſite ſenſibility is induced, ſo that the air offends if it touches the ſkin, the light becomes painful, and the leaſt ſound is intolerable. The patient now murmurs and mourns grievouſly; at times he loſes all knowledge of his moſt intimate acquaintance, he then becomes deſirous of biting; reaſon returns at intervals, and he laments his own calamity; the thirſt excites a deſire of drink, but in vain they ſtrive, and ſoon ſink into the moſt affecting deſpondency; conſcious of the approaching inclination to bite, he warns his friends of their danger, and adviſes them to keep at a diſtance; a priapiſm, and involuntary emiſſions of ſemen, ſometimes attend this ſtage, at the approaching concluſion of which the fever and thirſt increaſe, the urine is lixivious, and but in ſmall quantities, the tongue hangs out, the mouth foams, the pulſe is throbbing and convulſive, ſtrength fails, cold ſweats come on, the tightneſs in the breaſt increaſes, by which the patient ſoon expires in ſpaſms.

The ſymptoms appear in ſome two or three days after the bite, more frequently not until after as many weeks; and inſtances are well atteſted, in which a year hath paſſed before the infection hath taken place; when the diſorder is once manifeſt, the ſymptoms are ſometimes ſo rapid, that a quarter, or half an hour, makes a conſiderable change.

The infection may be communicated, as that of the ſmall-pox is, by inoculation; and it is obſervable, that when the ſmall-pox is inoculated, if no inflammation appears about the puncture, or till after the inflammation appears, there is no ſmall-pox ever comes forth; ſo the ſame is obſervable in the bite of a mad-dog, though the wound readily heals ſometimes, yet it conſtantly breaks out a freſh, and inflames before any of the terrible ſymptoms appear.

That this diſorder is primarily and principally nervous, appears from the conſtant and chief ſymptoms that attend, viz. the flying pains, the tightneſs of the precordia, the difficulty of ſwallowing, the horror on the approach of water, the quick ſenſibility manifeſt by the uneaſineſs felt on the air's approach, &c. Diſſection diſcovers nothing with reſpect to this diſorder.

Agreeable to the nature of the immediate cauſe, the cure is effected only by ſuch means as deſtroy nervous or ſpaſmodic irritation, or that by a ſpecific property deſtroys the peculiar acrimony which cauſes the diſorder. Of the firſt, opium is the only one to be depended on; and of the ſecond, mercury in ſuch portions as to excite a ptyaliſm, is the approved means.

Solid opium, to the quantity of gr. i. vel gr. i. ſs. may be given every three hours, or as often as the effect of the preceding doſe ſeems to have ceaſed. Muſk, in large doſes, may alſo be adminiſtered every ſix or eight hours; ſponges dipt in vinegar may be applied to the mouth and noſtrils; and a piece of flannel, moiſtened in the following, may be applied three or four times a day. ℞ Tinct. Thebaic. ℥ ii. camp. ʒ i. m. The warm bath is alſo uſeful.

In ſome inſtances, mercury, given by the mouth, or applied by unction, until a ſpitting came on, has proved effectual. The ſalivation ſhould be kept up by the ſame means as at firſt it was excited, and continued during two or three weeks. The ungu. cœrul. fort. ſhould be well rubbed into the wound two or three times a day.

A late foreign writer ſays, that if vinegar is given to a pint a day, divided into three doſes, one in the morning, another at noon, the third at night, it effects a cure. On the contrary, ſome others ſuppoſe the poiſon communicated by a mad dog, is of an acid nature, and propoſe abſorbent alkaline earth, as chalk, bole, &c. for the cure. Dr. Vaughan propoſes the actual cautery to be applied to the part after the bite as ſoon as poſſible; or rather, a dilatation of the wound, if ſmall, and filling it with gunpowder, then ſetting fire to it; this he ſuppoſes would produce a laceration of the part, would ſecure a free and continued diſcharge for ſome time, and he thinks that the action of the ignited gunpowder upon the poiſon may have its uſe.

Perhaps the following may be purſued as the moſt probable means of relief that the preſent art directs. Avoid ſea and cold bathing; keep the wound open by a pea, and ſprinkle cantharides into it every ſecond or third day; rub in the ung. cœrul. fort. ſo as to raiſe a gentle ptyaliſm, and particularly rub the throat with it; if ſpaſmodic ſymptoms appear, give opiates with antimonials to excite perſpiration. ℞ Opium, gr. xij. f. pil. ix. cujus cap. i. tertia quaque hora. And ℞ Tart. emet. gr. ½. micis panis q. ſ. f. pil. ſexta. quaq; hora ſpatiis intermediis ſumend. The warm bath, if the patient does not object to it, generally palliates.

See Aetius, Cœlius Aurelianus, Lommius, Layard, Deſault, Choiſel; Dr. James's Treatiſe on Canine Madneſs; Dr. Mead on the Bite of a Mad-dog; Dr. Seleg's Diſſertation on the Hydrophobia; Dr. Nugent's Eſſay on the Hydrophobia; Med. Muſ. vol. ii. p. 97, &c. Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. and Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii. Edinb. Med. Comment. vol. v. 42. Dr. Vaughan's two Caſes of the Hydrophobia.

HYDROPHTHALMIA. See PROPTOSIS.

HYDROPHTHALMION. It is the part under the eye, which ſwells in cachectic and hydropic caſes.

HYDROPHYLLON. Water-leaf. It is a plant with a bell-ſhaped flower, but not noted for any medical virtue.

HYDROPHYSOCELE, from ὕδωρ, *water*, φῦσα, *a flatus*, and κήλη, *a hernia*. An hernia, proceeding from a mixture of water and flatulencies.

HYDROPIPER. A name of the perſicaria urens.

HYDROPNEUMOSARCA, from ὕδωρ, *water*, πνεῦμα, *ſpirit, or wind*, and σαρξ, *fleſh*. It is a tumor, or abſceſs, from a mixture of flatulent, aqueous, and carnous ſubſtances.

HYDROPOIDES, from ὑδρωψ, *a dropſy*, and εἶδος, a *reſemblance*. It is applied to aqueous excretions, ſuch as are common in dropſies

HYDROPS, from ὕδωρ, *water*. A dropſy. In reality there are but two kinds, viz. the anaſarca and the aſcites, though many other diſorders have this name annexed to them, as hydrocephalus, hydrocele, &c.

All *dropſies* are chronical diſeaſes from lax fibres; this laxity of the fibres may be general or particular: its general, if not univerſal concomitant, is a redundant ſerum. In the anaſarca, the water is clear and limpid, but in the aſcites it is more thick and gelatinous, or even ſometimes mixed with fleſhy concretions.

All ages, and both ſexes, are liable to this diſorder; but generally it happens to men advanced in years, and to women after child-bearing. Thoſe who live in low wet ſituations, whoſe employ requires much ſitting, and thoſe who make too free with ſpirituous liquors.

The general, or immediate cauſe of all *dropſies*, is the exhalent veſſels throwing off more fluid, than the abſorbent veſſels can take up again. Dr. Hunter thinks that the water in anaſarcas tranſudes through the ſides of the veſſels; but however this may be, if the water is not taken up by the abſorbent veſſels, a *dropſy* is the conſequence. The mediate cauſe is a defect of vital heat. The remote cauſes are numerous; ſuch as immoderate evacuations, diſeaſes of long ſtanding, immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors, water drinking too ſuddenly after being accuſtomed to more generous liquor, a ſcorbutic acrimony, a ſcirrhous liver, which generally begets an aſcites, becauſe of the rupture of one or more of the lymphatics which ſpread on its ſurface, a defect in the kidnies, and aſthma, &c.

One of the firſt ſigns of a *dropſy* is the pitting of the

ankles, this indicates the anaſarcous ſpecies: but this is not ſo certain a ſign in women as in men, becauſe that women are ſubject to it from pregnancy, a ſuppreſſion of the menſes, &c. Nor, indeed, is it always a ſign in men; for in old men, with groſs habits, who have been aſthmatic during ſome years, and are ſuddenly freed from it, a ſwelling will affect their legs, without any farther harm; yet when a difficulty of breathing attends this ſtate in men, a dropſy is certainly their diſorder. The pathognomonic ſigns of the aſcites are a thirſt, high-coloured urine in ſmall quantities, and difficulty of breathing. See ANASARCA and ASCITES.

The aſcites dropſy ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from pregnancy; a mole, or other tumor in the uterus; a tympany; and œdematous tumors, of the feet, legs, and thighs, &c.

Dropſies are not readily fatal, except they have polypous concretions in the heart, or pulmonary veſſels; a ſcirrhous liver; tumefied meſenteric glands; or, if women, a ſcirrhous or otherwiſe diſordered uterus. Purging prevents the efficacy of medicines, and ſo is a dangerous circumſtance. Bleeding of the noſe, ulcers breaking out, or a gangrene appearing in any part, are fatal. Great thirſt, the upper parts greatly extenuated, febrile horror with external heat, are very dangerous. An eryſipelas on the legs, livid ſtreaks or ſpots on the ſkin, or a dropſy coming on in the breaſt, are alſo among the fatal ſymptoms.

The general indications of cure are, to promote the natural ſecretions, and to increaſe the animal heat; but if the viſcera are unſound, this latter cannot be effected.

The diet ſhould be nouriſhing, light, and cordial; ſpices, muſtard, horſe-radiſh, &c. are to be freely uſed, and vinous liquors ſhould be freely drank.

Proper evacuants for carrying off the redundant humours, and ſuitable alteratives for reſtoring the natural vigour of the conſtitution. See ANASARCA, and ASCITES.

Whether the cure be of the radical or palliative kind, much relief is afforded to the patient by moderating certain ſymptoms, ſuch as,

Thirſt. This is cauſed by the acrimony of the lymph, and a defective ſecretion of the ſaliva; in this caſe let the patient drink in proportion to his inclination, and his palate may direct the choice of liquor. Acid liquors, ſuch as cyder, or in want of it, give vinegar mixed with the ſpirit of juniper and water, or Rheniſh wine and water, or ſuch others as convenience will admit of. Nitre may be held in the mouth.

Difficulty of breathing. If the dropſy was cauſed by a ſanguineous aſthma, ſome recommend the loſs of a few ounces of blood; but though a momentary relief is thus obtained, the injury from it is more to be feared than the advantage will reaſonably admit of hazarding. The ſafeſt method is, if poſſible, to obtain relief with a mixture of the gum ammon. gr. vi. or viii. and acet. ſcillit. ʒ i. ſs. in any proper vehicle; this may be repeated, as the occaſion requires. The infuſion of garlic is alſo efficacious.

Hyſteric or nervous affections. Theſe are often occaſioned by an acid in the primæ viæ: give the mixture preſcribed againſt a diarrhœa; and if the globus hyſtericus diſturbs the patient, the following liniment may be rubbed on the belly every night: R Balſ. anod. Bat. ℥ i. ol. palmæ ℥ ſs. ol. menth. ʒii. m.

A purging. In this caſe all other medicines than what removes it are uſeleſs. R Sal tart. ʒi. ſs. fac. alb. ℥ ſs. aq. menth. vulg. ſi. ℥ x. m. cap. cochl. ii. quatuor in die. This mixture neutralizes the acidity in the primæ viæ, directs the offending matter to the kidnies, and not by the anus, and thus this ſymptom is often removed.

Vomiting. This is often occaſioned by acidity in the ſtomach, and a gentle doſe of ipecacuanha as often relieves it.

Sickneſs. This is frequently relieved by the julep. perlat. or a little of the ſp. vol. arom. in aq. menth. pip. though, as the cauſes vary, they ſhould be attended to, and the remedies reſpectively adapted.

Gripes. R Calom. gr. iv. vel vi. pulv. rhab. gr. xxv. ol. menth. gut. ii. ſal tart. gr. v. ſyr. q. ſ. f. bol. h. ſ. ſumend.

Pain in the ſcrobicula cordis. This is generally relieved by two or three grains of ipecacuanha.

See Hoffman, Boerhaave, Liſter, and Lyſſon on this diſeaſe; Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham's Works, edit. 2. p. 463, &c. Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic; Le Dran's Operations; Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. Brooks's and the London Practice of Phyſic.

HYDROPS ARTICULI. A ſpecies of ſpina ventoſa.

HYDROPS CYSTICUS. The encyſted dropſy. It is a collection of water encloſed in a cyſtis, that is in an hydatid, and is moſt frequently in the abdomen. Generally it is ſeated on the liver; but on whatever part it is fixed, a ſcirrhus is previouſly there; ſo that a radical cure is not to be expected. Whilſt the ſize is moderate, there is no uneaſineſs, but pain increaſes with its bulk. If there is a ſingle cyſtis, and it is large, its water is diſcovered as in an aſcites, by applying one hand to the ſide of the belly, and tapping with the other on the oppoſite ſide; but if the cyſts are many, the fluctuation is not eaſily perceived. When the cyſt is ſingle, tapping may be uſed as a palliative remedy; but when the cyſts are more, leſs advantage is obtained therefrom. See Le Dran's Operations, edit. 2. p. 129.

HYDROPS GENU. A dropſy in the knee. When water is collected under the capſular ligament of the knee, this diſorder is formed. Dr. Hunter obſerves that if the ſynovia is ſeparated in too large a quantity, and the abſorbent veſſels do not their duty properly, an hydrops articuli ſucceeds, which cauſes a relaxation of the ligament. Mr. Sharp recommends, in order to the cure, a tight bandage, leaving the ſuperfluity to be abſorbed by the bibulous veins. To this might be added ſome attenuating and diſcutient embrocation, ſuch as the ſp. Mindereri, or a ſolution of ſal ammon. crud. in acet. acerim. their proportion may be ʒ ſs. to ℔ i. See Gooch's Caſes and Remarks, vol. ii. p. 259—266.

HYDROPS AD MATULAM, i. e. The diabetes.

HYDROPS MEDULLÆ SPINALIS, i. e. Spinæ bifidæ.

HYDROPS OVARIÆ. A dropſy of the ovaria. This ſpecies of *dropſy* moſt frequently happens to the barren and ſuperannuated. It is one of the encyſted kind, and ſometimes happens to pregnant women. It uſually begins without any pain, the woman at the ſame time continuing in good health. It is not perceived until it is much enlarged, and commonly affects but one ſide. It is known by its being moveable, when the patient is laid on her back, to relax the muſcles, then the lumps may be moved from ſide to ſide; by paſſing the finger up the vagina, the orifice of the uterus is found to move with the tumor, which diſtinguiſhes it from the aſcites, &c. though when the fluid is contained in one bag, and is very thin, if the bag alſo extends to the ſcrobiculum cordis, it is very difficult to ſay whether the diſorder is the aſcites or the *dropſical ovary*; but when there are ſeveral cyſts, there are manifeſt inequalities. Generally this diſorder terminates in an univerſal leucophlegmacy. Internal medicines are of no efficacy towards a cure, and it rarely happens otherwiſe than that other methods of relief increaſe the complaints and haſten death. Dr. Percival gives an inſtance of a cure being effected by a ſpontaneous vomiting; ſee his Eſſays Med. and Exp. But the general health of the patient is the whole that can reaſonably be attempted.

HYDROPS PECTORIS. See HYDROTHORAX. A dropſy in the breaſt. When water is extravaſated in the cavity of the breaſt, this diſorder is formed; the water may be in only one, or both ſides of the mediaſtinum. But ſometimes this fluid is contained in hydatids, whoſe ſituation may be on the diaphragm, the pleura, on the external ſurface of the lungs, or in the ſubſtance thereof, alſo on the ſurface of the heart, or in the pericardium.

When the water is contained in the hydatids, the knowledge of the caſe and cure are alike hid from us.

Any of the cauſes of a *dropſy* may produce this ſpecies; it ſometimes happens from a diſorder of the lungs, and generally the rupture of a lymphatic is the cauſe.

The ſymptoms, particularly when the water is extrava-

ſated

fated on the diaphragm, are, an oppreſſion of the præcordia, and an extraordinary ſhortneſs of breath, which is better when the patient is in a ſupine poſture than when erect; by which it is diſtinguiſhed from the aſthma, in the fits of which the patient cannot lie down. In the *dropſy of the breaſt*, œdematcous ſwellings are not only obſerved in the feet, but alſo in the hands, which Baglivi ſays is a pathognomonic ſign. Inſpiration is more eaſy than expiration; if there is much water in one ſide, that ſide appears ſomewhat larger than the other, and the face, arm, and leg on that ſide are puffy.

Inſtances have occurred in which the water hath been abſorbed; but, for the moſt part, the patient falls a victim to the diſeaſe. As a palliative however, when the water is perceived to fluctuate, it may be drawn off by a canula and trochar, introduced betwixt the fourth and fifth of the falſe ribs, and about four fingers breadth from the ſpine. See Le Dran's Operations, edit. 2. p. 117, 118.

HYDROPS PULMONUM. The dropſy of the lungs. Its ſeat is in the cellular membrane of the lungs. Sometimes it approaches ſuddenly, and then it happens moſt probably from an hydatid burſting, and ſo filling the cellular membrane in this viſcus.

The diagnoſtics are very obſcure; however, though the following is ſometimes equivocal, it will generally point out this diſorder, particularly when the attack is ſudden. The difficulty in breathing is conſtant, and increaſed by the leaſt motion, though not much varied by different attitudes of the body; the patient complains of great anxiety about the præcordia, and when he attempts to take a deep inſpiration he finds it impoſſible to dilate his cheſt, and his breath ſeems to be ſuddenly ſtopped; the pulſe is ſmall, languid, and oppreſſed; the face pale and bloated; the legs uſually ſwelled, and the whole habit is for the moſt part leucophlegmatic.

In order to relief, a briſk mercurial cathartic ſhould immediately be given; after this give the ſeneka root in liberal doſes, for it contributes to relieve in every intention, operating powerfully by expectoration, urine, and perſpiration. Beſides theſe, the uſual diuretics, ſudorifics, &c may be adminiſtered, as ſometimes one medicine ſucceeds when others fail. If the caſe is deſperate, an opening may be tried, as in the operation for the empyema, and then a puncture may be made into the lungs to diſcharge its morbid contents. See Edinb. Med. Eſſays, vol. vi. p. 126. Percival's Eſſays Medical and Exper. p. 172.

HYDROPS SACCULUS LACHRYMALIS, i. e. Hernia lachrymalis.

HYDROPS SCROTI. See HYDROCELE.

HYDROPS TESTIS, i. e. Hydrocele.

HYDROPS UTERI. A dropſy of the womb. Its ſeat is in the cavity of the womb. Boerhaave obſerves that when the internal cavity of the womb is cloſed up, there is ſometimes ſo great a collection of water there, that the belly appears as if affected with an aſcites. See HYDROMETRA.

The diagnoſtics are not diſtinct, for many fallacious ſigns of pregnancy accompany this diſorder. It is diſtinguiſhed from the aſcites by its being confined to the region of the uterus; and by the thinneſs of the os tincæ. If the tumor is from a ſcirrhus, it is never in the middle, nor is it round, as is the *dropſy*.

The cure is difficult; for this kind of *dropſy* is ſoon followed by an anaſarca, a flow fever, and a maraſmus.

If a canula can be introduced into the uterus, it is the beſt and ſpeedieſt remedy; but ſometimes a ſcirrhus, a cicatrix, or tubercles prevent. If the canula cannot be introduced, uſe hard riding, violent ſhocks with emetics, ſternutatories, and briſk cathartics. As a deobſtruent, borax may be given from ten to twenty-five grains, twice a day. A peſſary may alſo be tried.

HYDROPYRETOS, from ὑδωρ, *water*, and πυρετος, *a fever*. Blancard ſays it is the ſame with the ſudor Anglicus.

HYDRORACHITIS. Alſo called ſpina bifida, ſpinoſa, hydrocele ſpinalis, ſpine dropſy, &c. It is a genus of diſeaſe, which Dr. Cullen places in the claſs cachexiæ and order intumeſcentiæ. See SPINA BIFIDA.

HYDROROSATON, from ὑδωρ, *water*, and ῥοδον, *a roſe*. It is a drink made of water, honey, and the juice of roſes. See Ægineta, l. vii. c. 15.

HYDRORRHODINON. It is water mixed with the oil of roſes. This Galen was uſed to give as an emetic in caſes of poiſon.

HYDROSACCHARUM. It is a compoſition of ſugar and water, which anſwers to the hydromeli by changing honey for ſugar.

HYDROSARCA, from ὑδωρ, *water*, and σαρξ, *fleſh*. A tumor or abſceſs produced of water and fleſh. See M. A. Severinus.

HYDROSARCOCELE, from ὑδωρ, *water*, σαρξ, *fleſh*. and κηλη, *an hernia*. A ſpecies of hernia is thus called; it is formed of water and fleſh.

HYDROSELINUM. Water parſley.

HYDROTHORAX. See HYDROPS PECTORIS. This genus of diſeaſe Dr. Cullen places in the claſs cachexiæ and order intumeſcentiæ.

HYDROTICUS, i. e. Hydragogus.

HYGIDION. A collyrium deſcribed by Ægineta, l. vii. c. 16.

HYGIEIA, or Hygeia, from ὑγιης, *ſound*. Health or ſoundneſs. Health admits of latitude, and is not one and the ſame in every perſon. In general, it is when the function of the body is uninterrupted, and the occaſions of life are performed with eaſe.

HYGIEIA. The name of a plaiſter, which is alſo called panacea, and the plaiſter of the three brothers. It is deſcribed in Aetius.

HYGIEINE, from ὑγιης, *ſound* or *healthy*. It is the firſt part of methodical medicine, being that which preſcribes rules for the preſervation of health.

HYGIENISTES. Hygieniſts. Phyſicians who only attended people in health, and that in order to preſerve the ſame, and to prevent diſeaſes. The temperaments of the conſtitution, the air lived in, the food lived on, the houſes dwelt in, the changes in the functions of the body, thoſe changes to which different ages, ſeaſons, climes, &c. expoſe people, were the objects of their attention.

HYGRA. Liquid plaiſters, alſo liquid roſin.

HYGROBLEPHARICUS, from ὑγρος, *humid*, and βλεφαρον, *an eye-lid*. An epithet given to ſome ducts or emunctories diſcovered in the extreme edge or inner part of the eye-lids.

HYGROCIRSOCELE, from ὑγρος, *humid*, κιρσος, *a varix*, and κηλη, *a tumor*. A ſpecies of hernia: it is when the ſpermatic veins are varicous, and the ſcrotum is filled with water.

HYGROCOLLYRIUM, from ὑγρος, *humid*, and κολλυριον, *a collyrium*. A liquid collyrium, or when a collyrium conſiſts chiefly of liquids.

HYGROLOGIA. Hygrology. It treats of the various humours of the body.

HYGROMETRUM. The hygrometer. It is an inſtrument by which is ſhown the different degrees of moiſture in the atmoſphere. The word is derived from ὑγρος, *humid*, and μετρον, *a meaſure*. Wedelius gives this name by way of alluſion to the machine ſo called, to thoſe infirm parts whoſe ſuſceptibility of impreſſions ſhews different ſtates of the air, with reſpect to its moiſture more exactly than the inſtruments contrived for ſhewing the ſame.

HYGROMYRON. The name of a liquid ointment deſcribed by Aetius.

HYGROPHOBIA, i. e. Hydrophobia.

HYGROPHTHALMICUS, i. e. Hygroblepharicus.

HYLON. A ſpecies of cotton-tree.

HYMEN, ὑμην. A membrane in general; but by it is uſually underſtood the membrane which appears in the form of a creſcent, and its ſituated at the entrance of the vagina. When this membrane is ruptured, it is ſhriveled up, and forms the carunculæ myrtiformes. It naturally ſhrinks with years, and often diſappears before the age of twenty, ſo can be no proof of virginity.

In ſome infants this membrane ſo cloſes up the urethra, that the urine cannot be voided; in others the urine paſſes, but when the menſes flow they cannot be diſcharged, becauſe of the imperforated hymen.

When the mark of perforation cannot be ſeen, the cure is thought to be impracticable; but when the puncture of a lan-

a lancet could not produce the defired effect, a trochar and canula hath fucceeded, though a paſſage of four inches was perforated before the end was obtained. See Heiſter's Surgery, and the Edinb. Med. Commentaries.

HYMOCHYMA, from ὑποχέω, *to pour under*. A ſuffuſion of the eye.

HYOGLOSSUS. The name of a muſcle of the tongue It riſes from the baſis, but chiefly from the cornu of the os hyoides, running laterally and forwards, to ſhorten the tongue. Some divide this muſcle into three, and call them baſio-gloſſus, the chondro-gloſſus, and the cerato-gloſſus. Douglas divides it as follows. He ſays, it ariſes fleſhy from three different places; its firſt origin is broad and carnous from the cornu of the bone hyois; this is properly the ceratagloſſus: its ſecond head comes from part of the baſis of this bone, and its name baſiogloſſus: the third beginning is derived from the cartilaginous appendage of the hyoides, which ſome call chondrogloſſus: theſe three unite, and their fibres running in the ſame direction, they are inſerted broad and thin near the root of the tongue laterally. The uſe of each is to draw the tongue obliquely to one ſide; but if both act at once, the tongue is pulled directly backwards into the mouth. Douglas adds, that in ſome ſubjects he hath obſerved a great part of the muſcles did ariſe from the baſis of the bone, and in ſome others he found few or none of their fibres to ſpring from thence.

HYOIDES, (Os). from υ and εἶδος. It is ſituated in an horizontal poſition between the root of the tongue and the larynx; it is convex on its anterior part, and hollow on the poſterior; the cornua become ſmaller as they run back, and rather diverge; at the end of the cornua there is a graniform appendicle, from whence a ligament runs to the ſtyloid proceſs of the os temporis, and another ligament connects the bone to the larynx. The antient Greeks compared it to their vowel υ, whence its name hyoides, yoides, and ypſiloides. It is the baſis and ſupport of the tongue.

HYOPHARYNGÆUS. The hyopharyngæi muſcles, in general, are thoſe on each ſide which are inſerted in the os hyoides; and they may be reckoned three pairs, viz. the baſio pharyngæi, kerato-pharyngæus major and minor. They come from the baſis and the horns of the os hyoides. Innes calls it conſtrictor pharyngis medius, and deſcribes it as follows. It ariſes from the appendix of the os hyoides, from the cornu of that bone, and from the ligament which connects it to the thyroid cartilage, the fibres of the ſuperior part running obliquely upwards, and, covering a conſiderable part of the ſuperior conſtrictor, (i. e. cephalo-pharyngæus) terminate in a point. It is inſerted in the middle of the cuneiform proceſs of the os occipitis, before the foramen magnum, and joined to its fellow at a white line in the middle back part of the pharynx. The fibres at the middle part run more tranſverſely than thoſe above or below. Its uſe is to compreſs that part of the pharynx which it covers, and to draw it and the os hyoides upwards. See Pharynx.

HYOPHTHALMOS, from ὗς, *a ſwine*, and ὀφθαλμὸς, *an eye*. Hogs eye. It is a name for the aſter atticus, and alſo for a ſpecies of achates.

HYOSCIAMUS, from ὗς, *a ſwine*, and κύαμος, *a bean*. Hog's bean; but the plants to which this name is given are called hen-banes. Theſe plants have hairy, oblong, deep-indented leaves, and bell-ſhaped flowers, which are followed by irregular cup-like capſules, which contain the ſeeds. Boerhaave enmerates eight ſpecies.

HYOSCIAMUS NIGER. Hyoſciamus foliis amplexicaulibus ſinuatis floribus ſeſſilibus. Linn. called alſo apollinaris, altercum, faba ſuilla, common or black henbane. It is one of the poiſonous vegetables that are indigenous in Great Britain. The root is long, tough, white, and when recently cut through, ſmells like liquorice; the ſtalks are thick, round, woody, irregularly branched, and covered with a hairy down. The leaves ſurrounding the ſtalk at their baſe, ſtand irregularly: they are large, ſoft, and downy, pointed at the ends, and very deeply indented at the edges; their colour is a greyiſh green, and they have a viroſe, diſagreeable ſmell. The flowers are monopetalous, divided into five obtuſe ſegments, and when accurately examined, are not without beauty, although they have a diſagreeable appearance on the plant: they are large, of a dirty yellowiſh colour, reticulated with violet-coloured veins. The ſeed-veſſels follow one after every flower: they are large, and contain a great quantity of ſeeds of a brown, rough, and irregular figure.

This is the only ſpecies of henbane that is a native of Great Britain; and it is a dangerous poiſon. The ſeeds, leaves, and roots, if received into the ſtomach, are all poiſonous. The root, in a ſuperior degree, produces various diſorders; madneſs is one effect of this vegetable, if the ſtomach does not reject what it has received, a ſtupor and apoplectic ſymptoms, terminating in death, are the uſual conſequences.

Henbane, in its external appearances, much reſembles parſnep, from the uſe of which we are often told that ill effects follow: it is probable that in thoſe inſtances the roots of henbane have been miſtaken for thoſe of parſneps, for henbane is often found on dunghills, and with the dung is carried into gardens, where, with parſneps, &c. it grows up and is miſtaken for what it is not.

The ſymptoms which ariſe in conſequence of ſwallowing this ſpecies of henbane, are, madneſs of the furious kind, which endures for ſome days; in ſome inſtances it produces apoplectic diſorders, with a hard full pulſe, red face, an abolition of the ſenſes and voluntary motions, and difficult reſpiration; in others, ſtupidity or an appearance of intoxication are the conſequences. Some on ſwallowing the ſeeds, have complained of thirſt, giddineſs, dimneſs of ſight, raving, and profound ſleep; a dilated pupil is often an effect of this poiſon. The poiſon of henbane is very ſimilar in its effect to that of opium when taken in large quantities, and like opium, if adminiſtered with ſkill, it is a valuable ſedative, anodyne, and moderates exceſs of irritability. It poſſeſſeth the advantages of opium with the additional one of keeping the bowels lax.

Its ill effects are relieved as directed in the article Amanita, which ſee.

Dr. Stork preſſed out the juice from this plant, and with a gentle heat inſpiſſated it to an extract; of this he gave from one grain to twenty, every twenty-four hours; thus he relieved many from palpitations of the heart, a tendency to melancholy, coughs, and other ſpaſmodic diſorders, and convulſions, and this after other means failed. See his account of this plant, or ſee an abſtract from it in the Med. Muſ. vol. i.

See Lewis's Mat. Med. p. 315. Wilmer's Obſ. on the Poiſonous Vegetables in Great Britain. Withering's Bot. Arrangement.

HYOSCIAMUS ALBUS. Linn. White henbane. Its leaves are ſmaller and more woolly than thoſe of the black ſpecies; the plant is a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe; its qualities are ſimilar, but not ſo powerful as thoſe of the common ſort.

HYOSCIAMUS. A name for tobacco.

HYOSERIS. It is alſo called hieracium minus. It is a plant of no note in medicine; though ſome ſay it agrees with ſuccory in its virtues.

HYOTHYROIDES. Theſe muſcles are alſo called thyro-hyoides. They run from the thyroid cartilage to the os hyoides, they are attached to the knobs of that cartilage, and the line between them. Their uſe is to bring theſe knobs nearer to each other.

HYPALEIPTRON. A ſort of ſpatula for ſpreading ointments with.

HYPALEIPTON. A liniment.

HYPECOUM, alſo called hypecoon ſiliquoſum, cymmum, cuminum cornulatum, and horned cumin.

This plant is common in France, but of no medical note.

HYPERÆSTHESES. Error of appetite whether by exceſs or deficiency. It is ſynonymous with Dr. Cullen's order dyſorexiæ.

HYPERARTETISCUS. Supernumerary parts, or members.

HYPERCATHARSIS, from ὑπὲρ, a prepoſition ſignifying *exceſs*, and κάθαρσις, *purgation*. It is an exceſſive purging from medicine. It is a variety of the diarrhœa mucoſa of Dr. Cullen.

It happens when too violent purging medicines, or exceſſive doſes of milder ones, have brought on a diſpoſition to frequent diſcharges by ſtool; other cauſes of irritation in the bowels may produce the ſame effect. For the cure, proceed as in violent diarrhœas. Gentle anodynes, frictions, and perſpiratives were much depended on by the ancients. See Oribaſ. Med. Col. l. xiv. c. 42. P. Ægineta l. vii. c. 7. Aetius Tetrab. i. ſerm. 3 cap. 118.

HYPERCORYPHOSIS, from ὑπερ, *above*, and κορυφη, *the vertex*, or a prominence, or protuberance. Hippocrates calls the lobes of the liver and lunges hypercoryphoſes.

HYPERCRISIS, from ὑπερ, *above*, and κρισις, *a criſis*. An hpyercriſis. It is when nature, oppreſſed with her burden, makes ſuch efforts to free herſelf by ſuch exceſſive evacuations as endanger the patient.

HYPERECRISIS. Superexcretion. It is the ſame as hypercriſis.

HYPEREPHIDROSIS, from ὑπερ, *exceſs*, and ἱδρως, *ſweat*. Immoderate ſweating.

HYPERICUM. St. John's wort, alſo called perforata, fuga dæmonum, androſæmum, and hypericum vulgare. Boerhaave mentions thirteen ſpecies, and Miller enumerates thirty. It is called fuga dæmonum on account of its virtue in curing thoſe who were ſuppoſed to be poſſeſſed. The ſpecies in uſe, is the hypericum peforatum, or hypericum foliis obtuſis pellucido-punctatis, floribus luteis trigynis, caule ancipiti, caule rotundo Linn. common St. John's wort.

This plant hath ſlender, round, woody ſtalks, that are reddiſh; ſmall obtuſe oblong leaves ſet in pairs, which when held to the light, ſeem to be perforated, whence the name perforata; they bear numerous gold-coloured pentapetalous flowers on the tops of the branches, which are followed by blackiſh huſks, full of ſmall ſeeds. It is perennial, grows wild in the woods and uncultivated places, and flowers in June and July.

The flowers abound with reſin, but yet poſſeſs ſo much mucilaginous matter that water diſſolves all its active parts. The leaves alſo contain much of the ſame reſinous matter. Diſtilled with water, an eſſential oil is obtained, which much reſembles that of turpentine. To the taſte the leaves and flowers are bitteriſh; and, from their general qualities, they promiſe to be uſeful as a detergent.

The London college directs an infuſion of the flowers in olive oil, under the name of ol. hyperici; but otherwiſe, in the preſent practice, it is not much regarded. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

HYPERICUM SAXATILE, &c. Baſtard St. John's wort, alſo called hypericoides, coris lutea, and coris legitima Cretica.

The ſeeds are ſaid to be diuretic, emmenagogue, and powerfully antiſpaſmotic.

HYPERICUM. A name of the ſpiræa, caris, and androſæmum.

HYPERINESIS, i. e. Hypercatharſis.

HYPERINOS. It ſignifies the ſame as hypercatharſis, and alſo the perſon who ſuffers from it.

HYPEROA. The palate, from ὑπερ, above.

HYPERO-PHARYNGÆI, i. e. Periſtaphylo-pharyngæi.

HYPEROSTOSIS. According to ſome it is the ſwelling of the whole bone. In Cullen's Noſology it is ſynonymous with exoſtoſis.

HYPERSARCOMA. A polypus of the noſe. A fleſhy excreſcence.

HYPERSARCOSIS, from ὑπερ, *exceſs*, or *ſuperfluity*, and σαρξ, *fleſh*,. It is a fleſhy excreſcence, or proud fleſh.

HYPEXODOS, from ὑπο, *under*, and ἐξοδος, *a paſſing out* i. e. A flux of the belly.

HYPEZOCOS. It ſignifies the membranes which are ſpread under other parts, as the pleura, &c.

HYPNOBATES, from ὑπνος, *ſleep*, and βαινω, *to go*. One who walks in his ſleep. i. e. Somnambulo.

HYPNOBATASIS. i. e. Somnambulo.

HYPNOLOGICA. It teaches the due regulation of ſleep and waking.

HYPNOPŒOS, from ὑπνος, *ſleep*, and ποιεω, *to cauſe*, Such medicines as procure ſleep.

HYPNOTICUS. Hypnotics. The ſame as hypnopœos, from ὑπνος, ſleep.

HYPNUM. It is a fertile kind of moſs, furniſhed with uniform calypirated heads; the ſtalks are more branched and ſet at a wider diſtance than thoſe of the bryon.

HYPO, ὑπο. A prepoſition ſignifying *under*; but, in compoſition, it imports not only inferiority with reſpect to ſituation, but a remiſſion or diminution.

HYPOCAPNISMA. Suffumigation.

HYPOCARODES, or Hypocarothis. One who labours under a low degree of a carus.

HYPOCATHARSIS. A ſlight purging.

HYPOCAUSTUM, from ὑπο, *under*, and καυω, *to burn* An apartment for bathing or ſweating in, it is heated by a fire under the floor; but the word generally is uſed to ſignify a ſtove.

HYPOCERCHALEON, from ὑπο, and κερχνος, an aſperity of the fauces. A ſtridulous kind of aſperity of the fauces and aſpera arteria.

HYPOCHLOMENOS. One who labours under a cataract.

HYPOCHŒRIS. A ſpecies of ſonchus.

HYPOCHONDRIA, from ὑπο, *under* and χονδρος, *a cartilage*. The hypochondria are that part of the body, on both ſides, which lie under the ſpurious ribs, and is extended to the ilia, comprehending not only the muſcles but the internal viſcera; becauſe, according to Pollux, they are ſubjacent to cartilages. Celſus, from ſeveral places in Hippocrates, renders the word præcordia. Cœlius Aurelianus often puts præcordia inflammata for an inflammation of the *hypochondria*.

Affections of the *hypochondria*, according to Hippocrates, are *hypochondrion* anaſpaſmenon, a retraction of the *hypochondrium* inwards, without any proper diſorder of the part; *hypochondria* diaborborizonta, a rumbling of the *hypochondria*; *hypochondrii* entaſis, &c. a ſoftiſh tenſion of the *hypochondria*, *hypochondria* catexeraſmena, &c. The *hypochondria* dried up and contracted inwardly: *hypochondria* meteora, tumid *hypochondria*, theſe are raiſed by flatulencies; *hypochondrii* xyntaſis, a diſtenſion of the *hypochondria* from inflammation; *hypochondrii* ſcoliotes, an inequality of the *hypochondrium*; *hypochondrium* chronium, an *hypochondrium* affected with an obſtinate diſorder, and

HYPOCHONDRIACUS MORBUS. The hypochondriac diſeaſe; it is alſo called affectio hyponchondriæ, paſſio hypochondriaca, vapours, ſpleen, &c.

Hoffman ſtrenuouſly maintains that the *hypochondriac diſeaſe*, is not the ſame as that called hyſterics. He obſerves that, a ſtrangulation of the fauces, a quick and difficult reſpiration, ſo as to endanger a ſuffocation, loſs of ſpeech and all ſenſe of motion, are the proper and eſſential ſymptoms of the hyſterics: that the *hypochondriac diſeaſe* is inveterate, and rarely ſo cured as not to be again eaſily excited by the leaſt accidents that can cauſe it, which is not the caſe with the hyſterics; that though many of their ſymptoms are the ſame, yet they each have ſuch as the other is never accompanied with, otherwiſe than by the two diſorders being attendant at the ſame time. On the other hand, many others conſider theſe two diſorders under the general title nervous, and thus they only differ, as peculiarities in the conſtitution vary, or as the flatulencies, &c. which attend the patients thus diſordered may affect this or the other part. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes, and order adynamiæ; the hyſteric diſeaſe he places in the ſame claſs, but in the order ſpaſmi. In his definition of the *hypochondriac diſeaſe*, he ſays there is indigeſtion with langour, ſadneſs, and fear, in a melancholic temperament. The ſtate of mind peculiar to hypochondriacs, and called vapours, or low ſpirits by ſome, is thus deſcribed by Dr. Cullen. "A langour, liſtleſſneſs, or want of reſolution and activity, with reſpect to all undertakings; a diſpoſition to ſerioufneſs, ſadneſs and timidity; as to all future events, an apprehenſion of the worſt, or moſt unhappy ſtate of them, and therefore often upon ſlight grounds, an apprehenſion of great evil. Such perſons are particularly attentive to the ſtate of their own health, to every the ſmalleſt change of feeling in their bodies; and, from any unuſual feeling, perhaps of the ſlighteſt kind, they apprehend great danger, and even death itſelf. In reſpect to theſe feelings and fears, there is commonly the

moſt obſtinate belief and perſuaſion." The Doctor alſo obſerves, that it is only when the ſtate of mind juſt deſcribed is joined with indigeſtion, in either ſex, ſomewhat advanced in years, of a melancholic temperament, and a firm and rigid habit, that the diſeaſe takes the name of hypochondriac.

The ſeat of the hypochondriac paſſion, is in the ſtomach and bowels, even though diſturbed paſſions were the cauſe; for firſt theſe parts are diſordered, then the other parts in conſequence. In this Hoffman thus far agrees, by ſaying the periſtaltic motion in the bowels is retarded by ſpaſms.

The cauſes are, ſorrow, fear, or exceſs of any of the paſſions, too long continued watching, irregular diet; in ſome there is an habitual diſpoſition to this diſorder, and ſuch people have generally a ſallow or brown complexion, and a downcaſt look, a rigidity of the ſolids, and torpor of the nervous power. Whatever may give riſe to nervous diſorders in general, may be a cauſe of this in particular: whatever may be foregoing cauſes, ſuch as paſſions, indigeſtion, increaſed or diminiſhed ſenſibility, &c.

The ſigns of this diſorder are ſo various, that to deſcribe them is to deſcribe almoſt every other diſeaſe; but in general there is an inſurmountable indolence, dejectedneſs of ſpirit, dread of death, coſtiveneſs, a ſlow and ſomewhat difficult inſpiration, flatulencies in the primæ viæ, and various ſpaſmodic affections, &c.

Whatever ſtomach generates acidities from fermentation, or a putrefactive diſpoſition in the alimentary ſolids and fluids mixed, there will ever be more or leſs of the hypochondriac diſorder; the gas, ſeparated by either of theſe cauſes, is ſuddenly diffuſed here or there, and its peculiar property is to repel the vital heat wherever it is preſent in any conſiderable degree; and from this circumſtance alone may all the ſymptoms be accounted for; but yet it is allowed that the ſame effects may be produced by other cauſes, whence attention is neceſſary to diſcover, whether a difficult paſſage of the blood through the veſſels in the ſtomach and guts, as Hoffman hath aſſerted, or certain flatulencies, as others relate, or whatever elſe may be an adequate cauſe, in order to the adapting of proper remedies. The hypochondriac diſeaſe is very difficult to cure; it rarely occurs early in life, generally in more advanced years only, and when once it hath taken place, it often increaſes as life advances. It ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from indigeſtion, particularly when indigeſtion is accompanied with vapours.

The principal indications of cure are, 1ſt, To correct the vicious cauſe in the ſtomach. 2d, To increaſe the vital heat.

The diet ſhould be light, eaſy in the ſtomach, agreeable to the palate, cordial, and nouriſhing. In general, animal diet, and ſpirituous liquors, lowered with pure water, for the common drink.

The cure is always ſlow, therefore hope ſhould be ſupported by every probable artifice.

Whatever be the cauſe, begin with an emetic, and repeat it at proper intervals to two or three times; then purge with the pil. Ruſi, or the tinct. ſacra; and by leſſer doſes of theſe, or of the ſaline purges, as circumſtances may indicate, keep the bowels eaſy through the whole of the cure. After theſe, proceed with bitters mixed with aromatics and chalybeates; and thus, if a due degree of exerciſe is uſed, a cure may be expected. Here Dr. Cullen obſerves, that in the hypochondriac diſeaſe there is a want of activity, which is to be remedied; there is not a loſs of tone in the fibres, but on the contrary a rigidity in them: whence he recommends warm bathing; the drinking of tea, and coffee; exerciſe, not ſo much as it excites the activity of the ſtomach, but as it operates on the mind, and diverts it from its deſpondency. In managing the minds of hypochondriacs, carefully avoid any intimation that their complaints are imaginary, and as carefully avoid both raillery and reaſoning in addreſſing them. Be ever watchful to interrupt his attention, by engaging them with any object but his own feelings. Divert them with any employ that is neither attended with emotion anxiety nor fatigue. Diverſion, in which ſome ſkill is required; exerciſe in the air, which requires ſome dexterity, are both to be admitted: riding is better than either walking, ſailing, or travelling in a carriage; and to ride a journey is the beſt mode of uſing it.

An exceſs of acidity is a prevalent ſymptom for the moſt part, and requires a cloſe attention to all the means of obviating acidity, as well as the uſe of antiacids.

Coſtiveneſs, an afflictive ſymptom, is beſt relieved by ſuch gentle laxatives as juſt ſolicit nature's uſual office, without exciting extraordinary diſcharges.

If the pulſe is quick, and heat of the body inclining to feveriſhneſs, omit the aromatics and ſteel, but let the bark and elixir of vitriol be adminiſtered.

If during the fits the mind is harraſſed, give a gentle anodyne in a carminative water. If pain and flatulence, accompanied with an head-ach, attend, the ſame means is alſo effectual.

If ſpaſmodic ſymptoms are conſiderable, tending to convulſions, relief may be obtained by means of opiates joined with fetid gums, or with muſk, according as each may beſt agree with the reſpective patients.

Warm bathing in pure water, heated ſufficiently to raiſe Farenheit's thermometer to ſixty or ſixty-five, ſhould be continued until the cure is nearly effected, and then gradually approach to the cold-bath.

Chearful company conduces much towards relief; but running into mirth, or any exerciſe uſed ſo as to fatigue, are injurious.

A dry warm air is almoſt univerſally proper. See Nervous Diseases in the following pages; Hoffman on the Morb. Hypochond. Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic. Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. iii.

HYPOCHONDRIASIS. i. e. Hypochondriacus morbus.

HYPOCHYMA, or Hypochyſis, from ὑπὸ and χυω, *to pour*. A cataract.

HYPOCISTIS. The rape of Ciſtus. Alſo called orobanche. The ſpecies uſed in medicine is the cytinus hypociſtis, Linn. The juice of this plant only is in uſe; it is of a firm conſiſtence, and a bright black colour; it is a mild aſtringent, of ſimilar medical virtues with the Egyptian acacia, though different from it in one of its pharmaceutic properties; for the hypociſtis almoſt totally diſſolves in rectified ſpirit of wine, but the acacia is unaffected by that menſtruum. See Raii Hiſt. Plant. Lewis's Mat. Med.

HYPOCLEPTICUM VITRUM, from ὑπὸ, *under*, and κλεπτω, *to ſteal*, becauſe it, as it were, ſteals away the water from the oil. It is the ſame as Separatorium, which ſee.

HYPOCŒLON, from ὑπὸ, *under*, and κοιλον, *the cavity above the upper eye-lid*. It is the cavity under the lower eye-lid. See Ruffus Epheſius, lib. i. c. 4.

HYPOCHOPHOSIS, i. e. Cophoſis but in a leſs degree.

HYPOCRANIUM. A kind of abſceſs, ſo called, becauſe ſeated under the cranium, between it and the dura mater.

HYPODERIS. In Ruffus Epheſius, it is the extremity of the fore-part of the neck.

HYPODERMIS. The clitoris.

HYPOGASTRICA SECTIO. In lithotomy, it is what is called the high operation.

HYPOGASTRICÆ ARTERIÆ. See Iliacæ Arteriæ, for the external hypogaſtric arteries. The hypogaſtric, or internal iliac arteries, dip into the inſide of the pelvis, juſt over the ſhoulder of the ſacrum; when it arrives at the ſide of the pelvis, it throws down branches to the contents of the pelvis, and then goes through the ſciatic notch. In the fœtus, the internal iliac is larger than the external, becauſe it goes to the placenta, whence, after birth, it daily ſhrinks, and makes the chord, which was the umbilical veſſels.

HYPOGASTRICÆ VENÆ. Theſe veins run the ſame courſe with their correſponding arteries, except that they do not ſend off the vena umbilicalis. The hypogaſtric veins are the internal iliac branches.

HYPOGASTRIUM, from ὑπὸ, *under*, and γαστηρ, *the ſtomach*. It is the lower external region on the fore-part of the belly; it extends from the lower extremity of the regio umbilicalis, to the bottom of the oſſa innominata. It is divided into three parts, viz. the pubes before, and the groins on each ſide. When the integu-

cakes, which are either dried in that form, or cut while ſoft into ſlices, and rolled up into ſpiral and other ſhapes. Chuſe that which is clear, thin, and almoſt tranſparent. See the method of making it in the Philoſ. Tranſ. vol. lxiii.

It is one of the fineſt of the animal glues, and has no particular ſmell or taſte. When beat into ſhreds, it readily diſſolves in water or milk, and ſo forms a mild nutritious aliment. A ſolution of it in water, if nicely ſpread upon ſilk, is an elegant plaſter for ſlight injuries to the ſkin. It agrees with the gum dragon in its medical virtues, and keeps a long time without acquiring any acrimony. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

ICICA, or Icicariba. Gum elemi.

ICON. The abbreviation of icones (plantarum).

ICTERICODES. The bilious ardent fever. According to Dr. Cullen, the typhus icterodes. It is jaundice with a fever.

ICTERITIÆ. Diſcolourations, or diſeaſes which occaſion an unuſual colour of the whole ſkin, and this without an acute fever.

ICTERUS. The golden-thruſh.

ICTERUS. The jaundice. It is alſo called morbus arquatus, aurigo, morbus regius icteritia, &c. It is a vitiated ſtate of the blood and humours from the bile regurgitating, or being abſorbed into it, by which the functions of the body are injured, and the ſkin is rendered yellow, and almoſt black. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs cachexiæ, and order impetigines. He diſtinguiſhes five ſpecies. 1. *Icterus* calculoſus, when there is pain in the hypogaſtric region, which increaſes after eating, and when concretions paſs into the inteſtines there are bilious ſtools. 2. *Icterus* ſpaſmodicus, when there is no pain, and the yellowneſs of the ſkin happens after ſpaſmodic diſeaſes and affections of the mind. 3. *Icterus* hepaticus, it is without pain, and follows a diſeaſe of the liver. 4. *Icterus* gravidarum; it ariſes during pregnancy, and gives way after delivery. 5. *Icterus* infantum. It happens ſoon after their birth.

The genuine jaundice is when the bile is obſtructed by gall-ſtones, plugging up its paſſage into the duodenum. Sydenham ſpeaks of a ſymptomatic jaundice which is produced by hyſteric ſymptoms, but this is not obſerved in preſent practice. Many cachectic patients have a very yellow ſkin, but then they have not yellow eyes, and dark coloured urine, nor aſh-coloured ſtools, which never happen but when the gall ducts are obſtructed by bilious concretions, or by ſchirri. Infants often have a remarkable yellowneſs in their ſkin, but their eyes are not tinged. This ſeems to ariſe from the meconium, or from ſome cauſe which, by diſtending the duodenum, ſo contracts the paſſage of the gall as to form an obſtruction. The yellowneſs from the bite of a viper is not a ſpecies of jaundice.

The cauſe of the true jaundice is the bile mixing with the blood, from gall ſtones, ſpaſms, a ſcirrhus, &c. obſtructing its paſſage into the duodenum. A ſchirrous liver is the cauſe of the worſt kind; but all cauſes, except ſtones in the ducts, are only ſuch by cauſing the ſtones to enter them.

The ſigns are, when at the ſame time the ſkin is yellow, the whites of the eyes are alſo yellow, and the excrements are white, and the urine depoſits a copious dark ſediment. Beſides theſe, an inactivity, anxiety, ſickneſs, uneaſineſs at the pit of the ſtomach, itching in the ſkin, and other ſymptoms occaſionally attend.

When a ſchirrous liver is the cauſe no cure can be expected. An hæmorrhage is a dangerous ſymptom, for then the blood is both acrid and thin. In adults this diſorder often continues many months, even years, and if no other diſorder attends, no danger is to be apprehended. If the gall duct is obſtructed by a ſchirrus, either in it, or in the duodenum, where it enters that inteſtine, danger is very great, and a cure not to be expected.

During the whole of this diſorder, the patient ſhould uſe frequent exerciſe, but not to fatigue himſelf much; a warm bath, and chearful company, alſo relieve; the diet ſhould be attenuating and aperient.

As to medicines it is proper, when other cauſes are not manifeſt, to preſcribe with a view to gall ſtones being the cauſe. See CALCULUS.

If pain is conſiderable in or about the pit of the ſtomach, proceed as directed for a ſtone in the bile duct. See CALCULUS.

If ſickneſs and vomiting attend, the ſame method muſt be attended to as when a ſtone is paſſing from the gall-bladder. See CALCULUS.

If a purging attends, prevent its exceſs; give now and then as much of the ol. ricini as will be neceſſary to quicken the diſcharge by ſtool; and to ſtrengthen, give bitters two or three times a day.

If the itching is ſo troubleſome as to prevent ſleep, an opiate muſt be given at bed-time.

If the diſorder is in its beginning, and if there is any feveriſh ſymptoms, bleed according to the ſtate of the pulſe; then eaſe the ſtomach with an emetic of the antimonial kind; then proceed with ſaponaceous and alkaline medicines, or in their ſtead the diuretic ſalt.

If a viſcid bile gives riſe to their diſorder, after bleeding, and an emetic, give aloetic and mercurial purges; after theſe the ſal diureticus is the beſt attenuant and deobſtruent; it hath all the advantages of ſoap, without its diſagreeable taſte; and if any extraordinary heat attends, it is ſtill a moſt uſeful aſſiſtant, for while it allays accidental ſymptoms, it carries on the principal work. It may be given to a dram, or a dram and a half, three times a day.

If a mere redundancy of bile produces a jaundice, it is known by the ſtools being highly coloured with the bile, and by their acrid and ſtrong ſmell; in this caſe, the proper remedies are lenient, cooling purges, ſuch as manna, tamarinds, or the ol. ricini. Acids and demulcents are alſo neceſſary helps.

When an hæmorrhage is a troubleſome ſymptom, the blood is in an acrid and diſſolved ſtate; aloetics and attenuants are now to be foreborn; on the contrary, acids, demulcents, and particularly the ol. ricini, made into the form of an emulſion, alſo a decoction of hempſeed in milk; and if a feveriſhneſs requires it, a little blood may be taken from the arm.

In caſe of a ſcirrhus, the extr. cicutæ is, perhaps, the beſt palliative.

As an attenuant the rubia tinctoria is of ſingular efficacy. The waters of Bath and Harrowgate are uſually eſteemed as almoſt ſpecifics. Many agreeable and uſeful forms of medicines adapted to this diſeaſe in general, or to particular ſymptoms, may be ſeen in Dr. Brooks's, and the London Practice of Phyſic. See alſo on the Jaundice, F. Hoffman; Petermannus's Diſſ. Scrutinio Icteri, &c. Huxham de Ære & Morb. Epid. p. 143, &c. Swan's Tranſl. of Sydenham's Works, ed. 2. p. 185, &c. Dr. William Heberden's Obſ. in the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 123, &c. Med. Muſ. vol. i.

ICTERUS ALBUS, i. e. Chloroſis.

ICTUS. A ſtroke or blow. It ſignifies alſo the pulſation of an artery, and the ſting of a bee, or any other inſect.

ICTUS SOLARIS. A ſtroke of the ſun. Alſo called inſolatio; and by the French coup de ſoleil. This name is given to diſorders that ariſe from too violent an influence of the ſun's heat, particularly on the head. A long expoſure of the head to a hot ſun, hath often produced an inflammation that was ſpeedily fatal.

The diagnoſtics are a violent head-ach, a hot dry ſkin, a redneſs and heavineſs of the eyes; ſometimes there is a continual involuntary motion of the eye-lids, a loſs of ſleep, drowſineſs, in ſome with outrageous awakenings, a violent fever, faintneſs, loathing, thirſt, &c.

Perſons not accuſtomed to labour in the ſun, are ſometimes ſtruck by its heat whilſt on journies, &c. and die on the ſpot; others fall into a lethargy, and die in a few hours with ſymptoms of raving madneſs. If a patient eſcapes with his life, he is frequently affected afterwards with violent head-achs, which in ſome inſtances affect the eye-lids greatly. In other inſtances a delirium is brought on without a fever, a gutta ſerena, &c.

In infants this diſorder manifeſts itſelf by a heavy, deep, drowſineſs; which continues ſeveral days, frequent ravings, by convulſive twitchings, periodical head-achs, frequent vomiting, &c.

The effects of too much culinary fire are the ſame with that of the ſun; ſleeping with the head near the fire hath produced a mortal apoplexy during ſleep.

The

The method of cure is much the same as is pursued in the sanguineous inflammations. First bleed as freely as the strength will admit; after this the legs, or if the disorder is violent, the whole body may be put into a warm bath, which should not be much hotter than new milk. Emollient clysters should be frequently injected, almond emulsion, lemonade, and such like demulcent cooling drinks should be freely given; linen cloths wrung out of vinegar and water may be applied on the face and scalp. See Tissot's Advice.

IDÆUS DACTYLUS. A name for pæony root.

IDEA. Spotted ramsons.

IDEACH. Paracelsus says it occurs in every plant, but his meaning is unknown.

IDEALES. A faulty judgment. Alienation of mind. And diseases in which the judgment is chiefly affected.

IDIOCRASIA, i. e. Idiosyncrasia.

IDIOPATHEIA, from ἴδιος, *private*, or *peculiar*, and πάθος, *an affection*. A primary, and proper affection of any part. Thus the head is affected idiopathically in a lethargy, and the lungs in a pleurisy; but when these parts suffer by consent, that is by disorders residing in other parts, they are then said to suffer by sympathy.

IDIOSYNCRASIA. Idyosyncrasia, from ἴδιος, *peculiar*, σὺν, *with*, and κρᾶσις, *to mix*. Every individual hath a state of health peculiar to himself; and as different bodies seem to vary from each other, both with respect to the solids and fluids, though each may, at the same time, be in a sound condition; this peculiarity of constitutions, by which they differ from other sound bodies, is called idiosyncrasy, or peculiarity of constitution. Disorders from idiosyncrasy are considered as incurable, having their cause in the original formation.

IDIOTROPIA, i. e. Idiosyncrasia.

IDOU MOULLI. The name of a tall plum tree growing in the East-Indies. Its fruit is cooling, and the bark is useful in many chronical diseases.

IGASUR, i. e. Nux vomica

IGBUCAINI BRASILIANORUM. A tree in Brasil, whose fruit resembles apples, and its kernels are a present remedy against the dysentery.

IGCIGA. The name of a tree which produces a sort of mastich of an agreeable scent. The bark, when bruised, yields a whitish liquor, which, when condensed, is a sort of frankincense.

Another species, called igtaigcica, produces a rosin as hard and as clean as glass. See Raii Hist.

IGNAME, i. e. Cara. It is a species of convolvulus.

IGNIARIUS. See AGARICUS.

IGNIS. Fire. Some, as Bacon, Des Cartes, Boyle, Sir Isaac Newton, &c. consider fire not as an element, or as a real existence, but an adventitious and necessary property, resulting from the intestine motion of the insensible particles of matter. On the other hand, Homberg, Boerhaave, Lemery, s'Gravesend, &c. considered fire as a real existence, or a proper element. The judgment of these latter stands confirmed as a most solid truth, since the improvements made by the electric machine; besides, as fire is the substance of all the senses, being light to the eye, sound to the ear, sulphureous to the nose, acid to the taste, and painful to the touch, every property required in an element is evidently the property of fire. The reality of fire is further evident, by those things which have a power of increasing its quantity, and those which can repel it. In the living human body, whatever increases the quantity of crassamentum in the blood, increases the degree of heat also; animal diet, aromatic drugs, &c. do this: a permanent heat is produced by antimony, iron, and the elixir of vitriol; but nitre, crude sal ammoniac, the subtle gas from mines, from fermenting vegetable, or putrefying animal substances, powerfully repel all fire, and extinguish it whatever state it is in.

The influence of fire, with respect to life, health, and disease, see CRASSAMENTUM, ANIMAL or VITAL HEAT, VOLUNTARY and INVOLUNTARY MOTION.

Many distempers have been called by the name of *ignis*, or fire, but principally the causus, or burning fever, which Hippocrates often calls πῦρ, *fire*.

IGNIS CALIDUS. A hot fire, some have called a gangrene. A violent inflammation hath been called a gangrene when it is just about to degenerate into it; hence it received the name of *ignis calidus*.

IGNIS FRIGIDUS. A cold fire. A sphacelus hath been thus called, because the parts that are so affected become cold as the surrounding air.

IGNIS PERSICUS. A name of the erysipelas.

IGNIS SACER. A name of the erysipelas. And of a species of herpes, i. e. Herpes exedens; it is the erythematous species of inflammation.

IGNIS SANCTI ANTONII. A name of the erysipelas.

IGNIS SYLVATICUS. A name of the impetigo.

IGNIS VOLAGRIUS, or Volaticus. A name of the impetigo.

Ignis is also a name of several medicines, as mercury, and the essential oil that swims on the top of distilled waters, &c.

The chemists use fire in different modes in performing their operations, whence their

IGNIS SAPIENTIUM, or heat of horse-dung.

IGNIS REVERBERATORIUM. Reverberatory fire. It is made in a furnace covered with a dome, that thus the heat, or the flame, which hath always a tendency to escape upwards, may be reverberated, or beat back on the vessels immediately exposed to it.

IGNIS ROTÆ, or fire for fusion. It is when a vessel which contains some matter for fusion, is surrounded with live, i. e. red hot coals.

The chemists formerly regulated their fire by different degrees, which they called the first; this was scarcely to be perceived; the second, it was when the heat was manifest, but not sufficient to hurt the sense; the third, which was when the heat was painful to the sense; the fourth, or when the heat was sufficient to destroy the body; and fifth, which was when the heat would cause gold to evaporate fumes. Boerhaave was the first who regulated the heat of fires by means of a thermometer; and when the degrees of heat are mentioned in his writings, they are to be understood according to Farenheit's thermometer.

IGNITIO. Calcining.

IGNYE, or Ignys. The ham.

ILAPHIS. A name in Myrepsus for the burdock.

ILATHERA. The tree from which the cortex elutheria is taken.

ILECH. By this word Paracelsus seems to mean a first principle.

ILEIDOS. In the Spagyric language it is the elementary air.

ILEUM INTESTINUM, so called from εἰλέω, *to turn about*, because it makes many convolutions. It is one of the small intestines. Where the jejunum ends, the ileum begins. Its convolutions surround those of the jejunum, on the two lateral and inferior sides, and it winds about from the left-side by the hypogastrium to the right-side, where it terminates in a transverse manner at the fleshy brim of the pelvis, and forms the first of the great intestines, called cœcum. Winslow observes, that the ileum is of a paler red than the jejunum. In all the length of this intestine, it is wide, and easily dilatable; but at its extremity, as it enters the colon, it is narrow, and its sides are more firm and solid.

ILEUM CRUENTUM. Hippocrates describes it in Lib de Intern. Affect. In this disease, as well as in the scurvy, the breath is fetid, the gums recede from the teeth, hæmorrhages of the nose happen, and sometimes there are ulcers in the legs, but the patient can move about his business pretty well.

ILEUS, i. e. Iliaca Passio. It is an antient name for the colic in the large intestines. The chief of the varieties of *ileus* are varieties of colica spasmodica.

ILEX. The name of a kind of tree of the oak kind, of which Boerhaave names three species.

ILEX ACULEATA COCCIGLANDIFERA, also called ilex coccigera, ilex aquifolia. The scarlet oak. Its berries are the CHERMES, which see.

ILEX FOLIO ROTUNDIORI MOLLI MODICEQUE SINUATO. The great scarlet oak. It is common in Italy and Languedoc. The bark, leaves, and acorns, are more astringent than those of the oak.

ILEX OBLONGO SERRATO FOLIO; also called ilex angustifolio, and ilex arborea.

ILEX. See AQUIFOLIUM.

ILIA (the plural of ile). The flanks. They are the space between the lowest of the false ribs and the upper

edge of the os ilium on each ſide; they are the two diviſions of the regio umbilicalis.

ILIACA. The ſame as ileus.

ILIACA PASSIO. The iliac paſſion, alſo called miſerere mei, ilios, ileus, convolvulus, ilium, chordapſus, volvulus, tormentum, twiſting of the guts, an introſuſception of the ilium, and the diſeaſe of the ſmall inteſtines.

It is a violent pain in the ſmall inteſtines, under which the periſtaltic motion of the bowels is inverted, and all their contents are thrown up by vomit.

This diſorder is of the acute, and generally, if not always, of the inflammatory kind. It is divided by ſome into four ſpecies, as may be obſerved below.

The cauſes are various, but the ſymptoms are ſo ſimilar that it is generally impoſſible to diſtinguiſh them. The immediate cauſe is, an inverted periſtaltic motion of the inteſtines; and the cauſes producing the immediate one are generally ſaid to be, obſtruction of the paſſage through the inteſtines, or irritation of the ſame. But ſome obſerve that one ſpecies is cauſed by a phlegmonous inflammation in the inteſtine; and this cauſe is known by the pulſe being large, ſtrong, ſomewhat hard, but not very quick; the blood being fizy; the patient rarely vomiting in the firſt ſtage of the diſorder; his having no ſickneſs or anxiety at the præcordia; and being relieved much by bleeding. The ſecond ſpecies hath for its cauſe an eryſipelatous inflammation of the ilium; it is known by the intolerable pain at the ſeat of the diſeaſe; it is attended with vomiting ſoon, but not always at its firſt onſet; there is extreme ſickneſs or anxiety in the præcordia, inſatiable thirſt, great and ſudden debility, and a pale dejected countenance; the pulſe is ſmall, weak and quick; the febrile heat inconſiderable and moſt remiſs in the extremities; ſometimes there is a ſenſe of great heat in the bowels, whilſt the exterior parts are cold and bedewed with a cold, clammy ſweat, at leaſt in the ſecond ſtage, when a mortification in the inteſtine is about to commence. The third ſpecies is moſt incident to youths betwixt fifteen and twenty years of age; it is of a middle nature, betwixt the other two ſorts juſt deſcribed; in this caſe the blood is florid and unfizy, the face is fluſhed, the febrile heat is pretty uniformly diſtributed throughout the body; the tongue is whitiſh, and the thirſt is great; the pain is vehement; but the patient hath little or no anxiety or languor, and rarely vomits in the firſt ſtage of the diſeaſe. The fourth ſpecies is produced by an introſuſception of the inteſtine, which ſoon produces inflammation, or indeed may follow after an inflammation is begun. This laſt ſpecies ſome call the true *iliac paſſion*. Dr. Hunter takes notice of a diſeaſe to which children are more particularly ſubject, becauſe their meſentery having ſcarce any fat upon it, eaſily ſlips with the gut, and this he calls the valvulus or volvulus, of which he obſerves there are two kinds; the firſt is when a part of a gut is received into the part next above it; the other is when a part of the gut is received into the part of the gut next below it.

A coſtiveneneſs uſually precedes this diſorder for ſome days, and pain ſoon is perceived in the belly about the navel; theſe pains increaſe; an inflation and diſtenſion of the belly gradually increaſes, then a hard tumor is felt in the umbilical region, which ſurrounds the belly like a cord; not even the leaſt flatulence can paſs downwards, but after much affliction it at laſt finds a way (though a fatal one) by the mouth.

The *iliac paſſion* ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the cœliac paſſion, and from pains in the colon.

The prognoſtics are favourable whilſt inflammation is abſent, and clyſters can be thrown up the anus, and are returned by ſtool; whilſt the pains ſhift from place to place, and the pain and vomiting are only at intervals, there may be hope of a recovery; hope is yet better founded, if a laxative taken by the mouth paſſes by the anus: but when the violent ſymptoms appear, there is but little room for hope. An entire ſuppreſſion of urine is a mortal ſymptom.

The principal indication of cure is to allay the pain which lays a foundation for an inflammation.

Though the different ſpecies are not eaſily diſtinguiſhed, it is a favourable circumſtance in the cure that the method is nearly the ſame in them all; however, as in the ſecond ſpecies bleeding is not ſo freely to be admitted of, an attention to the diſtinctions of the ſpecies may be followed by advantage.

Begin the cure by bleeding, and repeating it as the pulſe will admit. For the patient's drink, barley water, a decoction of marſhmallow roots, an infuſion of linſeed or other demulcent liquors may be made; but in preference to all other, let freſh butter-milk be made by ſhaking cream in a bottle, ſo that the patient may take a tea-cup full frequently. The warm half bath is alſo peculiarly uſeful. Give purging medicines by the mouth and clyſterwiſe as follows:

℞ Calom. ʒi. extr. cathart. ʒi. opii pulv. gr. iii. m. f. pil. No. xii. quarum ſumat. iii. ſtatim, & repet. iii. quaq. hora poſtea vel pro re natâ.

℞ Hauſt. ſalin. cum ol. ricini ver. ℥ſs. poſt ſing. doſ. pillular. ſumend. If inflammation is ſuſpected, add nitre to the draught.

Firſt adminiſter the more ſtimulating kind of clyſters, and then the emollient ones. Clyſters of tobacco ſmoak are not to be omitted. It rarely happens that clyſters are ſufficiently repeated.

Though the above cathartics are propoſed, the ſal cath. amar. or the ſal Glaub. ver. are ſometimes of more efficacy.

Apply a bliſter over that part of the belly where the pain is particularly complained of, or if the pain is general, the plaſter may be applied on any part of the belly, or on the upper part of the thigh.

After each vomiting the ſaline mixture may be given in the act of fermentation, and mint water may be taken with xv. or xx. drops of the tinct. Theb. Theſe may be repeated as oft as they may ſeem neceſſary in order to allay this diſcharge upwards.

If the fever increaſes, bleed as often and as freely as the pulſe will admit of, and give nitre with camphor at proper periods.

If a rupture is the cauſe, make no attempt to reduce it before the ſpaſm and tenſion is removed.

If theſe means are ſucceſsful, after the ſymptoms are abated, continue a cooling, emollient, and ſparing diet for ſome days.

See Hippocrates de Morbis; Aretæus; Cœlius Aurelianus; Celſus; F. Hoffman; Sydenham; and the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 223, &c.

ILIACA VASA. The iliac veſſels. See ILIACÆ ARTERIÆ, and ILIACÆ VENÆ.

ILIACÆ ARTERIÆ. The iliac arteries. They are formed by the biſurcation of the aorta, at about the fourth vertebra of the loins. They deſcend about three fingers breadth from their origin, and when they are arrived to the pſoas muſcle (on each ſide), or rather are upon it, they each divide into two, an external and an internal; the external hath no particular name; the internal is called HYPOGASTRICA, which ſee.

The external *iliac*, on each ſide, runs down to the ligamentum Fallopii, under which it goes out of the abdomen. In this courſe it gives off only a few ſmall arteries to the peritonæum and parts near it; but as it paſſes out of the belly under the ligament, it detaches two conſiderable branches, one internal, the other external; the inner is called EPIGASTRICA, which ſee; the external is called INNOMINATA, which ſee: beſides theſe two branches, the external *iliaca* gives off a ſmall branch internally, under the ligament, which runs to the vagina of the ſpermatic chord, and ſometimes another ſmall twig goes from the outſide of the os ilium.

The internal *iliac* artery. See HYPOGASTRICÆ.

ILIACÆ MINOR. ARTERIÆ. It is the moſt poſterior branch of the hypogaſtric artery. Sometimes it is a branch of the glutæa arteria.

ILIACÆ VENÆ. Iliac veins. Theſe are formed by the biſurcation of the vena cava, about the laſt vertebra of the loins. Preſently after their leaving the vena cava, they each divide into two principal branches; one of theſe ſubdiviſions is named iliaca externa or anterior; the other iliaca interna or poſterior; the external is alſo ſimply named iliaca; the internal is called hypogaſtrica. The external ſeems to be the true continuation of the trunk; they run the ſame courſe as the arteries of the ſame name.

The

The external *iliac veins* lie more or leſs on the inſide of the arteries, and from a little before they leave the abdomen they accompany their correſponding arteries, both in their courſe, and in their diviſions into branches.

ILIACUS EXTERNUS, (Muſc.) i. e. Pyriformis.

ILIACUS INTERNUS, (Muſc.) It lies upon the concave part of the ilium, and takes its origin likewiſe from the anterior edge of the bone; it runs down before the pſoas muſcle, and makes one maſs with it; they then run over the head of the bone, and paſs inwards, to be inſerted into the little trochanter. It helps to lift the thigh upwards.

ILIADUM, or Iliadus. It is the firſt matter of all things, conſiſting of mercury, ſalt, and ſulphur. Theſe are Paracelſus's three principles. *Iliadus* is alſo a mineral ſpirit, which is contained in every element, and is the ſuppoſed cauſe of diſeaſes.

ILIASTER. Paracelſus ſays it is the occult virtue of nature, whence all things have their increaſe.

ILINGOS, from ιλιγξ, *a vertex*. A vertigo, in which all things appear to turn round, and the eyes grow dim.

ILION, Ilium inteſtinum.

ILIOS. The iliac paſſion.

ILISCUS. Avicenna ſays it is madneſs cauſed by love.

ILIUM, (Os.) Alſo called os innominatum, but it is only the upper part thereof. It is called *ilium*, becauſe it ſupports the parts that are called *ilia*. The *ilium* forms the upper and poſterior portion of the pelvis; it reaches as far down as a tranſverſe ſection of one third of the acetabulum. The external ſide is convex, and called its dorſum; the internal part is named its coſta; the ſuperior ſemicircular edge is called the ſpine. Between the os ſacrum and the *ilium* is the ſciatic notch, where the ſciatic nerve and poſterior crural veſſels paſs free from compreſſion.

ILLECEBRA. See Sedum.

ILLEGITIMUS. Illegitimate. An epithet for the falſe ribs, alſo for ſome anomalous fevers.

ILLINCTUS. A linctus.

ILLISIO, i. e. Enthlaſis.

ILLOS. The eye.

ILLOSIS. A diſtortion of the eyes.

ILLUMINABILIS LAPIS, i. e. Bononienſis lapis.

ILLUTATIO. Illutation. It is a beſmearing any part of the body with mud, and renewing it as it grows dry, with a view of heating, drying, and diſcuſſing. It is chiefly done with the mud found at the bottom of mineral ſprings.

ILLYS. A perſon who ſquints, or with diſtorted eyes.

ILYS. The fæces of wine. It is alſo an epithet for ſediment in ſtools which reſembles feces of wine; alſo the ſediment in urine, when it reſembles the ſame.

IMAGINARII. Diſeaſes in which the *imagination* is principally affected.

IMAGINATIO. Imagination. To the power of the mother's *imagination* many peculiarities in the fœtus have been aſcribed. Much hath been ſaid on both ſides, but though much of the error is confuted, the whole of the ſubject is not cleared up. See Philoſ. Tranſ. Abr. vol. ii. p. 222. Med. Muſ. vol. iii. p. 273, &c.

IMBECILITAS OCULORUM. Celſus ſpeaks of the nyctalopia by this name.

IMBIBITIO. In chemiſtry it is a kind of cohobation, when the liquor aſcends and deſcends upon a ſolid ſubſtance, until it is fixed therewith. Sometimes it ſimply ſignifies cohobation, and any ſort of impregnation.

IMBRICATUS. The leaves or ſcales of plants are ſaid to be *imbricated* when they are diſpoſed ſo as to lie one on the edge of the other, after the manner of tiles on a houſe.

IMMERSIO. Chemical *immerſion* is a ſpecies of calcination, and is when a body is immerſed in any fluid, in order to be corroded; or it is a ſpecies of lotion, as when any ſubſtance is plunged into a fluid, in order to deprive it of a bad quality, or to communicate a good one to it.

IMMERSUS, i. e. Subſcapularis muſculus.

IMMORTALIS HERBA, i. e. Xeranthemum.

IMPASTATIO. Impaſtation. The making of dry powders into paſte, by means of ſome fluid.

IMPATIENS HERBA. See Balsamina.

IMPERATORIA. Maſterwort. Alſo called aſtrantia, magiſtrantia, oſtruthium, imperatoria major, imperatoria aſtruthium, ſtruthium, ſmyrnion, and common *maſterwort*. It is the imperatoria oſtruthium of Linn.

It is an umbelliferous plant, with large winged leaves, divided into three indented ſegments, producing thick, oblong, ſtriated ſeeds, ſurrounded with a narrow leafy margin; the roots are oblong, thick, knobby, jointed with ſeveral lateral fibres, brown on the outſide, and whitiſh within. It is perennial, a native of the Alps and Pyreneans.

The root is warm, grateful, and aromatic, nearly of the nature of angelica. Infuſed in water, or digeſted in ſpirit of wine, it impregnates both menſtruums ſtrongly with its ſmell, warmth, pungency, and bitterneſs. On inſpiſſating the ſpirituous tincture very little of its flavour exhales; but water carries off nearly all the ſpecific flavour of the root in evaporation. If the root is held in the mouth it provokes ſaliva, and if ſwallowed it purges; whence it is called the countryman's purge: an infuſion of it in water, and ſweetened with honey, is an expectorant. The roots ſhould be taken up in the middle of winter in the ſecond year.

IMPERATORIA NIGRA. Black maſterwort, alſo called aſtrantia nigra, aſtrantia major, veratrum nigrum, helleborus niger, and faniculæ fœmina. This plant is kept in the gardens of the curious. It flowers in July. Its black and fibrous roots only are uſed.

See Raii Hiſt. Plant. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

IMPERATORIA. A name for angelica, a ſpecies of the herb Chriſtopher, a ſpecies of lovage, and the ſea hart-wort.

IMPETIGINES. Diſeaſes which occaſion blemiſhes or defœdations in the ſkin.

IMPETIGO. See Lepra and Puritus, alſo Muscus Pulmonarius. It is alſo a tetter.

Dr. Cullen ranks the *impetiginous* diſeaſes as an order of the claſs called cachexiæ, and defines the *impetigines* to be thoſe diſorders from a general bad habit, manifeſting themſelves principally by diſfiguring the ſkin and other external parts of the body. The itch, &c. though affecting the ſkin, yet not being connected neceſſarily with the habit, Dr. Cullen places in the claſs locales.

IMPETIGO of Celſus. Blancard ſays it is the lepra Græcorum.

IMPETIGO PLINII. Blancard ſays it is that ſpecies of *impetigo*, or of the leproſy of the Greeks, that is known by the name of lichen.

IMPIA HERBA. See Filago.

IMPLUVIUM. An embrocation.

IMPOTENTIA. Impotence. With reſpect to men it is the ſame as ſterility in women, that is, an inability to propagate their ſpecies.

IMPREGNATIO. Impregnation. A woman uſually perceives the child to move at different periods; the ſooneſt at the end of forty days, the lateſt at the end of five months. But ſome women, without being pregnant, perceive a motion like that of a child. La Motte thinks that a large child and a ſmall quantity of water may be a reaſon why a pregnant woman ſometimes hardly perceives the motion of the child. The *impregnation* of plants, ſee Farina Foecundans.

IMUS VENTER. The abdomen; but ſometimes it means only the hypogaſtrium.

INAIA BRASILIENSIS. A ſpecies of palm-tree.

INAIA-GUACUIBA. A ſpecies of palm-tree.

INCARCERATA HERNIA. See Hernia.

INCARNANTIA. Medicines which remove the obſtructions to nature's filling up wounds or ulcers with fleſh.

INCENDIUM. A burning fever, or ſometimes any burning heat.

INCENSIO. The ſame as incendium. It is alſo a hot inflammatory tumor.

INCERATIO. Inceration. It is the reduction of any dry ſubſtance to the conſiſtence of wax, by the gradual admixture of any fluid therewith.

INCERNICULUM. A ſtrainer or ſieve. In anatomy it is a name for the pelvis of the kidney.

INCINERATIO. Incineration. It is the burning of any thing to aſhes.

INCISIO, from *in* and *cædo*, *to cut*.

INCISORES. Cutters, from *incidere*, *to cut*. A name of the four anterior teeth in each jaw from their uſe in cutting. The edges of the *inciſores*, by uſe and friction, in ſome people become blunt and thicker; and in others they ſharpen one another, and become thinner. Theſe teeth are convex externally, and concave internally; ſo that by their wrapping over one another when they are wore, it is the internal concave ſurface of the upper ones, and the external convex ſurface of the lower ones, that are waſted or wore.

INCISORII DUCTUS. Theſe are two canals which go from the bottom of the internal nares, acroſs the arch of the palate, and open behind the firſt and largeſt of the dentes *inciſorii*; their lower orifices are in the foramen palatinum anterius.

INCISORII INFERIORES COWPERI (Muſc.) They ariſe from the alveoli of the lateral *inciſores* of the lower jaw, and are inſerted into the middle of the ſemi-orbicularis of the lower lip.

INCISORII LATERALES (Muſc.) A ſort of biceps muſcles, which unite into one at their lower end: they ariſe from the os maxillare, below the middle tendon of the orbicularis palpebrarum, and below the edge of the orbit in the os maxillare, near the union of this bone, with the os malæ; theſe two portions (on each ſide) unite about the lateral dentes *inciſorii*.

INCISORII MEDII (Muſc.) alſo called *inciſorii* minores Cowperi, or *inciſores* minores ſuperiores. They are two ſmall ſhort muſcles ſituated near each other below the ſeptum narium; they riſe from the os maxillare, on the alveoli of the firſt *inciſores*, and are inſerted into the middle and upper part of the upper lip.

INCISORIUM. A table whereon a patient is laid, in order to have an inciſion made on any part.

INCISORUM FORAMEN. See Maxillaria Superiora Oſſa.

INCONTINENTIA. Incontinence. In medicine it is when there is an inability in any of the organs to retain what ſhould not be diſcharged without the concurrence of the will.

INCORPORATIO. Incorporation. It is much the ſame as impaſtatio; it alſo ſignifies the uniting oleous and terebinthinate ſubſtances with water into one equal body by the mediation of a third body added to them.

INCRASSANTIA. Incraſſating medicines, that is, ſuch as reduce the too fluid blood and juices to a proper conſiſtence.

INCRUSTATIO. Incruſtation. In ſurgery it is the induction of a cruſt, or eſchar upon any part.

INCUBA. Rulandus ſays it is the ſponſa ſolis.

INCUBO, or Incubus. The night-mare. It hath alſo been called ephialtes, from ἐφάλλομαι, *to leap upon*, and epibole, from ἐπιβάλλω, *to preſs upon*; becauſe the patient imagines that ſomething leaps or preſſes upon him. It is a ſpecies of oneirodynia.

Thoſe who are diſturbed by indigeſted crudities in the ſtomach are generally the ſubjects of this diſorder. It lays a foundation for the epilepſy.

Under this complaint, which always happens during ſleep, the patient cannot ſtir himſelf but with difficulty; he is ſeized with a ſenſe of weight, a dread of ſuffocation, an oppreſſion as from ſome body falling ſuddenly upon him, with an intent to deprive him of life and ſenſe, not ſuffering him to cry out; hence it is uſual with theſe patients to ſtart up and cry out with a confuſed inarticulate voice.

This diſorder hath generally been ſuppoſed to proceed from a ſtagnation of blood in the brain and lungs; but it is a nervous affection, and riſes chiefly from indigeſtion: hence we obſerve that thoſe with weak nerves, who lead ſedentary lives, and feed heartily, are the moſt commonly affected with it. Nothing tends more to produce it than an heavy ſupper eaten late, or juſt before going to bed. Wind is a frequent cauſe, deep thought, anxiety, or any oppreſſion on the mind, alſo produces it.

None are attacked with this diſorder but when laid on their backs; and if any perſon would awake the patient, the complaint would immediately vaniſh.

If the patient hath a ſanguine plethora, bleed, direct a ſpare diet, and aloetic purges. Dr. Whytt ſays that he generally found a glaſs of brandy a cure, if taken at bed time.

A ſlight ſupper, chearfulneſs before bed-time, due exerciſe during the day, are the beſt remedies.

See Cœlius Aurelianus Morb. Chron. l. i. cap. 3. Lommii Med. Obſ. P. Ægineta, lib. iii. c. 15. Soranus's Aitiologoumena.

INCUS. The anvil. The name of one of the bones in the ear. It is broader than it is thick; it is articulated with the malleus, behind the manubrium, and from hence a ſhort thick proceſs projects backwards, and a long proceſs downwards, which runs down parallel to the long proceſs of the malleus, but rather more backward. The ſhort proceſs is thick at its beginning, but decreaſing it ends in a point, which is turned backwards, and joined to the edge of the opening of the cellulæ maſtoidæ. The long proceſs at its extremity is rather bent inwards, by which we may diſtinguiſh the *incus* of one ear from that of the other; for, turning the ſhort proceſs backwards, and the long proceſs downwards, if the bending in of the long leg be towards the left hand, it belongs to the right ear, and vice verſa.

INDEX. The fore-finger, from *indicare*, *to point*, becauſe that finger is uſed in the demonſtration of any thing.

INDIÆ ORIENTALIS (Radix Genuina), i. e. Genſing rad.

INDIANA RADIX, i. e. Ipecacuanha.

INDICA CAMOTES, i. e. Potatoes.

INDICATIO. Indication. The diagnoſtics of a diſeaſe and its pathognomonic ſigns, are collections of particulars that occur to obſervation. *Indications* are concluſions that ariſe from reaſoning on theſe particulars called ſigns. The *indication* of cure, in all diſeaſes, is to remove the proximate or immediate cauſe.

INDICATOR, i. e. Extenſor indicis muſculus.

INDICO. See Indicum.

INDICON. A plant in India which reſembles pepper, and bearing a fruit called myrtidanus, from its reſembling a myrtle berry.

INDICUM. The indigo blue plant; alſo called *indigo*, anil, nil, iſatis Indica, polygala Indica, emerus Americanus, agnil, glaſtum Indicum, &c. It is a plant which is a native of South Carolina. In from ſix weeks to two months, from ſowing the ſeed, the plant is ready for cutting up, in order to make the blue colouring matter called *indigo*. The *indigo* is a fæcula, made by means of water and olive oil, from the juice of the leaves of this plant and the ſmalleſt branches. The beſt ſort of *indigo* bears the ſurname of ſurquiſſe. The beſt is made at St. Chriſtopher's and Martinico; it is in flat cakes, of a moderate thickneſs, not too ſoft nor too hard, of a deep violet colour; it ſwims on water, and when broken hath no white ſpots in it; laſtly, ſuch as is copperiſh or reddiſh, on being rubbed with one's nail, and hath the leaſt duſt and broken pieces in it.

There is a ſort which is made from the leaves and the ſtalks, which is named guatimala.

The plant is ſaid to be detergent, and of ſome uſe when powdered and applied to ulcers.

There is another plant which is called anil; it is uſed by way of decoction in nephritic colics, and ſuppreſſions of urine.

See Raii Hiſt. Plant; Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

INDICUM BALSAMUM, i. e. Balſ. Peruv.

INDICUM LIGNUM. Logwood.

INDICUS. Sweet and bitter coſtus.

INDICUS MORBUS. The venereal diſeaſe.

INDIGA SPURIA, i. e. Colinil.

INDIGENA, i. e. Eruca tanacetifolia.

INDIGNATORIUS MUSCULUS, i. e. Abductor oculi, from *indignor*, *to ſcorn*; becauſe this muſcle, though not without the help of another, produces a ſcornful look.

INDIGO, i. e. Indicum.

INDUSIUM. A ſhirt, or ſhift. Some diſpute about changing the linen when the patient is ſick. Clean linen promotes perſpiration, and it may be renewed as often as the

the patient pleaſes, whether the diſorder be of the acute or the chronical kind.

Except during a criſis in fevers, whilſt the patient is in a ſweat, a change of linen, if well dried and warmed, may be daily uſed.

INDUSIUM, i. e. Amnios.

INERS, ſlothful.

INFANS. An infant or child. Fred. Hoffman ſays, that the human ſpecies are *infants* until they begin to talk, and children to the age of puberty.

Anatomy diſcovers to us, that during *infancy* there is much imperfection in the human frame, e. g. its parts are diſproportioned, and its organs incapable of thoſe functions, which in future life they are deſigned to perform. The head is larger in proportion to the bulk of the body than that of an adult. The liver and pancreas are much larger in proportion than in advanced life; their ſecretions are more in quantity alſo. The bile is very inert; the heart is ſtronger and larger than in future life; the quantity of blood ſent through the heart of an *infant*, in a given time, is alſo more in proportion than that in adults. Now, though theſe circumſtances have their important uſefulneſs, yet the imperfection attending them, ſubjects this age to many injuries and dangers that a more perfect ſtate is freed from.

Hippocrates enumerates the diſorders of infants and children in his Aphoriſms, lib. iii. aph. 24—26. Dr. Percival obſerves in his Eſſays Med. and Exp. that of all who are born alive, two-thirds of them live not to be two years old.

Infants have a larger proportion of brain than adults, hence are more ſubject to nervous diſorders, and hence the diagnoſtics of diſeaſes are in many reſpects obſcure or uncertain, as particularly thoſe taken from the pulſe, which from the irritability of the tender bodies of infants, is ſuddenly affected by a variety of accidents too numerous, and ſeemingly too trivial to gain our attention. However, no very great embarraſſment ariſes to the practitioners from this; for the diſorders in this ſtate are generally acute, leſs complicated than thoſe in adults, and are more eaſily diſcovered than is generally apprehended.

The vigour of childrens conſtitutions depend moſt on that of their mothers. Healthy women, who accuſtom themſelves to exerciſe and air, and whoſe diet is more ſuited to the robuſt, than the delicate alone, bring forth healthy children.

As ſoon as a child is born, the mucus, with which its body is covered, is beſt waſhed off with ſoap and water. The care of ſome nurſes to clear away all the mucus at the firſt dreſſing of the child is imprudent, for the degree of rubbing which is ſometimes required, produces inflammation, and much other uneaſineſs in the child; moderate cleanlineſs at the firſt prevents ſuch ill effects, and the next dreſſing will eaſily and ſafely complete this buſineſs.

After examining the new born *infant* with a view to diſcover any accidental injury, or natural imperfection, and proceeding accordingly, wrap the navel ſtring in a rag, ſufficiently folded, to prevent the coldneſs of the navel ſtring from affecting the *infant*, and producing gripes.

The heads of *infants* are differently formed by the birth; but the nurſe ſhould dreſs it looſely, and leave the future formation of it to the action of the dura mater.

The next cuſtom is to pour oil of almonds, and ſyrup of violets, or to thruſt ſugar and butter into the child's ſtomach; but this practice induces coſtiveneſs, by weakening the bowels: until the mother's milk begins to flow, which may be accelerated by applying the child to the breaſts, it is rarely neceſſary to give the child any thing; for there is a mucus in the ſtomach of a new born *infant*, which is generally a ſufficient nouriſhment, until the mother can afford the further needful. If any thing is done before the mother's milk can be obtained, let a tea ſpoonful of the ol. ricini ver. be the medicine, and after it give only luke-warm water, with an equal portion of new milk.

If the child is to be nurſed without the breaſt, the thinneſt diet is the beſt; milk and water alone ſuffices, and is leſs ſubject to turn ſour than thicker meat; as the ſtrength increaſes, more ſolid diet may be given.

The cloathing of *infants* ſhould be looſe and cool; but not ſuch as ſubjects them to the cold. Clean linen may be allowed every day, for it imbibes ſuperfluous moiſture, which otherwiſe might offend. Peculiar attention ſhould be given to prevent their continuing in the wet, after they void their urine.

The diet ſhould be in general as directed in the articles ABLACTATIO, and LACTATIO. If the ſtools are of a green or yellow colour, add now and then magneſia to the food, or give three or four drops of ſp. c. c. in a ſpoonful of milk and water; freſh broth, from which the fat is ſkimmed, may be given once a day.

The nurſery ſhould be a large room, and more than two ſhould not be in the ſame bed. Small, or crowded rooms, greatly relax the inhabitants, and ſubject them to take cold.

Exerciſe is of the laſt importance; it conduces both to preſent health, and future vigour; but avoid much motion, except of the gentler kind, before the ſtomach hath digeſted, in ſome meaſure, its contents; and at all times avoid the dangerous practice of hoiſting and toſſing children high and violently, for thus their victuals ſoon are ſoured in their ſtomachs, and digeſtion is much injured, and not unfrequently the tender ribs are bent, or broke, and thus irremediable ills ariſe, though the cauſe at firſt was never noticed. Gently dandling, and rubbing the whole body before a fire every time it is dreſſed, waſhing with cold water, and afterwards drying it well, are ſufficient exerciſes during the firſt few months.

As to the diſorders that are proper to the *infant* ſtate, they are chiefly inward fits, teething, the rickets, the thruſh, watery gripes, and convulſions; theſe are common to all ages. In *infants*, all theſe diſorders generally ſpring from one common cauſe, viz. an acid in the ſtomach and guts. This, in proportion to its degree, and according to the reſpective peculiarities in the conſtitution of an individual, produces one or other of theſe diſeaſes. To remedy theſe, give from gut. v. ad x. vin. antim. and if it does not operate upwards in half an hour, repeat the doſe. It generally operates both ways, and then it is the moſt uſeful; as the child's ſtrength increaſes give a larger doſe. Repeat this kind of emetic as often as the ſymptoms may require, and keep the child always as dry as poſſible, not neglecting to rub it as above hinted, every time it is dreſſed and undreſſed. See the reſpective articles under which the above named diſeaſes are treated. See Percival's Eſſays Med. and Exp. ed. 2. p. 363—367; Armſtrong on the Management and Diſeaſes of Children; Hoffman on the Diſeaſes of Children. An Eſſay on the Management of Children, by Dr. Cadogan; a Treatiſe on the Diſeaſes of Children, by Dr. Harris: it is tranſlated by I. Martin, F. R. S. and is excellent on the ſubject it contains. Directions for the Management of Children, by Dr. Clark.

INFECTIO. Infection. See CONTAGIO.

INFELIX. Unlucky. Thus Virgil calls darnel.

INFELIX. Lignum. A name for elder.

INFERNALIS LAPIS. A name for the lunar cauſtic, alſo for a cauſtic made by evaporating ſtrong ſoap leys almoſt to dryneſs.

INFIBULATIO. Infibulation. This operation is the reverſe of circumciſion, for it confines the prepuce ſo over the glans penis, that it cannot be drawn back. The operation is thus performed. Extend the ſkin which is above the glans, and with ink mark the part on each ſide through which the perforation is to be made; then let it retract itſelf. If the marks recur upon the glans, too much of the ſkin hath been taken up, and the marks muſt be made nearer to the end of the prepuce, but only ſo as that they may not return upon the glans, and thus the ſeat of the fibula is determined. Then a needle, armed with a waxed thread, is paſſed through, and moved backward and forward every day, until a cicatrix is formed. After this the *fibula* is fixed.

Thus the ancient Romans were uſed to preſerve their ſinging boys from all premature and prepoſterous ideal venery, and to preſerve their voices longer. See Celſus, lib. vii. cap. xxv. The *fibula* ſeems to have been a kind of ring.

INFLAMMATIO. Inflammation. It is properly defined to be an increaſed circulation in any part, from irritation, external or internal, local or univerſal.

The immediate cauſe of *inflammation* is irritation on the nerves. It does not depend on the quantity of craſſamentum,

tum, nor the ardency of the blood. Spaſm and *inflammation* mutually produce each other. Putrid matter is amongſt the varieties which irritate the nervous and ſenſible parts, and ſo excite *inflammation*. The kinds of irritation are, perhaps, as various, as are the different cauſes thereof; the matter of the ſmall-pox produces one, that of the itch another, &c. More fluid circulates through, and is more ſecreted in a part that is inflamed, than when it is in a natural ſtate. Senſibility, and irritability, is increaſed by *inflammation*, and are produced in parts that did not manifeſtly poſſeſs them before.

The mediate cauſe of *inflammation* is the increaſed ſenſibility, or irritability of the fibres; whence irregularity in the excreta and retenta.

The remote cauſes are wounds, bruiſes, ſudden and exceſſive cold, luxations, aromatic aliments, &c.

Inflammations receive different names, according to the different parts on which they manifeſt themſelves, as in the inſtances of a quinſy, pleuriſy, &c. called phlegmonous *inflammations*, and a catarrh, diarrhœa, &c. called *inflammations* of the mucous membrane.

However various may be the diviſions and ſubdiviſions of *inflammation*, like fever they are all, but *inflammation*, differently circumſtanced. If the ſanguineous veſſels, in thoſe membranes that are inflamed are the ſeat of the irritation (as in *inflammations* of the ſtomach, brain, &c.) the *inflammation* is then called phlegmonous; but when the irritation is on the ſurface of the membranes, it ſtimulates the ſecretory mucous glands to the accumulating and diſcharging more than in a natural ſtate they uſually do. So an irritation, and its conſequent an extraordinary afflux, or circulation of humours through the part, conſtitutes *inflammation* in both caſes.

All the *inflammations* that come under the name of phlegmonous, have the ſame ſeat; they are all in the ſanguine arteries of the part inflamed. Dr. Boerhaave, to ſupport his doctrine on this kind of *inflammation*, ſpeaks of the red blood being obſtructed by an error of place (ſee ERROR LOCI,) but obſtruction is not a cauſe, though it may be an effect of this diſorder. The mucous membrane is the ſeat of thoſe *inflammations* which come under the denomination of *inflammations* of the mucous membrane. If there are tumours, the *inflammation* is phlegmonous, and theſe are diſtinguiſhed into phlegmonous and eryſipetalous. The ſeat of the phlegmonous is in the ſanguine arteries, and the cellular membrane; the ſeat of the eryſipetalous is in the ſkin, or other internal membranes, not cellular.

Dr. Cullen uſes the term phlogoſis for this genus of diſeaſe. He places it in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order phlegmaſiæ. Defines it to be a fever, redneſs of an external part, with heat, and a painful tenſion. The ſpecies he points out are, 1. Phlogoſis phlegmone, the phlegmonous *inflammation*. 2. Phlogoſis erythema, erythematous *inflammation*.

The principal effects of *inflammations* are heat, pain, ſwelling, redneſs, an accelerated pulſe, a dryneſs of the ſkin, and an itching.

The heat is excited by the reciprocal action and reaction of the ſolids and fluids. The irritation on the fibres increaſes the action of the veſſels; the velocity of the fluids are thereby quickened through them, and thus heat is excited in proportion as there is craſſamentum in the blood.

Pain. This is excited by the diſtention of the veſſels in a part already become preternaturally ſenſible.

Swelling. This is not cauſed by obſtructed blood, but by the exceſs of heat diſtending the cellular membrane; but a ſwelling is not eſſential to an *inflammation*.

Redneſs. This proceeds from the quantity of blood brought to the part.

The quickened pulſe is from that law in nature, by which the heart always increaſes its efforts, to free its ſubſervient veſſels from any injury they ſuſtain from accidental, or preternatural irritation.

Dryneſs of the ſkin. This is from the ſtricture in the capillaries, whoſe uſe is nearly aboliſhed by the irritation on them.

Itching. This is but the beginning of what ends in pain by its increaſe.

The prognoſtics are more or leſs favourable in proportion to the dignity of the part affected, the conſtitution of the patient, the intenſeneſs of the ſymptoms, the attendance of other diſorders, as the ſcurvy, pox, &c. In a part that is of a firm texture, and that hath but few veſſels, ſuch as the ligaments, glands, &c. the cure is often tedious, and a proper cure is not always effected, for a ſcirrhus is ſometimes the conſequence. If the ſymptoms of *inflammation* ceaſe ſuddenly, the epidermis is raiſed into bliſters full of ichor, or ſinks, and the colour of the part becomes livid, whilſt at the ſame time the pulſe is ſmall, and the ſenſibility of the part is leſſened, a gangrene is then approaching.

Sometimes an *inflammation* ſoon goes off, at others it is removed with difficulty, and often it terminates in other diſeaſes. An *inflammation* can only terminate by a removal of its immediate cauſe, viz. the erethiſm of the veſſels, or rather the irritating matter. But generally it is ſaid to end in a reſolution, a ſuppuration, a gangrene, a ſcirrhus, or a cancer.

And firſt, of reſolution: that is, when, upon removing the cauſe, the ſymptoms diminiſh gradually, and at laſt the patient is in the ſame ſtate as before the diſorder began. And, unleſs morbific matter was the cauſe, this is the moſt deſirable way of termination. A reſolution may be brought about by ſome increaſed evacuation happening by nature's efforts, or by thoſe of art; a fever coming on; or by a metaſtaſis. But theſe are not properly the modes of the reſolution of *inflammation*, but the methods which nature or art hath taken to remove the irritation which was the immediate cauſe. In all theſe ſpecies of reſolution calloſities are ſometimes left.

Secondly, of ſuppuration. This is more properly a conſequence of *inflammation* than a mode of its termination. It happens when a quantity of blood is thrown out into ſome cavity (the *inflammation* continuing) it ferments and is converted into pus, which afterwards acts as a ferment on the ſolid parts, and gives occaſion for the converſion of the whole into a matter ſimilar to itſelf, the ſymptoms of *inflammation* going off.

Thirdly, of a gangrene. This may be a conſequence of *inflammation*, but never can be conſidered as a mode of *inflammations* going off; for now ſenſation is deſtroyed, and life, with reſpect to the part that mortifies, is extinguiſhed; whence no morbid cauſe can any longer be productive of effects.

Laſtly, a ſcirrhus and cancer ſeem to be peculiar diſeaſes, not the modes by which *inflammation* terminates. Mr. Sharp obſerves, in his Introduction to the Operations of Surgery, that, "A ſcirrhous gland is generally mentioned as a fourth termination of *inflammation*; but with impropriety, ſince it ſeldom or never occurs but in venereal, ſcrophulous, or cancerous caſes; when it is the forerunner, and not the conſequence of an *inflammation*, the tumor generally appearing before the diſcoloration."

One general method of cure is that which is proper in all the denominations of phlegmonous *inflammations*, however diſtinguiſhed by phlegmon, eryſipelas, hot œdema, or whatever elſe. And in general there are but two indications; the firſt is to leſſen or remove the irritation; the ſecond is to abate the increaſed afflux of the humours.

Though *inflammations* of all parts and kinds have the ſame general treatment in order to their cure, yet regard ſhould be had to their ſtructure, ſituation, and connection of the parts, to the antecedent cauſes of the diſorder, and the conſtitution of the patient.

It is obſervable that a phlegmon, on its decline, aſſumes ſucceſſively the forms of an eryſipelas and œdema, and then it vaniſhes; this would not happen ſo ſoon if they proceeded from inſpiſſated blood, ſerum, or lymph, wedged in ſmaller veſſels than is deſtined to circulate them; whence, as theſe different appearances of *inflammation* are known to ariſe ſucceſſively in the ſame place, it ſeems very certain that they proceed from the ſame cauſe, viz. from the ſame kind of humours in the ſame ſeries of veſſels, and that they are nothing elſe but the different degrees of intenſity of the ſame diſeaſe, alſo that the ſame general method of cure is proper for them all.

To anſwer the firſt indication, viz. to remove the irritating cauſe: 1. Endeavour to remove all that can continue the morbid irritation. 2. When ſpaſms are the cauſe, opium is the propereſt remedy. 3. When a ſtimulating fluid is ſecreted on a ſenſible membrane, its action may be hindered

hindered by the application of oily, unctuous, or mucilaginous matters. The morbid acrimony may be deſtroyed by proper alteratives, or mercury, &c. 5. Deſtroying or leſſening the irritability of the part, by means of the bark, preparations of lead, &c. 6. The diſtention of the internal veſſels is removed by reſtoring the circulation on the external ſurface of the body, or giving internally medicines to relax the ſmall veſſels throughout the ſyſtem, by their action on the ſtomach; ſuch as nitre, ſal ammoniac, all the neutral ſalts, ipecacuanha, feneka root, antimonial preparations, cold water, external applications, ſuch as ſinapiſm, bliſters, &c.

The ſecond indication, viz. to abate the increaſed afflux of the humours, is anſwered, 1. By bleeding. 2. Purging with neutral ſalts. 3. By the application of ſedatives to the ſtomach, as acids mixed in the patient's drink, and narcotics given at proper intervals in ſmall doſes. 4. Sedatives, ſuch as the preparations of lead, &c. may be applied externally. And 5. An inflammation may be excited on the ſkin, near the part originally affected (except the ſkin itſelf is the part inflamed); to this end frictions, the volatile liniment, or even bliſters, may be applied.

Mean while let a cooling attenuating diet be directed: barley water, in which the true gum arabic is diſſolved, is among the firſt for the common drink, and, in order to its free diſcharge by urine, add to each draught juſt ſo much nitre as produces a due diſcharge that way; though ſometimes the nitre, by irritating too much, rather checks than facilitates the diſcharges by the kidneys.

If the external *inflammations* are to be removed without a ſuppuration, emollients ſhould never be applied; they increaſe every degree of tumor, by adding to the quantity of matter there accumulated, and rendering the veſſels both more yielding to their impulſe, and leſs able to carry them off; thus they counteract every intention of cure. The increaſed action of the veſſels are to be allayed, and the ſenſibility of the part abated, by ſuch ſedatives as neither increaſe the tumor, the pain, the heat, or the tenſion; to this end ſaturnine topics, or in their ſtead the ſimple aſtringents and ſtimulants in common uſe, ſuch as the uſual mixture of vinous ſpirit with vinegar, poſſeſs the deſired efficacy. When the ſeat of *inflammation* is a lax glandular part, applications that are ſtrongly ſtimulant are the moſt ſafe and advantageous. And where there is but little ſenſibility in the part, as in the ſcrophulous tumors of lymphatic glands, bliſters exceed all other topical remedies.

The belly ſhould be kept lax in all kinds of *inflammations*; and internal ones are much relieved by a frequent uſe of clyſters.

Vapours and warm baths contribute much to relief, by leſſening the irritation of the fibres, and by retarding the motion of the blood.

When the *inflammation* abates, attenuants and aperients, ſuch as guaiacum, ſaſſafras, &c. are uſed with ſome advantage.

Inflammation *of the Bladder.* See Cystitis.

It is produced by the uſual cauſes of internal *inflammation*; an *inflammation* in its internal coat is ſometimes cauſed by a ſtone lodged in it.

The diagnoſtics are as follow; with a fever, a preſſing and burning pain is perceived in the region of the bladder above the pubes, and in the perinæum; ſometimes a redneſs is perceived in theſe parts, though the pain is deep ſeated. If the neck be the part affected, there is a retention of urine, with a conſtant ſtimulus in its evacuation; if the fundus be the part diſeaſed, there is a continual dribbling, with great efforts to throw out a larger quantity at a time, which the patient conceives to be contained in the bladder. Frequent attempts to expel the fæces, with which the rectum appears to the patient to be always loaded; theſe increaſe the pain very much, particularly when any fæces are actually contained, and eſpecially if they are hard. The pulſe is frequent and hard, and the extremities are cold: there is great anxiety, reſtleſſneſs, ſickneſs, vomiting, delirium, and other ſymptoms of irritation.

This diſorder uſually terminates ſoon, either in a recovery or death; frequently the latter. A gangrene comes on, by which the pain is removed; but the other ſymptoms continue until death delivers the miſerable ſufferer.

This diſorder may paſs off by an increaſed ſecretion of mucus from the internal membrane, or by a metaſtaſis, or by ſuppuration; in which laſt caſe the matter may be diſcharged into the cavity of the bladder, and paſs off with the urine; or into the cellular membrane, and ſo paſs externally through the perinæum; or laſtly, into the cavity of the abdomen, where it proves fatal. The ulcer in the bladder and perinæum are difficult of cure.

Inflammation in the external coat of the bladder ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from that of the internal; and *inflammation* in any part of the bladder ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from *inflammation* in the adjacent parts, alſo from that retention of urine which proceeds from other cauſes.

In order to the cure, bleed according to the ſtrength of the patient, and the violence of the ſymptoms.

Relaxant medicines, ſuch as the pulv. antim. and hauſt. ſalin. ſhould be given as early as poſſible, and repeated as often as is convenient; for help muſt be ſpeedy and powerful, or death ſoon puts a ſtop to means.

Laxative and cooling clyſters ſhould frequently be injected, or if theſe cannot be complied with, the cooling ſaline purges may be given by the mouth, and ſo repeated as to keep the bowels lax.

If the urine is retained, decoctions of mucilaginous herbs ſhould be freely drank; or if need be, the catheter may be uſed, though much care is required in its introduction.

If notwithſtanding due evacuations, a ſpaſmodic contraction with much pain continues, opiates in ſmall doſes, ſuch as tinct. Theb. gt. iii. may be repeated at proper intervals.

If a redneſs appears externally, apply an anodyne emollient cataplaſm, and cover it with bladders of warm water. If no appearance of *inflammation* is obſerved externally, rub the region of the bladder, and alſo the perinæum, with the linim. volat. Ph. Lond. to excite *inflammation* in the ſkin.

The patient may be placed in the warm bath two or three times a day.

If by uncertain horrors, and the departure of ſome of the ſymptoms of *inflammation*, a ſuppuration is ſuſpected, haſten its progreſs, in order to a ſpeedy diſcharge of the matter as poſſible, which, when evacuated, proceed as in caſes of an ulcer in the urinary paſſage.

Inflammation *of the Bones.*

The blood veſſels carried from the perioſteum to the bones run between their laminæ, whilſt others paſs through particular perforations to the diploe of the cranium, and the marrow in the bones: hence the ſeparation of the corrupted parts, and the reſtitution of ſuch as are loſt. *Inflammation* may therefore be ſeated in the bones, whence ariſes violent pains, obſtinate, and ſeeming to the patient to be deep ſeated. Hence alſo a ſpina ventoſa, &c. See Inflammation of the perioſteum.

Inflammation *in the Breaſts of Women.* See Mastodinia.

This may happen at any other time, but generally it is the attendant of thoſe who give ſuck. A ſhivering is generally a preceding ſymptom; then follows the *inflammation*, with more or leſs fever; a quick pulſe, thirſt, headach, and difficult reſpiration.

As the uſual methods to prevent the afflux of milk in the breaſt are uncertain, to guard againſt *inflammation*, the mother ſhould conſent to ſuckle her child, at leaſt during the firſt month; and during this time, to order her diet ſo as that the diſcharge by urine may be ſomewhat increaſed, and the bowels kept lax; the breaſts ſhould alſo be kept as empty as poſſible, by means of glaſſes or other contrivances for this purpoſe. But if, notwithſtanding this, an *inflammation* actually takes place, bleed, direct a thin ſpare diet, give laxatives, and apply the following embrocation by means of linen rags, which ſhould be moiſtened with it as often as they dry: R Spt. ſal. ammon. vol. ℥ ſs. ſpt. vini camph. ℥ iſs. m. If this is too irritating, add to it half an ounce or more of olive oil. If the *inflammation* does not yield to this management in four or five days at the moſt, the beſt method is to encourage a

ſuppuration

ſuppuration without delay. See Abscess in the Breaſt, and Tumors in the Breaſt.

Inflammation in the meatus auditorius hath nothing peculiar in its ſymptoms, beſides the acuteneſs of the pain being greater than in other parts; the reaſon of which, ſee Otalgia.

Inflammation *of the Eye.* See Ophthalmia.

Inflammation *of the Fauces.* See Cynanche.

It is not very eaſy to diſcern whether or no theſe parts are inflamed, except there is alſo ſome degree of ſwelling; the degree of redneſs in a natural ſtate admits of little or no change in the colour in conſequence of *inflammation.* But when there is really an *inflammation*, there is generally tumor enough to diſcern the true ſtate of the parts. For the method of cure, ſee Angina.

Inflammation *of the Heart.* See Carditis.

In this caſe the pulſe is ſmall, irregular, and intermittent; great anxiety attends; the patient frequently ſwoons; and if not ſpeedily relieved by art, this diſorder ſoon becomes fatal. The method of cure is the ſame as that in the pleuriſy.

Inflammation *of the Inteſtines or Guts.* See Enteritis.

It is the *inflammation* of the exterior coats of the inteſtines that is here treated of; it differs greatly from an *inflammation* of the inner villous coat, or mucous membrane, in which caſe there is either apthæ, or a dyſentery. See Dysenteria. According to the different parts of the inteſtine in which the *inflammation* is ſeated, different names have been given, as iliaca paſſio, enterites, &c. but in all the treatment is the ſame.

If a ſharp pain, with a fever and naufea, is above the navel, and below the ſtomach, the colon under the ſtomach is the ſeat of the *inflammation.* If the pain is in the right hypochondrium, under the ſpurious ribs, then that part of the colon which joins the ilium may be inflamed. If the pain is in the middle of the belly about the navel, the ſmall guts are affected.

The cauſe may be, external cold, indurated fæces, heavy or hard bodies lying in the inteſtines, introſuſceptions, adheſive ſtimulants, hernias, wounds, or any other cauſe of internal *inflammations.*

The uſual ſymptoms are, a ſhivering, an acute burning pain in the belly, which is fixed in the part where it was firſt perceived; ſometimes it increaſes a little, and then remits, but moſt frequently it is continually the ſame. Generally the whole belly is affected at the ſame time with ſpaſmodic pains, which extend to the loins; and flatulencies are often troubleſome. The pulſe is ſmall, hard, frequent, and often it becomes at laſt irregular and intermittent. There is a coldneſs in the extremities, alſo a ſudden and great proſtration of ſtrength. Sometimes a watery diarrhœa attends, but more frequently the muſcular fibres of the inflamed part contract ſo ſtrongly, that nothing can paſs through, although a motion returns very frequently; ſometimes the anus is ſo contracted that a ſmall pipe can hardly be introduced. Flatulencies in the ſtomach, ſickneſs, violent reachings, and vomiting, frequently attend. The tongue is dry, thirſt great, the urine often pale and obſtructed, ſometimes it is high coloured, and diſcharged with heat and difficulty. The breathing is quick. The patient bends forwards, frequently compreſſes his belly, becauſe the abdominal muſcles are ſpaſmodically contracted: the face is flushed. At length a dilirium comes on, and convulſions, by which the patient is deſtroyed.

Inflammation in the bowels frequently terminate in a mortification; in which caſe the pain goes off, and the patient appears to himſelf for a little relieved; his face grows pale, the under eye-lid becomes livid; but the pulſe continue frequent, ſmall, and often irregular; the extremities are cold, delirium and convulſions now come on, and cut the patient off. Juſt before he expires it often happens that he diſcharges very fetid ſtools.

If this diſorder is left to nature, it ſometimes kills in a few hours, and almoſt always before the end of three days; ſo that there is rarely a ſuppuration. But if an abſceſs is formed, the pain abates, and is converted rather into a ſenſe of diſtenſion, and irregular cold fits, with the other ſymptoms of internal ſuppuration, ariſe; the contraction of the muſcular fibres of the inteſtines, the great frequency of the pulſe, and other ſymptoms go off. When this abſceſs burſts, the patient ſwoons, and ſeems freed from a ſenſe of weight in the part where it was.

Inflammation in the external membrane of the inteſtines ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the ſtone in the kidneys, or in the ureters, from *inflammation* of the kidneys or other of the abdominal viſcera, from ſpaſmodic pains of the belly, and from other obſtructions there, in which no *inflammation* attends; it ſhould alſo be carefully diſtinguiſhed from the colic, the hæmorrhoids, and from the iliac paſſion.

If the pain ſhifts, the vomiting returns only at intervals, and while the clyſters paſs downwards there is hope. If the patient ſurvives three days, and the pain abates ſuddenly, with chilneſs and ſhivering, a ſuppuration is forming, which in about fourteen days will break; then if the patient becomes tabid, the only help is a palliative one for a ſhort time. When all paſſes upwards, the patient is very weak, the pulſe fluttering, the countenance pale, the breath offenſive, then danger is very great. Clammy ſweats, a ſmall intermitting pulſe, fetid or black ſtools, a total abatement of pain, are ſigns of mortification being begun, and then death ſoon follows.

On the firſt attack, bleed freely, notwithſtanding the ſmallneſs of the pulſe and ſeeming weakneſs, for the pulſe becomes fuller, and the proſtration of ſtrength goes off as the *inflammation* abates. Repeat the bleeding at ſhort intervals, until the pulſe becomes ſoft.

Acids ſhould be joined with every draught of the patient's common drink.

The antimonial powder ſhould be given in ſuch doſes as the ſtomach will eaſily retain, and a ſaline draught ſhould be repeated every hour or two.

If acrimony is a ſuſpected cauſe, bleed, give a doſe of the ſal cath. amar. with as much of the vin. antim. as will cauſe it to operate upward and downward; then give the julep. e Creta. Ph. Lond. and the white decoction for common drink.

Cooling laxative clyſters ſhould be given every two or three hours, until a ſtool is procured. It ſhould be obſerved that though the ſal. marin. is the beſt purgative in general for clyſters, it is improper if any *inflammation* is ſuſpected in the bowels. But tobacco ſmoak may be injected, and repeated at ſhort intervals, until the deſired effect is obtained.

Purges are contra-indicated by the contraction of the inflamed part; though when all other means fail of obtaining a paſſage, purges with opiates muſt be tried; the ſal. cath. amar. is the beſt, of which two ounces may be diſſolved in ℔ i. of water, and given by two or three ſpoons full every half hour, and to prevent vomiting give the tinct. Theb. gt. xxv. in aq. cinnam. ſi vel aq. menth. pip. If no liquid ſtays on the ſtomach, give pills, ſuch as the following: ℞ Pulv. jalap. & tart. vitriolat. āā ʒ ſs. opii gr. i. ſapo. Venet q. ſ. f. pil. vi. ſtatim ſumend. If theſe do not operate in two or three hours repeat them.

Immediately after bleeding apply a bliſter on the pained part; it often cauſes both clyſters, and purgatives taken by the mouth, to paſs downwards.

Put the patient into a warm bath; let him ſit there, with the water as high as his breaſt, as long he can without fainting; repeat it if required; but be careful that the water be not too hot. In bringing him from the bath great care is required to guard againſt the cold. If the bath cannot be had, the legs may be put into warm water, and bladders of warm water may be applied to the belly, and the like may alſo be laid to the feet.

If the vomiting is ſevere, or to prevent a purging medicine from returning, opiates may be admitted, otherwiſe their uſe is not adviſable until all other means fail, and then give the following: ℞ Tart. emet. gr. , ad ʒ, ſyr. e mecon. ʒ ii. ad ʒ vi. aq. menth. ſi, ℥ ii. m. f. hauſt. See Iliaca Passio.

In caſe of an abſceſs, ſee Abscess in the Inteſtines.

In-

Inflammation *in a Joint.*

The rheumatiſm is an inſtance of this kind, but no great danger is to be apprehended from it, as it is ſeated only in the ligaments. In this caſe bleeding, mild cathartics, ſudorifics, and a prudent uſe of opiates, are uſeful; and if the joint is rigid, a warm bath will relieve it much.

The danger of a ſuppuration in a joint is from the length of diſcharge, and the abſorption of the matter, which rarely fails to bring on a fatal hectic; therefore, by all means, if poſſible, let this accident be prevented.

Inflammation *in the Kidneys.* See NEPHRITIS.

Inflammation *of the Mediaſtinum.*

The cauſe is the ſame as in the pleuriſy, and the ſymptoms are alſo in many inſtances the ſame. The pain ſtrikes obliquely from the ſternum through the breaſt to the back; there is a difficulty of breathing, and cough, attending ſometimes with a ſpitting. Theſe ſymptoms are not ſo violent as in a pleuriſy, nor is the pain on inſpiration ſo much increaſed, or the inflammatory diatheſis ſo great. The cure is the ſame as in a pleuriſy; but ſuppuration is very difficultly avoided, and when it happens it is always fatal.

Inflammation *in the Meſentery.* Peritonitis *Meſenterica.*

When the meſentery is inflamed, there is a languid ſlow fever, without any thirſt or other violent ſymptom, a loſs of appetite, a ſenſe of tenſion, and weight below the ſtomach, without much hardneſs, and only diſcoverable by preſſing upon it. This tenſion is without much pain, becauſe the meſentery hath but a ſmall degree of ſenſation. The ſtools are often chylous, and ſucceeded by a diſcharge of thin ichor, without any ſenſe of pain, ſometimes pure and unmixed, and ſometimes mixed with the fæces. Theſe ſymptoms are mild and gentle, if the meſentery only is inflamed; but if the liver, ſpleen, or any of the inteſtines are alſo affected, they are more violent.

Theſe *inflammations* generally terminate in abſceſſes, or bring on a corruption of the meſentery; the morbific matter is alſo ſometimes tranſlated to other parts, without being removed from the habit; hence the diſorder often recurs, and ſo continues for years; in which caſe ſometimes the fever returns, and is ſometimes changed into a colic.

When the preſence of this kind of *inflammation* can be diſcovered, the method of cure will be the ſame as that for an inflamed liver or ſpleen.

Inflammation *of the Muſcles of the Belly.* See MYOCOLITIS.

When theſe parts are inflamed, the ſkin over them is greatly ſtretched, ſo that it cannot be pinched up with the fingers; and if they are ſwelled, the figure of the reſpective muſcle is preſerved; the inflamed muſcle is very hard, and more ſo as it tends to ſuppurate; there is generally more or leſs of fever; during any action of the diſeaſed muſcle the pain is conſiderably augmented, as in caſe of ſneezing, ſtraining at ſtool, or even in breathing.

The rheumatiſm is ſometimes fixed in theſe muſcles; they alſo ſuffer from preſſure, as when patients with a ſtone in their bladder ſeek for relief by reſting their weight upon their belly when it is placed upon ſome hard body, &c.

This complaint ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from a colic, an inflammation in the liver, or any of the ſubjacent viſcera.

If this kind of inflammation terminates in an abſceſs, and it is diſcharged inwardly, it proves fatal. And if any tendency to a mortification appears in theſe muſcles, the iſſue is to be dreaded.

If the hardneſs is conſiderable, and a throbbing pain is perceived, an abſceſs is forming, and ſhould be encouraged with all ſpeed, and if poſſible the diſcharge ſhould be made outwardly. Heurnius obſerves that theſe muſcles have ſo thick a membrane, that tumors there require opening, and if the opening is neglected, they ſometimes turn to a ſtony hardneſs. Hildanus ſays, theſe tumors ſhould be opened more early then is uſual in other inſtances, in order to a diſcharge outwardly being ſecured.

As a ſuppuration is ſo dangerous, and at the beſt is ſo very difficultly managed, to remove the *inflammation* by the ſpeedieſt methods, before a tendency to the forming of an abſceſs can be manifeſted, will neceſſarily appear to be the moſt eligible method. Bleeding, then, with purging, and ſuch other means as are uſed in other inſtances of *inflammation* in the external parts, ſhould be applied, and ſteadily purſued.

Inflammation *of the Oeſophagus.*

This is ſometimes a ſymptom attending a quinſy. See ANGINA. Beſides other general methods of cure for *inflammations*, waſh the mouth frequently with the following, and let a little of it be gradually ſwallowed as often. ℞ Album ovi (bene conquaſat. ad liquor aquoſa) ℥ ii. aq. roſar. & ſyr moror. āā ℥ i. ſal prunel. gr. xv. m.

Inflammation *of the Pericardium.* See PERICARDITIS.

The ſymptoms are chiefly the ſame as thoſe that attend a pleuriſy, but the pain ſeems to be deeper ſeated, and is not ſo much increaſed upon inſpiration. If a cure is attempted, proceed as in the pleuriſy.

Inflammation *of the Perioſteum.*

Beſides the other uſual cauſes of *inflammation* in other parts of the body, the venereal diſeaſe, and the ſcurvy, are cauſes of *inflammation* in this part. The venereal poiſon is a frequent cauſe, when the perioſteum within the bone is the ſeat of the diſorder.

The external perioſteum, that is, the membrane which covers the bone, and ſeparates betwixt it and the fleſh; or the internal perioſteum, that is, the membrane which lines the cavities of the cylindrical bones, and which ſeparates betwixt them and the marrow contained in them.

When the external perioſteum is inflamed, a deep ſeated pain and heat is felt, and ſometimes a pulſation; and when the part is not covered with much fleſh, the pain will be augmented by preſſure; muſcular motion, however, increaſes the pain. That the inner membrane is the ſeat of the *inflammation*, is ſuggeſted from the want of pain on preſſure, or on moving the muſcles of the reſpective part, by not perceiving any pulſation; by receiving no relief from any poſition of the pained part; and, particularly, by a ſenſation like the ſpliting of the bone from within outwardly.

Inflammations in both membranes of the bone proceed from the ſame cauſes, produce the ſame effects with reſpect to the part of the bone they adhere to, and terminate in the ſame manner, viz. in an abſceſs or a gangrene; but when the inner membrane is affected, and becomes gangrenous, the caſe is always deſtructive of the whole marrow and bone.

If *inflammations* of theſe kinds are not ſpeedily removed, the bone will be injured, and the perioſteum upon the injured part deſtroyed, and it cannot be renewed until the bone exfoliates, and is renewed, during which time the incumbent parts will be irritated by an acrid ſanies, by which malignant and incurable ulcers are often produced, eſpecially if it happens where a large portion of fleſh covers the bone, and hinders a ſafe inciſion on the part.

In general the cure is, as in other *inflammations*; but the particular intention will be to carry the peccant matter outwards by fomentations and inciſions. As a ſuppuration near the bone is to be dreaded, endeavours to draw the diſorder to the external parts muſt be attempted, if it cannot be diſcuſſed by bleeding, ſtrong purges, &c. To invite to the external parts, ſoftening fomentations and poultices may be applied; but if theſe methods fail, the only remaining one is to cut down through the fleſh to the bone, if the part admits of it.

When an abſceſs begins to form itſelf, it is known, and treated, as in the article ABSCESS of the Perioſteum.

Theſe caſes generally end in amputation.

Inflammation *of the Rectum.*

It is rarely ſo acute as that of any of the ſmall inteſtines; nor ſo apt to produce ſmallneſs of the pulſe, or coldneſs of the extremites, or to affect the ſtomach; nor is there ſuch a ſtricture as to render the inteſtines impervious. The cure is the ſame as in *inflammation* in any of the other inteſtines,

teſtines, except that purgatives are uſed with advantage, and laxatives ought always to be employed.

Inflammation *of the Spleen.*

Lommius obſerves, that this diſorder rarely happens; that when it does, there is a hard and a throbbing tumor, a pain in the left hypochondrium, a continual violent fever, extreme heat, unquenchable thirſt, the tongue is covered with a blackiſh mucus, a total loſs of appetite, with a difficult, and, as it were, imperfect reſpiration, like that of children when they ſob through anger. Aræteus futher ſays, that the pain attending *inflammation* in the ſpleen is not conſiderable. If the diſtemper be not accompanied by an ulcer, but continues for a long time, the patients have an averſion to food, are ſwollen, have a bad habit, and a diſagreeable aſpect, and have many round livid, hollow, foul, and incurable ulcers over the whole body, but eſpecially on the legs, which entirely emaciate and kill the patients; but ſuch as have only a ſmall, hard, and ſchirrous tumor, feel little or no pain, and conſequently live longer. But if the diſtemper overpowers the patient, a dropſy, a conſumption, or a colliquation of the whole body, are the certain conſequence.

The general methods of removing other violent internal *inflammations* muſt be uſed in this caſe. If the *inflammation* can be diſcuſſed, the patient is ſafe; but if a ſuppuration, or any other kind of termination follows, the conſequence is fatal ſooner or later.

Inflammation *of the Stomach.* See Gastritis.

Alſo called gaſtritis, and inflammatory colic.

It is produced from nearly the ſame cauſes as the *inflammation* of the inteſtines, excepting introſuſception, and hardended fæces, and it is more liable to be excited by acrid ſubſtances.

Many of the ſymptoms of an *inflammation* in the inteſtines attend. When the ſtomach is inflamed, there is a pungent, fixed, burning pain in it, with a pulſation, diſtention, and tumor; the mildeſt things that are ſwallowed increaſe this pain, and at the ſame time bring on ſickneſs, vomiting, purging, or hiccuping; there is a continual uneaſineſs about the precordia, a difficulty of breathing and ſwallowing, a pain in ſneezing, the pulſe is ſmall, quick, hard, and intermitting, the extremities are cold, there are clammy ſweats and faintings. When a wound in the ſtomach is the cauſe, there is frequently little or no pain, although all the other ſymptoms take place, and the patient is cut off.

Inflammation in the ſtomach muſt be diſtinguiſhed from a cardialgia, and from an *inflammation* in the convex part of the liver.

This diſorder is of the moſt acute kind, and unleſs the moſt powerful means of relief are immediately employed, it proves fatal.

In general, the ſame method of cure which is propoſed when the inteſtines are inflamed, muſt be purſued in this. The principal difference is, in that internal medicines can rarely be adminiſtered, on account of the great irritabilty of the ſtomach.

Bleeding is almoſt the only dependance, and it muſt be freely uſed, notwithſtanding the lowneſs of the pulſe, and repeated till the pulſe riſes.

From the weakneſs of the patient, cordials may ſeem to be indicated, but they are extremely injurious in this inſtance.

Whatever is given to drink ſhould neither be cold nor hot, but gently warmed. Demulcents and emollients are the propereſt for the common drink, with ſmall portions of nitre, or of the rob of currants.

Emollient clyſters, with nitre, ſhould frequently be adminiſtered, and they ſhould be injected in large quantities, that they may act as fomentations, and as nutritives.

Bliſter the region of the ſtomach, particularly over the part aggrieved.

Gentle anodynes, ſuch as a ſolution of gum arabic, or ſpermaceti made into draughts, in each of which may be gr. x. of nitre, and from iii. to v. drops of Thebaic tincture. Theſe may be repeated as often as ſeems neceſſary for moderating the pain, and checking the vomiting.

Bladders of hot water ſhould be kept conſtantly upon the region of the ſtomach. The legs may frequently be put into warm water, and ſinapiſms may be applied to the feet.

If acrid poiſon, or an exceſs of eating was the cauſe, a gentle emetic may be ventured on, but on all other occaſions avoid this kind of remedy.

In caſe of an abſceſs burſting, give the balſ. capivi ver. ʒ i. three times a day in a draught of milk, and let a milk diet be enjoined.

Inflammation *of the Teſticles.* See Hernia Humoralis.

Inflammation *of the Thigh.*

An *inflammation* in the faſcia lata femoris, is followed by very unkindly ſuppurations; and whenever matter is formed under it, we ſhould give it vent as ſoon as it is diſcovered.

Inflammation *of the Vagina.*

This accident ſometimes happens after delivery. It is occaſioned by the head of the child being long retained in the pelvis.

If the ſwelling and *inflammation* is not very great, they are generally removed by the diſcharge of the lochia; but if the internal membrane of the vagina is inflamed, emollient injections muſt be thrown up from time to time, and a piece of prepared ſponge ſhould be introduced, to prevent its coaleſcing. The ſponge may be thus prepared: take a piece of a proper ſize for keeping the vagina open, when it is expanded; ſoak it in warm water; then roll it tight from end to end with a ſtring; cut off any irregularities, or hard lumps, and lay it to dry; when dry, take off the ſtring; the ſponge being then ſtiff it will remain in that form; anoint it with lard, and introduce it into the vagina, the moiſture of which will expand it.

If the preſſure on this part was ſo long continued as to obſtruct the circulation in it, a mortification will enſue, which may either be total or partial: if it is total, the patient will die; if partial only, the mortified parts will ſlough off. This may be known to be the caſe, if the woman complains of great pain after delivery, a fetid ſmell, and a diſcharge of ſharp ichor at firſt from the vagina, then pus and matter. When this is the caſe, emollient fomentations may be thrown up from time to time; doſſils of lint may be dipped in ſome proper balſam, and applied to the parts to deterge and heal them; and when the ſloughs are all caſt off, great care ſhould be taken to prevent the vagina from growing together, either by introducing doſſils of lint, or pieces of ſponge into it.

Inflammation *of the Womb.* See Hysteritis.

Women after child-birth, when the lochia are impeded, are the moſt frequent ſubjects of this complaint.

The cauſes, beſides the common ones of internal *inflammations* in general, are tearing, bruiſes, external ſtimuli, obſtructed menſtrua, or obſtructed lochia. It often happens after abortion, and child-birth, eſpecially when the lochia are prevented by cold, or other cauſe, and is then attended with ſymptoms different from thoſe which appear when an uterus not lately impregnated is inflamed.

In the firſt caſe there is a pain at the bottom of the belly, which for the moſt part is neither throbbing nor conſtantly acute; the pulſe is frequent, eſpecially after child-birth, often ſmall, ſometimes irregular; in ſtrong habits, and after early abortions, hard; the patient is affected with delirium, a ſubſultus tendinum, and the other ſymptoms of irritation; the womb gangrenes and mortifies, and the patient ſinks. In the ſecond, the pain is more conſtant, bounded, and throbbing; the pulſe is hard, full, and ſtrong, and other ſymptoms of general *inflammation* attend; or if the diſeaſe riſes to a greater height, the pulſe is ſmall and frequent, the ſymptoms of irritation attend, and ſuppuration is more liable to happen.

In both, as different parts of the womb are affected, there is a ſtrangury, or a ſuppreſſion of urine; the little that is diſ-

diſcharged is fetid and hot, or a teneſmus attends, with a pain in going to ſtool; or there is pain in moving the lower extremities, or ſwelling, with heat, to be felt by introducing a finger up the vagina, the os tincæ being ſhut; univerſal reſtleſſneſs, thick urine, pain upon external preſſure, the belly is tenſe, a red ſtain extends up to the navel, and turns black when fatal; and if it happens in an impregnated uterus, an abortion follows.

It often happens that the woman can only lie on her back, and on turning to either ſide, ſhe feels a painful heavy maſs fall to that ſide, and at the ſame time an exceſſive pain in the loins, kidnies, and groin, of the oppoſite ſide. The pains excited by *inflammation* in the womb ſometimes extend to the inſide of the thighs when the woman turns on her ſide, or it is felt in the loins.

This diſorder may be removed by a ſpontaneous eruption of the menſes, or of the lochia; or after an abortion or child-birth, by the patient's falling into a conſtant, equal, gentle, long continued ſweat; or it may terminate in an abſceſs, or a mortification, both which laſt are almoſt always fatal. Sometimes a metaſtaſis proves a means of relief.

Bleeding, however uſeful in moſt *inflammatory* diſorders, in this particular one, though not wholly uſeleſs, yet if freely uſed only increaſes the weakneſs, without leſſening the *inflammation*.

When *inflammation* attacks a womb not lately impregnated, the common remedies uſed in internal *inflammations* are to be employed, regard being had to whether the attendants are an *inflammatory* diatheſis, or the ſymptoms of irritation.

In abortions and labours, where the patient hath not been much weakened, if the pulſe is hard, and not very frequent, the loſs of blood by the arm may be followed with advantage, but it rarely happens that this evacuation can be repeated; therefore the general method of cure will always depend on relaxants, ſuch as the pulv. antim. and hauſt. ſalin. taking care that they do not produce a purging. To theſe, as neceſſary, may be added, anodyne and antiſpaſmodic fomentations and poultices.

In delicate or feeble conſtitutions, after child-birth, and where there is no hardneſs, but great frequency of the pulſe, this diſorder too often proves fatal. All that can be done is to keep the patient in bed, moderately warm, exciting, if poſſible, a gentle conſtant ſweat by farinaceous decoctions, in ſmall quantities at a time, but frequently repeated, and applying fomentations and poultices.

Perſpiration may be free; the other uſual evacuations by urine and ſtool may be moderately promoted; but all very extraordinary ones are dangerous.

Always guard againſt preſſure on the affected part, whether from any thing external, from urine in the bladder, or from fæces in the rectum. Urine, if neceſſary, may be drawn off with the catheter, and the bowels may be emptied by repeated clyſters, which ſhould be watery.

Bliſters generally quicken the pulſe too much, and ſeem not ſo uſeful in this caſe as in ſome other local *inflammations*.

No diſorder requires more care to keep the patient compoſed in mind, and ſtill in bed.

Until the fever and ſpaſms abate, the ſtimulant aromatics and emmenagogues will be improper; indeed the lochia are rarely promoted by them at any time.

If pain continues, notwithſtanding the uſual treatment, opiates may ſometimes be given with ſucceſs, as is directed in an *inflammation* of the inteſtines.

If a ſuppuration comes on, endeavour to procure an exit to the pus as ſoon as poſſible, which when it points to the perinæum may be ſometimes managed.

For what hath been taught by the ancients, on the ſubject of *inflammation*, ſee in Fernelius; alſo Mageniſe on Inflammation; and Aikins's Obſervations on the external Uſe of Preparations of Lead, and, on Inflammation, as it conſtitutes particular diſorders; likewiſe Fordyce's Elements of the Practice of Phyſic, part the ſecond.

Inflammatory *Fever*. See SYNOCHA.

When an ardent fever is attended with an *inflammatory* diatheſis, or when actual *inflammation* affects any part during the preſence of a fever, the patient is ſaid to labour under one of an *inflammatory* kind; but according to the different parts on which the *inflammation* is ſeated, different denominations are given to the diſorder, as when it is ſeated in the throat it is called angina, &c.

In ſtrong conſtitutions it is produced by any of the cauſes by which fever may be excited. A prediſpoſition in ſome particular part, is the general cauſe of a partial *inflammation* affecting the lungs of one, the pleura of another, &c. When a fever attacks where this prediſpoſition prevails, the irritation, which is the immediate cauſe of all *inflammations*, acts with moſt advantage, and there moſt readily produces its effects. In ſome inſtances the fever precedes the *inflammation*, in others the former is the conſequence of the latter.

The cauſes of *inflammatory* fevers are, in general, whatever are the uſual cauſes of fever, and of *inflammation* ſeparately.

The ſymptoms in the beginning are often ſlight, but they are ſoon followed by a violent hot fit, in which all the ſymptoms indicating ſtrength appear in a great degree, the whole fever being often entirely terminated by topical *inflammation*, or an hæmorrhage, leaving only the *inflammatory* diatheſis; or in a few periods the patient is deſtroyed by the ſtrong action of the veſſels immediately affecting the brain, or depriving him entirely of ſleep, and, in conſequence of that, cauſing delirium, violent convulſions, and death. If none of theſe things happen in the ſecond week, the ſtrength diminiſhes, and the fever goes off with a perfect criſis, or imperfect critical ſymptoms appear after each exacerbation; theſe becoming gradually leſs, the white cruſt on the tongue falls off, but ſometimes leaves little exulcerations behind. If a local *inflammation* begins with the ſymptoms of the firſt ſtage of fever, and they remain after the pain hath ariſen; when the *inflammation* is diminiſhed by any natural or artificial means, it often happens that the fever continues, increaſes, and is attended with weakneſs until the patient dies.

When a pleuriſy, or other partial *inflammation*, ariſes in the hot fit of a fever, it is preceded by horror and rigor, cold, quickneſs of the pulſe, and ſeveral of the other ſymptoms of the firſt ſtage, theſe are followed by the ſymptoms of the next ſtage; together with thoſe of the *inflammatory* diatheſis; after which the pain, and other ſymptoms of the *inflammation* in the ſide, or part affected, take place; and the ſymptoms of the firſt ſtage of fever commonly leave the patient, thoſe of the *inflammatory* diatheſis continuing. Sometimes the ſymptoms of the firſt ſtage of fever are relieved. In this caſe anxiety about the præcordia, tranſparent urine, particular evening paroxyſms, &c. continue along with the *inflammations*, produce a different progreſs and termination of the diſeaſe, and require a variety in the treatment.

The indications of cure are, firſt, to reduce the fever by bleeding in the beginning, and repeating it as required. Secondly, To remove the increaſed irritability of the affected part. And, thirdly, To promote the ſecretions and excretions.

The diet ſhould be chiefly boiled oats, or barley, or ſubacid fruits; the drink ſhould be taken frequently in ſmall quantities. It may conſiſt of whey, barley-water, water acidulated with vinegar, or the jelly of currants, or other ſuch like fruits. It may be drank warm or cold as is moſt agreeable to the patient. Half a dram of nitre may be diſſolved in every pint of liquor in which no acid juice is mixed.

Let the room be frequently filled with a pure cool air.

If the patient hath any ſtrength, let him be made to ſit up a quarter or half an hour in a day. This leſſens the fever, head-ach, and delirium; but when a ſalutary ſweat comes on, he may lay ſtill. The ſheets may be changed every two or three days, until all putrid, or other morbid ſteams, are removed.

For the moſt part, the cure depends in a great meaſure on a due diſcharge of blood. The bleeding may be repeated in many inſtances to a third or fourth time; but when on the firſt bleeding, the blood is rather florid than ſizy, and no relief follows it, the operation ſhould cautiouſly be repeated. Purging alſo, and the ſame general treatment as in an ardent fever, is to be urged in thoſe of the *inflammatory* kind.

If the blood is ſizy, the ſal. C. C. or the ſp. C. C. and the ſal. vol. ſuccin. may be repeated at proper intervals.

Nitre

Nitre with camphor are alſo particularly uſeful, or Clutton's febrifuge ſpirit may be given in every draught of the patient's drink.

To promote the ſecretions and excretions, antimonial preparations are to be preferred. The firſt doſe ſhould be given in a ſufficient quantity to excite a gentle puking: the next two or three doſes ſhould keep up a nauſea; and ſmall quantities of an opiate, ſuch as the tinct. Thebaic. gt. iii. ad vi. or a proper quantity of the elix. Pareg. ſhould be added. Theſe relax and moderate the irritation preternaturally excited in the conſtitution. In caſes which do not well admit of bleeding, as ſoon as the heat is ſo abated, that a diaphoretic may be admitted, the pulv. rad. contray. may be mixed with ſpermaceti, and to theſe the ſal C. C. may be added, from gr. xv. to ℈ i. in each doſe; though if there is a very looſe texture obſerved in the blood, acids, with warm cordials, are to be preferred.

After due evacuations by bleeding and purging, if the pain is conſiderable, apply a bliſter over the pained part, when the *inflammation* is local. In all kinds of inflammatory fevers, when the patient becomes languid, or, perhaps, comatoſe in the advanced ſtate of the diſorder, bliſters are one of the principal kind of helps; cordials, as camphor, ſaffron, &c. may accompany them.

If when the fever is nearly gone, the delirium, for want of ſleep, continues, the ſyſtem being greatly weakened, after all other means of procuring ſleep are tried in vain, opiates may ſometimes be given with advantage.

Let the patient's mouth and throat be frequently waſhed; his hands and feet bathed in luke-warm water; and fomentations be applied to thoſe parts where the greateſt number of veſſels lie expoſed to the touch.

Sometimes after the inflammatory diathеſis is conquered, this kind of fever ends in a violent putrid one, in which caſe it is to be treated in the ſame manner as though a putrid fever had attacked the patient at the firſt.

See Fordyce's Elements of Phyſic, part ii. Fordyce's Enq. into the Cauſes, &c. of putrid and inflammatory Fevers.

INFLATIO. So an emphyſema is ſometimes called.

INFLUENZA. A modern name for a ſort of catarrhal fever.

INFRA SCAPULARIS, (Muſc.) alſo called infra ſpinatus. It riſes from the ſurface of the bone on its outſide, as far as the baſis of the ſcapula runs over the capſular ligament, and is inſerted into the outer tuberoſity of the os humeri, carrying the arm round, and partly raiſing it, being the reverſe of the ſupra ſpinatus.

INFRA SCAPULARIS, from *infra*, *below*, and *ſcapula*, *the ſhoulder-blade*. It is a name for the ſubſcapularis muſc.

INFRA SPINATUS. See INFRA SCAPULARIS.

INFUNDIBULUM, from *infundo*, *to pour in*. It is called choana. Between the baſis of the anterior pillars of the fornix, and the anterior part of the union of the optic thalami, lies a cavity named *infundibulum*. It runs down towards the baſis of the cerebrum, contracting gradually, and terminating in the glandula pituitaria. It alſo communicates with the lateral ventricles.

INFUNDIBULUM. It is a name of the pelvis of the kidnies. The Latins call the pharynx thus.

INFUSIO, from *infundo*, *to pour in*. Infuſion. It ſignifies either the action of infuſing any ingredient in a proper fluid, or the medicine prepared by this action.

By *infuſion* in water, the gummy and ſaline parts of vegetables are extracted; and by the intervention of the gummy part, the reſinous is alſo taken up by the ſame menſtruum, ſo are the oily; ſo that in many inſtances the whole virtue of a plant, &c. is obtained. In general, water takes up more by *infuſion* from dry herbs than from freſh ones, particularly the newly dried ones. From animal ſubſtances, water extracts the gelatinous and nutritious parts; whence glues, jellies, and broths, are obtained; and along with theſe it takes up principles of more activity. Water alſo diſſolves ſome portion of calcareous earth, but it hath no action on any other kind of earthy matter.

In making *infuſions*, whether the water is cold or hot, the ingredients are only ſteeped in it, without boiling. It is the ſame whether proof ſpirit, rectified ſpirit, urine, or whatever elſe is the menſtruum.

In nervous diſorders, infuſions are beſt made in a vinous or a ſpirituous menſtruum. Stomachic *infuſions* ſhould be moderately ſpirituous. Cathartic ones, whether ſaline or reſinous, if for extemporaneous uſe, are beſt made with hot water in the manner of tea.

Infuſions ſhould not be ſo fated with the ingredients as to make the medicine unpalatable: though where fetid ſimples are required, this cannot be attended to.

Such *infuſions* as are reſinous ſhould be given in wine; ſo ſhould all thoſe that turn milky when mixed with water. Bitters in wine ſhould be given before and after dinner, for then they affect the head leſs.

Many *infuſions* are moſt agreeable when made with cold water; and they are ſtronger thus, than when heat is uſed, as is inſtanced in the bark, camomile flowers, &c.

INFUSIO. See TRANSFUSIO.

INFUSUM. An infuſion. Sometimes it means a clyſter, or an injection.

INGA. Ray takes notice of four trees of this name, but no medicinal properties are noticed.

INGRAVIDATIO, i. e. Imprægnatio.

INGUEN. The groin. The two groins are the lateral diviſions of the hypogaſtric region.

INGUINALIS. Starwort. There are many ſpecies of this plant, but we have not many of them in England; nor are they remarkable for any medical quality.

INGUINALIS, alſo called after atticus, aſteriſcus annuus, chryſanthemum, and golden ſtar-wort.

Theſe, with two or three others, we have in England, are ornaments in the garden. There is alſo an aſteroides, or baſtard ſtar-wort.

INGUINALIS. A name of eryngium.

INHAMÆ ORIENTALE. Potatoes.

INHAME, i. e. Cara.

INHUMATIO. In chemiſtry, it is a method of digeſting, by burying in horſe-dung, the veſſel which contains the ingredients to be digeſted.

INIMBOIA, or Inimbay, i. e. Bonduct.

INION. The occiput. B'ancard ſays it is the beginning of the ſpinal marrow; others ſay it is the back part of the neck.

INJACULATIO. So Helmont calls a diſorder which conſiſts of a violent ſpaſmodic pain in the ſtomach, and an immobility of the body.

INJECTIO. An injection. Liquors to be uſed by way of *injection*, are contrived for the more immediate application to the part affected, and are adapted to the moſt latent cavities of the body. They ſhould always be uſed whilſt lukewarm. They may be applied either by a ſyringe or clyſter-pipe.

When *injections* are uſed in caſes of gleets or gonorrhœas, Dr. Swediar adviſes that the ſyringe uſed ſhould have a ſhort, but wide pipe, juſt as large that its orifice goes into the orifice of the urethra, and the piſton to go cloſe to the ſides of the tube. If the whole pipe of the ſyringe be much ſmaller than the orifice of the urethra, it is attended with two diſadvantages: firſt, with a ſmall pipe, if it is not perfectly ſmooth, the patient eaſily wounds the inſide of the urethra, thereby rendering himſelf liable to an ulceration of the part, and conſequent abſorption of the poiſon. Secondly, the liquid *injected*, inſtead of going into the cavity of the urethra, will, in proportion as the patient preſſes the piſton, run out ſideways through the orifice of the urethra. If the piſton itſelf does not apply cloſely to the ſides of the ſyringe, even if the pipe is ſufficiently large, ſo that it perfectly cloſes the orifice of the urethra, the liquor will ſtill gurgitate between the piſton and the ſyringe, inſtead of going into the urethra; and thus the patient may imagine that he has *injected* the liquor properly, when, perhaps, very little has entered. The ſyringe being properly made, ſhould be applied cloſely and exactly to the orifice of the urethra; ſo that by the conic form of its pipe, all paſſage may be denied to the liquid betwixt it and the ſides of the urethra. If the diſorder lies in the uſual original ſeat of gonorrhœas, viz. juſt under the frænum, the patient ſhould, with one hand, compreſs the urethra at the firſt curvature of the penis, where the ſcrotum begins, while he holds and manages the ſyringe with the fingers of the other. The piſton, which ſhould always go cloſe and eaſy, ought then to be preſſed ſoftly and ſlowly, till he feels the urethra gently dilated, and thus keep the liquid *injected* for a minute

minute or two in the urethra, repeating the ſame operation three or four times. By a raſh or longer continued preſſure of the piſton, the irritation produced thereby in the urethra, often does more harm than the *injection* does good. By attending to theſe directions, a double advantage is obtained. The liquid is properly applied to the part affected, at the ſame time that no danger is incurred of driving ſome of the venereal poiſon lower down the urethra along with the *injected* liquid; but this precaution is unneceſſary, if the ſeat of the diſorder is lower down. With reſpect to the liquid itſelf, it ſhould always, in caſes of virulent gonorrhœa, be made lukewarm; but in gleets this is not neceſſary. In gonorrhœas, if the liquid is too cold or too warm, it may eaſily hurt the patient, either by retropelling the matter, or increaſing the inflammation. In all caſes before an *injection* is applied, the patient ſhould attempt to make water.

Another obſervation deſerves attention; viz. many who labour under gleets, after having for ſome time made uſe of *injections*, and finding themſelves much better, will grow careleſs in the application, and even ſometimes neglect the *injection* altogether for a day, or half a day. The conſequence of this is ſometimes diſagreeable: many inſtances have occurred in which, by neglecting to uſe the *injection* for a ſingle day, the diſcharge has been greatly augmented, as if it had been a freſh gleet; and the relapſe being more obſtinate than the original diſeaſe, the patients have been obliged to continue the *injections* for more weeks than, perhaps, it would have required days to cure the diſtemper, had they continued the uſe of them without interruption. In general, to prevent all danger of a relapſe, it is proper to apply the *injections* three, four, or, according to circumſtances, ſix times a day during the diſeaſe, and to continue the ſame regularly for ten or twelve days after the running has entirely ceaſed.

In anatomy great improvement hath been made by means of injections. Ruyſch was the firſt who was eminent in their uſe. Rieger publiſhed Ruyſch's method. The properties required in the injecting matter, are, 1ſt, fluidity; but this alone is not ſufficient, they muſt likewiſe, 2dly, grow ſtiff when cold, yet not ſo ſtiff but that they may remain tough and flexible; for were they too hard, the ſmaller veſſels would always be in danger of being broke. The following poſſeſs theſe properties.

Fine Injection. *By Dr. Nicholls.*

Take hard white Spaniſh varniſh, and hard brown Spaniſh varniſh, of each equal parts; turpentine varniſh, and vermilion, of each a ſufficient quantity. Mix them.

Coarſe Injection. *By Dr. Nicholls.*

Take of yellow reſin two pounds; of yellow wax one pound; of turpentine varniſh a ſufficient quantity.

Theſe *injections* may be coloured with vermilion, indigo, blue, or with verdigriſe. Whatever colouring matter is uſed, it muſt be ground extremely fine.

The fine *injections*, when uſed, ſhould be as warm as they can be borne by one's finger if dipped therein. The coarſer ſort ſhould nearly boil.

The ſubject to be injected, after having their veſſels cleared of their contents, by ſqueezing out the juices, ſhould be made warm, by being ſteeped in warm water.

A fœtus may be injected by the umbilicus; a child by the aorta aſcendens from the left ventricle; an adult may be injected in the ſame manner as a child. *Injection* by the aorta does little more than fill the arteries: but by the umbilicus of a fœtus, both arteries and veins are filled. When the arteries in the cornea are filled, the *injection* ſhould not be puſhed any longer. As ſoon as the *injection* is finiſhed, put the ſubject into cold water, that it may cool ſuddenly.

The younger the ſubject, the farther the matter will run in their veſſels; and if the body is macerated a day or two in cold water, before it is put into warm water, the blood will be more effectually diſſolved, and the veſſels more emptied than by any other method. When put into warm water, it may continue thirty-ſix or forty-eight hours, the water being kept as hot as one can bear a hand in it.

To dry a preparation, hang it where a current of air can paſs free, but guard it from duſt; when dry, let it be well varniſhed. The ſhining varniſh may be laid on it, with a bruſh. Whilſt it is drying, if maggots appear, dab the part with merc. cor. alb. diſſolved in ſp. vin. R.

Spirit of ſalt, or aqua fortis diluted, are the beſt for macerating injected preparations in.

The rectified ſpirit of malt is the beſt for preſerving theſe preparations, or any anatomical preparations with.

INNOMINATA ARTERIA. It is the external branch of the external iliac artery at its diviſion about the hole in the ligamentum Poupartii. It aſcends outwardly to the inſide of the ſpine of the ilium. It is loſt in the muſcles of the belly, and it ſends branches to the iliæus internus.

INNOMINATA CAVITAS. See Auricula.

INNOMINATA GLANDULÆ, i. e. Glandulæ lachrymales.

INNOMINATA, (Os.) i. e. Os ilii. So called becauſe it has no proper name.

INNOMINATI, (Nervi). A name of the fifth pair of nerves. See Trigemini Nervi.

INNUTRITIO, i. e. Atrophia.

INOCULATIO. See Variolæ.

INOSCULATIO, from *in* and *oſculum*, *a little mouth* or *orifice*. See Anastomosis,

INPINGUEDO PORCI. A name of the herb coſtus.

INSANIA. Delirium, or madneſs.

INSECTUM. An inſect. Theſe animals are thus named from their being marked, or diſtinguiſhed, by variety of parts, ſeparated, as it were, by inciſions.

INSESSIO. Inſeſſion. A ſitting over relaxing vapours; alſo a ſemicupium.

INSIDENTIA. See Epistasis.

INSIDIANS. Inſidious, latent. It is an epithet of diſeaſes, which betray no evident ſymptom, but are ready on any provocation to break forth, as it were, by ſurpriſe.

INSIPIDUS. See Apocum.

INSIPIENTIA. A low degree of delirium.

INSOLATIO. Inſolation. An expoſing any thing to the ſun. The diſeaſe thus named is the ſame with ictus ſolaris.

INSOMNIUM. A dream. Lommius obſerves, that if dreams are different from what may be expected from the buſineſs of the day, they indicate ſome indiſpoſition of body. Hippocrates writ a book expreſsly on this ſubject.

INSPIRATIO. Inſpiration. It is when the air is drawn into the lungs.

INSTILLATIO. It ſometimes imports the ſame as embrocatio.

INSTITA. A fillet. Alſo a flat worm in the inteſtines.

INSUFFLATIO. Inſufflation. The blowing into any cavity, in order thereby to convey any thing medicinal to a part affected.

INSULTUS The firſt invaſion or acceſs of a paroxyſm.

INTERGASTRUM. A term uſed by Paracelſus, which ſignifies the decuſſation of the optic nerves.

INTEGUMENTA. Integuments. Theſe are the cuticle, rete mucoſum, cutis, and membrana cellularis.

INTEMPERANTIA. Intemperance. Beſides its uſual ſignification reſpecting food, it ſometimes is the ſame as dyſcineſia.

INTEMPERIES, i. e. Dyſcineſia.

INTENTIO. Intention. It is either extenſion or indication.

INTERCEPTIO, i. e. Apolepſis.

INTECOSTALES ARTERIÆ. Theſe come in pairs from the aorta, and run on the lower parts of each rib. There are eight, nine, or ten of theſe. The two or three upper come from the ſubclavian The intercoſtales of the true ribs anaſtomoſe with the internal mammary; thoſe of the ſuperior go to the muſcles of the belly.

INTERCOSTALES EXTERNI (Musculi). The intercoſtal muſcles. They are eleven in number on each ſide externally, and the ſame number are again on each ſide internally; ſo that in all there are forty-four. The external ones paſs downwards and forwards; they riſe from the edge of the ſuperior, and are inſerted into the edge of the inferior rib; their fibres run nearly parallel. Near the ſternum they diſappear. The internal ones are the

reverſe of the external, therefore they decuſſate each other. They depreſs the ribs.

INTERCOSTALES NERVI. The intercoſtal nerves. They are formed of ſome of the dorſal, and indeed of all the ſpinal nerves, alſo of branches from the fifth and ſixth pairs from the brain. They run on the other ſide of the ribs.

INTERCOSTALES VENÆ, i. e. Azygos.

INTERCURRENS FEBRIS. An intercurrent fever. Some fevers are epidemical in certain ſeaſons only, and indeed only prevail in ſuch ſeaſons; other fevers happen in all years, and indeed are ſometimes epidemic. Thoſe which happen only in certain ſeaſons are called ſtationary; but others are called by Sydenham intercurrents. See Sydenham's Works.

INTERCURRENS PULSUS, i. e. Intercidens pulſus.

INTERCUS, from *inter*, *between*, and *cutem*, *the ſkin*, i. e. Anaſarca,

INTERDENTIUM. The intervals between teeth of the ſame order.

INTERDIGITUM. A corn betwixt the toes.

INTERFŒMINEUM. from *inter*, *between*, and *femur*, *the inſide of the thigh*. The perinæum,

INTERLUNIUS MORBUS. The epilepſy.

INTERMISSIO. The intervals betwixt two fits of any diſtemper.

INTERMITTENS FEBRIS. An intermittent fever. It is when the fever quits the patient for a time, and then returns. When the cold fit is violent, or continus long, or is a principal part of the diſorder, it is called an ague. With reſpect to the time of the fits returning, different names are given to this fever; e. g. Quotidian, which is when the fit returns every day; tertian, when it returns every other day; and quartan, when the fit attends on the firſt and fourth day, the two intervening ones being free. Thoſe are called autumnal which begin in Auguſt, and thoſe vernal which begin in February.

One ſpecies partakes very much of the nature of an ardent fever; it prevails in cold dry ſprings, from the ſame reaſon as pleuriſies and peripneumonies do. Another ſpecies, which is frequent in moiſt ſeaſons and in marſhy countries, has for a principal cauſe, a defect of vital heat, and an impoveriſhed ſtate of the blood. A third ſort is cauſed by infectious effluvia. When any of theſe cauſes attend, an irregular or improper diet, diſturbed paſſions, crudities in the primæ viæ, &c. may more readily prove the remote cauſes of *intermittent fevers*.

The ſigns are, heavineſs, a pain in the head and limbs, pain in the loins, paleneſs in the face, chillneſs in the extremities, yawning, ſtretching, and violent ſhaking, ſmall ſlow pulſe, thirſt, reaching, ſometimes vomiting a bilious matter; and, in the hot fit, a heat of the whole body, redneſs, diſtention of the ſkin, a quick ſtrong pulſe, watchfulneſs, ſhort breath, raving, high coloured urine without a ſediment, &c. Theſe ſymptoms abate by degrees, and an univerſal ſweat appears, which ſoon terminates this fit; this generally continues 10, 12, or 20 hours. The patient is indiſpoſed the following day; he is chill and apt to ſhiver, hath a weak and ſlow pulſe, his urine is thick and pale, and either depoſits a ſediment, or contains a ſmall cloud ſuſpended therein; the ſediment is of a reddiſh colour, exactly reſembling brick-duſt; the urine is often frothy too, and there is generally a pellicle or very thin filmy ſkin on the top of the urine, which alſo adheres to the ſides of the glaſs that contains it: this laſt obſervation on the urine peculiarly characteriſes the ſeveral ſpecies of *intermittents*. In the beginning of autumnal *intermittents*, they are ſometimes not eaſily diſtinguiſhed from continual fevers. When weakly perſons are the ſubjects, the *intermiſſions* are proportionably leſs diſtinct.

Obſtinate *intermittents* often end in fatal dropſies, or other troubleſome diſorders. Vernal *intermittents* ſometimes go off without any aſſiſtance after the return of a few fits; they very rarely ptove fatal. When children have long laboured under autumnal *intermittents*, they rarely recover until their bellies grow hard and ſwell; but then the diſorder vaniſhes; the ſame is obſerved with reſpect to the ſwelling of the legs in adults.

The indications are, to reſtore the conſtitution to its natural degree of heat, and then to ſupport a due degree of perſpiration.

If the diſorder is owing to that ſtate or habit of which an ardent fever is the uſual conſequent, bleeding ſhould begin the cure; this may be followed by ſub-tepid baths, lenient purges, ſaline medicines, with either the fixed or the volatile alcalies, bliſters, and a ſupply of gruel, in proportion to the degree of thirſt. If, after a few days, this method fails to relieve, the milder alexipharmics will certainly effect a cure. When this diſorder is produced by dry cold ſprings, the bark is rarely uſeful, and if imprudently adminiſtered, a continual fever is produced, the cure for which is bleeding and cooling medicines, until the *intermittent* is returned. In caſes where the bark is not convenient, Dr. Rutherford adviſes to give an antimonial vomit, and ſo to manage that a ſweat be excited by repeated draughts of ſome aperient diaphoretic drink before the cold fit approaches; the cold fit thus avoided, the hot one is prevented alſo. Hoffman uſed this method, and they both aſſert the happieſt effects therefrom.

Intermittents are moſt frequent when the atmoſphere is cold and moiſt, and when the cauſes of an impoveriſhed blood are or have been preſent. In this caſe, inſtead of bleeding, and the other means above propoſed, a vomit may begin the cure; during the rigor of the following fit, give a few grains of the antimonial powder, put the patient in bed, let him be ſupplied with warm wine whey, and when a ſweat comes on, endeavour to ſupport it until the fit declines. In the interval, the bark, a generous diet, and chalybeates, will effect the cure.

If putrid vapours were the cauſe, begin with an emetic in the following fit, when the heat and ſweat ſucceed the ſhivering; ſupply the patient with frequent draughts of warm wine whey. In the interval let cordials with the bark be given; their doſes ſhould be large, and as frequent as the ſtomach can retain them.

As the bark is the great ſpecific in this diſorder, its uſe ſhould never be reſtrained, except by too great heat; nor need the lateritious ſediment in the urine be waited for, if the pulſe is moderate. When the powder can be taken, its efficacy is moſt to be depended on; but if an averſion to this medicine forbids the internal uſe, a waiſtcoat in which it is quilted may be worn next the ſkin, or a bath may be made of a ſtrong decoction of this drug.

An opiate often ſucceeds, if given about half an hour before the fit. To an adult the Thebaic tincture may be given from fifteen to twenty drops, in any convenient vehicle.

When the hot fit is tedious and violent, expoſe the patient to cool air, and let him drink cold water as freely as his own ſenſation will direct; thus the heat will ſoon abate, and a ſalutary ſweat come on.

If the ſymptoms of an inflammation are attendant, let thoſe be removed before the bark is given.

Often, by too much purging, a dropſy is induced; whether to this or any other cauſe this ſymptom may be owing, attempt its cure by warm ſtomachic and antiſcorbutic remedies; a mixture of ſome ferruginous preparation may accompany the bark, and after each doſe give a vinous infuſion of freſh horſe-radith root, with the tops of wormwood.

A cough with a hectic fever ſometimes follow after the removal of the *intermittent*; in this caſe, daily gentle purging, &c. as when the belly ſwells and is hard.

In children a hard ſwelled belly is a frequent ſymptom; this is beſt relieved by repeated purging with the pulv. baſilic. an antimonial vomit ſhould now and then be interpoſed, and when the hardneſs and the tumor is abated give the bark with ſalt of ſteel.

If a madneſs ſhould come on, cordials and reſtoratives are the propereſt means; compoſure muſt be indulged, and in general the ſame procedure as when this ſymptom is attendant on a NERVOUS FEVER, which ſee.

In caſe of coſtiveneſs, rhubarb with emetic tartar may be given, ſo as to render the bowels eaſy.

If bile in the blood veſſels ſeems to render the *intermiſſions* imperfect, the ſpirit of nitre is convenient, and for the moſt part to be preferred; but if the juices are viſcid, the neutral ſalts muſt alſo be adminiſtered.

For agreeable forms and efficacious preparations in a uſeful variety of modes, ſee Brooks's and the London Practice of Phyſic.

Thoſe

Thoſe who die of *intermittents* uſually depart in the hot fit.

See Hoffman on *Intermittents*; Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham's Works; Fordyce's Elements, part the ſecond; Practical Eſſays by D. Lyſſons, M. D.

INTERNODIUM, from *inter*, *between*, and *nodus*, *a joint*. An internode. In botany it is that part of the ſtalks of plants which are between the *joints*. In anatomy it is the knuckles; alſo the ſpace between one of the joints of the fingers and another.

INTERNUNTII DIES. Critical days.

INTERNUS. A name of the laxator membrana tympani.

INTEROSSEI ARTERIÆ. The cubital artery having in its courſe between the heads of the radius and ulna reached the *interoſſeous* ligament, gives off the *interoſſeous* arteries, which are two, an internal and an external one.

The internal one runs cloſe to the ligament till it reaches below the pronator teres, where it perforates the ligament, and paſſes to the convex ſide of the carpus, and back of the hand, where it communicates with the external *interoſſeous*, the radical, and the cubital arteries.

The external pierces the ligament about three fingers breadth below the articulation, and ſends off a branch toward the external condyle of the os humeri, under the ulnaris externus and anconæus minimus, to which it is diſtributed, as alſo to the ſupinator brevis. The interoſſeous artery then runs downwards on the outſide of the ligament, and is diſtributed to the ulnarus externus, extenſor digitorum communis, the extenſores pollicis indicis, and minimi digiti. And having reached the lower extremity of the ulna, it unites with a branch of the internal interoſſeous artery, which at this place runs from within outwards, and is diſtributed with it on the convex ſide of the carpus and back of the hand, communicating with the radial artery, and with a branch of the cubital. By theſe communications this artery forms an irregular arch, from whence branches are ſent to the external *interoſſeous* muſcles, and to the external lateral parts of the fingers.

INTEROSS. LIGAMENT. The *interoſſeous ligaments* in the fore-arm are fixed by one edge along the ſharp angle of each ulna, and by the other along thar of the radius. They are principally made up of two very ſtrong planes of fibres which croſs each other at oblique angles, and leave holes at different diſtances, for the paſſages of blood veſſels. This ligament ties the two bones cloſely together, and the two planes ſerve for the inſertion of ſeveral muſcles. In the ſupination of the hand it is very tight, but in the pronation it is folded a little lengthways.

INTEROSSEI MUSC. There are muſcles of this name both in the hands and feet. There are three in the upper part of the hand, and as many on the inferior; this name deſcribes their origin; they join with the lumbricales, and are blended with them, performing the ſame office. They move the fingers ſideways.

In the feet ſeveral ſmall muſcles fill up the four interſtices between the metatarſal bones, much after the ſame manner as in the hand. Their uſe with reſpect to the toes is ſimilar to that of the ſame ſort of muſcles in the hands.

INTERPELLATUS MORBUS. In Paracelſus it is a diſeaſe attended with irregular or uncertain paroxyſms.

INTERPOLATUS DIES. In Parcelſus theſe are the days interpolated betwixt two paroxyſms.

INTERSCAPULIUM. The ſpine of the ſcapula.

INTERSEPTUM. The uvula, and the ſeptum narium.

INTERSPINALES COLLI, i. e. Interſpinales muſculi.

INTERSPINALES MUSCULI. Winſlow calls them ſpinales colli minores. Dr. Hunter ſays they lie between the ſpinal proceſſes of the neck and loins, ſerving to erect the body, by bringing the ſpinal proceſſes nearer to each other: he calls them intra ſpinales.

INTERTRANSVERSALES MUSCULI, or intra tranſverſales. They lie between the tranſverſe proceſſes of the neck, ſerving to bend it to one ſide. Theſe muſcles appear alſo in the loins. Winſlow calls them tranſverſales colli minores.

INTERTRIGO, from *inter*, *between*, and *tero*, *to rub*. A galling; or roſion of the cuticle, or of the ſkin. Children are apt to have excoriations behind their ears, in the neck and thighs; thoſe on the lower parts are from the urine, or from being too fat. Waſh them two or three times a day with warm water, and then apply chalk in fine powder, or fuller's earth, after diſſolving it in water. Dr. Cullen places this as a variety of erythematous inflammation.

INTERVERTEBRALES MUSCULI. They ariſe from the body of one vertebra laterally, and are inſerted, after an oblique progreſs, into the back part of the other vertebra, immediately above it. They draw the vertebræ nearer to one another, and a little to one ſide.

INTESTINA TERRÆ. Earth worms.

INTESTINA, from *intus*, *within*. Inteſtinum. The inteſtines, commonly called the guts. From the pylorus to the anus is one continued canal, divided into the great and ſmall *inteſtines*, which are furbelowed upon the meſentery and meſocolon. The whole length of the inteſtines is between ſeven and eight times the length of the body; the ſmall ones are about five parts out of the ſeven or eight, which is the length of the whole. The ſmall *inteſtines* are called duodenum, jejunum, and ileum, which ſee. Their diſtinctions are ſomewhat obſcure, though generally marked out pretty nearly; the large *inteſtines* are the cœcum, the colon, and rectum, which ſee.

The firſt coat of the *inteſtines* is from the peritoneum, the ſecond is the muſcular coat, the third is the nervous or cellular, the fourth is the villous. The firſt is the outer, and the fourth the inner coat. The villi are of different ſhapes and lengths in different parts of the *inteſtines*, more thick in the ſmall, more long and thin in the large ones; they are thought to be ſecerning, and abſorbing organs, as there the arteries terminate, and the veins begin.

The glands of the *inteſtines* are ſuppoſed to be lodged in the cellular coat, next the villous; they are divided into glandulæ ſolitaræ and aggregatæ, but their exiſtence, notwithſtanding this, is not clear.

In the great *inteſtines* we may obſerve little holes, which, when inflated, lead to cells analogous to the folliculi of Malpighi, and by analogy we may ſuppoſe glands to exiſt in the great *inteſtines* near the anus, to ſeparate a lubricating mucus, for facilitating the paſſage of the fæces.

The arteries and veins run together on the *inteſtines*.

The uſe of the *inteſtines* is to complete the digeſtion, to ſtrain off the chyle, and carry off the fæces by the anus; all which are performed by the periſtaltic motion, cauſed by their muſcular coat.

The periſtaltic motion of the *inteſtines* is not conſtant, but takes place on proper occaſions, or as theſe bowels are ſtimulated by their contents. The action of the lungs on the diaphragm, and the action of the abdominal veſſels, conduce to the emptying of the ſtomach and guts; the chyle, bile, rarefied air, &c. excite occaſionally the periſtaltic motion, for the more ſpeedy deſcent of what is to be caſt out. See Haller's Phyſiology, lect. 29, 31.

INTESTINALIA ARTERIA, i. e. Duodenalis arteria, and gaſtrica dextra arteria.

INTESTINALIS VENA, i. e. Duodenalis vena.

INTESTINORUM SOLAMEN. Thus Hoffman calls aniſeeds, and Van Helmont calls their oil.

INTOXICATIO, from τοξικον, *poiſon*, *venom*. It is properly the ſame as infectio, but it is now generally uſed in the ſame ſenſe as inebriation.

INTRASPINALIS. See INTERSPINALES.

INTRATRANSVERSALES. See INTERTRANSVERSALES.

INTRICATUS. An epithet of the bicaudalis muſculus.

INTRINSECI. Painful diſorders of the internal parts.

INTRITUM, from *interendo*, *to rub or grate*. It is a culinary term for minced meats, or rather ſuch as are prepared by pounding, as potted beef, &c.

INTROCESSIO, i. e. Depreſſio.

INTROSUSCEPTIO. Introſuſception. It is a preternatural ingreſs of one portion of an inteſtine into another, or a reduplication of the inteſtine. See ILIACA PASSIO.

INTSIA. A large evergreen tree in Malabar, called alſo acacia Malabarica globoſa. The juice of the leaves and

and bark are uſed to eaſe pains in the belly. See Raii Hiſt.

INTUMESCENTIÆ. Diſorders attended with a puffineſs, or with a ſwelling of the body, or of a conſiderable part of it

INTUSSUSCEPTIO, i. e. Introſuſception.

INTYBACEA. Oyſter green. See Lactuca.

INTYBUS. A name for the cichoreum latifolium five endivia vulg. for the hedypnois annua, for the hyoſeris anguſtifolia, and for the lampſana.

INULA. See Enula.

INUNCTIO. Inunction. It is either the action of anointing, or the materials with which a part is anointed.

INVERECUNDUM (Os). The os frontis.

INVERSIO UTERI. See Procidentia Uteri.

INVIDIA. Envy. It is compoſed of deſire, anger, and ſorrow. And as it participates of the debility of the laſt, ſo it likewiſe does of the febrile commotion of the former; hence ariſes an hectic fever, which conſumes the ſtrength.

INVOLUCRA. The ſecundines; ſecundines from coming next, after the child. They form an univerſal covering for the fœtus, and the water in which it floats during pregnancy. They are membranes called chorion and amnios, to which ſome add the allantois, all which ſee; alſo the placenta, and part of the funis umbilicalis, which ſee.

If in labour the membranes do not break immediately upon their being puſhed into the vagina, they ſhould be allowed to protrude ſtill farther, in order to dilate the os externum. If they ſuddenly burſt, and diſcharge much water, and the pains become ſlack thereon, the labour however promiſing before, becomes tedious. To know if the membranes are broke (which is a proper enquiry when the head gets before the waters), obſerve whether the head of the child feels hairy or not; for while it is yet covered with the unbroken membrane, it is gloſſy to the touch. Sometimes the head preſenting, ſo that the fontanel is felt puffy and ſwelled, deceives us, and it is taken for the membranes, but that ſhould be carefully diſtinguiſhed. If during labour the waters puſh the membranes down in an oblong, or in a gut-like form, the birth will be tedious. The beſt form of the membranes when they protrude through the os internum, is a ſhort, broad, or roundiſh one.

INVOLUCRUM, i. e. Pericardium.

ION. The violet.

IONIA. Ground-pine.

IONTHLAPSI. Boerhaave mentions two ſpecies of this plant; they are found in France, Italy, and Spain; they are ſaid to be deterſive, aperitive, &c. but they are not noted much in practice.

IONTHOS. So the Greeks call thoſe hard pimples in the face which the Latins call by the name of varus, and gutta roſacea.

IOSACCAR. Sugar of violets.

IOTACISMUS. A defect in the tongue or organs of ſpeech, which renders a perſon incapable of pronouncing his letters.

IOUI. A reſtorative alimentary liquor prepared in Japan. It is made from the gravy of half roaſted beef, but as to the reſt it is kept a ſecret.

IPECACUANHA, alſo called radix Braſilienſis, ipecacoanha Braſilienſibus, herba paris Braſiliana polycocos, ipecacoan, or Braſilian root. It is the pſychotria emetica, or pſychotria herbacea, procumbens, foliis lanceolatis glebris, ſtipulis extra foleaceis ſubulatis, capitulis axillaribus pedunculatis pauciſloris. Linn. Curtis, in his Catalogue of Medicinal Plants, &c. contained in the London Botanic Garden, calls it viola ipecacua. It is brought from the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. Four ſorts are mentioned, viz. the grey, brown, white, and yellow. The grey is generally eſteemed the moſt, but Neumann aſſures us that the brown is equally good. The white ſort is much weaker than the other, and the yellow does not act in the leaſt as an emetic, being merely purgative.

Ray ſays that the ipecacuanha is a ſpecies of the herb paris; it bears a number of berries. The roots of the brown and grey ſorts agree in their external figure, being about the thickneſs of a ſmall quill, very unequal and knotty; they are in ſhort pieces, variouſly bent and contorted, full of knots and wrinkles, and deep circular fiſſures, which reach down to a ſmall whitiſh woody fibre that runs in the middle of each piece; the cortical part is compact, brittle, and looks ſmooth, and reſinous on breaking. They have a bitteriſh, ſomewhat acrid taſte; but diſcover little or no ſmell when the quantity examined is ſmall; in large quantities they yield a diſagreeable ſmell; and in pulverization a kind of muſty one.

Chuſe the larger compact roots that have a reſinous appearance. The ſlender, blackiſh brown, and thoſe which are full of fibres, are the worſt.

The caapia, commonly ſold under the name of white *ipecacuanha*, is impoſed for the true *ipecacuanha*; but its roots are yellowiſh, or of a yellowiſh white colour. The aconitum, or apocynum, is another impoſition; but the colour of its medullary fibre is of a deep reddiſh yellow colour, whereas that of the *ipecacuanha* is whitiſh, or of a pale grey.

Helvetius firſt brought this root into repute as an antidyſenteric. It abounds with reſinous and gummy parts. Of all its preparations the powder is the beſt; two or three grains of which will produce two or three diſcharges by vomit; and in diarrhœas and dyſenteries, in which perſpiration is defective, after its puking two or three times, it excites a perſpiration, if the patient is wrapped up warm.

The beſt menſtruum for extracting the whole virtue of the root is one part pure ſpirit, and two or three of water; of wines the Canary or mountain obtains moſt from it; whence the London college directs them for the following:

Vinum vel Tinct. Ipecacuanhæ. *Tincture or Wine of* Ipecacuanha.

Take of the roots of *ipecacuanha* in powder, one ounce; of Canary or of mountain wine, a pint; mix.

Dr. Alſton of Edinburgh ſays, that the virtues of this root reſides not in its oil, gum, or reſin, but in its peculiar ſpirit. See Diarrhœa and Dyſenteria, for its uſe in thoſe diſorders. If three grains of powdered *ipecacuanha* is added to fifteen grains of jalap, it operates downward both more and certainly efficaciouſly.

To deceive children mix ℈ i. or ʒ ſs. of powdered *ipecacuanha* with half a pint of boiling water in a tea-pot; diſguiſe it with a little milk and ſugar, and give a tea-cup full every ten or fifteen minutes, till it operates; when thus given, it needs nothing to work it off with.

See Lewis's Mat. Med. Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. i. Neumann's Chem. Works.

IPEPOCOANHA, i. e. Ipecacuanha.

IPSE (Lapsis). See Adrop.

IRA. Anger. It produces a violent ſtricture in the nervous and muſcular parts, and for a time increaſes the tone of all the fibres; it quickens the pulſe and hurries reſpiration. The ſtomach and bowels ſuffer much by this paſſion, and ſometimes the ſtricture on the gall ducts is ſuch, that a jaundice is the conſequence, though more frequently the gall is determined more copiouſly to the duodenum, producing a variety of diſagreeable ſymptoms. *Anger* alſo produces hæmorrhages from the noſe, the lungs, or the hæmorrhoidal veſſels, particularly in thoſe who are diſpoſed to theſe evacuations.

During the fit of *anger*, or its immediate effects, carefully avoid vomits and purges; though, if in conſequence of *anger*, much bile is thrown into the duodenum, as ſoon as the patient is compoſed, a little rhubarb, with nitre, may be given to determine it downwards, and abate its acrimony.

The firſt and principal ſtep, when a patient is violently affected with *anger*, is, if the conſtitution is vigorous, to bleed; if the habit will not well admit of this operation, give the following, or other ſimilar antiſpaſmodic. ℞ Sp. nitri D. tinct. caſtorei ā ℥ ſs. camphor. ℈ i. m. de tur. gut. xx. vel xxx. pro re nata. Sometimes a gentle opiate, mixed with cordials, is required.

IRAIBA. A ſpecies of palm tree. See Raii Hiſt.

IRINGUS. Eryngo.

IRIS. The fore-part of the choroides is thus named, becauſe of the variety of its colours. It ſlies floating and looſe; it is convex on the anterior, and concave on the poſterior part; the perforation in the middle of its fore-part, forms the pupilla. The *iris* by contracting, or dilating, excludes, or admits of light in ſuch proportions

as the variety of circumſtances may require, &c. It is diſputed whether this power in the iris is owing to a nervous tenſion, or the action of muſcular fibres; on examination, two orders of fibres are found between the laminæ of the iris, one of which is circular, the other radiated; whence it is moſt probable that muſcular fibres produce theſe actions. See UVEA.

The operation of cutting the iris is required when a cataract adheres to it; and when from the contraction of its muſcular fibres the pupil is cloſed up. Thus both theſe diſorders are ſometimes remedied. Mr. Sharp, in his Operations, ch. xxix. directs the operator to proceed as follows: place the patient as for couching, open and fix the eye with the ſpeculum oculi, then introduce the knife in the ſame part of the conjunctiva that is wounded in couching; inſinuate it with its blade held horizontally, and the back of it towards you, between the ligamentum ciliare, and circumference of the iris, into the anterior chamber of the eye; and after it is advanced to the farther ſide of it, make your inciſion quite through the membrane: and if the operation ſucceeds, it will, upon wounding, fly open, and appear a large orifice, though not ſo wide as it becomes afterwards. Mr. Sharp further obſerves, that when the pupil is contracted from a paralytic diſorder, this operation can hardly be encouraged.

IRIS. It is a perennial plant, with long, narrow, ſword-like leaves, ſtanding edgewiſe to the ſtalk, and large naked flowers divided deeply into ſix ſegments, of which alternately one is erect, and another arched downward, with three ſmaller productions in the middle, incloſing the ſtamina and piſtil; the roots are tuberous, irregular, and full of joints. Boerhaave mentions twenty-four ſpecies, and Dale adds two more.

IRIS FLORENTINA. Florentine orris, called alſo iris Illyrica, iris flore albo, and white flower de luce. It is the *iris florentina*, or *iris florentina*, caule foliis altiore, ſubbifloro, floribus ſeſſilibus albis, corollis barbatis. Linn. It is ſuppoſed to be only a variety of the common iris, or purple flower de luce. Its roots are brought from Italy, as being ſuperior to thoſe of our own growth. They are in oblong, flattiſh pieces, freed from the fibres, and browniſh externally, but white, with browniſh ſpecks, internally. They are eaſily reduced to a powder of a farinaceous kind.

This root, in its recent ſtate, is nauſeous, acrid, and purgative, but loſes theſe qualities by drying. The dry root is unctuous, bitteriſh, and pungent to the taſte, not very ſtrong, but durable in the mouth; hath a light, agreeable ſmell, which reſembles violets, or rather raſpberries, and it communicates a flavour to ſpirits, and to wines, which reſembles them. As a medicine it is an uſeful expectorant; it attenuates viſcid phlegm, and promotes its diſcharge. It is cut in the form of peas, and uſed for promoting the diſcharge in iſſues.

In diſtillation it gives over all its flavour with water; its bitter remains in the extract. Rectified ſpirit brings over a part of its flavour, and the extract is bitter, pungent, and glows in the mouth. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

IRIS VULGARIS, alſo called iris hortenſis noſtras, iris Germanica, Linn. Iris purpurea, the common purple flower de luce, iris, or orris. Its blue or purple flowers ſtand ſeveral on one ſtalk; their arched ſegments are bearded with a yellowiſh matter. The plant is a native of the mountainous parts of Germany; it is common in our gardens, and flowers in June.

The roots, when freſh, ſmell diſagreeably, and have an acrid nauſeous taſte; they are a ſtrong irritating cathartic, in which caſe the expreſſed juice hath been given in a dropſy, from ʒ ii. to ʒ iv. diluted with water. By gently inſpiſſating the juice, it is leſs purging, and irritates leſs; but if inſpiſſated to dryneſs, it loſes all its purging quality. The dried root reſembles in ſmell and taſte the Florentine ſpecies.

IRIS PALUSTRIS, alſo called acorus adulterinus, gladiolus lutæus, pſeudoacorus, yellow flower de luce, yellow water-flag, ſedges, &c. Iris pſeud-acorus, or iris paluſtris, foliis enſiformibus, corollis imberbibus, petalis interioribus ſtigmate minoribus, floribus luteis, Linn. yellow flower de luce. It is common by the ſides of rivulets and marſhes; the roots are reddiſh, the flowers ſtand ſeveral on a ſtalk, and are of a yellow colour; the middle ribs of the leaves are prominent.

The roots of this ſpecies, when freſh, are more actid, and ſtrongly cathartic, than the above two ſpecies. Eighty drops of the expreſſed juice, repeated every hour or two, has purged, when jalap, gamboge, and mercurials, have failed; but like the other iriſes, it is too variable in its ſtrength to be received into general uſe.

IRIS FŒTIDA, alſo called ſpatula fœtida, xyris, gladiolus fœtidus, ſpurge-wort, ſtinking gladdon, or gladwyn. This is a wild ſpecies of iris; its root is thick, and ſpreading in the earth, with many fibres, from which ſprings many leaves, longer, narrower, and ſharper pointed, than the common flower de luce; they have a ſtrong ſmell. It is found in hedges, thickets, &c. The root is diuretic, but not much deſerving notice.

IRIS. A name of the hedge muſtard, of hermodactyls, of a kind of ginger, and of a ſpecies of xiphium; alſo of a ſpecies of cryſtal; and of a paſtil, conſiſting of alum, ſaffron, and myrrh.

IRRITABILITAS. Irritability. Irritation is a ſpecies of ſtimulus, expreſſing a leſſer degree of it than vellication or corrugation, &c. and the parts on which ſtimuli are capable of acting, ſo as to produce motion, are ſaid to be irritable.

The ſame ſpecies of ſtimulus, applied to different parts, produces different effects; thus urine does not affect the bladder, but if it is injected into the guts, it proves purgative, and diſtention is the chief ſtimulus that affects the blood veſſels.

Haller endeavours to prove the inſenſibility of the tendons, membranes, and ligaments. Dr. Hunter is of opinion, that the ligaments, tendons perioſteum, and dura mater, are almoſt, if not wholly, inſenſible; however, inflammation ſoon manifeſts the *irritability* and ſenſibility of parts, in which they were not obſervable in a healthy ſtate; even the bones become ſenſible when diſordered; they alſo inflame and ſuppurate; and, in ſhort, the effects of medicines are very often to be deduced from this *irritability*, as they depend on either increaſing, or diminiſhing it. In ſlow fevers this irritation muſt be heightened, in ardent ones leſſened. The ſame is obſervable in many other diſorders.

Dr. Kirkland obſerves, that *irritability* is of two kinds, viz. inflammatory or ſpaſmodic. The firſt of theſe he ſays always ariſes from diſtention, or continued irritation; and always while the inflammation is attended with any conſiderable degree of violence, produces a fever, and a quick pulſe. The other kind is confined to the expanded brain, and never affects the pulſe, or produces a fever; but theſe two kinds may exiſt together.

See Haller's Treatiſe on Inſenſibility and Irritation; Dr. Whytt's Anſwer to Haller's Treatiſe on Senſibility and Irritability; the Difficulties in the Modern Syſtem of Phyſic, with Regard to the Senſibility and Irritability of the Parts of the Human Body, by Dr. De Haen; and Kirkland's Diſſertations on the Brain and Nerves; alſo on the Sympathy of the Nerves, and of different Kinds of Irritability.

IRUCAHA. A large tree in Maragnan; it bears an agreeable fruit like a pear.

IS, *is, a fibre*; its plural is *ires*. Some ſay that Hippocrates uſed this word indifferently for a fibre and a nerve, and it is clear that other writers have done the ſame.

ISADA. So the Spaniards and Portugueſe call the lap. nephrit.

ISAROS. A name for the arum.

ISATIS. See GLASTUM.

ISATIS INDICA, i. e. Indicum.

ISATODES. Of the colour of woad.

ISCA. A ſort of fungous excreſcence of the oak, or of the hazel, &c. The ancients uſed it as the moderns uſe moxa.

ISCHÆMON, from *ισχω, to reſtrain*, and *αιμα, blood*. A name for any medicine which reſtrains or ſtops bleeding.

ISCHÆMON SATIVUM. Manna graſs. See GRAMEN.

ISCHIAS. A name of a ſpecies of tithymalus, of the

ſciatica,

ſciatica, and of the two crural veins, one of which is called the greater, the other the leſſer.

ISCHIADICUS. See Ischius.

ISCHIADICUS MORBUS, alſo called iſchias, and the ſciatica. Aretæus ranks this diſorder as a ſpecies of the gout, and ſays, that "it comes on the hind part of the thigh, the ham, or the tibia; at other times the pain ſeizes upon the acetabulum of the os femoris, and then attacks the buttock and loins, and ſeems to be any thing rather than a ſciatica."

The ſciatica hath three ſeats: firſt, the tendinous expanſion, which covers the muſcles of the thigh. Secondly, the coat of the ſciatic nerve, and here the pain is more acute and violent, attended with a numbneſs; this is eaſily accounted for, ſince it is well known that any compreſſion on a nerve cauſes deadneſs. Thirdly, the capſular ligament; the depth and ſeverity of the pain leads us to judge of this part being the ſeat.

In the firſt caſe, the uſual anti-rheumatic medicines may be given inwardly, and the volatile liniment applied externally. The ſecond requires the application of bliſters, with what is neceſſary in the firſt. The third is beſt removed by mercurial alteratives; and, indeed, the other two, when obſtinate, require a ſimilar treatment. Dr. Fothergill recommends the following pills and draught, as being of all other means the moſt effectual.

℞ Calom. gr. x. conſ. roſar. r. q. f. pil. x. deaur. cap. i. omni nocte. ſuperbibendo hauſt. ſeq.

℞ Tinct. Thebaic, gt. xxv. vin. antimonial gt. xxx. ſyr. ſimplex ʒ i. aq. alex. ſi ℥ i. ſs—ſp ʒ i. ſs. m. f. hauſt.

If the pain does not abate by the time this quantity is taken, the doſe of calomel may be increaſed to two grains one night, and one the next, &c. alternately. When the pain abates, the anodyne and antimonial are gradually leſſened, until by degrees they are wholly omitted. See Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 69, &c. ſee alſo Brookes's and the Lond. Practice of Phyſic, for a variety of other methods which occaſionally have been productive of the deſired effect.

ISCHIATOCELE. Inteſtinal rupture through the ſacro-ſciatic ligaments.

ISCHIOCELE. A rupture between the os ſacrum, and the tuberoſity of the os iſchium.

ISCHIO COCCYGÆUS, i. e. Coccygæus anterior.

ISCHION. A name of the ligament which retains the head of the thigh bone in the acetabulu coxendicis.

ISCHIUM, becauſe it lies near ἰσχὺς, *the loin*, (Os.) ἰσχίον, *the hip bone*. The extent of this bone might be marked by an horizontal line drawn through near the middle of the acetabulum coxendicis. The great tuberoſity on which we ſit, as it advances forwards, becomes ſmaller, and gives origin to the corpora cavernoſa, and the erectores penis, and the clitoridis; then the bone mounts upwards with a conſiderable curve, and is ſtretched out into its ſmall leg. It forms the lower part of the pelvis.

ISCHNOPHONIA, from ἰσχνὸς, *ſlender*, and φωνὴ, *the voice*. A ſhrillneſs of the voice; but more frequently an heſitation of ſpeech, or a ſtammering. It is the pfalliſmus hæſitans.

ISCHNOTIS. Leanneſs.

ISCHURETICA. Medicines that remove a ſuppreſſion of urine.

ISCHURIA, from ἰσχω, *to retain*, and οὖρον, *urine*. An iſchury, a ſtoppage or ſuppreſſion of urine. La Motte diſtinguiſhes betwixt a retention, and a ſuppreſſion of urine. In a retention, the patient hath frequent motions to make water without being able to void it; or if he does paſs any, it is in very ſmall quantities, and with difficulty; this is alſo called a ſtrangury. In a ſuppreſſion, there is ſeldom any inclination to diſcharge any urine; but if there is an inclination, the diſcharge is ſudden.

An *iſchuria* is of two kinds, viz. the true, in which caſe the bladder is full; and the ſpurious, in which the bladder is empty, for nothing deſcends from the kidnies.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order epiſcheſes. He diſtinguiſhes four ſpecies. 1. *Iſchuria* renalis, when the kidnies do not ſecrete the urine, and conſequently there cannot be any ſtimulus to diſcharge it. 2. *Iſchuria* ureterica; there is pain in ſome part of the ureter, but no ſtimulus to diſcharge urine. 3. *Iſchuria* veſicalis, when there is a tumour in the hypogaſtric region, pain at the neck of the bladder, and a frequent urging to diſcharge urine. 4. *Iſchuria* urethralis, when there is ſwelling in the hypogaſtric region, a frequent deſire to diſcharge urine, and the pain in the urethra.

The cauſes are various. Etmuller ſays, the moſt frequent is a want of mucus in the urethra. Other cauſes are a ſtone in the kidnies, or bladder; caruncles in the urethera; inflammation in any of thoſe parts; a ſpaſm in the neck of the bladder, or in the urethra; pain from the piles in pregnant women, the child's head preſſing the neck of the bladder againſt the os pubis; a tumor, or ulcer, in the proſtate gland; a defluxion of humour on the neck of the bladder; a retention of urine; a palſy in the detruſor urinæ; a retention of hardened excrements in the inteſtinum rectum, &c. A ſpurious iſchury is when the kidnies ſecrete no urine, or when the ureters either do not receive, or do not tranſmit it; and this may happen from inflammation of the ureters, or in the kidnies. A view of the different cauſes may be perhaps beſt taken from the different varieties of iſchury, noticed under the following words. The varieties of the firſt ſpecies, ſee Lunatica, (Ischuria.) Nephrelmintica (Isch.) Nephritica (Isch.) Nephrolithica (Isch.) Nephroplethorica (Isch.) Nephrospastica (Isch.) Nephropyica (Isch.) Nephroplegia (Isch.) Nephrophlegmatica (Isch.) Nephrothromboides (Isch.) Suppleta (Isch.) Varieties of the ſecond ſpecies, ſee Ureteritica (Isch.) Ureterolithica (Isch.) Ureterothromboides (Isch.) Ureterophlegmatica (Isch.) Ureteropyica (Isch.) Ureterostomatica (Isch.) The varieties of third ſpecies, ſee Atretarum (Isch.) Cystitica (Isch.) Cystolithica (Isch.) Cystospastica (Isch.) Cystophlegica (Isch.) Cystopyica (Isch.) Cystothromboides (Isch.) Cystophlegmatica (Isch.) Cystoproctica (Isch.) Ectopocystica (Isch.) Hysterocystica (Isch.) Polyurica (Isch.) The fourth ſpecies, ſee Aspadialis (Isch.) Carunculoſa (Isch.) Cryptopyica (Isch.) Hydrocelodes (Isch.) Urethrolithica (Isch.) Urethrophlegmatica (Isch.) Urethrothrombodies (Isch.) Urethropyica (Isch.) Urethrohymenodes (Isch.) Urethrelmintica (Isch.) Urethritica (Isch.) Peridesmica (Isch.) Phimosica (Isch.)

When the ſuppreſſed urine is lodged in the bladder, a pain and ſwelling is obſerved about the pubes; a ſuppreſſion from relaxation is diſtinguiſhed from ſuppreſſion from ſtricture, firſt, by the little pain attending the diſorder; ſecondly, by the introduction of the catheter; thirdly, from the diſtention of the bladder, obſervable from the fulneſs above the pubes; fourthly, from no ſtimulus being excited in the bladder to diſcharge any fluid wherewith you diſtend it. If inflammation in the kidnies is the cauſe, the pain and heat are principally in that region. If a ſtone in the kidnies gives riſe to the complaint, a vomiting is an attendant ſymptom. If a ſtone in the bladder obſtructs the urine, a pain is felt there, and alſo along the urethera; a mucus, or pus, is excreted with pale urine; and generally the ſtone may be felt, if the catheter is introduced. If from inflammation in this neck of the bladder, there is alſo pain and a tumor there; the pain will be much increaſed if the perinæum is but ſlightly preſſed; and if a finger is introduced into the anus, and turned towards the bladder, a tumor will eaſily be perceived.

If this diſorder is in a great degree, there is a teneſmus, coldneſs of the extremities, a vomiting, and a febrile pulſe.

If this diſorder is the ſpurious kind, there is no tenſion, but rather a ſenſe of emptineſs about the pubes.

If this diſorder continues above ſeven days, it proves fatal; alſo, if from a wound of the ſpine, or luxation of its vertebræ. If the ſmell of urine proceeds from the patient's mouth or noſtrils, there is no hope. An hiccough, and a teneſmus, are alſo unfavourable ſymptoms.

If the urine is lodged in the bladder, and cannot be voided, whether the cauſe be cold, a too long retention of urine, and whatever elſe that could deprive the fibres of

the bladder of their contracting power, or if the ſuppreſſion is from a ſpaſmodic ſtricture in the neck of the bladder, an immediate recourſe to the catheter is not convenient, for in theſe caſes it cauſes much pain; but ſuch medicines as oppoſe the cauſe ſhould firſt be tried.

If the habit is plethoric, bleed, inject the turpentine clyſter, with a dram of the Thebaic tincture, and an oily mixture may be given, in which is the ſp. nitri D. with the tinct. Theb. in proportion to the degree of pain; and the patient may be placed in a warm bath. If theſe fail a bougie may be introduced, or the catheter may be uſed.

In children a ſuppreſſion of urine is often relieved by a poultice of raw onions, or of radiſhes, applied to the pubes.

When a long retention of urine is the cauſe, cloths may be wrung out of cold water, and applied round the waiſt and belly; to this bleeding ſhould in ſome conſtitutions precede.

If a relaxtion or paralyſis of the detruſor urinæ be the cauſe, give the bark with nervines, and apply cloths wrung from cold water round the belly and loins, or put the patient into a cold bath. Gentle preſſure on the belly ſhould now and then be uſed.

When caruncles obſtruct the urethra, bougies ſhould be introduced there.

When a retention of urine is produced, let the cauſe be what it may, every patient ſo circumſtanced is ſpaſmodically affected; and generally the introduction of a bougie will increaſe the ſpaſm, produce a ſhivering, and then a fever fit; all which will return as often as the bougie is introduced, and the diſeaſe to be relieved will become proportionably obſtinate. Yet, if the bougie is introduced without pain, and the patient diſcharges his urine more freely, its uſe may be continued.

If there is inflammation in the neck of the bladder, the catheter cannot be uſed before the inflammation abates; diuretics cannot conveniently be admitted; here nitrous medicines, neutrals ſalts, the ſpt. ſal marin. diluted in the patient's common drink, and ſmall doſes of camphor, may be frequently given. Decoctions of parſley roots, with a little nitre, may be drank in proportion as the thirſt requires; and bladders of warm water may be applied to the pubes and perinæum, or to the region of the kidneys, if the inflammation is there, and ſuch other medicines as are recommended in the nephritis. Bleeding is here a principal remedy, and as a laxative the ſal cath. amar. or the ol. ricini ver. may be uſed.

If a ſtone obſtructs the neck of the bladder or the urethra, puſh it back with the catheter, or cut through the perinæum, and there extract it. Some adviſe never to uſe the catheter in retentions of urine from any cauſe but from a calculus obſtructing its paſſage. But though this advice may be too general, the uſe of this inſtrument is rarely required.

When the head of the child, in pregnant women obſtructs the paſſage of the urine, introduce a finger into the vagina, and puſh back the child's head until a due evacuation is made.

When acrid urine is the cauſe, emulſions made with the ol. ricini, ſhould be the common drink. Nitre mixed in oily draughts, and mucilaginous decoctions, are the proper remedies.

Spaſms are removed by fomentations, the warm bath, demulcents, clyſters, antiſpaſmodics, and anodynes.

When the urine is totally retained in the bladder, it is too common a practice to adviſe to introduce the catheter; but whether this complaint ariſes from inflammation or from ſpaſm, this conduct ſhould carefully be avoided. Mr. Pott obſerves, that the beſt method of relieving this complaint, particularly when cauſed by ſpaſm, is by evacuation and anodyne relaxation. The loſs of blood he ſays is often neceſſary; as to what quantity, the ſtrength and ſtate of the patient will determine. The inteſtines muſt be emptied by ſome gentle cathartic. But the moſt effectual relief will be from the warm bath, or ſemicupium, the application of bladders half filled with hot water to the pubes and perinæum; and above all other remedies the injection of glyſters, conſiſting of the decoct. com. pro. clyſt. ol. and tinct. Thebaic. or if after a due bleeding, and if neceſſary, an emptying the bowels, a free doſe of opium is given, and the patient is ſeated in a warm bath during twenty minutes or half an hour, repeating this uſe of the bath oftener or ſeldomer as the caſe may ſeem to require, ſucceſs will very rarely fail to attend: and if by theſe means, the urine begins to drop through the urethra, although but a drop in a minute at the firſt, by perſevering ſteadily and cloſely, the bladder will at length effectually empty itſelf. Let the whole endeavour be to appeaſe irritation and pain, to accompliſh which, although it may take up three or four or even ſeven days careful attention, it will amply reward the practitioner's care, and the patient's patience.

When great pain attends a retention or ſuppreſſion of urine, the perſon called on for his aſſiſtance ſhould firſt be well ſatisfied that the caſe is what it is ſuppoſed to be; he ſhould obſerve whether the kidneys have done their office, and whether in reality there is urine in the bladder, which if full it will be ſo diſtended as to be felt above the os pubis, and by preſſure on it a pain will be excited in the neck of the bladder. Another obſervation deſerves attention in inſtances of this kind; viz. the bladder will contain ſometimes, a large quantity, and not be affected by it; at other times a very ſmall quantity will affect it; ſo that when an obſtruction takes place, an inflammation ariſes, and ſymptoms of irritation enſue; and, if relief is not immediately given, the patient is ſoon cut off. Dr. George Fordyce obſerves, that much of the difficulty and pain from retained urine is from the more or leſs ſudden filling of the bladder or diſtending it.

When the urine is ſuppreſſed from the kidneys failing to perform their office, diuretics are difficultly to be admitted; attempts may be made to relax the veſſels of theſe organs by putting the patient frequently into the warm bath; and purgings may be admitted, as they increaſe the ſecretions in the inteſtines.

If no other method will ſucceed, a puncture may be made into the bladder, as directed in the article PERINÆUM (Puncture of the.)

Indeed there are four methods propoſed by different writers for drawing off the urine; viz. 1. By making an opening into the bladder above the os pubis, in the part where the high operation for the ſtone uſed to be performed. 2. By making a puncture in perineo, and ſo getting into the bladder. 3. By making an opening into the bladder through the parts divided in the lateral operation for the ſtone. 4. By getting into the poſterior part of the bladder through the rectum, with an inſtrument introduced up it for that purpoſe. But from the experience of ſome judicious practitioners, it can hardly be ſaid that their advantages are an encouragement to perform them. If one of theſe methods was determined on, Mr. Pott gives his opinion in favour of opening the bladder above the os pubis; but obſerves, that in his practice he hath not ſeen any of them to be neceſſary, and further, though he does not abſolutely forbid, yet his perſuaſions againſt them do very little leſs.

See an inſtance of this diſorder from a retroverſion of the uterus, in the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 388, &c. See Pott's Chirurgical Works. Lewis's Tranſlation of Hoffman's Practice of Medicine.

ISORA-MUNE. The name of a tree in Malabar. The juice of its root is uſed in diſorders of the breaſt.

ISOTONI. See ACMASTICOS.

ISTHMION. The narrow paſſage between the mouth and gullet. The fauces.

ITHMOIDES. Falſely for ethmoides.

ITEA. The willow.

ITINERARIUM. A ſtaff uſed in cutting for the ſtone; it is thus named by Hildanus.

IULUS (plural Iuli.) In botany it is a katkin, i. e. an aggregate of ſummits, hanging down in the form of a rope or cat's tail, as in the ſwallow, hazel, birch, &c.

IVA ARTHRITICA, i. e. Chamæpitys.

IVABEBA. An antient ſhrub, the root of which is a good deobſtruent. See Raii Hiſt.

IVA MOSCHATA. Ground-pine.

IVA PECANGA, i. e. Sarſaparilla.

IXIA. A varix. Alſo a name of the carlina, or the chamæleon albus, or ſuch of this tribe as yield a viſcous juice. The ixia, or ixias, is repreſented as poiſonous; but it is not clearly known to what plant theſe names belong.

IXUS, i. e. A parine.

J.

JAAROBA. A ſpecies of kidney bean which grows in Braſil. See Raii Hiſt.

JABATAPITA. A tree in Braſil, which bears yellow flowers, and has a grateful ſmell. The fruit reſembles our myrtle berries; they are aſtringent, and yield by expreſſion an inſipid oil. See Raii Hiſt.

JABORANDI. The name of a plant mentioned by Marggraff.

JABUTICABA. A fine tall tree which grows in Braſil. Its fruit reſembles an apple, and is gratefully cooling.

JACA INDICA. The jack-tree. Alſo called jaca, jaaca, tijaka marum, Indian jaaque, or jaca-tree, Malabarica pila, and marum. There are above thirty ſpecies of this tree, which is large; the fruit grows out of its trunk and largeſt branches; the pulp of it is ſweet, and well ſcented, and in the middle is a nut, which taſtes like a cheſnut. It is produced in moſt parts of the Eaſt-Indies. All the ſpecies are reduced to two; the firſt with a fruit containing an agreeable pulp; the ſecond having a leſs agreeable. The firſt is called varaca, the other tijaka, or giraſal. See Raii Hiſt. of Plant.

JACAPE. A ſpecies of ruſh-like graſs, growing in Braſil. See Raii Hiſt.

JACAPUCAYA. It is a tall tree in Braſil, with a large fruit, containing four nuts, each of which have a delicious kernel. See Raii Hiſt.

JACARANDA ALBA, vel Braſilienſibus. It is like the European palm tree; it is plentiful in Braſil. The Braſilians make a pottage of it, which they call manipey, which is a good ſtomachic. See Raii Hiſt.

JACARECATINGA, i. e. Calamus aromaticus.

JACE BRASILIENSIBUS, alſo called melo Indicus, patheca, and citrullo. Ray makes it a ſpecies of anguria or citrullus, and calls it water-melon; this fruit is as large as a man's head; it hath a green rind, and its pulp is well taſted.

JACEA. Knap-weed or matfellon. Boerhaave enumerates forty-one ſpecies. The margins of the leaves are not ſerrated: the leaves and ſtalks are deſtitute of ſpines; it is common in paſture grounds, and flowers in July and Auguſt. A ſlight aſtringency is attributed to it; but it is not regarded in practice.

JACEA. A name of ſeveral ſorts of xeranthemum and ſerratula.

JACHII, i. e. Trichema.

JACOBÆA. Ragwort. Boerhaave mentions eighteen ſpecies.

JACOBÆA VULGARIS, called alſo herba ſancti Jacobi, ſenecio major, ſeggrum, and common ragwort. It hath a firm round ſtalk, of a purpliſh colour; oblong dark green leaves, deeply jagged almoſt to the ribs; on the top of the ſtalks are umbel like cluſters of yellow flowers, of the radiated diſcous kind, followed by ſmall oblong ſeed, winged with down. It is perennial, common in uncultivated fields and by road ſides; it flowers in July.

The leaves have a rough bitteriſh taſte, are ſub-acrid and nauſeous; on evaporating either the watery or ſpirituous tincture, the virtues of the plant remain in the extract, but the offenſive flavour is diſſipated.

JACOBÆA ALPINA, alſo called achillea Gallica, chryſanthemum Alpinum, corn marigold, and fine leaved mountain rag-wort.

JACOBÆA AQUATICA, alſo called conyza aquatica, and aſter palluſtris. It is a ſpecies of flea-bane.

Theſe nor any other ſpecies of rag-worts are of any note in medicine.

JACOBÆA. A name of ſeveral ſorts of doria and ſenecio.

JAGRA. A ſort of ſugar obtained from the juice of a ſpecies of palm-tree.

JALAPA. Jalap. It is a native of the province of Chalapa or Xalapa, in New Spain, from whence its name is derived, and written according to the pronunciation of different languages, ſo is called jalapium, gialappa, chalapa, xalapa, zalapa, &c. Some call it mecoachana nigra, convolvulus Americanus, and bryonia Peruviana.

The plant is a ſpecies of convolvulus. The convolvulus *jalapa*; or convolvulus foliis diſformibus; cordatis angulatis oblongis lanceolatiſque, caule volubili, pedunculis unifloris. Linn. The plants raiſed in Europe are not ſo good as the American.

The roots are brought from New Spain in tranſverſe ſlices; they are ſolid, hard, weighty, of a blackiſh or dark brown colour on the cortical part, internally of a dark greyiſh colour, with ſeveral black circular ſtriæ.

Chuſe the hardeſt, darkeſt coloured, and thoſe pieces which have the moſt of theſe reſinous veins; thoſe that break blackeſt, moſt compact, ſhining, and that burn readily at the flame of a candle. Worms rarely touch the reſinous part; ſo when the pieces are deſigned for obtaining the reſin from them, the worm-eaten are as good as the other.

Pieces of briony root are ſometimes mixed with the *jalap*, but are eaſily diſtinguiſhed by their paler colour and leſs compact texture, and by their not readily burning at the flame of a candle.

Jalap hath ſcarce any ſmell, and but little taſte; when ſwallowed it affects the throat with a ſlight pungency and heat, and occaſions a ſpitting. In doſes from ten grains to half a dram it is an effectual purge, but gripes and naufeates leſs than the generality of purging medicines in uſe. For children in general, and adults of a ſpungy lax habit, or of a leucophlegmatic diſpoſition, it is more proper than for the robuſt and thoſe with rigid fibres; it is diuretic as well as purgative, whence its preference in dropſies; in which caſe it is beſt given in wine, in which it ſhould ſtand a few hours before the taking of it.

Various are the means of correcting *jalap*; but if the doſe is duly proportioned, and the powder is the preparation preſcribed, all correctors will be found unneceſſary, if not worſe. As to peculiar uneaſineſſes complained of by particular perſons, from taking this drug, as they are no other than what is common to all medicines of this kind, they may be relieved by changing the mode of adminiſtration, or ſuch other circumſtance as the ſagacity of the attentive practitioner will eaſily ſuggeſt.

Jalap conſiſts of an earthy, ſaline, and reſinous part; but its purgative quality wholly depends on the reſin.

Reſina Jalapii. *Reſin of* Jalap.

Take any quantity of *jalap* root powdered; pour upon it ſo much ſpt. vini R. as will cover it to the height of four fingers, and digeſt them in a ſand-heat, that the ſpirit may extract the reſin; filter the tincture through paper, put it into a glaſs cucurbit, and diſtil off one half of the ſpirit; add to the remainder a proper quantity of water, and the reſin will precipitate; divide it into little cakes, and dry with a gentle heat.

This is a pure reſin: but its inſolubility in any aqueous fluid forbids its uſe, except it is previouſly prepared by trituration

trituration with an alcaline ſalt, gum, ſugar, or ſuch like intermedium, to fit it for mixture with a watery liquor. If it is thus managed, a doſe from gr. v. to x. operates with ſufficient eaſe and efficacy.

The *jalap* which remains after this reſin is extracted, gives out, by boiling in water, a mucilaginous ſubſtance which operates by urine, but not in any degree by ſtool.

From ſixteen ounces of good *jalap* Neumann ſays he hath obtained ℥ v. and ℈ iv. of pure reſin.

This reſin is frequently adulterated, and the variety of methods by which the fraud may be practiſed are ſuch as elude every known method of detecting it, ſo that he who will uſe it muſt prepare it himſelf.

The London college direct an extract made with rectified ſpirit and with water: a tincture is firſt made with the ſpirit, and then a decoction with water; theſe are partly inſpiſſated ſeparately, then being mixed are reduced to the conſiſtence of a ſoft pill.

From gr. x. to ℈ i. is a doſe. The advantage of this extract conſiſts in the nearer equality of its ſtrength than is found in the different parcels of the roots, ſome of which afford only ℥ ii. of reſin from ℔ i. whilſt others afford ℥ v. but this diſproportion is not obſerved in the reſins. However, except for the convenience of form, the tincture made with proof ſpirit, is made with leſs trouble, and will anſwer every purpoſe propoſed by this gummy-reſinous extract.

Tinct. Jalapii. *Tincture of* Jalap.

Take of powdered jalap eight ounces, and of proof ſpirit, two pounds; digeſt and ſtrain off the tincture. The doſe is from ʒi. to ℥ſs.

This tincture is tolerably certain in point of ſtrength, for the above proportion of this menſtruum does not take up the whole virtue of any kind of *jalap*. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

JALAPA ALBA, i. e. Mechoacana.

JAMACARU. A name of ſeveral ſorts of fig-trees in America. See Raii Hiſt.

JAMBOLONES, or Jamboloins. A ſhrub which grows in the Eaſt-Indies, and reſembles myrtle. See Raii Hiſt.

JAMBOS. A tree growing in Malabar. It is a kind of plum-tree. Ray enumerates ſix ſorts.

JANAMUNDA. The herb bennet.

JANGOMAS. It is a tree mentioned by Ray, whoſe fruit reſembles that of the ſervice-tree.

JANIPABA BRASILIENSIBUS, alſo called genipat, junipa, and junipapaceywa. It is a tall tree which grows in Malabar, &c. See Raii Hiſt.

Janipaba is alſo the name of the talleſt tree in Braſil; it bears an apple about the ſize of an orange. See Raii Hiſt.

JANITOR. A name for the pylorus.

JANITRIX. A name for the vena portæ.

JAPARANDIBA. The name of a pomiferous tree in Braſil. See Raii Hiſt.

JARUINA. A ſort of fig-tree in the iſland of Jucaija.

JARUS, i. e. Arum.

JASMINOIDES. The coffee-tree; alſo a ſpecies of rhamnus.

JASMINUM. Jaſmine or jeſſamy, alſo called galſeminum. We have many ſpecies of it, and it is ſufficiently known not to need a deſcription. Beſides, it is not in uſe, except for its flowers, which give a perfume to inſipid expreſſed oils. The ſort uſed formerly in medicine was the *jaſminum* officinale. Linn.

JASMINUM. A name of the coffee-tree, of ſeveral ſorts of jalap, and two ſpecies of lilac.

JASPIS. The jaſper. It is a precious ſtone of different colours, as white, green, red, yellow, black, or variegated with veins of different colours. They contain a portion of iron. When ſpotted with ſpecks of onyxes or agates, they are called jaſponyxes. The lapis divinus, the malachites, lapis lydius, and the lapis nephriticus, are ſpecies of jaſpar. In foſſilogy the *jaſper* is a genus, in the order of ſtones called petra. Its characters are as follows: petra, of an appearance, which is very dull and opake, but bearing a fine poliſh; and of great hardneſs or compactneſs. Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

JECORARIA. See SPLENITIS.

JECORARIA VENA. The hepatic vein.

JECUR. The liver. Immediately below the diaphragm, on the right ſide, is placed the *liver*, whoſe ſmall lobe is ſtill contiguous to the diaphragm, and goes to the ſcrobiculus cordis. It is divided into two lobes beſides the lobules Spigelii; the large lobe is ſituated on the right hypochondrium, contiguous to the diaphragm, it reaches as far back almoſt as the ſpine, and reſts upon the right kidney; the ſmall lobe runs cloſe to the diaphragm; as far as the ſpleen. The convex ſide of the *liver* is uſually connected to the diaphragm by three ligaments, which are continuations of the peritonæum; one lies near the edge of the extremity of each lobe, and one in the middle, and they are accordingly called the right, and left, and middle ligaments. The *liver* is likewiſe connected to the right ala of the tendinous part of the diaphragm by a broad adheſion, which is the reflection of the peritonæum, and is called the ligamentum coronarium. Under the great lobe, a little to the right, we ſee the gall-bladder. The ſmaller lobe of the liver is in the left ſide, which is diſtinguiſhed above by a membranous ligament, and below by a large ſciſſure in the ſame direction as the ſuperior ligament. The eminences on the concave ſide of the *liver* belong to the great lobe; the principal one is a triangular maſs, ſituated backwards near the great ſciſſure, which maſs is named lobulus Spigelii; this lobe is attached by a little pedunele to the middle of the lower ſide of the great lobe. The firſt ſiſſure we obſerve, next to the great one, is a notch at the anterior part of the *liver*, for the reception of the ligamentary remains of the vena umbilicalis; the ſecond ſiſſure is towards the poſterior part of the *liver*, between the lobulus Spigelii, and the little lobe, where we obſerve the remains of the ductus venoſus, which runs to be inſerted into the vena cava, and is peculiar to the fœtus; upon the right of the lobulus Spigelii, between that and the great lobe, is another ſiſſure, in which the vena cava runs down; the next ſiſſure is a tranverſe one, ſituated before the lobulus Spigelii, this is called portæ; beſides theſe, on the fore-part of the great lobe there is a depreſſion, for the reception of the gall-bladder; and we may obſerve on the under-ſide of the great lobe, a ſmall cavity, where it reſts upon the right kidney.

The principal veſſels of the *liver* are: 1ſt, From behind the pancreas, a maſs of veſſels and nerves run up to the portæ. 2d. The hæpatic artery comes off from the cœliaca, and divides into two branches, one of which goes to each lobe. 3d, The vena portarum, when it arrives at the portæ, likewiſe divides into two, one of which enters the right, and the other the left lobe. 4th, From the duodenum and pancreas we ſee the ductus communis choledocus, which, at a diſtance from the portæ, divides into two ducts, viz. the cyſtic, which goes to the gall-bladder, and the hepatic, which again is ſubdivided into two, which go their reſpective lobes. 5th, The vena cava in its paſſage through the diaphragm, ſends off ſeveral branches, eſpecially two which go to the *liver*, and are called vena cavæ hæpaticæ; their office is to throw the blood into the vena cava, after the bile is ſecreted. 6. The blood from all the viſcera is returned to the vena portarum, which ramifies through the liver like an artery; the lower part of this veſſel is called vena portarum meſenterica; the upper part hath the name of hepatica given to it. Laſtly, we may obſerve, that the greateſt part of theſe veſſels are incloſed in a membranous ſheath, which from Gliſſon, who firſt took notice of it, is called capſula Gliſſonianæ. This author deſcribes it as compoſed of cellular membranes, nerves, and peritoneum, which he alledges not only cover the veſſels at their entrance, but ramifies through the *liver* with them; but the peritoneum muſt be abſolutely excluded, for the nerves and cellular membrane only go through the *liver*.

The external ſurface of the *liver* is ſmooth, and covered with the peritonæum, which membrane is not only tied to the *liver* by the membrana cellularis, but by the veſſels which run out to be ſpread upon it. The *liver*, except for the veſſels, is very ſoft, and like a piece of congealed blood. Malpighi examined this, and brought it out to be a congeries of folliculi, where the veſſels terminate and form the bile. Ruyſch makes it a congeries of veſſels, even to the tendereſt part of it. The penicilli of Ruyſch are a collection of veſſels upon the ſurface: according to this author, the veſſels do not terminate in the penicilli,

but become infinitely finer, whence this viſcus cannot be ſtructured as Malpighi imagines. The *liver*, according to the ancients, was the viſcus wherein the chyle was converted into blood, but ſince the knowledge of the lacteals, and the diſcovery of the circulation of the blood, we have learned to know that the uſe of the *liver* is to ſecrete the bile. There are two kinds of blood which comes to the liver, viz. the arterial by the hepatic artery, and the venal by the vena portarum; a greater quantity of blood is ſent by the latter than by the former, as it brings the blood from the ſplenic, meſenteric, &c. veins; this latter alſo is that by which the bile is ſecreted. See Winſlow's Anatomy, and Haller's Phyſiology, Lecture xxvii.

The *liver* is the ſeat of various diſorders, and in moſt of them the countenance hath a pale colour, or a yellowiſh one, with a greeniſh caſt. Beſides thoſe diſorders of this viſcus, which have long ſince been noted by medical authors, Mr. Crawford mentions one which he denominates an enlargement of the *liver*. See his Eſſay on the Nature, Cauſe, and Cure of a Diſeaſe incident to the Liver. The principal ſigns of it are, a great and ſudden ſwelling and hardneſs of the belly, with a difficulty of breathing, which latter is the only very troubleſome ſymptom. Previous to theſe, a general weakneſs, a ſenſe of tightneſs about the breaſt, and a giddineſs of the head on any little motion are perceived; then an œdematous ſwelling appears in the legs, pains in the back, thirſt, and loſs of appetite attend; the pulſe is ſmall and weak, but on bleeding it becomes more full and diſtinct; the countenance is florid: as the belly enlarges, the breathing is more difficult, and then the ſenſe of oppreſſion about the præcordia, and a ſtricture about the cartilago enſiformis, becomes almoſt inſupportable, ſoon terminating in a complete ſuffocation. A violent vertigo, and troubleſome palpitation of the heart, are occaſional ſymptoms. Some ſymptoms of this diſorder reſemble thoſe of the ſcurvy; but the ſore ſpongy gums, always attendant on the ſcurvy, are not obſerved here.

As ſoon as this diſeaſe is apprehended, ſupport the patient with a mild nouriſhing diet, and, when he is faint, give him vinous cordials. Bleed as the ſtrength will admit; after which two or three of the following pills are to be immediately given, and repeated once or twice in the ſpace of twenty-four hours, until they operate.

℞ Aloes, ſocotor. ℥ ſs. rad. jalap. pulv. ʒi. merc. dulc. præp. ſap. venet. ää ʒii. balſ. Locatel. q. ſ. ut. f. maſſa. ex cujus ſingulis drachmis, formentur pilulæ, No. xii.

The patient is greatly relieved a few hours after bleeding; and by means of theſe pills, repeated at proper intervals, the complaints gradually abate, and the cure is generally completed in the ſpace of nine or ten days.

JEJUNUM, ſo called, becauſe it is generally found empty. (INTESTINUM). This is one of the ſmall inteſtines. Where the duodenum ends it begins, and is attached to the meſocolon at its beginning; then it proceeds downwards from the left-ſide to the right, and obliquely forward, and makes ſeveral convolutions, which are chiefly ſituated in the upper part of the regio umbilicalis.

JEMOU, or Jemu, i. e. Gambogia.

JEQUI TINGUACU. A ſpecies of the ſoap-bearing tree.

JESUITARUM PULVIS. Jeſuit's powder. The Peruvian bark, when powdered, was thus named, becauſe that Father de Lugo, a Jeſuit, firſt brought it to Rome, and the Jeſuits there powdered it, and kept it among themſelves as a lucrative article.

JETAIBA. The Braſilian name for the locuſt-tree, alſo the gum anime, and of the courbaril.

JETICA. The Braſilian name for Spaniſh potatoes.

JETICUCU. The Braſilian name for mechoacan.

JITO. A name of two trees mentioned in Ray's Hiſtory of Plants, but they are not of much note in medicine.

JONDRABA. A ſpecies of thlaſpidium.

JOVIS FLOS. A name for ſaffron.

JUBA. In botany, it is a panicle, ſo called, from its reſemblance to a horſe's mane.

JUCAIA ARBOR. A tree which reſembles the pomegranate tree. See Raii Hiſt.

JUDAICA ARBOR. See SILIQUASTRUM.

JUDAICUM BITUMEN. See ASPHALTUS.

JUDAICUS LAPIS, alſo called tecolithus, lapis Syriacus, &c. Jew's-ſtone. It is the petrified ſpine of a ſea-urchin, and has the ſame properties as ſpar.

JUDICATORIA. A ſynocha of four days.

JUGALE OS, from *jugum*, *a yoke*, i. e. Zygoma.

JUGALIS SUTURA. The ſagittal ſuture is ſometimes thus called. It is alſo the ſuture by which the os jugale is articulated to the bone of the upper jaw.

JUGAMENTUM. The os jugale.

JUGLANS, from *juvando*, *to help*, and *glans*, *a nut*; or rather from *Jovis glans*, *the nut of Jupiter*. The wallnut. It is alſo called nux regia, regia vulgaris, nux baſilica, nux Perſica, nux Euboica, and caryon. It is the juglans regia, Linn. Boerhaave mentions five ſpecies. The kernel is of the ſame nature as that of almonds; the ſhells are aſtringent; the oil expreſſed from the kernel is of the ſame nature as that of almonds; an ointment made by boiling the leaves of the wallnut tree in lard is a uſeful application to old ulcers; the bark of the tree is a ſtrong emetic; the catkins are emetic; the juice of the root purges briſkly; the powdered leaves deſtroy worms in the human body.

JUGULARES VENÆ. The jugular veins. They are the external and internal. They correſpond with the carotid arteries.

JUGULUM. The throat, or anterior part of the neck. In Celſus, lib. viii. cap. 8. it ſignifies the clavicle.

JUJUBA. Alſo called ziziphа, ziziphus, The jujube tree. The rhamnus zizyphus, Linn. *Jujubes* are an half dried fruit of the plum kind, about the ſize and ſhape of an olive, conſiſting of a thickiſh, reddiſh, yellow ſkin, a whitiſh fungous pulp, and a wrinkled ſtone pointed at both ends. They are the produce of a prickly tree, with three ribbed leaves, and herbaceous or yellowiſh flowers, ſometimes found wild, but commonly cultivated in the ſouthern parts of Europe.

This fruit is incraſſant and demulcent, and hath been uſed in pectoral decoctions.

The ſebeſtens, called alſo myxa, or myxaria, are a ſpecies of the ſame, but they are all neglected in the preſent practice.

Zizipha, called alſo olea ſylveſter, elæagnus, oleaſter Cappadocicus, wild *jujube*, or olive of Bohemia.

This is a ſpecies of *jujube*, but it is not of any note in medicine.

JUJUBA INDICA, alſo called ziziphus Indica, zizyphus Zeylanica, periu toddali. The lacca-tree.

From this tree the gum lacca of the ſhops is obtained.

JULAP, called alſo julapium, juleb, julepus, and julep. This form of medicine the Arabians invented. It is a liquid medicine that is clear and ſweet. It is ſo called becauſe uſually prepared of ſweet ingredients, or at leaſt with ſugar. The word *julep*, or juleb, in the Perſian language, ſignifies *a ſweet portion*.

A *julep* among the ancients was a ſweet apozem, prepared as it was wanted.

A *julep* is an agreeable form for adminiſtering cordials, and ſome other claſſes of medicines; but it is generally only a vehicle for other articles, or to render them more eaſy in the ſtomach, or otherwiſe more effectual; on which account they ſhould not only be contrived to be agreeable, but alſo of articles concurrent with the intention of the principal medicine.

JULEP. A name for ſyrupus, and for ſerapium.

JUNCARIA. Italian ruſhy horſe-tail. Lemery mentions this as vulnerary, deterſive, &c. but it is not known in preſent practice.

JUNCTURA, from *jungo*, *to join*. Articulation

JUNCUS. The ruſh. Many are the ſpecies of ruſh mentioned by botaniſts, but they are not much noted in medicine. The principal is the

JUNCUS ODORATUS, called alſo fœnum vel ſtramen camelorum, ſchœnanthus, ſquinanthum, juncus aromaticus, palea de mecha, gramen dactylon aromaticum, ſweet ruſh, or camel's-hay. It is a dried herb of the graſs kind, brought from Turkey and Arabia. It reſembles barley-ſtraw. It is full of a fungous pith. It is the andropogon ſchœnanthus, Linn.

When in perfection it is agreeable to the ſmell; is warm, bitteriſh, and not unpleaſant to the taſte. An extract

poſſeſſes

poſſeſſes the chief of its virtues; but other more valuable articles ſuperſede its uſe.

JUNIPERUS. Juniper. Juniperis communis; or, juniperus fol. ternis patentibus mucronatis, bacca longioribus, Linn. With us this is but a buſh, but in Norway it grows to the ſize of a large tree. It is an evergreen. Its leaves are ſlender, narrow, ſtiff, and ſharp pointed; the flowers are a kind of catkins; the berries have each three oblong irregular ſeeds.

The berries are chiefly brought to us from Holland, or from Italy. They ſhould be choſen freſh, not much ſhrivelled, and free from mouldineſs. They have a moderately ſtrong, but not diſagreeable ſmell; a warm pungent ſweetiſh taſte, which, if they are long chewed, or previouſly bruiſed, is followed by a conſiderable bitterneſs. The ſweetneſs ſeems to reſide in the juice, or pulpy part of the berry; the pungency in the bark, the bitterneſs in the ſeeds, and the aromatic flavour in the oily veſicles ſpread throughout the pulp, and the ſeeds. In the dried berries this oil is hardened into a reſinous ſubſtance, which is viſible on breaking the ſeeds.

They give out nearly all their virtue both to water and to ſpirit. Diſtilled with water, they yield a yellowiſh eſſential oil, which much reſembles that of turpentine in its medical qualities.

Theſe berries are carminative, detergent, and diuretic, approaching in quality to that of turpentine.

The London college directs a ſpirituous water to be diſtilled from the berries, and as a means of covering their flavour, have preſcribed the ſeeds of carui, and of ſweet fennel. The coriander ſeeds alſo anſwer the ſame purpoſe, but to a pound of the berries there ſhould be half a pound of coriander ſeeds.

Rob Baccharum Juniperi. *The Rob of* Juniper *Berries.*

Boil *juniper* berries well bruiſed in water, or take the decoction, after diſtilling them for the oil, and inſpiſſate to the conſiſtence of thick honey. This is ſo eſteemed among the Germans, as to have obtained the name of theriaca Germanorum. It may be uſed in catarrhs, weakneſs of the ſtomach, and difficulty in making water.

The wood of the *juniper* tree, called lignum juniperinum, and cedrinum lignum, is ſudorific, and of ſimilar qualities with that of guaiacum and ſaſſafras, but much inferior to either.

The reſin which is obtained in warmer climes, particularly in Africa, where is a large ſpecies of *juniper* tree, is ſemipellucid, and of a pale yellowiſh colour; it is in glebes, reſembling maſtich, but larger. It is the ſandaracha of the Arabians, and the gum *juniper* of the ſhops. From the uſe it is put to, ſome call it vernix. This reſin hath a light agreeable ſmell, and not much taſte. It diſſolves in ſp. vini R. if violently ſhook in it; and in oils both expreſſed and diſtilled, but it gives nothing to water. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

JUNIPERUS ALPINA. See SABINA.

JUNIPERUS. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of cedar.

JUPITER. A name for tin.

JUS. Broth. *Broths* made of the lean parts of beef, mutton, &c. are very nouriſhing, when uſed as aliment; but it ſhould be obſerved, that in weak, worn out conſtitutions, ſtrong *broths* cannot be digeſted, and that the ſtrength thereof ſhould always be proportioned to the ſtrength of the patient.

JUSTICIA; ſo Dr. Houſtoun named a plant in honour of James Juſtice, eſq. Miller mentions two ſpecies of it; but there are no medical virtues attributed to it.

JUVANTIA. Whatever relieves under a diſtemper, whether it is aliment, medicine, or any of the non-naturals, are thus named.

JUVANTIA. Things that help; and lædantia, things that offend. Two technical terms. When the nature of a diſtemper was doubtful or unknown, the antients preſcribed ſome innocent medicines which they were well acquainted with, and according as they did either good or hurt, though in a ſmall degree, they formed a judgment of the method by which the cure was to be attempted.

JUXTANGINA. The ſpecies of quinſy called cynanche, or rather paracynanche.

K.

KAATH. A ſpecies of Acacia.

KACHIMIA. A barbarous word for cacochymia.

KADALI. Ray takes notice of four ſpecies of this ſhrub; they grow in the Eaſt-Indies. The fruit, when ripe, is eaten, and calicoes are dyed with the juice.

KADANAKU. Common aloes.

KÆKURIA. The gum elemi tree.

KAIDA. Ray takes notice of four ſpecies of theſe ſhrubs, viz. kaida, kaida-taddi, perin-kaida taddi, and kaida-tſjerria. They are produced in the Eaſt-Indies.

KAKA-MOULLON, or kaha mullu. An Eaſt-Indian ſiliquoſe tree. The bark is boiled in milk, and is ſaid to cure a diabetes and gonorrhœa. Raii Hiſt.

KAKA-NIARA. An Eaſt-Indian tree, the leaves of which deſtroy worms. See Raii Hiſt.

KAKA-TODDALI. A ſmall ſhrub growing in Malabar, and much uſed there in various diſorders from a redundancy of ſerum. Raii Hiſt.

KAKIMIA. A barbarous word for cacochymia.

KALI, alſo called ſalſola, ſalicarnia, ſalt-wort, and ſnail ſeeded glaſs-wort. Miller enumerates eighteen ſpecies.

Kali is a plant with ſpreading, reddiſh, pretty thick branches: oblong, narrow, pointed, fleſhy leaves, like thoſe of houſeleek. The flowers are imperfect in the boſoms of the leaves, are followed each by one ſeed ſpirally curled, and incloſed in the cup. It is annual, grows wild on the ſea-coaſts in the ſouthern parts of Europe, particularly of the Mediterranean.

The herb is juicy, taſtes bitteriſh, and remarkably ſaline. The expreſſed juice, and infuſions, or decoctions of the leaves, are ſaid to be powerfully aperient and diuretic, and in this intention have been much recommended in dropſies; but the *kali* is principally regarded on account of its copious yield of the fixt alkaline ſalt, called ſoda, or ſoude. The plant is cultivated about Montpelier, for the ſake of the ſalt. Much of th iſalt is prepared at Alicant in Spain, from a different ſpecies of *kali*. Different marine plants contain this ſalt, and what is made in Scotland and Ireland is called kelp.

From the quercus marina, alſo called fucus veſiculoſus, fucus maritimus, alga marina, ſea-oak, or ſea-wrack, Much alkaline ſalt is obtained by incineration; the juice of its veſicles, if left to putrify, yields on evaporation a portion of acrid pungent ſalt.

This plant is a ſoft ſlippery one, common on rocks that are left dry at the ebb-tide; the leaves reſemble thoſe of the oak-tree in ſhape, the ſtalks running along the middle of the leaves, and terminated by watery bladders, containing either air or a ſlippery matter. The veſicles begin to fill in March, and burſt about the end of July, and diſcharge a matter as thick as honey.

If the putrid juice of this plant is applied to the ſkin, it ſinks into it immediately, excites a ſlight ſenſe of pungency, and deterges like a ſolution of ſoap. One of the beſt applications at the decline of glandular ſwellings for perfectly diſcuſſing them, is a mixture of the juicy veſicles on the leaves of this plant, gathered in July, with an equal quantity of ſea-water; they ſhould be kept in a glaſs veſſel for ten or fifteen days, until the liquor becomes of the conſiſtence of thin honey. The parts affected are to be rubbed with the ſtrained liquor two or three times a day, and afterwards waſhed clean with water.

The fixed alkaline ſalts obtained from theſe plants are the ſame as the mineral fixed alkaline ſalt. See ALCALI.

KALI. A name of ſome ſpecies of chenopodium.

KANDEL. Ray takes notice of ſix ſpecies of this ſhrub. Some of them are uſed for ſtaining linen with; ſome have medical virtues attributed to them, and others none.

KANELLI. A name of two Eaſt Indian trees. They are ever-greens. The flowers are uſed in diarrhœas. See Raii Riſt.

KARABE, i. e. Carabe.

KARABITUS. An Arabic term for a phrenitis or delirium.

KARATAS. The penguin, or wild ananas. It is common in the Weſt-Indies; the juice of the fruit is uſed to ſour punch with, but it is too auſtere to be ſwallowed alone.

KARFE. By this the Arabians underſtand the beſt ſort of true cinnamon.

KARIN-TAGERA. An evergreen tree in Malabar; it reſembles an hazel. The oil from the root prevents the hair from falling off. Raii Hiſt.

KARI-VETTI. A tree in Malabar; the juice of its leaves are emetic. Raii Hiſt.

KATMER-BOUHOUR.. The name of an oriental ſpecies of cyclamen.

KAYL. Sour-milk.

KEIRI, i. e. Leucoium luteum vulgare.

KEMPFERA; ſo Dr. Houſtoun calls a plant in Jamaica, in honour of Dr. Kempfer. It is alſo called veronicæ ſimilis fruticoſa Curaſſavica Teucrii foliis flore galericulato.

KENNE. The name of a ſtone generated in the eye of a ſtag.

KERATOPHARYNGÆI, (Muſc.) See HYOPHARYNGÆUS.

KERATOPHYTON. The name of a ſubmarine plant, which is of viſcid or glueiſh conſiſtence, pellucid like horn, and often covered with a cretaceous cruſt, ſometimes of elegant and various colours. Boerhaave mentions ſixteen ſpecies, but none of them have any medical virtues attributed to them, except one, which is the corallium nigrum.

KERMES, i. e. Chermes.

KERVA, (Ol.) i. e. Ol. ricini.

KERMES MINERAL. It is a ſulph. antim. præcip.

KETMIA. The leaves reſemble thoſe of mallows, or of vervain mallows. The flower is like that of the mallow; the fruit is divided into many partitions, the top of which opens when ripe, and diſcloſes many ſeeds. Boerhaave enumerates twenty-two ſpecies. All the ſpecies, except thoſe which taſte like ſorrel, agree in virtues with mallows. This genus, called ketmia by Tournefort, is the hibiſcus of Linnæus.

KEYSER's PILLS. According to an account of them given in the Edinb. Med. Commentaries, they conſiſt of pure quick-ſilver, reduced to a red calx by a proper degree of heat, which being diſſolved in vinegar (one part of the former to eight of the latter) is laſtly to be mixed with manna, of which two pounds will be required to each pint of the ſolution. This compoſition being dried gently by the fire, is rolled into pills, and recommended as the moſt effectual remedy of all the mercurial kinds, againſt the venereal diſeaſe.

KIK, or Kiki. The Palma-Chriſti tree.

KINA, or Kina-kina, i. e. Cort. Peruv. This name is taken from the counteſs of Cinchon, whoſe cure by its means firſt occaſioned it to be known in Europe.

KINA-KINA AROMATICA, i. e. Thuris Cortex.

KINO, i. e. Gummi rubrum aſtringens gambienſe.

KNAWEL. German knot-graſs. It is ſomewhat aſtringent. There are two ſpecies of it.

KOLERUS. A dry ulcer.

KOLTO, i. e. Plica Polonica.

KRIEBEL KRANKHEIT. So the Germans call the raphany.

KURUDU. The true cinnamon tree.

KUTUBUTH. An Arabian name for a water ſpider. An inſect perpetually in motion. Hence the name hath been transferred to a ſpecies of melancholy, called by Sennertus melancholia errabunda.

KYMIA. A cucurbit.

KYMIT ELEVATUM. White ſublimed cinnabar.

KYMOLEA. The ſlime, or mud, gathered under grind ſtones.

KYNA. Opoponax.

KYNANCHE. A ſpecies of angina.

L.

LABDANUM. See LADANUM.

LABARIUM. Looſeneſs of the teeth.

LABELLA LEPORINA, i. e. Labia leporina.

LABIA. See PROCESSUS.

LABIA. A lip. The lips are all that are looſe beyond the gums; the red part is called prolabium. When the cuticula, which here is called epithelium, is taken off, there is a villous appearance, as in the glans penis.

LABIA LEPORINA. The hare lip. It is when there is a fiſſure in the upper lip, with a want of ſubſtance, like that of a hare, whence its name. The diviſion is ſometimes double, like the letter M; it is then called the double hare lip. When this caſe happens to the under lip, it is called the ſpurious hare lip. But ſome late profeſſors ſay that this laſt never happens..

If an operation is required, firſt divide all its adheſions internally with an inciſion knife, then with a ſtraight pair of ſciſſars cut off all that is callous, ſo that you make an angle at its upper part; then pierce the lip with two ſilver pins, ſo as that the ſides of the fiſſure may be brought and kept in contact by them and the thread which is to be applied over them. Begin the thread on the upper pin, to hinder the lips from ſeparating under the heads and points; apply little bolſters to prevent their ſitting uneaſy upon the adjacent parts. Apply a pledgit of digeſtive over the whole, ſo as to keep the thread ſoft.

Mr. Pott obſerves, that when the hare-lip is double, it ſometimes happens that the middle portion contracts itſelf up, and the bone projects. To begin the cure in this caſe remove the projecting bone by means of a chiſſel; when this is done the contracted part of the lip is to be brought down and detained there by bandage; afterwards proceed as in the ſingle hare lip, operating on one ſide at a time, which is to be thoroughly healed before you proceed to the other. The pins ſhould not be moved before the ſixth or ſeventh day, and then firſt cut the ſtitches to ſee that the fleſh is ſecurely joined before you move the pins. When a part of the bone is cut away, wait the healing thereof before you proceed with the hare-lip. See Le Dran's Operations; Heiſter's Surgery; Sharp's Operations.

LABIA PUDENDORUM. They ariſe from the mons veneris, lying on the fore part of the pubes, and extending down under the edge of the oſſa pubis, whoſe ſymphyſis is exactly between them. They are more prominent and thick above than below, and unite below at the perinæum. They are compoſed of ſkin, cellular membrane, and fat; they are red within, and outwardly are covered with hair at the age of puberty.

LABIALES ARTERIÆ. See MAXILLARIA ARTERIA EXTERNA.

LABIALES GLANDULÆ. The labial glands. The membrane which covers the inſide of the lips is a continuation of that on the cheeks; it is alſo perforated by many ſmall holes, which anſwer to the ſame number of ſmall glands. See Winſlow's Anatomy.

LABIATE FLOWERS. They are ſuch as have lips, or a *labiated flower* is an irregular monopetalous flower, divided into two lips; the upper is called the creſt, the under the beard. Sometimes the creſt is wanting, and then the ſtyle and chives ſupply its place, as in the ground pine, bugulæ, &c.

In ſome ſpecies the upper lip is turned upwards, as in the ground ivy; but moſt commonly the upper lip is convex above, or turns the hollow part down to the under lip, and ſo repreſents an helmet, whence they are called galeate, cucullate, and galericulate.

LABIS. Any forceps, from λαμβανω, *to lay hold of.*

LABRA, i. e. Labiæ pudendorum.

LABRISULCIUM. A chap in the lip, or the ſame as cheilocace. It is a ſcrophulous ſymptom.

The *labriſulcium*, or chapped upper lip, as it is a ſcrophulous ſymptom, it requires the ſame treatment as is uſual in that diſeaſe; thus the ſwelling of the lip is taken down, at leaſt for a time, until a freſh cold, or other error of the non-naturals, occaſion a new fluxion. The cleft or chap itſelf may be rubbed with the ol. ceræ, or with the ol. amygd. and ſpermaceti.

Arnoldus Boot treats of this ſymptom particularly in his tenth chapter, under the name of cheilocace, where he obſerves that children are the uſual ſubjects of it. See Turner's Surgery.

LABRUM VENERIS. The fuller's thiſtle.

LABRUSCA, i. e. Vitis ſylveſtris.

LABURNUM, alſo called anagyris non fœtida major, cytiſus Alpinus, acopos, peaſe cod tree, or ſtinking bean trefoil tree. Boerhaave mentions ſixteen ſpecies. One of the ſpecies is called ebony of the Alps, as when poliſhed it very much reſembles ebony, and is uſed for making chairs, &c. It is eaſily raiſed, and would be a profitable article here for the cabinet-makers, &c.

LABYRINTHUS. The labyrinth. The ſecond cavity of the ear. It lies in the pars petroſa of the temporal bone, which runs forward and inward. It is an oblong body, divided into three parts, called the veſtibulum, the cochlea, and the ſemi circular canals. The veſtibulum (on which the ſtapes ſtands) is ſituated in the middle; the cochlea is the anterior, and lies forward and inward; and the ſemi circular canals which compoſe the poſterior part, lies backward and outward. The three parts of the *labyrinth* are lined by a fine perioſteum, which ſpreads over and ſhuts the two feneſtræ of the tympanum.

LAC. Milk. *Milk* is very little if at all different from the chyle, as when it is taken by the lacteals. See CHYLUS. It is a fluid prepared and ſecreted in the bodies of animals, but not completely elaborated into an animal nature. On a chemical analyſis it yields the ſame general principles with ſubſtances of the vegetable kingdom.

Milk differs in degrees of goodneſs in the following orders; the beſt is woman's, the next is aſs's, mare's, goat's, ſheep's, and the worſt is cow's, becauſe it is the ſtrongeſt and moſt difficultly digeſted.

When *milk* is gone cold, like moſt other animal fluids, it loſes much of its excellent qualities, and warming it is ſo far from reſtoring them, that they are totally deſtroyed by it. When *milk* is boiled, it becomes a very improper aliment for weakly perſons, and for thoſe who have weak ſtomachs.

If *milk* is directed for a nouriſhing diet, and the patient is reduced to extreme feebleneſs, it ſhould be ſucked from the breaſt of a middle aged woman, of a good habit of body, who lives ſoberly, and uſes moderate exerciſe; let the patient ſuck four or five hours after the woman hath taken her uſual meals; much before or much after are alike improper. Of the advantage and diſadvantage of uſing *milk* before and after the circumambient air is mixed with it, is frequently hinted at by Galen, and the preference of the firſt he ſtrongly urges.

When a *milk* diet is uſed by perſons whoſe ſtrength is not ſo extremely reduced as to render a breaſt neceſſary, it ſhould, if poſſible, be drank whilſt warm from the cow; and in ſuch diſorders, or in ſuch circumſtances of the conſtitution as are relieved by a total diet of *milk*, at leaſt

four pints ſhould be taken every day. This will not ſuffice for making or keeping the body robuſt; but for the valetudinary, the ſedentary, and ſtudious, it is not only ſufficient, but the moſt proper.

When *milk* ſeems to diſagree, a tea-ſpoon full of the ſpirit of hartſhorn to a pint, or a draught of lime water, if drank as ſoon as it is clear, and before the heat is diſſipated, which is excited on mixing the lime and water together, or the chewing of bark in a morning, and a little rhubarb at night, will render it eaſy in the ſtomach and promote its digeſtion.

Milk is demulcent and nutritious; but whatever diſpoſes it to curdle, renders it in proportion indigeſtible; it is an improper aliment in febrile and bilious diſorders; but gall, as well as lime water, when taken into the ſtomach, powerfully diſſolves *milk* that is coagulated there.

Milk conſiſts of oil, mucilage, ſugar, water, and air. The oil ſpontaneouſly ſeparates, and is called cream; the mucilage is the coagulatble part, which is ſeparated by mixing rennet with it, and of this they make cheeſe: that it poſſeſſes air is proved by placing it under the receiver of an air pump, after having heated it a little; and as to the ſugar, it is ſeparated by the following method.

Sugar of Milk.

Take the whey of cow's milk (made with calf's rennet,) clarify it with the white of an egg, and if not perfectly limpid, paſs it through a filter, then evaporate it in a glaſs veſſel, in the heat of a water bath, and ſet in a cool cellar to cryſtallize. The cryſtals are to be waſhed with cold water. This is as directed in the Ph. Paris; but Dr. Lewis recommends the following:

Take aſs's *milk* whilſt new, and evaporate it to dryneſs, digeſting the dry matter in water till all its ſoluble parts are extracted, and then inſpiſſate the filtered liquor. This preparation is ſweet, though neither white nor cryſtalline; nor is it perhaps in the pure cryſtalline part of the *milk* that the virtue of it lies. The medicinal quality is in the ſaccharine part, whence women's and aſs's are moſt medicinal; but the nutritive quality is in thoſe parts, which abound more in the milk of goats and cows, whence as a nutritive their *milk* is preferred.

According to Hoffman's obſervation twelve ounces of woman's *milk* leaves on evaporation eight drams of ſolid matter, of which boiling water diſſolves ſix drams; this ſolution yields a rich ſweet ſalt. He obſerves the ſame of aſs's *milk*. The ſame quantity of cow's *milk* leaves thirteen drams of ſolid matter, from which water extracts only one dram and a half; the ſalt it affords is not very ſweet, and it diſſolves difficultly. All other *milks* are of an intermediate nature.

The Whey of Milk.

Whey from *milk* is cooling, diluent, and aperient; it promotes the natural excretions, and increaſes the action of the purgative ſweets, as caſſia, manna, &c. It contains the nutritive and moſt of the ſaccharine part of *milk*, though it is freed from the more indigeſtible caſeous part. A more agreeable whey may be made by the following method than by that which is uſed in ſeparating the curd for cheeſe.

Evaporate new *milk* over a very gentle heat to dryneſs; then pour upon the remaining yellow grumous powder as much pure water as there was of milk, then boil them until the powder is diſſolved, and ſtrain for uſe.

If whey is taken medicinally, it ſhould be drank for ſix or eight weeks, at the rate of four or five pints a day.

A pint of cow's *milk* being evaporated, about an ounce and a half of a yellow powder remained, of which a dram and a half diſſolved in water. From a pint of woman's *milk*, hardly an ounce of dry matter remained, but water diſſolved more than one half of it. The proportions were the ſame, when aſs's *milk* was uſed.

See Dioſcorides, lib. ii. cap. 64. Hoffman's Diſſ. de Mirabili Lactis Aſinini in Medendo Uſu. Hoffman's Diſſ. de Salab. ſer. Lact. Med. Muſ. vol. iii. p. 361, &c. Percival's Eſſays, Med. and Exp. ed. ii. p. 251, &c. Fordyce's Elem. p. 1, 19, &c.

LAC AMYGDALI. Milk of almonds. So ſome call the almond emulſion.

LAC CALCIS. Milk of lime. So ſome call the water which is whitened by a ſolution of quicklime in it.

LAC LUNÆ, alſo called agaricus mineralis, medulla ſaxi, marga Candida, white ſtone marle. It is a ſpecies of marle which partakes very much of the nature of chalk. In reality it is a ſort of calcareous earth.

LAC SULPHURIS, i. e. Sulphur præcipitatum.

LAC VIRGINALIS. See BENZOINUM.

LACAPHTHON. P. Ægineta explains it as the bark of a tree of an aromatic kind. It is not certainly known what it is.

LACCA. Lac, or gum lac. It is a concrete brittle ſubſtance, of a dark red colour, brought from the Eaſt-Indies; the beſt from Ceylon; it is incruſted on pieces of ſticks; internally divided into cells; is ſaid to be the reſinous juice of the jujube tree, (but moſt probably it is met with on different kinds of trees) it is ſaid to be collected by winged red inſects of the ant kind, or it is their wax, and is impregnated with their colouring matter, and is either depoſited by them on branches of trees, or on ſticks placed for them; this is called ſtick-lac. In the cells, ſmall red bodies are often obſerved, which appear to be the young inſects. If the ſtick-lac is broken into ſmall pieces, and is infuſed into warm water until it ceaſes to give any tincture to the liquor, the remainder appears of a tranſparent, yellowiſh, brown-colour, and is called ſeed-lac; and on raiſing the heat ſo as to melt the ſeed-lac, it riſes to the ſurface, and is formed into what is called ſhell-lac.

The ſeed and ſhell-lacs being robbed of the colouring animal matter, ſeems to be of an intermediate nature between that of wax and reſin, or to partake of the nature of both. They crumble on chewing, and do not ſoften or ſtick together again; laid on a hot iron, they catch fire, and ſoon burn away. If diſtilled, like wax they yield an acid ſpirit, and a butyraceous oil. Alkaline lixivia, and volatile alkaline ſpirit, diſſolve them into a purpliſh liquor. With the help of heat they diſſolve in ſp. vini R. Alum promotes its ſolution in boiling water. It is not uſed in medicine; the colouring matter ſerves as a paint, and the reſt is employed for ſealing wax. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Dict. of Chem. Lewis's Mat. Med.

LACCOPEDON. So the Athenians called the lax part of the ſcrotum.

LACERATURA. A lacerated wound. The ſame as vulnus; which ſee.

LACERTULI. Bundles, e. g. of fibres, &c.

LACERTUS. That part of the arm from the ſhoulder to the elbow.

LACERUM FORAMEN. It is one of the inner holes in the head, through which the third, fourth, firſt branch of the fifth, and the ſixth pair of nerves paſs.

LACHRYMA JOBI, alſo called lithoſpermum, milium Arundinaceum, reed millet, Job's tears. The ſeeds reſemble tears, whence one of the names above given to this plant, which hath the appearance of a reed. The ſeeds are ſaid to be lithontriptic, but they are not in much uſe. Raii Hiſt.

LACHRYMALIA OSSA, i. e. Oſſa unguis.

LACHRYMALIA PUNCTA. At a little diſtance from the internal angle of the eye, on the edge of the eye-lids, may be ſeen two ſmall holes, which are the orifices into the *lachrymal* channels and bag, and they are thus named.

LACHRYMALIS GLANDULA. The ancients called it glandula innominata. In the upper part of the ſocket, a little above the external angle of the eye, is a depreſſion, which receives the ſuperior part of the glandula lachrymalis. This gland is white, oblong, and of the conglomerate kind, compoſed of ſeveral ſmall lobes, each of which ſends out its excretory duct; it is ſituated behind the tunica conjunctiva of the upper eye-lid, near the outer canthus; the ducts pierce obliquely the tunica conjunctiva of the upper-lid near the outer canthus, perforate the internal membrane of the ſame eye-lid, and open on the inſide of the tunica conjunctiva, near the ſuperior part of the tarſus. Theſe ducts were firſt diſcovered in the quadruped; they are very ſmall in the human ſubject. Dr. Hunter demonſtrated them in the firſt courſe of lectures which he publicly gave. The uſe of theſe glands is to ſecrete a fluid for keeping the eye continually moiſt, and for waſhing away ſuch foreign bodies as may accidentally be lodged there.

LACHRYMALIS NERVUS. The fifth pair of nerves from the head, divided into branches, the firſt of which is called the orbitary branch; and this is ſubdivided into three more, the third of which is called the *lachrymal* branch; it goes chiefly to the *lachrymal* gland.

LACINIÆ. In botany it ſignifies the inciſores, or jags, on the borders of leaves or flowers; hence they are ſaid to be laciniated.

LACONICUM. A ſtove, bagnio, or ſweating-room.

LACTARIA. Aliments prepared of milk. The ſame as lacticinia.

LACTATIO. Lactation, or giving ſuck. The mother's breaſt, if poſſible, ſhould be allowed the child, at leaſt during the firſt month, for thus the child is more peculiarly benefited by what it ſucks, and the mother is preſerved from more real inconveniences than the falſely delicate imagine they would ſuffer by compliance herewith; but if by reaſon of an infirm conſtitution, or other cauſes, the mother cannot ſuckle her child, let dry nurſing under the mother's eye be purſued.

When women loſe their appetite by giving ſuck, both the children and themſelves are thereby injured; wet nurſes are to be preferred, who during the time they give the breaſt, have rather an increaſed appetite, and digeſt more quickly; the former are apt to waſte away, and ſometimes die conſumptive. In ſhort, thoſe nurſes with whom *lactation* may for a while agree, ſhould wean the child as ſoon as their appetite leſſens, their ſtrength ſeems to fail, or a tendency to hyſteric ſymptoms are manifeſt.

When the new-born child is to be brought up by the mother's breaſt, apply it in ten or twelve hours after delivery thereto; thus the milk is ſooner and more eaſily ſupplied, and there is leſs hazard of a fever, than when the child is not put to it before the milk begins to flow of itſelf.

If the mother does not ſuckle her child, her breaſts ſhould be kept warm with flannels, or with a hare-ſkin, that a conſtant perſpiration may be ſupported; thus there rarely will ariſe much inconvenience from the milk.

The child, notwithſtanding all our care in dry nurſing, ſometimes pines if a breaſt is not allowed. In this caſe, a wet nurſe ſhould be provided, if poſſible one that hath not been long delivered of a child. She ſhould be young, of a healthy habit, and an active diſpoſition, a mild temper, and whoſe breaſts are well filled with milk. If the milk is good, it is ſweetiſh to the taſte, and totally free from ſaltneſs; to the eye it appears thin, and of a bluiſh caſt; that the woman hath her menſes, if in other reſpects objections are not made, this need not be any; and as to the cuſtom with many, of abſtaining from venery while they continue to ſuckle a child, it is ſo far without reaſon to ſupport it, that the truth is, a rigorous chaſtity is as hurtful, and often more pernicious, than an immoderate uſe of venery. Amongſt the vulgar errors, is that of red-haired women being improper for wet nurſes.

If the menſes do not appear during the firſt months, but after ſix or eight months ſuckling they begin to deſcend, the child ſhould be weaned.

Wet nurſes ſhould eat, at leaſt, one hearty meal of animal food every day; with this, a proper quantity of vegetables ſhould be mixed. Thin broth, or milk, are proper for their breakfaſts and their ſuppers; and if the ſtrength ſhould ſeem to fail a little, a draught of good ale ſhould now and then be allowed; but ſpirituous liquors, muſt, in general, be foreborn, not but a ſpoonful of rum may be allowed in a quart of milk and water, i. e. (a pint of each) which is a proper common drink.

Though it is well obſerved by Dr. Hunter, that the far greater number of thoſe women who have cancers in the breaſt or womb, are old maids, and thoſe who refuſe to give ſuck to their children; yet it is the unhappineſs of ſome willing mothers not to be able, for inſtance, thoſe with tender conſtitutions, and that are ſubject to nervous diſorders; thoſe who do not eat a ſufficient quantity of ſolid food, nor enjoy the benefit of exerciſe and air: if children are kept at their breaſts, they either die whilſt young, or are weak and ſickly after childhood is paſt, and ſo on through remaining life.

LACTEA. The milk fever. This frequently happens after delivery. It is the cuſtom of many, not to apply the child to its mother's breaſts before the milk flows freely of itſelf; thus by the third or fourth day after delivery, a fever is brought on, with a train of other ill effects. The *milk fever* rarely happens to any but thoſe who have deferred the letting the child ſuck for two or three days after delivery; then the breaſt is ſo full that it cannot eaſily be emptied, conſequently, it becomes inflamed, and the evacuation that way being ſuppreſſed, a fever is excited. Where there is a ſecretion of milk, its due diſcharge is as neceſſary as that of the lochia; the ſtoppage of either produces the ſame complaint, viz. the *milk fever*, by occaſioning a plethora. Other imprudencies may give riſe to this diſorder, or accidents that were not ſo eaſy to avoid may be the preceding cauſes.

The more immediate cauſes are a diſtention of the nerves in the breaſts, which is readily diſtinguiſhed by the ſwelling of the glands; and an abſorption of milk, which hath become acrid by ſtagnating in the breaſt, and is known by a rigor and looſeneſs coming on after the breaſts have been inflamed and painful.

The uſual ſymptoms are pain and diſtention in the breaſts. Theſe extend often to the arm-pits, where the pain is very conſiderable. Sometimes the breaſts become hard, hot, and inflamed; then thirſt, head-ach, and fever ſoon follow.

If the diſorder is not violent, it continues a day or two, and then ſpontaneouſly vaniſhes by a copious perſpiration.

If the patient is ſanguine and robuſt, blood may be taken from the arm; but as this is rarely required, ſome caution ſhould attend its uſe. Apply the child to the breaſts, and linen cloths dipped in freſh cool drawn linſeed oil muſt be laid over them; the bowels ſhould be emptied by means of a clyſter, or a gentle cooling purge may be given. Theſe, with the ſaline mixture, and the uſual modes of adminiſtering antimonial preparations, rarely fail to carry off the diſeaſe.

A thin, cooling diet, conſiſting chiefly of panada, barley-water, and ſuch like, ſhould be uſed, until the violence of the ſymptoms are removed.

If the breaſts ſhould ſuppurate, proceed as in an Abſcess of the Breast, which ſee. See alſo Kirkland on Child-bed Fevers.

LACTEA VASA. The lacteal veſſels. They ariſe by imperceptible beginnings from the inteſtines, and ramify upon them as the arteries; they run through the meſentery in long ſolitary trunks, and in their way to the receptaculum chyli they run through the lymphatic glands at the root of the meſentery; they unite with each other, and with the lymphatics about the laſt dorſal, or firſt and ſecond lumbar vertebræ, to form the receptaculum chyli (which by and by becomes ſmaller than many of its branches); it lies upon the right ſide and behind the aorta; it climbs up between the aorta and the vena azygos behind the œſophagus, and here is called the thoracic duct; when it arrives at the curvature of the aorta it paſſes to the left ſide, lies cloſe to the pleura, comes upon the ſide of the vertebræ colli, and terminates in the angle between the internal jugular and the left ſubclavian vein. The *lacteals* are furniſhed with many valves, and ſo is the thoracic duct; ſo that every lateral preſſure will force up the chyle, as that by inſpiration and the pulſation of the aorta.

Any compreſſion upon the thoracic duct will occaſion an atrophy and death.

The *lacteals* are the abſorbents of the bowels, beginning in their inner ſurface; the ſame kind of veſſels are called abſorbents, or lymphatics, in other parts of the body, and take their riſe from the ſurfaces of the reſpective parts; ſo that the *lacteals*, lymphatics, and abſorbents, are all the ſame kind of veſſels. Dr. Hunter ſays that the *lacteals* and lymphatics are the ſame veſſels, only differing in their ſituation; and they both terminate in the ſame duct.

The vaſa chylifera are alſo called venæ lacteæ, becauſe their valves are diſpoſed as thoſe of the blood veins are, and becauſe like them they convey their contents from ſmaller to larger tubes.

Dr. Harvey diſcovered the lymphatics in the year 1616. In 1627 they were publiſhed by another author. Aſelius and Pecquet diſcovered the receptacle of the chyle and the thoracic duct. Pecquet demonſtrated them at Paris in

in the year 1651 and 1652. Uzzalius diſcovered the *lacteals* in a dog, running to the meſenteric glands; this was in the year 1662. See Winſlow's Anatomy, and Monro's deſcription of the receptacles of the chyle and the thoracic duct, at the end of his Oſteology.

LACTICA. The Arabian name for that ſpecies of fever which the Greeks call typhos or typhodes.

LACTICINIA. Aliments prepared of milk.

LACTIFERA DUCTUS. The glandular body of the breaſt contains a white maſs, which is merely a collection of membranous ducts; they are narrow at their origin, broad in the middle, and contract again as they approach the papillæ, near which they form a kind of circle of communication. Theſe are *lactiferous ducts*.

LACTIFERI TUBULI, i. e. Lactiferi ductus.

LACTIFERUS. Lactiferous plants are thoſe which abound with a milky juice.

LACTUCA. Lettuce. It is a plant with ſlender but firm ſtalks, which yield, as do the leaves, a milky juice on being wounded. The flower conſiſts of a number of flat floſculi ſet in a ſmall ſcaly cup, followed by ſhort flat ſeeds, which are pointed at both ends, and winged with down.

LACTUCA HORTENSIS. Garden lettuce.

LACTUCA AGNINA, alſo called locuſta herba, valeriana campeſtris inodora major, valerianella arvenſis præcox humilis ſemine compreſſo, lamb's lettuce, and corn ſallad.

LACTUCA SYLVESTRIS, called alſo ſcariola, lactuca graveolens. Strong-ſcented lettuce.

LACTUCA MARINA, alſo called fucus lactucæ folio, lichen marinus, muſcus marinus, bryon marinum, intybacea. Oyſter green.

This laſt is a ſpecies of fucus of the ſame uſe as the alga; but of lettuces that are proper ſpecies, Boerhaave enumerates fifty-five different ones.

In general lettuces are emollient, refrigerating, ſaponaceous, reſolvent, diuretic, and laxative. They are better to be eaten raw than boiled. They are eaſily digeſted, but afford very little nouriſhment. Their milky juice inſpiſſated is a kind of opium; but as a medicine they are not celebrated.

LACTUCA. A name of ſeveral ſorts of chondrilla.

LACTUCELLA. Sow thiſtle.

LACTUCIMINA. Aphthæ.

LACTUMEN, i. e. Achor.

LACTUMINA. Little ulcers, or cruſty ſcabs in the ſkin, ſo called becauſe they chiefly happen to children at the breaſt.

LACUNÆ. Certain excretory ducts in the vagina are thus named, ſo are the glands, or their excretory ducts, in the urethra. They are any drain or furrow, from *lacus, a ſtanding-pool.*

LACUNE, i. e. Terra ſigillata.

LADA. Black pepper.

LADA CHILLI. Guinea pepper.

LADANUM, alſo called labdanum, ciſtus, ledon Cretenſe. The true ladaniferous ſhrub. Ciſtus Creticus, Linn. The gum labdanum is a reſinous juice which exudes upon the leaves of this ſhrub: it grows plentifully in Candy, Arabia, and other parts of the Archipelago. The juice is collected by ſlightly bruiſing the ſhrub, during the ſummer heats, with a kind of rake, which hath ſeveral leather thongs fixed to it inſtead of teeth; the unctuous juice adheres to the thongs, and is afterwards ſcraped off with knives. The plant grows in ſandy places on the ſea-ſhore, which accounts for the quantity of ſand that is mixed with the gum.

There are two ſorts of gum labdanum. The beſt is in dark coloured black maſſes, of the conſiſtence of a plaſter, and grows ſtill ſofter on being handled; the other is in long rolls curled up. It is harder than the former, but of a paler colour.

In general, this gum agrees in virtues with the balſam of Peru, but is rarely uſed otherwiſe than in external applications, and amongſt perfumes. It hath an agreeable ſmell, and a light, pungent, bitteriſh taſte; rectified ſpirit of wine diſſolves nearly the whole of the pure gum; water takes up by infuſion much of its ſmell and taſte. By diſtillation with water, an eſſential oil ariſes, leaving behind it a brittle reſin.

Heat ſoon and eaſily deſtroys the ſpecific flavour of this gum. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

LÆDANTIA. See JUVANTIA.

LÆMOS. The gullet or throat. A Greek primitive.

LAGAROS. An epithet for the right ventricle of the heart.

LAGOCHEILOS, from λαγος, *a hare*, and χειλος, *a lip*. A perſon with a hare's lip.

LAGON. The flank.

LAGOPHTHALMIA. See ECTROPIUM.

LAGOPHTHALMUS, from λαγος, *a hare*, and οφθαλμος, *an eye*.

LAGOPODIUM. The herb hare's-foot.

LAGOPUS. Hare-footed.

LAGOPUS, called alſo pes leporinus, trifolium arvenſe humile ſpicatum, lagopodium, hare's-foot, or hare's-foot trefoil, herb Trinity, or Trinity-graſs. Boerhaave reckons it a ſpecies of trifolium. It is a low ſpreading plant, with narrow hairy leaves; the flowers are of a purple colour; the root periſhes in winter. It grows amongſt corn, and in fallow fields; it flowers in June and July. The whole plant is reckoned aſtringent; but is rarely uſed.

LAGOPUS. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of trifolium.

LAGOSTOMA. The hare-lip.

LALO. It is the bark of the tree called baobab. It is mucilaginous, and powerfully promotes perſpiration.

LAMAC. Gum Arabic.

LAMBDACISMUS. A defect in ſpeech, which conſiſts in an inability to pronounce certain conſonants.

LAMBDOIDES. The name of the future which runs betwixt the occipitis and oſſa parietaliæ. It is ſo called from its reſemblance to the Greek letter Λ, lambda. It is alſo a name of the os hyoides.

LAMES PERSPIRABILES. So the antients called the cellular membrane.

LAMINA CRIBROSA. The cribriform lamella. It is the horizontal plate of the os ethmoides, through which the olfactory nerves paſs.

LAMINÆ SPONGIOSÆ INFERIORES, i. e. Conchæ narium inferiores.

LAMIUM. Dead nettle. Boerhaave mentions ſeventeen ſpecies.

LAMIUM ALBUM, Linn. Alſo called urtica mortua, Archangelica flore albo, urtica alba, urtica iners. White Archangel, or dead nettle.

LAMIUM RUBRUM, alſo called lamium purpureum fœtidum, galeopſis. Red Archangel, or ſmall dead nettle.

LAMIUM MACULATUM, called alſo galeopſis lutea, milzadella, urtica lactea. Spotted Archangel.

LAMIUM LUTEUM, called alſo galeopſis, leucas montana, galeobdulon. Yellow Archangel.

Theſe plants are well known every where; infuſions of them are commended as almoſt ſpecific in the fluor albus, but experience hath not manifeſted any great uſefulneſs from them.

LAMIUM. The name of a ſpecies of baum, of a ſpecies of marrubiaſtrum, of ſeveral ſpecies of galeopſis, and of the caſſida.

LAMPSANA, alſo called papillaris herba, napium, dog-creſſes, nipple-wort. It is a roughiſh plant, bearing ſmall yellow floſculous flowers. It is annual, grows wild in fields, and by the ſides of the roads. It is one of the bitter lacteſcent plants, nearly ſimilar in virtues to dandelion, endive, and others of the ſame claſs. It hath been applied to ulcerations on the nipples, whence the names papillaris, and nipple-wort.

The preſent practice does not notice it.

LAMPSANA. A name of rapiſtrum.

LANA. Wool. Burnt wool is eſcharotic.

LANA SUCCIDA. Sordid wool, or that which is greaſy with the ſweat of the ſheep.

LANARIA. A name of the lychnis ſylveſtris, of the ſaponaria vulgo, and verbaſcum.

LANGUOR. Debility of ſpirits.

LANGUOR PANNONICUS, i. e. Morbus Hungaricus.

LANIGERUS. Lanigerous trees are ſuch as bear a woolly or downy ſubſtance, as is commonly contained in the catkins of the willow.

LANTANA, i. e. Viburnum.

LANUGINOSUS, Lanuginous, or downy, as the quince, &c.

LANUGO. Down. The ſeeds of plants which have a downy ſubſtance faſtened to them, which ſerves as wings to tranſport them, are termed *lanuginous*. They are alſo called pappous. See CHNUS.

LAONICA CURATIO. A method of curing the gout by evaporating the morbid matter by topics.

LAPARA, the flanks, from λαπαζω, *to empty*, becauſe this part falls in as if empty.

LAPAROCELE. A rupture through the ſide of the belly.

LAPATHUM. Dock. It is a perennial plant, of which Boerhaave enumerates eighteen ſpecies.

LAPATHUM ACUTUM; alſo called rumex; oxylapaphum; ſharp-pointed dock. It is the rumex acutus, Linn. Docks are ſo generally known as to render a deſcription needleſs. This ſpecies, whoſe leaves are ſharper pointed than the common ſort, hath a bitter aſtringent taſte, but no remarkable ſmell: the roots of the other common wild docks are nearly of the ſame quality, equally diſcover their aſtringent matter both by the taſte, and by ſtriking an inky blackneſs with a ſolution of vitriol, but of the two the ſharp-pointed is to be preferred. The roots of both have a laxative as well as a corroborant quality; but the former quality is poſſeſſed in a very ſmall degree. Water takes up all their virtue; and in ſpring they are uſed with moſt advantage.

LAPATHUM VULGARE; broad leaved wild dock, or common dock. The leaves are very large, roundiſh at the points, and are ſouriſh to the taſte. The root is bitter, aſtringent, and of a pale or yellowiſh colour. In France the root is in common uſe, and that for moſt of the ſame purpoſes as the great water dock. The largeſt grow in moiſt grounds, the ſmalleſt and moſt aſtringent in dry.

LAPATHUM AQUATICUM; called alſo hydrolapathum; herba Britannica; lapathum paluſtre; great water dock. Hydrolapathum directed in the Materia Medica of the Edinb. College, is the rumex aquaticus, or rumex aquaticus, fol. cordatis acutis, floribus hermaphroditis, valvulis integerrimis nudis, Linn. But Dr. Broughton, in his Enchiridion Botanicum, deſcribes the rumex hydrolapathum thus:—Rumex floribus hermaphroditis; valvulis integris graniferis, foliis lanceolatis acutis. Hudſ. 154. Mr. Curtis, in his Catalogue of Medicinal, &c. Plants, in the London Botanic Garden, ſays, it is the rumex hydrolapathum, Linn. The leaves of this kind are from two to three feet long, and are laxative; the roots are blackiſh on the outſide, internally they are white, having a faint reddiſh tinge, which in drying changes in ſome parts to a yellowiſh or brown.

According to Muntingius, the name Britannicus is from a Teutonic word, which ſignifies a power to faſten looſe teeth.

This ſpecies of dock is found in moſt parts of England by river ſides.

It is a powerful antiſcorbutic if freely taken internally; and a ſtrong decoction of it puts a ſtop to eating ulcers in the mouth and tonſils, cures ſpongy gums, &c. Boerhaave extols it from his own experience, as uſeful in ſcorbutic, rheumatic, and cutaneous diſorders, alſo in diſorders from obſtructed viſcera. From the experience of others it is evidently uſeful in flatulent diſorders, and a good aſſiſtant to the ſtomach in its office of digeſting.

If the root is dried and powdered, it is a powerful antiſeptic, and in general is a good ſubſtitute for the bark; it is uſeful in many nervous diſorders: but where the powder is unacceptable, the following decoction may be uſed:

℞ Cort. e. rad. hydrolap. ℔ ſs. coq. lenit. in aq. pluvialis ℔ vi. ad ℔ iv. & cola. cap. ℔ ſs. tepid. 4°. in die

The bark of the root contains the greateſt proportion of the active parts; but the whole plant may be uſed, as it all contains the ſame medical virtues with the root. See Med. Muſ. vol i page 46, &c.

LAPATHUM RUBRUM; alſo called lapathum ſanguineum, ſanguis draconis herba, blood wort.

The leaves are recommended as laxative, and the ſeeds for reſtraining uterine fluxes.

LAPATHUM HORTENSE, called alſo rhabarbarum monachorum, patientia, hippolapathum, monks rhubarb. The ſtalk of this dock is red, and branched towards the top; the root is thick at the head, but ſoon divides into ſeveral branches of a brown colour outwardly, and a deep yellow within. The virtues of the root are ſimilar to thoſe of the root of rhubarb, only differing in being leſs purgative and more aſtringent.

LAPATHUM ALPINUM, alſo called hippolapathum rotundifolium, lapathum montanum, baſtard monks rhubarb.

The leaves are very broad like thoſe of burdock; the root is brown outwardly, and intenſely red within. This and the true ſpecies may be uſed indifferently.

LAPATHUM. A name of a ſpecies of pond weed, of ſeveral kinds of ſorrel, of rhubarb, the herb mercury, and a kind of ſpinage.

LAPIDILLUM, or Lapidillus. The name of a kind of ſpoon, formerly uſed to take out ſmall ſtones and fragments from the bladder.

LAPILLI, i. e. Oculi cancrorum.

LAPIS. Stone. The chemiſt conſiders ſtones and earth as earth; the foſſiliſt divides them into two claſſes. With the foſſiliſt, the characters of ſtone are, that they are foſſil bodies, whoſe component parts do not imbibe water; which neither fall down into a looſe maſs, nor, when rubbed gently between the fingers, are diviſible, after they have been ſoaked a ſufficient time in water; without inflammability; containing no metal, at leaſt no further quantity than barely tinges them; and without a ſaline taſte, and ſolubility in water. Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy. According to the chemiſt, ſtone is formed by a mixture of an acid with earth, which is hardened by ſubterranean heat, or petrified by cold. From the different proportions of earth ariſes different kinds of ſtones; the different kinds of earth diſſolved by the acid affords another variety. A ſolution of ſome metallic matter uſually gives the colours. Stahl divides all ſtones into calcareous and vitreſcible, but this arrangement is very exceptionable. All that hitherto have been examined, conſiſt of cryſtalline, calcareous, argillaceous, talky, or gypſeous earths; they are rarely any of theſe pure, but mixed in different proportions with other mineral ſubſtances. See Newmann's Chem. Works; Bomare's Dict. of Nat. Hiſt.

LAPIS. A name annexed to many chemical preparations, as the lapis infernalis, lapis prunellæ, &c.

LAPPA, i. e. Bardana.

LAPPAGO, i. e. Hippophæs; and, according to Blancard, it is aparine.

LAPPULA. A name of ſome ſpecies of parſley.

LAPPULA CANARIA. A name for ſome ſpecies of caucalis.

LAPPULA RUSTICORUM, i. e. Cynogloſſum minus.

LAQUEUS. In ſurgery it is a nooſe, and belongs to either bandages or inſtruments.

LAQUEUS GUTTURIS. A malignant inflammation of the tonſils.

LARBASON. Antimony.

LARDUM. Bacon. It is a properfood for thoſe who uſe ſtrong exerciſe.

LARIX. The larch tree. The leaves are long and narrow, produced out of little tubercles, but fall off in winter; the cones are ſmall and oblong; the branches are regular as thoſe of the fir-tree. This tree is very common on the Alps, and ſeveral parts of Germany, and from it is produced the Venice turpentine. Raii Hiſt.

LARIX. A name for ſeveral ſpecies of cedar.

LARVA. A maſk. When the face is burnt with gunpowder, &c. the application is a linen maſk, with holes for the eyes, noſe, and mouth; this maſk is moiſtened with proper remedies, and applied to the face; it is tied behind with ſix tapes.

LARYNGÆÆ ARTERIÆ ET VENÆ. See GUTTURALIS SUPERIOR.

LARYNGOTOMIA, from λαρυγξ, *the throat*, and τεμνω, *to cut*, i. e. Tracheotomia.

LARYNX. The larynx hath five cartilages; it forms the upper part of the wind-pipe. The firſt of the cartilages is the thyroid; it is placed juſt under the baſis of the os hyoides; it is of a quadrangular figure, and ſtands in the anterior part of the neck, where the pomum Adami is ſeen; the lateral portion runs back, and ends in two proceſſes, one of which runs up, the other down, and are connected by the os hyoides. The ſecond is the cricoid cartilage; it ſtands beneath the preceding, it is of an annular figure; the back part ſtands between the two proceſſes of the thyroid, to which it is articulated. The two arytænoid cartilages are joined to the poſterior and ſuperior parts of the cricoid, by peculiar articulations, that the glottis may be the more readily opened and contracted; each of theſe have a protuberance for the inſertion of the muſcles, which protuberance ſtands over the cricoid, and each have a proceſs, where the ligament of the epiglottis is fixed; they are ſmall at their baſe, and large at their upper part. The fifth is the epiglottis, which ſee.

LASCIVUS. So Paracelſus calls the chorea ſancti viti.

LASER. Aſafœtida, or the plant from which it flows.

LASERPITIUM VULGATIUS; called alſo gentiana alba, Libanotis, Thapſia, ſeſeli Æthiopicum, cervaria nigra, the leſſer herb frankincenſe. Laſſerwort.

It is a plant which is found in great plenty in Switzerland, and on the Pyrenean mountains; the root is recommended as alexipharmic and uterine, but it is not in uſe. Boerhaave enumerates ſixteen ſpecies.

LASERPITIUM is a name of the oreoſelinum, and of the ſylphium.

LASSITUDO. Muſcular debility.

LATA LIGAMENTA. The broad ligaments of the womb are properly only a duplicature of the peritonæum, reflecting from the loins to the uterus, and are long enough to admit it to hang down into the vagina.

LATER. A brick. Bricks are heated and applied to various parts of the body, or on cataplaſms, to continue their heat. And an oil is made by quenching hot bricks in olive oil, until all the oil is imbibed, and then diſtilling them in a retort until all the oil is drawn off; after which the ſpirit muſt be ſeparated. This oil is named of lateritium, vel philoſophorum.

LATERALES (LIGAM.) On the body of the os humeri there are two particular ligaments, which may be called lateral or intermuſcular; they are long, flat, thin, narrow, fixed on one edge along the two lower thirds of the bone, and reaching to both condyles. They are braced pretty tight, and are very narrow at the upper part, but broader toward the condyles, from whence they are expanded like a gooſe's foot, and form the brachio-cubital, and brachio radial ligaments.

LATERALES MUSC. So the maſeter muſcles are named.

LATERALES MUSC. NASI. See OBLIQUI NASI Musc.

LATERALES PROCESS. OSSIS SPHÆNOIDES. See SPHENOIDES Os.

LATERITIUM OL. See LATER.

LATHYRIS. See VICIA, CATAPUTIA, VANILLA, OCHRUS, CLYMENUM, HISPANICUM, and NISSOLIA.

LATISSIMUS, (ſo called becauſe it is latiſſimus, i. e. the broadeſt,) DORSI. This muſcle riſes from the facia lumborum at its lower part; higher from the ſixth, ſeventh, or eighth vertebræ. At its anterior part it riſes from the ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth ribs; its fibres run round the poſterior and inferior angle of the ſcapula, and its tendon is inſerted into the poſterior ridge of the groove of the biceps. Its office is to pull the arm backwards and cloſe to the body.

LAUCANIA. The throat, or the œſophagus.

LAUDANUM, from *laus praiſe*. The name implies that the medicines is worthy of praiſe; it is generally confined to preparations of opium.

LAUREOLA MAS, alſo called chamædaphne, thymelæa laurifolio ſempervirens, daphnodies, ſpurge laurel. It is the daphne laureola, Linn. It is a ſmall ſhrub, its leaves reſemble thoſe of the laurel, but are leſſer; the flowers conſiſt of one leaf which is greeniſh. The leaves, berries, and bark, are acrid and hot, burning and inflaming the mouth; if ſwallowed they vomit and purge. In March or April the flowers appear; in September the berries ripen. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

LAUREOLO FŒMINA, alſo called mezerion, meſerion, chamælæa, thymelæa laurifolio deciduo, mezereon, ſpurge olive, widow wail. Daphne mezereum, or daphne floribus purpureis ſeſſilibus ternis caulinis, fol. lanceolatis deciduis, Linn. It is a ſmall tree or buſh, with pale purpliſh or white flowers, which are followed by bay-ſhaped leaves. The flowers appear in January. In Auguſt or September the berries ripen.

A decoction of the cortical part of the roots is a powerful remedy in many venereal ſymptoms, eſpecially when aſſiſted by the merc. cor. A. This bark ſhould be gathered freſh as it is wanted. The beſt grows in a light ſoil. Boil an ounce of the freſh gathered bark from the roots of mezeron, in twelve pints of water to eight; at the end of the boiling an ounce of liquorice root may be added; of the ſtrained liquor half a pint may be drank four times a day. Dr. Ruſſel ſtrongly recommends the uſe of this decoction, particularly when nocturnal pains are violent in the venereal diſorder; alſo for waſhing thoſe nodes which proceed from a thickening of the membrane of the bones. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii. p. 189, &c.

LAURIFOLIA MAGELLANICA. See WINTERANUS CORTEX.

LAURINUM. The Flanders oil of bays. See DAPNELÆON.

LAURO-CERASUS, alſo called ceraſus folio laurino, ceraſus Trapezuntina, bay cherry, or the laurel cherry, or cherry bay. It is the prunus-lauro-ceraſus of Linn.

The root of this tree or ſhrub, is large, tough, and furniſhed with many fibres. The branches are woody, numerous, brown on the outſide, and white within. The leaves are large, fleſhy, oblong, ſhining, pointed at both ends, and ſlightly ſerrated at the edges: their upper ſurface is ſmooth, and of a beautiful dark green colour; the under ſide is rough, ſtrongly marked with fibres, and of a light green complexion. The flowers appear towards the ſuperior part of the branches; they are pentapetalous, in five-leaved cups. They are followed by cluſters of berries reſembling cherries, and containing an oblong ſtone within the pulp of the fruit. It flowers in May, and ripens its fruit in September.

The leaves have a bitter taſte, with a flavour reſembling that of bitter almonds, and the kernels of peaches and apricots: this flavour is communicated to water and to vinous ſpirits, either by infuſion or diſtillation. Theſe preparations are ſo extremely deleterious, and ſometimes ſo ſudden in their operation, as to occaſion inſtant death. Dr. Mead relates, that a few ſpoonfulls of laurel water killed a large dog whilſt it was paſſing down his throat, before it could be ſuppoſed to have reached the ſtomach. It is the moſt expeditious means of killing dogs and almoſt all kinds of animals; given by the mouth, or injected into the rectum, its operation is equally certain, and it acts the moment it touches the ſtomach, or is received into the inteſtines. It is ſpeedily mortal to ſmall animals, if applied to wounds of the muſcles. This poiſon is of that claſs which produces epileptic ſymptoms; it generally produces very ſtrong convulſions, and in a ſhort time death. The ſpaſmodic motions of the whole body are extremely violent on taking it. Two tea ſpoonfulls of laurel water were given to middle ſized rabbits; in half a minute they were convulſed, and in leſs than a minute they were dead. When it is given ſtrong, and in large quantities, they die almoſt inſtantly, and without convulſions, a ſudden and univerſal paralyſis coming on. Given in leſs quantities the convulſions are more or leſs ſtrong. On diſſection, after this poiſon has been taken, no uncommon appearances are obſerved in the ſtomach or inteſtines; the arteries are found empty, and the veins turgid with blood. The ſinuſes in the brain, and the veins in the pia mater are diſtended, but this ſeems to be occaſioned more by the convulſions, than by the particular properties of the poiſon. Dr. Rutty of Dublin relates, that a girl of eighteen years of age, very well and healthy, took a quantity leſs than two ſpoonfulls of the firſt runnings of the ſimple water of laurel leaves; and within half a minute after ſhe fell down, was convulſed, foamed at the mouth, and died in a ſhort time.

Although the poiſon of laurel appears to conſiſt in the eſſential oil which it affords in diſtillation, yet it is ſtrongly

ſtrongly ſuſpected that an infuſion of the leaves are alſo injurious.

It hath been generally obſerved, that if the animals that had ſwallowed this poiſon, vomited it up readily, they generally recovered: but its action ſeems too ſpeedy to hope for relief by any means if ſwallowed by mankind. See VENENUM. See Wilmer on Poiſonous Vegetables.

LAURUS ALEXANDRINA, alſo called ruſcus latifolius, laurel of Alexandria.

LAURUS VULGARIS. Common laurel, or bay tree. The laurus nobilis, or the laurus foliis lanceolatis venoſis perennantibus, floribus quadrifidis, Linn.

The bay tree is generally well known; it is an evergreen, with oblong, ſtiff, ſmooth leaves; the flowers are of a paliſh yellow colour, and are followed by oblong dry berries, containing, under a thin black ſkin, an horny ſhell, within which are lodged two dark browniſh ſeeds joined together. It is a native of the ſouth of Europe, and common in our gardens. The flowers appear in April or May, the berries ripen in September. The berries which are uſed in the ſhops are generally brought from up the ſtreights, and are the fruit of the laurus Alexandrina.

The leaves have a light agreeable ſmell, and a weak aromatic rough taſte. In diſtillation with water they yield a ſmall quantity of a very fragrant eſſential oil; with rectified ſpirit they afford a moderately warm pungent extract. The berries are ſtronger than the leaves, and yield more eſſental oil; on preſſure they yield an inſipid oil that is fluid, and on boiling they afford a thicker oil, of a yellowiſh green colour. See DAPHNELÆON.

The leaves and the berries are ſtomachic, carminative, and uterine; in theſe intentions an infuſion may be drank as tea, and the eſſential oil of the berries is given from one to five drops. But the principal uſe of any part of this ſhrub, is of the berries, and thoſe are chiefly employed externally.

The London College directs an electuary, in which theſe berries are an ingredient, and it is named from them electarium e baccis lauri. It is uſed in flatulent colics, and ſome hyſteric diſorders, to two drams for one doſe; but it is more frequently adminiſtered in glyſters. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

Laurus is a name for the camphor, cinnamon, and many other trees.

LAVACRA. Waſhes. Such as are uſed to improve the ſkin.

LAVANDULA, from *lavando*, *waſhing*, becauſe it was uſed in baths on account of its fragrancy. Lavender.

LAVANDULA LATIFOLIA, called alſo nardus Italica, ſpica mas, pſeudonardus, common broad-leaved lavender, or ſpike lavender. Lavandula ſpica, or lavandula foliis lanceolatis integerrimis, ſpicis nudis, Linn.

Lavender is a ſhrubby plant, with its leaves ſet in pairs, the ſtalks ſquare whilſt young, and round when grown old; on the tops of the branches are naked ſpikes of bluiſh flowers, and ſometimes of white. The common broad-leaved ſort hath by much the larger ſpike, though the flowers are leſs. The name of ſpica, ſpike, is given to lavender, becauſe of all the verticilated plants, this alone bears a ſpike. Some writers give the name of ſpike to the broad-leaved, and others to the narrow-leaved ſpecies. The broad-leaved is common in the ſouthern parts of Europe; it is ſtronger both in ſmell and taſte than the narrow-leaved; by diſtillation it yields near thrice the quantity of eſſential oil, which is both heavier and hotter than that from the other kind, but the flavour is not ſo grateful. The water and ſpirituous extracts made from each ſort are very nearly alike.

In the ſouth of France, where both ſorts grow wild, the broad-leaved is only uſed for obtaining the oil called oil of ſpike, and oil of aſpic, which, if genuine, is pale coloured, even limpid, though ſometimes it is yelloviſh. The flowers contain almoſt all the oil: they ſhould be macerated ſome days, and then diſtilled. This oil is adulterated with oil of turpentine, and with rectified ſpirit of wine; but if it is genuine it diſſolves ſandarac, and indeed is the beſt known ſolvent of amber.

LAVANDULA ANGUSTIFOLIA, called alſo ſpica fœmina, ſpica vulgaris, pſeudo-nardus, lavandula minor, common lavender, ſpike or narrow-leaved lavender. The leaves of this ſpecies are very narrow, and ſomewhat hoary; native in the ſouthern parts of Europe, but it grows in our gardens very vigorouſly. The flowers appear in June or July.

The flowers are very fragrant and agreeable to moſt people; they are bitteriſh, warm, and pungent to the taſte; they are ſometimes uſed as a mild ſtimulant and corroborant, in vertigos, palſies, tremors, and other debilities of the nervous ſyſtem, both internally and externally; and, in general, in all diſorders in which is a lax fibre.

The London College directs a conſerve of theſe flowers; they bear bruiſing better than any other of the odoriferous kind, but ſtill they are much diminiſhed in their virtue by it. The conſerve is uſed as a cordial.

Water extracts by infuſion, near all the virtue both of the flowers and leaves; but the flowers are ſo far preferable to the leaves, that the latter are not much uſed. Lavender flowers afford the moſt oil when ready to fall off ſpontaneouſly, and the ſeeds begin to ſhew themſelves.

The eſſential oil when freſh, and from flowers that were in perfection, is of a pale yellow colour, of a pungent taſte, very fragrant, poſſeſſing, in an eminent degree, the peculiar ſmell which is admired in the flowers.

The flowers may be ſeparated from the plant by drying them a little, and then gently beating them; they ſhould then be immediately committed to the ſtill, and the proceſs conducted with a well regulated gentle heat. This oil is given internally as a cordial, from one drop to five. It is alſo uſed as an internal ſtimulant in palſies, lethargies, and other debilities of the nervous ſyſtem. If ſoft paper is moiſtened with this oil, and applied to any part infeſted with cutaneous inſects, as the pediculi inguinales, &c. they will ſoon be deſtroyed.

Rectified ſpirit extracts the virtue from lavender moſt completely, and in diſtillation carries ſome of the odoriferous part over with it.

The London College directs a ſimple ſpirit, and a compound one, from theſe flowers. The compound ſpirit hath been called the Engliſh palſy drop, and the Engliſh drop. The doſe is from ten drops to a tea ſpoonful. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

LAVANDULA. A name for ſtœchas.

LAVENDULA, i. e. Lavandula.

LAVER. A name for the becabunga, ſium, &c.

LAVIPEDIUM. A bath for the feet.

LAXA CHIMOLEA. In Paracelſus it is a purging medicine, principally deſigned for the venereal diſeaſe. Johnſon ſays it is a ſalt which grows on ſtones, and is like the anatron, or uſnea lapidea.

LAXATOR MEMBRANA TYMPANI. This muſcle ariſes from the upper part of the bone, above the membrana tympani, runs inward, and is inſerted into the thick proceſs of the malleolus. Winſlow calls it the internal muſcle of the malleus.

LAXATOR EXTERNUS, or Externus Tympani Auris. It riſes in the upper ſinus of the auditory paſſage, and is inſerted in the membrana tympani with a ſlender tendon to the malleus, and draws the membrane upward and outward.

LAZARI MORBUS, or Malum. The elephantiaſis, or leproſy.

LAZULI LAPIS, alſo called lap. cœruleus, cyanus, cœruleum nativum, azure ſtone. It is a precious ſtone, of a deep blue colour inclining to violet, often variegated with gold or ſilver coloured points. Mr. Edwards, in his Elements of Foſſilogy, places it amongſt the cryptometallines, as a ſpecies of copper ſlos. It retains its colour in a moderately ſtrong fire, but in a very ſtrong one it melts into a duſky-coloured glaſs. It is found in gold mines, alſo in mines of ſilver and copper. The beſt are brought from Perſia and the Eaſt-Indies. Marggraff thinks that it is only a ſulphurous pyrite mixed with iron. That it contains iron is evident, from its affording yellow flowers when ſublimed with ſal ammoniac.

The ultramarine is produced from this ſtone. See Lewis's Mat. Med. and his note on this article in the Dict. of Chem.

LAZURIUM ARGENTI, or Lazurinus pulvis. It is the ſaffron of ſilver.

LECHENEON. A name for the torcular herophili.

LECTUALIS MORBUS. A diſeaſe which confines a patient to his bed.

LECTULI. Couches. In theſe chaff is mixed, with proper ingredients coarſely powdered, that their qualities may be abſorbed into the body whilſt the patient is laid on them.

LEDON. Labdanum.

LEDUM. A name of a ſpecies of roſemary, and ſeveral ſpecies of ciſtus.

LEGUMINOSA, i. e. Fabago.

LEGUMEN. Thoſe ſpecies of plants which are called pulſe, ſuch as peas, beans, &c. They are ſo called becauſe they may be gathered by the hand, without cutting. Ray reckons all thoſe plants to be leguminous, which have a papilionaceous flower.

LEIOPODES. Even footed. Thoſe are thus called the ſoles of whoſe feet are without the uſual hollow part. Or rather, as Vogel deſcribes it, when the middle of the inſide of the foot is not hollow but plane. It is called ſplay foot.

LEIPHÆMOI, from λειπω, *to be deficient*, and αιμα, *blood*. Thoſe are thus called who have too little blood.

LEIPODERMOS, from λειπω, *to be deficient*, and δερμα, *the ſkin*. A perſon is thus called who hath loſt his prepuce.

LEIPOPSYCHIA, from λειπω, *to leave*; and ψυχη, *the ſoul, or life*. A fainting fit; a languor, &c. It is ſynonymous with adynamiæ.

LEIPOTHYMIA, from λειπω, *to leave*, and θυμος, *the mind*. A fainting fit, a ſwooning.

LEIPYRIA, from λειπω, *to leave*, and πυρ, *heat or fire*. A dangerous ſpecies of ardent fever, wherein the internal parts are ſcorched with heat, whilſt the external parts are cold. It is a kind of tertian.

LEMNIA TERRA, alſo called terra ſigillata, earth of Lemnos. This, if genuine, may be conſidered as ſimilar to the Armenian bole, but, like it, is hardly ever met with, being ſubſtituted by mixtures of inferior earths and proper colouring matters. Four ſorts are ſpoken of, viz. a white, yellow, red, and a yellowiſh brown; this laſt is the beſt. There is a ſpecies of bole that is of a red colour, which by ſome foſſilogiſts is called Lemnian bole.

LEMPNIAS, i. e. Terra ſigillata.

LEMPNIAS CALCIS. Scales of braſs, which ſeparate when beat with a hammer.

LENOS. In Hippocrates it ſignifies a channel or excavation, made in ſome machines for making extenſion, and reducing fractured bones. Herophilus gave this name to what is called torcular Herophili.

LENS. The lentil. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies; they are ſhaped like tares, but are leſs; they are a flatulent ſort of food, and not eaſily digeſted. It is the ervum lens of Linnæus, that was formerly uſed as a medicine.

LENS. A name of the lenticula.

LENTA FEBRIS. A ſlow fever. See HECTICA, and SYNOCHUS.

LENTIBULARIA, called alſo millefolium. Ray and Tournefort mention two ſpecies.

LENTICULA. A freckle or ſmall puſtule on the face or breaſt. See EPHELIS. It is a name for lentils.

LENTICULA. Duck meat. It grows on the ſurface of water that is not ſubjected to much agitation. Its appearance is ſimple and foliaceous; its roots are ſlender, capillaceous, and pellucid. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies.

LENTICULA PALUSTRIS, called alſo lens paluſtris, lens aquatica, lenticularia minor, and duck meat. It is cooling if uſed as an external application.

LENTICULA PALUSTRIS MAJOR.

LENTICULA AQUATICA TRISULCA, alſo called hederula aquatica. Theſe are of qualities ſimilar to the former.

LENTICULARE. A lenticular. It is alſo called a rugine.

LENTICULARE OS. A name of the fourth bone in the firſt row in the wriſt. It is alſo called orbiculare, and piſiforme.

The os lenticulare, or obiculare in the ear, Dr. Hunter thinks is part of the incus, as its extremity ſtands upon a narrow neck, and is ſoon broken off, and in the adult is one continued bone with the incus.

LENTICULARES (GLANDULÆ.) They are the ſmall glands of the inteſtines; and are ſo called on account of their ſize.

LENTICULARIS FEBRIS. A ſpecies of fever, with many irruptions about the ſize of lentils. See PETECHILAIS FEBRIS.

LENTIGO. A freckle.

LENTISCUS. The lentiſk or maſtich tree. Piſtachia lentiſcus, or piſtachia foliis abrupte pinnatis, foliolis lanceolatis, Linn. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies of it. It is an evergreen, with ſoft branches hanging downwards, and ſmall ſtiff leaves pointed at both ends. Some trees produce reddiſh flowers, others produce blackiſh berries with white kernels. Theſe trees are native in the ſouthern parts of Europe, but bear the uſual winters in our clime. In Turkey, and ſome other places, plantations are made for the ſake of the reſinous gum which we have under the name of maſtich. It is obtained from inciſions made in the trunks; it flows in drops in Auguſt. This reſin is brought to us chiefly from Aleppo and Smyrna. The wood is ſometimes brought from Marſeilles, in thick knotty pieces, covered with a browniſh bark; it is internally of a whitiſh or a pale yellowiſh colour.

The wood is mildly balſamic and reſtringent; the ſmall tough ſprigs are ſtronger than the larger pieces, and the bark is more than either, but none of them are ſo much value in medicine; yet a decoction of the wood hath obtained the name of aurum potabile. The reſin, uſually called gum maſtich, by means of gum arabic, is diſſolved and rendered miſcible with water; it poſſeſſes the ſame virtues with turpentine in general; but as a maſticatory it is to be preferred. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Newman's Chem. Works.

LENTOR. A viſcidity or fizyneſs. When this is the ſtate of the animal fluids, the body is variouſly diſordered.

LEO. The lion. It is a name for ſeveral preparations of the ſpagiriſts, of the leproſy, &c.

LEO FEROX. A ſpecies of fiſh-thiſtle, mentioned by Ray.

LEONINA LEPRA, or Leontiaſis, or Leontion. A variety of the elephantiaſis.

LEONIS OSSICULUM, i. e. Aquilegia.

LEONTODON. The dandelion.

LEONTOPETALO, and LEONTOPETALON. Names of the red and of the black turnip.

LEONTOPODIUM, alſo called filago Alpina, leontopodium majus, gnaphalium Alpinum, lion's foot. It grows on hills, and flowers in July. The bruiſed roots are famed for removing the blackneſs of bruiſes in the ſkin.

LEONURUS. Lion's tail. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies of this plant; but it is not noted for any medical virtue.

LEPIDIUM, alſo called piperitis, iberis, raphanus ſylv. poor man's pepper, pepper-wort, dittander. It is the lepidium latifolium, Linn. It is a plant with undivided leaves, ſmall white flowers on the tops of the ſtalks, which are followed by heart-ſhaped pods. It is perennial, grows wild on the ſides of rivers, and ſhady places; it flowers in June and July. The whole plant is hot like pepper.

LEPIDIUM GRAMINEO FOLIO, alſo called Iberius, cardamantica, agriocardamum, ſciatica creſſes. It is the lepidium iberis, Linn. This ſpecies hath long narrow leaves; the lower are on long pedicles and ſerrated; the upper are entire, and without pedicles. It is annual, and raiſed in our gardens for culinary uſe.

Theſe plants, when freſh gathered, have a quick, penetrating, pungent taſte, which is almoſt diſſipated in drying; it is retained in the expreſſed juice, extracted by water and by ſpirit, and riſes with both of them in diſtillation. In external applications they have been uſed againſt the ſciatica, whence their name ſciatica creſſes. Internally they have the ſame effects as the cochlearia and naſturtium.

LEPIDIUM. A name for the plumbago and draba.

LEPIDOCARPODENDRON, from λεπις, *ſcale*, καρ-

πος, *fruit*, and δενδρον, *a tree*. Boerhaave takes notice of twelve ſpecies of this tree; but their medicinal powers are not remarkable.

LEPIDOIDES SUTURA, from λεπις, *a ſcale*, and ειδος, *likeneſs*. The ſquamous ſuture of the ſkull.

LEPIDOSARCOMA. So M. A. Severinus calls a tumour of the mouth, which is ſarcomatous, and full of irregular ſcales, from λεπις, *a ſcale*, and σαρξ, *fleſh*.

LEPORINA-LABRA. Hare lips.

LEPORINUM ROSTRUM. The piece of fleſh which often is ſeen betwixt the diviſions of the hare-lip.

LEPRA, from λεπρος, *rough*, and that from λεπις, *a ſcale*. The leproſy. Among the various diſorders which ariſe from an impure ſerum, and manifeſt themſelves in the ſkin and ſubjacent integuments, are thoſe which come under the names of itch, herpes, and leproſy; of the latter there are different ſpecies on record, ſome of which are no where known to exiſt this day; and the reſt are but obſcurely underſtood. See ALPHUS.

The *leproſy*, of whatever kind, is a chronical diſorder; in warm climes is very infectious, though not evidently ſo in cold countries. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs cachexia, and order impetigines. One ſpecies only is known. Sauvage notes ſix varieties, the chief of which obſerved with us are the *lepra* Græcorum, and the *lepra* ichthyoſis.

Fat people are obſerved to be more grievouſly afflicted with ſkin diſeaſes, when they are the ſubjects of them, than the lean; alſo more ſubject to relapſes after being cured.

The remote cauſes are, whatever diminiſheth the vital heat, and reduces the general ſtrength of the body. The immediate cauſe is, a faulty ſerum; this ſtagnates in the integuments and ſkin, producing inflammation, exulceration, eruptions, &c. there.

The *leproſy* of the Arabians (which ſeems to be the ſame with that of the Greeks) is well deſcribed by Aetius as follows: "it is almoſt unknown in Italy (i. e. the *lepra* Arabum) but very frequent in ſome countries, is the diſeaſe which the Greeks term ελεφαντιασις, and which is reckoned amongſt the chronical diſorders. By it the whole body is ſo diſordered that the bones are ſaid to be vitiated. The ſurface of the body is covered pretty thick with ſpots and tumours, the redneſs of which is by degrees converted into a black colour. The external ſkin becomes unequally thick, thin, hard, and ſoft; it is in a manner rendered rough by certain ſcales, cleſts, and chaps; the body grows lean; the face, legs, and feet ſwell. When this diſorder is of long ſtanding, the fingers and toes are concealed under a tumour, and a ſlight fever ariſes, which eaſily deſtroys the patient, labouring under ſo many diſorders." In the Weſt-Indies this diſorder is known by the name of the black ſcurvy, or Indian black ſcurvy. Its approach is there obſerved to be gradual; at firſt there are many ſpots on the body of a yellow brown caſt, which ſoon turn purple, and of a copper colour; theſe increaſe, grow thick, and rough, with hard ſcales; a numbneſs is felt on the fingers and toes; the breath is fœtid, the voice hoarſe, the hard and ſcaly parts crack, and ulcers appear in different parts; but at length a fever comes on, which cloſes the ſcene.

In hot countries leprous diſorders are moſt frequent; and in different places there is ſome variety in the ſymptoms; but by the methods attempted for the cure, and the ſucceſs which attends them, the diſorder ſeems to have but one general nature, however it appears, or by whatever name it is called.

Beſides a thin laxative diet, warm baths, and a pure temperate air; antimonials, mixed with mercurials, are principally depended on; theſe are aſſiſted by warm perſpiratives, ſuch as guaiacum, ſharp-pointed dock, ſaſſafras, &c. ſmall doſes of cantharides, ſo as to promote a moderately increaſed diſcharge by urine; nitre continued in ſmall doſes for a long time, and many other medicines, have been adminiſtered for the relief of theſe diſorders; but none of them ſeem to have equalled the ſucceſs which Dr. Lyſons met with from the following decoction:

℞ Cort. interior. ulmi rec. ℥ iv. coq. in aq. puræ ℔iv. ad ℔ij. colaturæ cap. ℔ſs. bis die. It ſhould be continued ſeveral weeks. If after its uſe the efflorescences increaſe, it is a favourable ſymptom. See Aretæus, lib. iv. c. 13. Celſus lib. iii. Hieronimum Mercurialem de Morbus cutaneis. Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. i. & ii. Lond. Med. Obſ. & Inq. vol. i. p. 201, &c.

LEPRA ARABUM. Blancard ſays it is the elephantiaſis of the Greeks. Cullen makes it ſynonymous with the elephantiaſis in his Noſology.

LEPRA GRÆCORUM. It is the impetigo of Celſus. Dr. Cullen reckons but one ſpecies of leproſy, the diſtinctions are but varieties.

LEPTOPHONIA, i. e. Parophoniæ clangens.

LEPTOPITYRON. Bran.

LEROS. A ſlight delirium.

LESEOLI MORBUS. So Paracelſus calls the jaundice.

LESEOLUS. Paracelſus ſays it cures the jaundice, but does not ſay what it is.

LETHARGUS. Lethargy, from λησθη, *forgetfulneſs*, and αργος, *lazy*, or *ſlothful*. A lethargic or febrile ſleepineſs. It is an heavy and perpetual ſleep, with ſcarce any intervals of waking; being awakened, the patient anſwers, but ignorant or forgetful of what he ſaid, immediately ſinks into the ſame ſtate of ſleep. The *lethargy* is generally ſmptomatic, and often the attendant of fever. In this diſeaſe, there ſeems to be an utter loſs of all the rational powers, and inaptitude to motion. Whence ſome have named it deſidia obliviosa. See CAROS. Dr. Cullen conſiders it as a ſymptomatic apoplexy.

LETHARGUS à FRIGORE, i. e. Apoplexia venenata.

LETHARGUS LITERATORUM, i. e. Apoplexia ſeroſa.

LETHARGUS à NARCOTICIS, i. e. Apoplexia venenata.

LEUCANTHEMUM. It agrees in every thing with the chryſanthemum, except in the white colour of the ſemiflorets. Boerhaave mentions eleven ſpecies.

LEUCANTHEMUM CANARIENSE, alſo called chamæmelum Canarienſe. If the flowers or the wood are chewed, they produce the ſame effects as the pellitory root.

LEUCANTHEMUM TANACETI FLORE, alſo called tanacetum modore florum major, and matricaria tanaceti folia.

LEUCANTHEMUM BELLIDIS FACIE, alſo called bellis major, and after annuus. Theſe are not remarked for any extraordinary medical virtues.

LEUCANTHEMUM. A name of the common camomile.

LEUCE. A ſpecies of leproſy. See ALPHUS.

LEUCOIUM. Of this kind of plant are the ſtock gillyflower and the wall-flower. Boerhaave enumerates thirty-one ſpecies, but their medical qualities deſerve no notice.

LEUCOLACHANON. Wild valerian.

LEUCOMA, i. e. Albugo, from λευκος, *white*.

LEUCONYMPHÆA. See LILIUM.

LEUCOPHLEGMATIA, from λευκος, *white*, and φλεγμα, *phlegm*. Aretæus obſerves, that the *leucophlegmatia* differs from an anaſarca, in that the fleſh is not yet waſted, as is always the caſe when an anaſarca is preſent; and that it is by far more eaſily cured than an anaſarca, becauſe the texture of the blood is not ſo greatly injured. Indeed the *leucophlegmatia* is only the beginning of that diſorder, the worſt ſtate of which is the anaſarca. Sometimes this word ſignifies an emphyſema.

LEUCOPIPER. White pepper.

LEUCORRHŒA. The fluor albus, from λευκος, *white*, and ῥεω, *to flow*.

LEUCORRHOIS. It is that ſpecies of diarrhœa called diarrhœa mucoſus. It is alſo expreſſive of thoſe pile caſes, in which the diſcharge is not bloody, but only a mucus. Many writers uſe this word as ſynonymous with fluor albus.

LEVATORES ANI. They riſe with a broad baſe from the ſymphiſis of the os pubis, the internal part of the ileum, and the ſharp proceſs of the iſchium, directing their courſe towards the ſphincter, and bending part of their fibres with thoſe of it; wherefore they partly ſerve to expel the fæces, but do not (as is generally ſuppoſed) compreſs the veſiculæ ſeminales in coition.

LEVATORES COM. LABIORUM. Theſe muſcles riſe from the cavity on each ſide under the os jugale, in the os maxillare, and are inſerted with the zygomaticus major and others, into the angle of the lips.

LEVATORES COSTARUM, alſo called ſupra coſtales. Theſe muſcles riſe from the tranverſe proceſſes of the vertebræ, and are inſerted into the ribs; they are divided into two claſſes, viz. the longiores and the breviores. The breviores are thoſe which riſe from the tranſverſe proceſſes, and are inſerted into the next rib; the longiores run over one rib, and are inſerted into the next.

LEVATORES LABII INFERIORIS. They riſe from the ſockets of the inciſores, and are inſerted into the lower lips.

LEVATORES LABII SUPERIORIS. They riſe from the os maxillare, and deſcend obliquely under the ſkin of the upper lip.

LEVATOR PALATI MOLLIS. This muſcle riſes from the baſis of the ſkull, near the articulation of the lower jaw, runs down the fauces, paſſes inwards and forwards, ſpreads itſelf on the pallatum molle, and goes to the uvula.

LEVATOR PALPEBRÆ SUPERIORIS. It ariſes (on each ſide) from the bottom of the orbit by a ſmall tendon, and as the fleſhy fibres of this muſcle paſs over the globe of the eye, they gradually ſpread, and afterwards terminate by a broad tendinous expanſion in the ſuperior part of the tarſus belonging to the upper lid. It is the aperiens palpebram rectus, of Fallopius and Douglas.

LEVATORES PATIENTIÆ, i. e. Levator ſcapulæ.

LEVATORES SCAPULÆ. They riſe, ſplit into four little muſcles, from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the four ſuperior cervical vertebræ. Theſe branches join and make one fleſhy belly, which are inſerted into the baſes of their reſpective ſcapulæ above the ſpine.

LEVISTICUM, alſo called liguſticum, angelica montana Perennis. Common lovage. Liguſticum *leviſticum*; or, liguſticum foliis multiplicibus, foliolis ſuperne inciſis, floribus umbellatis luteis, Linn. It is a tall umbelliferous plant, with leaves divided like thoſe of ſmallage; the root is thick, fleſhy and juicy, branched, and of a brown colour outwardly. It is a native in the ſouth of Europe, but thrives in our gardens. It is perennial; it flowers in June, and its ſeeds are ripe in Auguſt.

All the parts of this plant are aromatic, and ſtrongly reſemble angelica, but not ſo agreeable. The ſeeds are warm and pungent, and moſt agreeably flavoured; the roots are ſweetiſh and more grateful than the leaves; a large quantity affords a little eſſential oil; an extract made with rectified ſpirit retains both the aroma and the ſweet.

This plant is chiefly recommended as an anti-hyſteric. The root may be a ſubſtitute either for that of angelica or of maſter-wort. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

LEVITAS INTESTINORUM, i. e. Lienteria.

LIBANOTIS, alſo called cachryis, cachryſera, fennel-herb, frankincenſe. This plant grows on mountains in Italy and Sicily. It flowers in May. The ſeed is called cacry.

LIBANOTIS. A name for ſeveral ſorts of laſerpitium, a ſpecies of oreoſelinum, and ſeveral other plants.

LIBANOTOS. Frankincenſe.

LIBDO. The itch.

LIBERANS AQUA, i. e. Aq. calcis maj. com.

LIBRA. A pound or pint. See PONDUS.

LICHANOS. The fore-finger.

LICHEN. In ſurgery. It is a kind of eruption variouſly named by different writers; ſome name it ſerpigo, or zerna, others call it petigo, ſarpedo, and voliatica. Blancard ſays the ſcabies of Celſus is the *lichenes* of the Greeks, (the Greeks or Arabians reckoned two ſorts, one milder than the other), and the impetigo of the Arabians and of Pliny. Blanchard further obſerves, that the *lichenes* are certain aſperities of the ſkin, and as it were, tumours which itch much, and ſend forth matter. Avicen obſerves, that the dry ſort is the worſt: he further adds, that one kind ſpreads and is malignant, the other fixed and ſtanding. This diſorder affects any part of the body, but more particularly the face and chin. Sauvage, and ſome others, rank it as a ſpecies of tinea, with which, perhaps, it may be as conveniently ranked as with any other of the like cutaneous itching ulcers.

LICHEN. In Botany. It is a floriferous and ſeminiferous kind of moſs, whoſe flowery little heads are furniſhed with many grains, and are variouſly ſhaped, producing as they ripen ſeveral little monopetalous flowers. The ſeeds, which are ſmall, flat, and orbicular, are contained in ſome peculiar open capſules, reſting upon the plane of the leaves, and are ſometimes found in the ſame plant that bears the little heads, ſometimes in other plants of the ſame ſpecies. Beſides theſe flowery little heads, there are obſerved in ſome ſpecies ſome umbellated heads of different figures, which produce neither flower nor ſeed, as other plants of the ſame ſpecies uſually do. The pedicles of both ſpecies are for the moſt part naked, and proceed from no vagina. The leaves are of an herbaceous conſiſtence, and of an indeterminate figure, widely ſpreading, and running out into various roots from their back part. Boerhaave enumerates thirty-eight ſpecies. Every plant under the name of *lichen* is warming and aſtringent. The *lichen* directed in the Pharmacopœia Coll. Edinb. is the *lichen* Iſlandicus, or *lichen* foliaceus adſcendens laciniatus: marginibus elevatis ciliatis. Linn.

LICHEN ARBOREUS PULLUS, called alſo muſcus cruſtæ. Tree liver-wort. It grows to trees, and is uſed inſtead of the pulmonaria arborea.

LICHEN CINEREUS TERRESTRIS, called alſo lichenoides. Aſh-coloured ground liver-wort. It is the *lichen* caninus, or *lichen* coriaceus repens lobatus obtuſus planus: ſubtus venoſus villoſus, pelta marginali adſcendente. Linn. It conſiſts of roundiſh thick leaves, divided about the edges into obtuſe ſegments, flat above, of a reticular texture underneath, faſtened to the earth by ſmall fibres; when in perfection, of an aſh grey colour, by age turning darker coloured or reddiſh. It grows on commons and open heaths, ſpreads quickly on the ground, and is to be met with at all times of the year, but is ſuppoſed to be in its greateſt vigour about the end of autumn, &c. to the winter.

From its ſenſible qualities it does not appear to be poſſeſſed of any uſeful degree of medicinal virtue, notwithſtanding it is made a principal part in the famed pulv. antilyſſus.

LICHEN PETRÆUS, i. e. Marchantia polymorpha.

LICHEN. A name given to ſeveral plants beſides the above named, alſo a ſpecies of leproſy, and certain warts which grow on the legs of horſes.

LICHENASTRUM. It is a fertile and very floriferous kind of moſs, with heads ſupported by pretty long pedicles; theſe heads as they ripen uſually cleave into four equal parts as far as the baſe, reſemble a cruciform flower, and diſcharge a fine fecundating duſt. The heads are ſimple and naked, each ſtanding on its own pedicle, which is longer or ſhorter, and proceeds from a vagina or ſheath, ſometimes ſimple, ſometimes bivalve, and ſometimes divided at the top into ſeveral parts, by which character it is very clearly diſtinguiſhed from the lichen.

LICHENOIDES. It is diſtinguiſhed from the conferva and ulva by its boſſes and tubercles, and by the ſame peculiarities it is diſtinguiſhed from the lichen and lichenaſtrum. It is deſtitute of flowery heads. It conſiſts of a middle ſubſtance, between the fungi and the moſſes, whence many of its ſpecies are called muſco-fungi. Their general diviſion is into thoſe with and thoſe without ſtalks, theſe are again ſubdivided each into three ſpecies.

LICHENOIDES. A name of the aſh-coloured ground liver-wort.

LIEN. The ſpleen, or milt. See SPLEEN.

LIEN SINARUM. Egyptian bean.

LIENIS INFLAMMATIO. See SPLENITIS.

LIENTERIA, from λειον, *ſmooth*, and εντερον, *the gut*. A lientery. The Latins call it lævitas inteſtinorum. It is a ſpecies of diarrhœa, in which the aliments are hurried through the body in a nearly indigeſted ſtate. Fernelius attributes this diſorder to a weakneſs of the firſt concoction; but Dr. Freind, with greater probability, ſuppoſes an obſtruction of the inteſtinal glands to be a principal cauſe; and Fr. Sylvius ſays, that the orifices of the lacteals are in a great meaſure obſtructed. Actuarius obſerves that an inveterate diarrhœa or dyſentery moſt commonly produces the diſtemper.

Etmuller propoſes to ſtrengthen the ſtomach with rhubarb, quinces, and ſuch means as check vomiting: and Dr. Friend aſſures us that the moſt rational method is, gently to ſtimulate the inteſtinal tube, and to deterge the obſtructed glands by means of gentle purges, and vomits of ipecacuanha at proper intervals. To theſe may be added moderate

moderate riding, ſtomachic and warm ſtrengthening medicines. See COELIACA PASSIO, DIARRHOEA, and DYSENTERY.

LIENTERIA SPONTANEA, i. e. Diarrhœa lienteria.

LIGAMENTUM, from *ligo, to tie.* A ligament. The *ligaments*, ſo far as they relate to the bones, are tendinous, inelaſtic, gliſtening bodies. Every articulating bone is furniſhed with a capſular *ligament*, which *ligament* is compoſed of two layers; the external layer is the ſtronger, being made by the perioſteum, the inner is thin and uniform.

LIGAMENTUM ANNULARE. The annular *ligament*. This name is given to a *ligament* on each ankle and each wriſt, and this more on account of their uſe than their figure; they bridle the tendons of the muſcles which paſs through them.

LIGAMENTUM ARTERIOSUM, i. e. Ductus arterioſus.

LIGAMENTUM CILIARE. It is the circular line on the globe of the eye, where the ſclerotis, choroides, retina, cornea, proceſſus ciliares, and iris terminate, forming a whitiſh ring, ſomewhat more denſe than any other part of the coats. It is often confounded by writers with the proceſſus ciliares.

LIGAMENTUM COLI DEXTRUM. The meſentery having reached the end of the ileum joining the colon, the particular lamina which is turned to the right ſide forms a ſmall tranſverſe fold thus called.

LIGAMENTUM COLI SINISTRUM. The meſentery, here called meſocolon, having paſſed below the left kidney, it contracts and forms a tranſverſe fold thus named.

LIGAMENTUM CUTANEUM OSSIS COCCIGIS. It goes out anteriorly from the extremity of the os coccygis. It is very ſlender, and divides into two portions at the orifice of the anus, which runs into the membrana adipoſa, and are inſerted in the ſkin on each ſide of the anus by a kind of expanſion, and continuing to divaricate, they are loſt on the two ſides of the perinæum.

LIGAMENTUM DENTICULATUM. Between the anterior and poſterior bundles of fibres which form the ſpinal nerves, a *ligament* is connected, by a number of threads, to each ſide of the pia matral covering of the ſpinal marrow, through its whole length, for its ſupport. As this *ligament* is fixed by a number of teeth, to the inner ſide of the ſheath formed by the dura mater, it has been called *denticulatum*. The greater number of theſe teeth run tranverſely, ſome aſcend, others deſcend, all ſplit into fibres, which are incorporated with the fibres of the inner layer of the dura mater. From the conical lower end of the ſpinal marrow a cord is produced, which reaches to the os coccygis, and there ſplits into threads, which may be conſidered as the termination of the laſt teeth of this *ligament*.

LIGAMENTUM HÆPATIS SUSPENSORIUM. It was the umbilical vein in the fœtus.

LIGAMENTUM INTER MAXILLARE. So Winſlow calls a ligament on each ſide of the face. It connects the two jaws, and gives inſertion to the poſterior fibres of the buccinator muſcle. It is ſtrong and broad, fixed to the outſide of the upper jaw, above the laſt dens molaris, and at the ſide of the apophyſis pterigoidæus internus. By the lower end it is fixed on the outſide of the lower jaw, below the laſt dens molaris.

LIGAMENTUM LATUM, or ſuſpenſorium hæpatis. It is made up of the double membrane of the peritonæum, which covers the liver on each ſide, and meets to be joined by the ſternum.

LIGAMENTUM POUPARTII. Poupart's ligament. It is only the lower border of the deſcending oblique muſcle of the belly ſtretched from the fore-part of the os ilium to the pubes.

LIGAMENTUM PUBIS INTEROSSEUM. It is a ſtrong triangular membrane, fixed by two of its edges in the inferior branches of thoſe bones, all the way up to their common ſymphyſis; the third edge, which is loweſt, is looſe, and this whole membrane, the middle of which is perforated by a particular hole, is ſtretched very tight between the two bones, and under their cartilaginous arch, to which it adheres very cloſely.

LIGAMENTUM ROTUNDUM. The round ligament. There are two of this kind, one on each ſide of the uterus. They are two long ſmall plexuſes of blood-veſſels upon the fore part of the ligamenta lata, whoſe uſe is not known. They run in the duplicature of the broad ligaments, from the corners of the fundus uteri, paſs through the annular aperture of the obliquus externus, and are loſt in the middle and upper part of the fat in the groin.

LIGATIO. A baudage or ligature, or ſtiffneſs of the joint, and alſo that impotence which is ſuppoſed to be induced by magic.

LIGATURA. See LIGATIO.

LIGATURA VENERIS. A name for camphor, from a ſuppoſition that it checks the venereal appetite.

LIGNUM RHODIUM. Rhodium wood. It is the geniſta Canarienſis, Linn.

LIGUSTICUM, i. e. Leviſticum, alſo a ſpecies of ſeſeli. The ſpecies uſed in medicine is the *liguſticum* leviſticum, Linn.

LIGUSTRUM VULGARE, alſo called liguſtrum Germanicum, primprint, or common privet. It is a ſhrub with rough pliant branches, whence it is in much uſe for hedges in gardens; the flowers grow in ſpikes, they are of a whitiſh colour, and followed by cluſters of black berries; the flowers appear in May and June, the berries are ripe in September.

There are other ſpecies; but, though reckoned ſomewhat aſtringent, and alſo uſeful in hyſteric diſorders, they do not obtain in practice.

LIGUSTRUM INDICUM, alſo called alcanna, Cyprus Dioſc. & Plinii, elhanne Arabum. Eaſtern privet. This is the kenna of the Turks and Moors. It is reckoned emmenagogue, but is little uſed, except to ſtain the nails of women and the beards of men of a red colour.

Phillyrea or mock-privet is ſaid to dry and aſtringe, but like the reſt is neglected in practice.

LIGUSTRUM NIGRUM, i. e. Lilac laciniato folio.

LILAC. The pipe tree. *Lilac* is an Arabian name, though ſome derive it from the lily, becauſe its flowers reſemble a lily. The Greeks call it Σύριγξ; the Latins *ſyringa*, becauſe when the pith is taken out of its thick branches, they are made into pipes. Boerhaave mentions five ſpecies, but they are not noted for medical virtues.

LILIASTRUM, alſo called phalangium, and ſpider-wort. This plant is chiefly uſed as an ornament in gardens, though it is ſaid to be a reſiſter of poiſon, and uſeful in eaſing gripes.

LILIO-ASPHODELUS. It is ſo called becauſe it partakes of the lily and of the aſphodel; the root is like that of the aſphodel; the flower reſembles that of the lily. Boerhaave mentions two ſpecies, but attributes no medical virtue to them.

LILIO-FRITILLARIA. The root, ſtalk, and leaves reſemble thoſe of the lily; the flower reſembles that of the *fritillaria*. It is not noted as being medicinal.

LILIO-HYACINTUS. The lily-hyacinth. The leaves and roots reſemble thoſe of the lily, but the flower more reſembles that of the hyacinth. The roots, like thoſe of the lily, are digeſtive.

LILIO-NARCISSUS. The daffodil-lily. Boerhaave enumerates nine ſpecies; but they have no medical virtue.

LILIUM. The lily. This plant is ſo well known as not to need a deſcription. Boerhaave enumerates nineteen ſpecies, but there are very few of them that are uſeful in medicine.

LILIUM ALBUM. The common white lily. *Lilium* candidum, or *lilium* Palæſtinum, foliis ſparſis, corollis campanulatis; intus glabris. Linn. It is perennial, a native of Syria and Paleſtine, common in our gardens, and flowers in June. The flower gives an agreeable flavour to expreſſed oils, and the roots are uſeful in ſuppurating cataplaſms. Dr. Alſton ſays that the roots are of the nature of ſquills. Godorus, ſerjeant-ſurgeon to queen Elizabeth, cured many dropſical people by giving them bread to eat in which theſe roots were baked.

LILIUM CONVALLIUM, alſo called convallaria, Maianthemum, May lily, and lily of the valley. It is the convallaria Majalis, Linn. The flowers of this kind of lily are ſmaller than thoſe of any other; they have a penetrating bitter taſte, and a fragrant ſmell: the bitter matter of theſe flowers remains both in the ſpirituous and watery extract, and is nearly as purgative as aloes. The dried flowers are a ſtrong ſternutatory. The roots

alſo

alſo poſſeſs the bitter and purging qualities of the flowers.

LILIUM RUBRUM, alſo called hemerocallis, *lilium* purpurocroceum, *lilium* croceum. Red or orange *lily*. The leaves are cooling, and the roots are aperitive and ſtimulating.

LILIUM. A name given to many flowers.

LIMAX. See COCHLEA.

LIMONUM. The lemon tree. Citrus *limon* vulgaris petiolis linearibus, Linn. vel. citrus Medica, var. B. Linn. It is a native of Aſia, but cultivated in the warmer parts of Europe: there are many varieties with reſpect to the fruit. Linnæus reckons the ſeveral citrons, as well as lemons, to be only varieties of one ſpecies, which is diſtinguiſhed from the orange kind only by the pedicles of the leaves being naked.

The yellow rind of lemons is a grateful aromatic, and very commonly uſed in ſtomach tinctures and infuſions. Its flavour is the beſt adapted to accompany bitters. It is not ſo healing as the orange peel. It affords an eſſential oil (commonly called the eſſence of lemon) which is extremely volatile, of a pale ſtraw colour, in ſmell as agreeable as the freſh peel, and is often employed as a perfume; but it is often adulterated with ſpirit of wine or with oil of turpentine; to detect which, add a little of the ſuſpected oil of lemon to a little ſpirit of wine, and if it is adulterated with oil of turpentine the mixture becomes milky; if the adulteration is with ſpirit, a mixture of it with the oil of turpentine becomes milky alſo.

The juice of *lemon* is more acid than that of oranges; ſix drams of good *lemon* juice ſaturates about half a dram of fixed alkaline ſalt; and this mixture, with the addition of a ſmall quantity of any aromatic water is much in uſe, for abating nauſeas, vomiting, and fevers. See Neuman's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

LIMONIUM. See LAVENDRE. Boerhaave mentions fourteen ſpecies, but none of them have any medical virtue.

LIMONIUM. A name for the ſtatice, and for behen rubrum.

LINAGROSTIS. Tournefort's mentions three ſpecies of this plant, but they are not remarkable for medicinal virtues.

LINAGROSTIS, alſo called gramen tomentarium, linum pratenſe gnaphalium tragi, juncus bombycinus. Cotton graſs.

LINAGROSTIS. Panicula minore.

LINAGROSTIS, alſo called juncus capitulo lanuginoſo, ſchœnolaguros. Hare's tail ruſh.

LINARIA, alſo called oſyris, urinaria, flax-weed, or common toad-flax. The ſpecies formerly uſed in medicine, is the antirrhinum linaria, Linn. Boerhaave enumerates twenty-two ſpecies of linariæ, but hardly any of them deſerve any notice. The common ſort ſo reſembles the eſſula minor, that it is not diſtinguiſhable before the flowers appear, but by breaking the ſtalk; for the toad-flax is deſtitute of the milky juice which is obſerved in the eſſula. It is perennial, grows wild about the ſides of dry fields, and flowers in June and July. If the leaves are inwardly uſed, they are diuretic and purgative; externally they have been commended againſt the piles.

LINARIA HEDERACEO FOLIO, called alſo cymbalaria, ivy-leaved toad-flax. It grows on old walls in Switzerland and Italy.

LINARIA. A name for a ſpecies of elatine, of chenopodium, and elichryſum.

LINCTUS, alſo called lohoc, eclegma, ecleictos, loch, and lambative. This compoſition is thicker than ſyrup, but much ſofter than an electary; and was firſt made to be licked from a ſtick of liquorice, and then gradually ſwallowed. It is a form that ſoon loathes; they may be uſed in diſorders of the inward parts of the mouth, the fauces, and œſophagus, as in aphthæ, tickling coughs from defluxions of thin ſerum, &c.

LINEA ALBA. It extends from the cartilago enſiformis to the os pubis. From the os pubis to the navel it is a mere line, but higher it is broader. Its whiteneſs is cauſed by the tendons. It is made up and interwoven out of all the tendons of the abdominal muſcles, which, being run together into one entire body, aſſiſt each other's motion in compreſſing the belly.

LINEA CENTRALIS, i. e. Linea Alba.

LINEA SEMILUNARES. They terminate the lower part of the external oblique muſcle, and are loſt at the upper part.

LINEÆ TRANSVERSÆ. They paſs between the lineæ alba and ſemilunares, and are formed by the intendinations of the recti muſcles. They are not directly tranſverſe as repreſented in figures, but are irregularly waved.

LINGODES. Fevers are ſo called that are much attended with an hiccup.

LINGUA, from *lingendo*, *licking*. The tongue. As to its ſtructure, it is compoſed of two parts; the inferior is a maſs of muſcle; the upper ſurface is towards the apex, full of papillæ, which as you trace them backward, become more irregular and flat, whence authors treat of papillæ pyramidales, capitatæ, and lenticulares. Theſe papillæ are a maſs of veſſels running from the baſis towards the apex. Near the epiglottis, the ſurface of the tongue is merely glandular. Near the middle of the tongue is a chap, called the foramen cæcum; Morgagni firſt deſcribed it, and Vaterus hath ſince found its ducts which diſcharge ſaliva. Under the papillæ, on the ſurface of the tongue, are fleſhy fibres running in all poſſible directions; it is owing to theſe that the tongue hath ſuch variety of motions. The muſcle called lingualis ariſes from the fleſhy fibres, and is loſt in them, running from the baſis to the apex, it turns the tongue laterally and downwards.

LINGUA AVIS. Bird's tongue. A ſpecies of doria. The ſeeds of the aſh-tree are alſo thus named from their being ſhaped like a bird's tongue.

LINGUA CANINA, i. e. Cynogloſſum.

LINGUA CERVINA, alſo called phillitis, ſcolopendria, hind's, or hart's tongue. See SCOLOPENDRIUM. It is a plant with long, uncut, narrow leaves, of a bright green colour, ſtanding on long hairy pedicles. There is no ſtalk, nor any manifeſt flowers; the ſeeds are a fine duſt, lying in large, rough, brown, tranſverſe ſtreaks on the backs of the leaves. This plant is perennial, and is found green in all the ſeaſons of the year. It delights in moiſt, ſhady, ſtony places. The leaves are commended as aperient and corroborant, particularly in diſeaſes of the viſcera: but preſent practice does not employ them.

LINGUA MAJOR. A ſpecies of doria.

LINGUA SERPENTINA, i. e. Ophiogloſſum.

LINGUALES GLANDULÆ. They are thoſe of the foramen cæcum of the baſis of the tongue.

LINGUALES. The ninth pair of nerves. See HYPOGLOSSI EXTERNI.

LINGUALIS MUSCULUS. The muſcle of the tongue. It riſes from the baſis of the os hyoides, and runs to the tip of the tongue. It is in general the fleſhy fibres of the tongue, which run in many directions.

LINIMENTUM. Liniment. It is a thinner kind of ointment, and principally deſigned for an application where the tenderneſs of a part will not admit of a harder ointment.

LINIMENTUM SAPONACEUM. Saponaceous liniment. It was formerly called opodeldoc, and ſoponaceous balſam. It is chiefly employed for external purpoſes againſt rheumatic pains, ſprains, bruiſes, and ſuch like complaints. The London college direct the following very liquid form, becauſe the ſoap acts moſt to advantage when ſo diluted.

Saponaceous Liniment.

Take of the ſpirit of roſemary, ℔ i. hard Spaniſh ſoap, three ounces; camphor, one ounce. Mix.

LINTEUM. Linen. In ſurgery it comprehends lint, tents, rollers, and compreſſes. When lint is applied to abſorb the matter from a wound, pledgets of fine ſponge is more effectual, and ſhould ever be preferred when any inconvenience is apprehended from the ſharpneſs of the matter.

LINUM. Line or flax. *Linum* uſitatiſſimum, or *Linum* ſylveſtre, foliis lanceolatis alternis, calycibus capſulifque mucronatis, petalis crenatis, floribus cæruleis, caule ſubſolitario. Linn. This plant is properly called *line* only while it is an herb ſtanding green in the field, and hath no inner bark;

bark; when the inner bark is perfected, and ever after, it is called flax. Boerhaave mentions eight ſpecies, but it is only the ſeed of the common ſort that is uſed in medicine.

Lineſeed is of a reddiſh brown colour, gloſſy, flat, ſlippery, nearly oval, and pointed; it hath an unctuous, mucilaginous, ſweet taſte, but no ſmell; the mucilage is in the ſkin of the ſeed. On expreſſion much oil is obtained from it. This oil, if drawn without heat, is inſipid, but does not congeal with the winter's cold, nor does it forma ſolid ſoap whenmixed with fixed alkaline ſalts, but it acts more powerfully than any expreſſed oil as a menſtruum on ſulphureous bodies. When this oil is ſweet, it is emollient; when rancid, it is better as an expectorant. Applied to burns and ſcalds it is uſeful; and when women's breaſts are inflamed from the milk ſtagnating in them, it affords conſiderable relief. If the ſeeds are boiled in water, they afford a large quantity of mucilage; but if deſigned for inward uſe, an infuſion is more agreeable. Theſe infuſions are emollient, incraſſant, and demulcent, of uſe in tickling coughs, ſtranguries, &c.

Infuſion of Lineſeed.

A large ſpoonful of the unbruiſed ſeed may be infuſed in a quart of boiling water, to which half an ounce of the root of liquorice may be added; and when it is cold, the ſtrained liquor may be uſed as common drink.

If an ounce of colt's foot leaves are added, it is called pectoral infuſion.

The mucilage obtained by inſpiſſating the decoctions, is an excellent addition for reducing diſguſtful powders into the form of an electary: thus the compound paſſes into the ſtomach, before the diſguſtful taſte can be perceived.

The ſeeds may be uſed for maturating cataplaſms after the oil is expreſſed from them. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

LINUM CATHARTICUM. Linn. Called alſo *linum* minimum, mountain flax, mill mountain, and purging-flax. It is a ſmall plant, with little, oblong, ſmooth leaves, having one vein or rib running along the middle. The ſtalk is ſlender, reddiſh, divided towards the upper part into fine branches, bearing on the tops white flowers, followed, as in the common flax, by roundiſh ribbed capſulæ, with ten flattiſh ſlippery ſeeds in each. It is annual, grows wild on chalky hills, and dry paſture grounds. It is an effectual ſafe purge; a handful of the freſh leaves infuſed in wine or whey, or a dram of the leaves in powder, are a doſe. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

LINUM. A name for the amianthus; a ſpecies of lyſimachia; a ſpecies of linagroſtis; a ſpecies of amphalodes.

LIPIRIA, i. e. Ardens Febris.

LIPODERMUS, from λειπω, *to leave*, and δερμα, *the ſkin*. One who hath loſt his prepuce.

LIPOPSYCHIA, from λειπω, *to leave*, and ψυχη, *life*. A fainting fit.

LIPOTHYMIA, from λειπω, *to leave*, and θυμος, *the mind*. Fainting. Dr. Cullen places ſyncope as a genus of diſeaſe, in the claſs neuroſes, and order adynamiæ. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies: 1. Syncope cardiaca. When from ſome fault in the heart or its neareſt veſſels. In this caſe there is no manifeſt cauſe, but at the intervals there is a violent palpitation of the heart. 2. Syncope occaſionalis. In the inſtances of this ſpecies, a cauſe is manifeſt, and is generally an affection of the whole ſyſtem.

In this diſeaſe the pulſe and reſpiration become ſuddenly weaker than uſual, and that in ſuch a degree, that to the perception of the attendants they wholly ceaſe.

The ſlighteſt degree is that in which the patient conſtantly perceives, and underſtands, yet is without the power of ſpeaking: this is called *fainting*. It often happens to thoſe who are diſturbed with flatulencies, without any remarkable alteration in the pulſe. If he loſes his feeling and underſtanding, with a conſiderable ſinking of the pulſe, it is called a ſyncope, or ſwooning. If the ſyncope is ſo violent, that the pulſe ſeems totally extinguiſhed, without any diſcernible breathing, with a manifeſt coldneſs of the whole body, and a wanly livid countenance, ſometimes followed by death, it is called an aſphixy, which may ſignify a total reſolution. This laſt degree, in moſt inſtances, conſtitute, according to Dr. Cullen's arrangement, varieties of apoplexy, and theſe chiefly are varieties of the ſpecies which he calls apoplexia venenata.

The cauſes are various, either too much or too little blood; a load at, or other diſorder in the ſtomach; nervous complaints; paſſions of the mind; a polypus in ſome of the principal blood veſſels, and various other diſorders; as alſo opiates, and other volatile and active drugs, &c.

The different degrees of this diſorder ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from hyſteric fits, epilepſy, and the apoplexy.

People who are ſubject to frequent faintings, without any manifeſt cauſe, uſually die ſuddenly, and are found to have polypuſes in their principal blood veſſels. When anger is the cauſe in weak perſons, it is dangerous; and when occaſioned by worms it is equally ſo.

During the fit, all that can be done is to reſtore the motion of the heart, which may be attempted by placing the patient in a proper poſture. Cold water, or vinegar and water, may be ſprinkled on his face, and a little of the ſame poured down his throat. Strong vinegar may be held under his noſtrils, the extremities ſhould be well rubbed, and as ſoon as he can ſwallow, give him a glaſs of wine, or of ſome cordial water.

After the fit, the cauſe muſt be removed. If this is pain, give ſmall doſes of any convenient opiate at proper intervals; if violent evacuations, give gentle anodynes, a light cordial, but nouriſhing diet, which muſt be allowed very frequently, as but ſmall quantities can be taken at a time. Saffron may be added to any liquid part of diet. If the patient is robuſt, and a redundancy of blood overcomes him, bleed, but wait his recovery from a preſent fit before performing this operation, except ſome very urgent circumſtance demands immediate bleeding. When indigeſtion is the cauſe, or other diſorder in the ſtomach, a vomit may be given ſpeedily, and then the reſpective diſorder muſt be adverted to. When nervous affections give riſe to this diſorder, a ſupine poſture, freſh air, and either ſweets or fœtids held to the noſe (as the patient finds relief from one or the other) give the ſpeedieſt help. When diſorderly paſſions, whether anger, or grief, &c. produce this diſorder, the fits are often tedious, and when removed ſoon return; in this caſe keep the patient ſtill; in the fit, let the ſtrongeſt vinegar be held to his noſe; as ſoon as he begins to recover give a ſmall doſe of tinct. Thebaic. in an agreeable cordial water; now and then give the ſp. vitr. D. in his drink: if he complains of ſickneſs, and a bitter taſte in his mouth, give a gentle emetic, and after it the ſp. nitr. D. or nitre itſelf, with a little rhubarb. See Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. iii.

LIPPITUDO. Bleareyedneſs. See EPIPHORA and XEROPTHALMIA. Celſus means by it an ophthalmia. It is blear-eyedneſs.

LIPYRIA. A ſpecies of fever, in which the internal parts are very hot, whilſt the external are very cold.

LIQUIDAMBAR, called alſo liquidambra, ſtyrax liquida, liquid amber. *Liquidambar*, tiraciflua, Linn. It is a reſinous juice, of a yellow colour, inclining to red; at firſt about the conſiſtence of turpentine, by age it hardens into a brittle reſin. It is the produce of a tree in various parts of America, called ſtyracifera. It is rarely met with genuine, and, when it is, its uſe is chiefly as a perfume. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

LIQUIRITIA, i. e. Glycyrrhiza.

LIQUOR AMNII. In widwifery this is generally called the waters. It is the fluid in which the fœtus ſwims during geſtation. This liquor contains air, whence is is ſuppoſed ſome children have been heard to cry in the womb.

LIQUOR MINERALIS ANODYNUS HOFFMANI. Fred. Hoffman, the author of this medicine, extols it as an anodyne and antipaſmodic, but æther is a ſuperior medicine of the ſame kind. In the Paris Pharmacopœia, the following is given as the method of preparing this liquor; but it is not certainly known to be as Hoffman was uſed to make it.

Hoffman's Mineral Anodyne Liquor.

In half a pound of concentrated oil of vitriol, placed in a large glaſs retort, pour by little and little, through a long ſtemmed funnel, a pint and half of highly rectified ſpirit of wine. Stop the mouth of the retort, digeſt for ſome days, and then diſtil with a gentle heat. At firſt a fragrant ſpirit of wine will ariſe, and after it a more fragrant volatile ſpirit, which is to be caught in a freſh receiver; the receiver being again changed, a ſulphurous volatile

acid phlegm comes over; and, at length, a ſweet oil of vitriol, which ſhould be immediately ſeparated, leſt it be abſorbed by the phlegm. Mix the firſt and ſecond ſpirits together, and in two ounces of this mixture, diſſolve twelve drops of the ſweet oil juſt named. If the liquor hath any ſulphurous ſmell, rediſtil it from a little ſalt of tartar.

LIQUOR SIRENIACUS, i. e. Gum Benjamin.

LITERATUM LIGNUM, alſo called Sinenſe *lignum*. Lettered wood. It is brought from China; but it is not uſed in medicine.

LITHAGOGUS, from λιθος, *a ſtone*, and αγω, *to bring away*. An epithet for a medicine that expels the ſtone.

LYTHARGYRUM, from λιθος, *a ſtone*, and αργυρος, *ſilver*. Litharge. When ſilver is to be ſeparated from copper, or other impure mixture in the ore, it is put into a teſt, and with it is melted a great quantity of lead. When by the heat to which theſe matters are expoſed, the lead, and the other impure metals, &c. which were in the ſilver ore, ſwim like oil on the ſurface of the ſilver, the lead is gradually blown to the ſides of the teſt, and then a notch being cut, the lead runs off, and when cool, appears in the form which we call *litharge*. This *litharge* is of a deep yellow, or of a whitiſh colour, according to the different bodies that are mixed with it, or according to the different degrees of heat to which it was expoſed, and according to the darkneſs or lightneſs of its colour, is called *litharge* of gold or of ſilver.

LYTHARGYRUM, alſo called lythargyrus aureus, chryſitis, reddiſh, or gold litharge.

LITHARGYRUS ARGENTEUS, called alſo argyritis, whitiſh, or ſilver litharge.

Litharge diſſolved in olive oil is the empl. com.

LITHIASIS, from λιθος, *a ſtone*. The gravel or ſtone. See CALCULUS. Alſo a tumor on the eye-lid, in which is a hard concretion between its coats. See CHALAZA.

LITHOEIDES, from λιθος, *a ſtone*, and ειδος, *form*, ſo called from its hardneſs. An epithet for the os petroſum.

LITHONTRIPTICUS, from λιθος, *a ſtone*, and θρυπτω, *to break*. An epithet for medicines that are ſaid to break the *ſtone* in the bladder. Though, the different *ſtones* that are generated in the human bladder, require different ſolvents when out of the body; and though art hath not yet afforded a medicine which, when injected into the bladder, will without injury thereto, diſſolve the *ſtone* therein lodged; it cannot thence be concluded, that there are no lithontriptic medicines. It may be here obſerved, that one ſolvent affects one ſubject, but hath no effect on another; ſo a ſolvent may yet be met with that will deſtroy the *ſtone*, and not hurt the human body. The water into which the boiled white of egg diſſolves, will liquefy myrrh, but may be put into the human eye without cauſing any uneaſineſs.

Soap ley taken at firſt in ſmall doſes in broth that is freed from all its fat, ſucceeds in moſt caſes which require an alkaline ſolvent. The patient may begin with twenty drops, and gradually increaſe the doſe as he is able: and by repeating it three times a day for ſix, eight, or twelve months, the wiſhed for effects often follow. See Blackrie on Diſſolvents of the *Stone*.

LITHOPHYTON. A lithophyte is a ſpecies of plant of a horny ſubſtance, ſeeming to be of a middle nature betwixt wood and ſtone. Boerhaave calls them kerato phyti.

LITHOSPERMUM, called alſo milium ſolis, gromwell, gray mill. The *litheſpermum* officinale, Linn. It is a rough plant, with ſtiff branched ſtalks, oblong acuminated leaves, ſet alternately without pedicles, and whitiſh monopetalous flowers, ſcarcely longer than the cup, followed by roundiſh, hard ſeeds. It is perennial, grows wild in fields, and flowers in May and June. The ſeeds are diuretic. They are rarely uſed. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

LITHOSPERMUM. A name for the lachryma Jobi; alſo for ſome ſpecies of heliotropium.

LITHOTOMIA, from λιθος, *a ſtone*, and τεμνω, *to cut*. Lithotomy, or cutting for the *ſtone*.

This operation was performed in the time of Hippocrates, but being then thought mere madneſs, it was only performed by empirics.

When a *ſtone* is ſuſpected to be lodged in the bladder, beſides the common ſymptoms of this caſe, it is uſual for a ſurgeon to make a fuller examination, by introducing an inſtrument, called a ſound, into the bladder, by which, if poſſible, to feel the *ſtone*. In order to this, Mr. Sharp directs the following method. "The patient being laid on an horizontal table, with his thighs elevated, and a little extended, paſs the ſound with the concave part towards you, until it meets with ſome reſiſtance in perinæo, a little above the anus; then turning it without much force, puſh it gently on into the bladder, and if it meets with an obſtruction at the neck, raiſe its extremity upwards, by inclining the handle of it towards you; or if it do not then ſlip in, withdraw it a quarter of an inch, and introducing your fore-finger into the rectum, lift it up, and it will ſeldom fail to enter. There is ſome art in turning the ſound, in the proper place of the urethra, which ſurgeons not well verſed in this operation cannot ſo well execute; therefore they may paſs the inſtrument with the concave ſide always towards the abdomen of the patient."

The common rule of knowing whether there is more *ſtones* than one in the bladder, is not infallible (ſee Warner's Caſes in Surgery); though if a *ſtone* is univerſally rough, there is rarely more than one: but if one part is poliſhed, and another rough, it is almoſt certain that there is more. Some ſpeak of an adheſion of the *ſtone* to the coats of the bladder, but it does not appear probable that the fibres of the bladder ſhould inoſculate with ſuch an inorganic foreign body. It indeed often happens that the bladder is wrinkled round the *ſtone*, and in extracting, the operator tearing a little of the inner coat of the bladder, imagines, or pretends, that there was an adheſion. If the *ſtone* is large, by introducing the ſound, the operator may hear it ſtrike againſt it, but cannot thus determine whether the *ſtone* is large or ſmall. Sometimes the operator examines, but cannot find a *ſtone*, though there is one; for inſtances occur in which it is lodged in a ſack. Before a patient is examined, he may uſe a little exerciſe, ſuch as riding, or jumping, by which the *ſtone* may fall down to the neck of the bladder, for thus it may more readily be diſcovered.

After the operation, children relapſe more frequently than adults; and adults run greater hazards in the operation than children do.

From the variety in the apparatus, or in the modes of operation, different names have been given, as follow:

The Leſſer Apparatus, called alſo the Celſian Method, cutting on the Gripe, and the Guidonian Method.

This way was directed and practiſed by Celſus. Since the time of Johannes de Romanis, it is called cutting with the leſſer apparatus, to diſtinguiſh it from his new method, which, on account of the many inſtruments in it, is called cutting with the greater apparatus. Heiſter ſays, this method is practicable in boys under fourteen years of age, becauſe that in them the *ſtone* may be brought to the perinæum. He ſays, he always performs it on children; and that it may be practiſed on adults, when the *ſtone* cauſes a ſuppreſſion of urine, by its adhering to the neck of the bladder, but otherwiſe it is dangerous to adults.

The Greater Apparatus, called alſo Marianus's Method, and the Old Way.

This method was invented by Romanis, but publiſhed by Marianus, who was his pupil. Romanis conſidered the ſhortneſs and dilatability of the urethra in women, and imagined that by an opening made in the urethra in men, near the bladder, it might be dilated, and the *ſtone* extracted with eaſe.

The High Operation, alſo called Sectio Hipogaſtrica, and Franco's Method.

The great objections to this method are, as the bladder is apt to be thickened and inflamed, and cannot be diſtended, the inciſion may happen to be made into the peritoneum; and alſo, if not being in a depending part, the urine and pus will inſinuate themſelves into cavities, ſo occaſion inflammations, ſuppuration, and fiſtulas, which cannot often be healed.

The Lateral Operation.

This method was invented by an eccleſiaſtic, who called himſelf Frere Jaques. Rau learned it of him, and Albi-

nus

nus publiſhed it. Various improvements have been made in this method, and it is yet continued in practice. Mr. Sharp directs it as follows, from Mr. Cheſelden: "The patient being laid on a table, with his hands and feet tied, and the ſtaff paſſed, as in the old way, let your aſſiſtant hold it a little ſlanting on one ſide, ſo that the direction of it may run exactly through the middle of the left erector penis, and accelerator urinæ muſcles; then make your inciſion through the ſkin and fat very large, beginning in one ſide of the ſeam in perinæo, a little above the place wounded in the old way, and finiſhing a little below the anus, between it and the tuberoſity of the iſchium. This wound muſt be carried on deeper between the muſcles, till the proſtatæ can be felt, when ſearching for the ſtaff, and fixing it properly if it hath ſlipped, you muſt turn the edge of the knife upwards, and cut the whole length of that gland from within outwards, at the ſame time puſhing down the rectum with a finger or two of the left-hand, by which precautions the gut will always eſcape wounding; after this, introduce the forceps to take out the ſtone. After the operation is ended, if there is an hæmorrhage from the proſtate gland, a ſilver canula of three or four inches long, covered with fine rag, may be introduced into the bladder, and left there two or three days, for it rarely fails to check it; the patient may alſo take an opiate. If the wound does not bleed, a little dry lint, or a pledgit of digeſtive, may be laid in it. If a pain is felt near the bladder ſoon after the dreſſings are finiſhed, a bladder of warm water may be applied over it; and if it increaſes, as there will be much danger therefrom, bleeding, and clyſters, will be neceſſary."

When a ſtone ſticks in the urethra of a man, proceed as directed in the article CALCULUS.

Women are rarely afflicted with a ſtone in the bladder, but when they are, it generally may be extracted through the urethra, which may be gradually dilated to an almoſt incredible ſize. Stones have been extracted through dilated urethra, which weighed more than five ounces.

As the urethra is generally lacerated in ſome degree by the paſſage of the ſtone, many prefer the making of an inciſion; but either method ſucceeds ſo well, that it is difficult to ſay which is the beſt.

Mr. Bromfield gives the following inſtance of dilating the urethra, which is a far better method than thoſe by means of tents, &c. By the help of a ſtrait blunt director, he introduced into the bladder the cloſed end of the appendicula inteſtini cœci of a ſmall animal; and leaving out, at a proper length thereof, the open end, he filled it with warm water by means of a ſyringe, and prevented the waters eſcape by a ligature. He then made a twiſt or two of that part of the appendicula which was left out, that the contained water might, by being preſſed on, diſtend the cloſe end which was in the bladder: an aſſiſtant was directed to draw it forward from time to time, and occaſionally to give a freſh twiſt, ſo as to fill the end contained in the bladder more and more as the cervix veſicæ opened; by which proceſs, continued for ſome time, the neck of the bladder was ſo opened, that the forceps might have eaſily been admitted if required, but the ſtone getting a paſſage by the help of the urine, this inſtrument was not needed. After the paſſage of the ſtone, the parts were fomented with warm milk, and then with camphorated ſpirit of wine; very little inflammation was obſerved, and no other diſagreeable ſymptom. See his Obſervations and Caſes, vol. ii.

Mr. Gooch gives an inſtance of extracting a ſtone of four ounces weight, through an inciſion which he made from the vagina into the bladder. This procedure was attended with very little trouble, either to himſelf or the patient; the ulcer ſoon healed, by the uſe of ſoft balſamic injections, and no inconvenience was obſerved after the healing of the parts. See his Caſes and Remarks, vol. ii. p. 182, &c.

See Sharp's Operations of Surgery; Sharp's Critical Enquiry; Heiſter's Surgery; Bromfield's Caſes and Obſ. vol. ii. ch. 8. Le Dran's Operations; and Heiſter's Diſſertation on the High Apparatus.

LITRON, i. e. Natron.

LITUS. A liniment.

LIVIDUS MUSCULUS, i. e. Pectinæus. So called becauſe of its colour, which is livid.

LIVONICA TERRA, i. e. Terra ſigillata.

LIX. Pot-aſh, wood-aſh.

LIXIVIUM. A ley. That is water impregnated with the ſalts of burnt vegetables.

LOBELIA. So father Plumier named a plant which he found in America, in honour of Lobel, a famed botaniſt. In North America there are five ſpecies. They are found in marſhy grounds, and on the ſides of rivers. With the root of the *lobelia* the American Indians cure the moſt virulent pox. They take five or ſix of the plants (ſome take the roots either freſh or dry), and boil them in water. Early in the morning the patient drinks as much as he can of this decoction, and during the day it is his chief drink; by and by it begins to purge him, and the ſtrength of the decoction is increaſed or leſſened, as the patient can bear the evacuation. If any part is ſore, it is to be waſhed with this decoction, and thus in two or three weeks a cure is performed. See Appendix to Brooks's Practice of Phyſic. The ſpecies recommended by the college of Edinburgh is the *lobelia* ſiphilitica, or *lobelia* caule erecto, foliis ovato lanceolatis crenatis, calycum ſinubus reflexis, Linn.

LOBELLUS, or Lobulus. A ſmall lobe. The ſmall cells of fat are called lobuli adipoſi, and the extremities of the bronchia, which end in little knobs, are called lobuli pulmonum. Winſlow calls the lobe of the ear lobulus.

LOBUS ECHINATUS. Miller mentions two ſpecies of a plant which is prickly, and climbs up trees in ſome of the Weſt-India iſlands; but no medical virtues are attributed to them.

LOCALES. Diſeaſes that affect, or have their ſeat, only in a particular part of the body, or of its limbs.

LOCALIS MEMBRANA, i. e. Pia mater.

LOCHIA, from λεχομαι, *to lie in child bed*, or λεχος, *a bed*. The purgations of the uterus after child-birth. This diſcharge is neceſſary to unload the veſſels, and proceeds from the appendices cæcæ, after the ſeparation of the placenta: it continues for a quarter, half, or a whole hour after delivery, more or leſs, according to the ſtate of the woman. The flux contains a ſanguine colour for three or four days, then gradually grows more ſerous, until it totally ceaſes. Sometimes it continues ſeveral weeks, but at length the uterus and its veſſels contracting, it no longer continues. Baglivi obſerves that, when the breaſts are full of pain, at the coming of the milk, the *lochia* ſtop, but flow again as ſoon as the pain ceaſes. Its quantity is generally leſs after a miſcarriage than when a woman goes her full time, and it ſooner ceaſes when a woman gives ſuck than when ſhe does not.

The *lochia* may produce much diſorder by being deficient or redundant.

When the *lochia* are defective the belly ſwells, a heavy pain is felt there and in the loins, and ſometimes in the groins alſo; a heat and pulſation in the uterus, which produces reſtleſſneſs and a fever; a full hard pulſe, pain in the head and back, a nauſea, ſometimes a vomiting, and difficulty of breathing. The face looks red, the eyes are diſordered, the rigors of acute fevers come on, fainting cold ſweats, a pulſation and heat of the womb, a palſy in the lower part, and ſometimes an epilepſy. The *lochia* ſometimes diminiſhes gradually, and ſometimes all at once, in the morbid ſuppreſſion of them. Sometimes a delirium coming on, which increaſes, occaſions convulſions and death; and if the patient eſcapes with life, ſhe loſes her ſenſes and continues lunatic.

One of the principal cauſes of this diſorder is, the woman's riſing too ſoon after delivery; whence the weakly, and thoſe who are ſubject to hyſteric ſymptoms, ſhould be very cautious in this reſpect; among other cauſes are, a defect or impoveriſhment of blood; an inſpiſſation of the blood in the uterus from cold; a convulſive ſtricture of the uterine veſſels; a diarrhœa, or other flux; an inflammation of the uterus, &c.

The obſtruction of this diſcharge is the worſt, if it happens while the evacuated blood is florid; but far leſs troubleſome when it grows ſerous. In ſome conſtitutions it is ſmall in quantity; but when no pain, fever, or other manifeſt ill effects are the conſequence, it is not to be attended to.

The indications of cure are, to calm the ſpirits, and to promote the return of the impeded diſcharge. Means, however, are not to be perſiſted in if relief is not obtained

in two or three days; proper means having thus far been uſed, wait and ſee what time will produce. If the patient outlives the twentieth day, there is rarely any danger to fear. If the obſtructed *lochia* have produced any other diſorder, it will be beſt removed when the woman's ſtrength is ſomewhat reſtored.

If on the ſuppreſſion of the *lochia* the pulſe is full and hard, bleed, give warm camomile tea as oft as the patient can take it without puking; ſaffron tea may be mixed with it. Draughts may alſo be given, in which are the pulv. contrayerv. and ſal ſuccin. or with conf. cardiac. or mithridate, with ſmall doſes of the tinct. Theb. and, if the heat requires it, add the ſal diuret. Theſe may be repeated every three or four hours.

If the pulſe is obſerved to ſink from the bleeding, it muſt not be repeated, but a bliſter ſhould be applied as a ſtimulant.

As different cauſes may retard or ſuppreſs the *lochia*, the preſent or particular one ſhould be attended to, in order to the adminiſtration of proper help.

When cold is the cauſe (as for the moſt part it is) gentle anodynes and perſpiratives will generally afford relief.

The hurry and tumult both of body and mind, when labour is painful and tedious, produces ſpaſmodic affections, and retard the *lochia*; in this caſe, if the pulſe require it, bleed, give a laxative cooling clyſter, anodynes, and mild diaphoretics.

Depreſſing paſſions, in irritable habits, have ſometimes this ill effect; in which caſe, keep the patient ſtill and in bed, ſupport her with every encouragement, let all ſhe drinks be warm, and with cordials let ſuch nervous medicines be mixed, as the peculiarity of her circumſtances may require.

If inflammation is the caſe, proceed as directed in inflammation of the part affected. The beſt fomentation is bladders of warm water laid over the part in which the pain is moſt afflictive.

If the *lochia* is only diminiſhed, gentle ſtimulants with perſpiratives may be allowed; but if they are ſuppreſſed, there is for the moſt part a fever, in which caſe forcing medicines are improper.

If the *lochia* returns not, but a ſhivering cold fit comes on, an abſceſs may be ſuſpected to be forming in ſome part of the body, which will generally carry off the complaint, provided the patient hath ſtrength to bear the diſcharge. Theſe abſceſſes often happen in the breaſt, but ſometimes they are ſeated in ſome other glandular part.

Purging ſhould be guarded againſt; but, though neutral medicines often purge in the beginning of their uſe, this effect generally ceaſes in a day, or early in the ſecond. If a purging comes on, and the ſtrength is not impaired by it, leave it to nature, as ſhe often ſets up one diſcharge to anſwer the end of another. But, if the ſtrength ſeems to be affected by it, give opiates both by the mouth and clyſterwiſe; this is the chief if not only reſource, for aſtringents do little or no ſervice.

If pain is conſiderable, and makes the patient reſtleſs, beſides anodynes, emollient clyſters ſhould be frequently injected, not only to empty the bowels, but to act as a fomentation to the parts.

If in weakly women, from riſing too ſoon, a delirium is brought on, it generally proceeds to a fatal madneſs: ſometimes it ends in lunacy for life. In this caſe keep the patient in bed, avoid all evacuations except perſpiration, and guard againſt every thing that can diſturb: ſal ſuccin. ſpermacæti, pulv. rad contray. emollient clyſters, by way of fomentation, and bladders of warm water on the part moſt complained of, may be tried.

The *lochia* are ſometimes exceſſive. Here obſerve that the quantity diſcharged by different women is ſo various, that it is not to be regarded whether little or much is loſt in particular caſes, if no bad ſymptoms come on in conſequence of it.

An immoderate flux is attended with weakneſs, loathing, fainting, convulſions, a flow, weak, intermitting pulſe, a pale countenance, excretions of grumous blood, pains in the hypochondrium, a tenſion of the belly, vertigo, dimneſs of ſight, tingling in the ears, &c.

If any part of the placenta remaining in the uterus, or clots of blood, are lodged there, they may both irritate and prevent a due contraction of the uterus and its veſſels, and ſo cauſe this complaint; theſe ſhould immediately be brought away.

If the pulſe is full and hard, and the patient's ſtrength will admit, bleed; but this is rarely required. Ligatures about the wriſt and ankles, and above the knees and elbows, are generally a more proper management. Aſtringents, as alum, &c. are preſcribed by many, but the ſame proceeding as is directed in the article ABORTUS, in caſe of a flooding, may be conſulted for what is farther needful in this caſe. See Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham's Works, edit. 2, p. 408, &c. p. 591 and 592. La Motte's Obſ.

LOCHIORRHŒA. An exceſs of the lochia after they become pale or whitiſh.

LOCULAMENTA. The cells in the fruit of plants, where the ſeeds are lodged, which are divided by ſmall partitions.

LOCUSTA. The graſshopper, alſo the outer covering of the flower and grain of corn, which incloſes the chaff; and it is a name for one ſpecies of valerianella, for the courbaril, and for lambs lettuce.

LOGAS. The white of the eye.

LOLIUM, from λοιγος, *adulterine*, as it was ſuppoſed to be generated of corrupted barely or wheat. The *d* is changed into *l*, from a cuſtom in ſome parts of Greece of changing the letters uſed in other parts. Lolium is alſo called æra, gramen loliaceum, lolium album, lolium tremulentum, darnel, ivray, cockle, and the French call it drunken wheat.

It is diſtinguiſhed from other grain by its ſlender flat ear, and by its grains with their huſks on both ſides as far as the ſtalk, being ſituate in the ſame plane. It is not uſed in medicine. Its moſt noted qualities are, its producing ſpeedy drunkenneſs if taken inwardly, and preventing drunkenneſs if applied outwardly. It cauſes a vertigo and torpor, and by an imprudent uſe of it much miſchief is produced. See Raii Hiſt.

Another ſpecies is called phœnix, ray graſs, or darnel graſs.

LOMENTUM. Bean meal, or bread made thereof.

LONCHITIS, from λογχη, *a lance*, becauſe the leaves are ſharp pointed, and reſemble the head of a lance. It is alſo called filix aculeata, and filix mas. The root is aperient and diuretic, but not much uſed in the preſent practice.

LONCHITIS. A name for a ſpecies of polypodium, and a ſpecies of hermodactylus.

LONCHOTON. A name for the beſt ſpecies of vitriol.

LONGANON, or Longaon. Names for the inteſtinum rectum.

LONGISSIMUS DORSI. This muſcle is thus named from its length. It is the longeſt in the back. It hath the ſame origination with the ſacrolumbaris; it is inſerted by ſeveral digitations into the ribs on the inſide of the upper part of this muſcle; betwixt it and the complexus, the tranſverſalis colli of Albinus is ſeated, which runs from the tranſvere proceſſes of the vertebræ of the back to thoſe of the neck, and is an erector of the body.

LONGUS COLLI. This muſcle riſes from the two upper vertebræ of the back, and runs to be inſerted into the three upper vertebræ of the neck. It is made up of two planes, which decuſſate each other; and it receives ſlips from ſome of the lower tranſverſe proceſſes of the neck. Its office is to bend the neck.

LONGISSIMUS OCULI, i. e. Obliquus major cum trochlea.

LONGISSIMUS POLLICIS MANUS, i. e. Flexor tertii internodii pollicis manus.

LOPHADIA, or Lophia. Names of the firſt vertebræ of the back. *Lophia* alſo ſometimes ſignifies the upper part of the back of the neck.

LORDOSIS, from λορδος, *bowed or bent inward*. It is an affection of the ſpine, in which it is bent inward, or toward the fore parts. It is the oppoſite to gibboſity. It is alſo a name for the lumbago, and the tabes dorſalis. When it is ſpoken of the bones of the legs, it ſignifies bow-legged.

LORICA. A kind of lute with which glaſs retorts, &c. are coated, before being put into the fire. Many kinds of

of coating are made for chemical veſſels. See Dict. of Chem.

LORIND MATRICIS. An epilepſy, or a convulſive diſorder proceeding from the uterus.

LOTIO. A lotion. It is an external fluid application. Embrocation, lotion, and collyrium, are ſimilar forms; but when uſed on the eyes, receives the name of collyrium; on the face, a lotion; on any other part, an embrocation. Lotio, (from *lavare*, to waſh), ſometimes ſignifies a clyſter.

LOTUS. It is a ſpecies of plant of which Boerhaave enumerates ſixteen ſpecies. Thoſe that are uſed in medicine are noticed under other names which they bear. It is alſo a name for a ſpecies of coronilla, of vulneraria, and dorycnium.

LOTUS ARBOR, called alſo celtis. The lote or nettle-tree. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies. They grow in the ſouthern parts of Europe; their fruit, which is a berry, is aſtringent.

LOTUS URBANA, called alſo trifolium odoratum, melilotus major odorata violacea. Sweet trefoil. It is the trifolium cæruleum, Linn. Boerhaave ranks it as a ſpecies of melilot. The ſeeds, leaves and flowers, are anodyne and diaphoretic.

LOXARTHRUS. Supple joint. The flexibility of the joint is to a degree of deformity, though not to admit of or endanger luxation.

LUCE (Eau de). It is a kind of liquid ſoap that is volatile, and of a ſtrong penetrating ſmell. See Alkali.

LUCIDUM SAL, i. e. Sal gemmæ.

LUCIDUS LAPIS, i. e. Bononienſis lapis.

LUDUS HELMONTII. The waxen vein. It is a ſtony ſubſtance, and ſeems to be indurated clay: it is found in pits, and is diſtinguiſhed by the yellow cracks which are frequent in it, and which are filled up with yellow ſpar. Paracelſus preſcribed the cubic pyritæ, which are like dice, and called them ludi: Helmont miſtook him, ſuppoſed this ſtone, which is moſtly divided into ſquares by the cracks, to be the ſubſtance. The ſpar only, that fills up the cracks, is only to be uſed; for it is the ſpar only that promotes urine. This ſpar is a ſpecies of calcareous ſtone.

LUDUS PARACELSI, i. e. Ludus Helmontii.

LUES NEURODES CONVULSIVA. It is a mild typhus.

LUES. It is the peſtilence in men, and the murrain in beaſts.

LUES DEIFICA. One of the pompous names for the epilepſy.

LUES VENEREA. The plague of Venus, or venereal diſeaſe. Dr. Cullen names it ſyphilis, and places it as a genus in the claſs cachexiæ, and order impetigines. It is alſo called the venereal peſtilence or pox. It is endemic in Peru. It was brought from the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies into Spain in 1493; in 1494 it was carried from Spain to Italy; in 1495 it was ſpread both in Naples and France: from theſe all Europe was infected. That this diſorder was unknown to the Greeks and Romans appears from their abſolute ſilence concerning it. All phyſicians who lived at the time when it appeared firſt in Europe, unanimouſly declared their ignorance of it, any further than that it was brought into Europe at the cloſe of the fifteenth century. See Aſtruc on the Venereal Diſeaſe, vol. i. b. 1. c. 1. The firſt inſtances upon record of poxes, that is, of the venereal diſeaſe, imported from America, are in the writings of one Boyle, a Benedictine monk, and in Peter Margarit, a noble Catalonian, in 1494.

Wherever this diſorder attacks at the firſt, it is conveyed into the conſtitution by the lymphatics; if the infection is received by the penis by means of the abſorbent or lymphatic veins, the bubo happens in the groin; for the lymphatics of the genitals paſs thro' the inguinal glands; if at the hand, the axilla will be the ſeat of the bubo, for the ſame kind of reaſon; if at the lips, the glands in the neck will tumify and inflame. This diſorder never affects the viſcera, but it attacks the bones; hardly a bone in the body but what hath been injured by it, though moſt commonly it is ſeated in the ſhin bones, upper part of the ſkull, the bones of the arm near the joints of the elbows, and ſometimes the knees, ribs, or even the ſpine; ſome external glands, the palate, noſe, ſkin, or ſome other part not out of the reach of ſurgery, are the uſual parts affected. It is probable that the lacunæ are the firſt ſeat of infection; if ſo, the nearer the firſt ſeat of running is to the neck of the bladder, the more the urethra will be affected, the ſymptoms more ſevere, the diſcharge greater, and vice verſa; for, wherever the ſeat is, betwixt that and the neck of the bladder eſcapes unhurt. The inflammation and heat of urine is felt moſt near the glans, and the ſeat of inflammation and pain are moſt likely to be the ſeat of the diſcharge.

In patients of a thin habit, the ſymptoms and cure are worſe and more difficult to manage than in the fat and plethoric. And in children this diſorder is worſe than in adults.

It is always propagated by infection. The venereal matter muſt be applied in a fluid ſtate, either to ſome part where the mucus is very ſoft, as it is in the parts of generation, &c. or to a wound or ulcer; or it may be given to a child from its mother during her pregnancy. The venereal matter almoſt always occaſions a converſion of the mucus of the part, or of the fluids of the ulcer or wound, into a matter ſimilar to itſelf, and when a ſufficient quantity hath been thus produced it brings on an inflammation in the mucous membrane, or glands, or in the wound, or ulcer, and it is afterwards ſometimes abſorbed into the general ſyſtem of the veſſels, but very ſeldom before: the firſt ſymptom therefore appears in the part where the infection was received.

If children receive the infection from their mothers, they are ſometimes born with ſymptoms of the diſeaſe, as inflammations of the ſkin, gonorrhœa, &c. but for the moſt part there is no appearance for ſeveral days; but in about a week eruptions with browniſh ſpots or ſcabs, degenerating in ulcers, ariſe about the angles of the mouth, or other parts of the head, over the body.

Women are not ſubject to ſo great a variety of ſymptoms as men are; their chief complaints are, a difficulty of urine, and a running; however, they are liable to chancres and warts, both within and without the labiæ pudendæ, as alſo buboes in the groin; and ſometimes a contraction of the ſphincter vaginæ.

The firſt ſymptom obſervable in a freſh gonorrhœa in men is uſually an agreeable ſenſation in the whole or the greateſt part of the urinary paſſage; at this time no, or ſcarce any, diſcharge is obſervable on the linen: then an uneaſineſs about the parts of generation, together with an appearance of a little whitiſh, or rather water-coloured, matter about the orifice of the urethra, when in the moſt favourable degree; but oftener it is whitiſh, and differs in colour and conſiſtence daily, becoming yellow; then, if the virulence is great, it is greeniſh, and ſometimes ſtreaked with blood. When the running is viſible, there is alſo an inflammation and ſwelling about the orifice of the urethra: this ſymptom is ſometimes perceptible when no running appears; in this caſe there is a degree of pungency on the evacuation of urine; the heat of urine is ſcarce perceived in voiding it, but immediately after the patient feels an extreme heat throughout the whole duct of the urethra, but more eſpecially at its termination in the glans. Spots appear on the linen, the edges of which are darker coloured than the center; this dark margin is a principal mark to diſtinguiſh the venereal diſcharge from thoſe ariſing from other cauſes. From a defect of mucus in the urethra the urine excites a ſmarting and pain there as it paſſes through. The matter diſcharged from the urethra increaſes in quantity. The inflammation at the end of the urethra increaſes too, as appears from the redneſs and hardneſs of the edge of its orifice. A tenſion and hardneſs is perceived through the whole length of the urethra, and a ſenſation of ſtricture in the penis, particularly during an erection. The matter diſcharged is thinner, loſes its adheſiveneſs, and is more ill coloured. The inflammation often occaſions a curvedneſs in the penis, and the ſtimulus, by which the inflammation is excited, occaſions an erection too when the patient is warm in bed, and ſometimes produces involuntary emiſſions; this ſymptom is called a cordee, or a priapiſmus. If the inflammatory ſymptoms are violent, a ſtrangury comes on. Sometimes an inflammation in the prepuce confines it from

being drawn back, and thus forms a phymoſis; or being drawn behind the glans cannot be returned, and is then called paraphymoſis. When the ſtricture from theſe two laſt ſymptoms is not ſpeedily relieved, a mortification comes on the part, or the whole of the penis becomes œdematous, in which caſe, without great care, a gangrene follows. In all theſe caſes ulcers are apt to be formed. Thus the inflammation continues to increaſe generally for about a week or two. If the mucus that is diſcharged waſhes away the venereal matter faſter than it is formed, the ſymptoms may continue in the ſame ſtate for ſome time, and then gradually decreaſe, and at length a cure is effected.

If the diſorder ends not thus happily, ulcers are formed, or the venereal poiſon being abſorbed, inſtead of a gonorrhœa, a lues venerea, or pox, is the conſequence. When the gonorrhœa is long continued, it ſometimes produces a ſtricture in the urethra, and occaſions a difficulty in the evacuation of the urine, which is often attended with pain, the water flowing out in a ſmall ſtream, or only by drops: ſometimes it alſo produces an inflammation, and a diſpoſition to contraction in the bladder, and the urethra alſo contracting, the ſtoppage is alſo increaſed: this generally goes off with a ſecretion of mucus from theſe parts; but it may have the other progreſſes and terminations of an inflammation of the bladder, and often no ſuch affection takes place, or if it does, goes off, and the ſtoppage and pain continue for years. The teſticles, the inguinal glands, and other parts, are ſubject to phlegmonous inflammations. Ulcers are formed in different parts of the body, as in the throat, occaſioning hoarſeneſs, or perhaps a deafneſs, from their ſituation on the orifice of the Euſtachian tube; or if theſe ulcers are very virulent, they eat through to the bone, and ſoon after deſtroying it, a paſſage is formed from the mouth to the noſe. Ulcers are formed in the ſkin; they begin with a purpliſh ſpot or brown ſcab. When ulcers from this cauſe happen in the palms of the hands, the ſoles of the feet, behind the ears, about the anus, or the inſides of the lips, they have the appearance of fiſſures; they alſo ouze out a thin matter, and are attended with great ſoreneſs and pain; the ſcurf and ſcab with which theſe ulcers begin are of a yelloviſh colour, inclining to brown, like the honey-comb; it appears on ſeveral parts of the body, by which circumſtance they may be diſtinguiſhed from all others; ſometimes they are broad, reſembling the deſcriptions given of the leproſy by ſome writers; and the more this ſcurf ſpreads, the eaſier the patient becomes. All theſe venereal eruptions are ſmall, and moſt frequently are formed on the temples or other part of the head, and when they ſcale off they leave a mark nearly of a chocolate colour behind them. The venereal matter fixing on the eyes, produces an ophthalmy, and ſometimes a loſs of ſight: falling on the ears, a deafneſs, and a caries of the bones there follows. It very often happens that the perioſteum is affected, and when the patient begins to grow warm in bed violent pains are excited; theſe pains are ſeated in the head and in the middle part of the bones of the limbs; in the morning they abate, and during the day are rarely troubleſome. Sometimes the perioſteum ſwelling, becomes hard, and forms thoſe tumors which are called nodes. Excreſcences alſo ariſe on the glans, penis, prepuce, anus, labia pudenda, &c. theſe are ſeldom painful. Various other ſymptoms appear when no means have been uſed to check the progreſs of the diſorder, but as mercury is ſo univerſally applied to, it is rare that even many of the above named appear in the ſame patient.

Some conſtitutions bear up many years under this diſeaſe; but others ſink under it ſoon, and are carried off.

The venereal gonorrhœa ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from that in which there is no infection, from the fluor albus, and from other increaſed ſecretions from the different parts ſubject to this diſtemper, from the involuntary emiſſions of ſemen, from ulcers in the urinary paſſages, venereal ulcers, pains, eruptions, &c. ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe which ariſe from any other cauſe.

The more regular the diſcharge from the urethra is made, the more mild are all the ſymptoms; but if the running is ſmall in quantity, or the matter of a yellow or greeniſh colour, it is virulent. If, upon preſſing the penis, a drop of limpid liquor, reſembling the white of an egg, is diſcharged, it indicates a ſafe cure.

As a preventive of this diſorder, the following is recommended: ℞ Cauſt. com. fort. Ph. Lond. ʒ i. ſolv. in aq. font. ℔ i. & cola per chartam. Some of this ſolution is to be mixed with a tea-cup full of water (ſo much as the mouth can bear without pain), then fill a ſyringe with the liquor, and inject it into the urethra, or vagina, retaining it there for about a minute; then add to the remainder of the liquor a tea-ſpoonful of the ſolution, and waſh the glans, prepuce, labia pudendi, &c. Laſtly, inject and waſh with warm water.

When the diſorder is contracted, the indications of cure are, to deſtroy the venereal infection, and to remove the ſymptoms excited by it.

A gonorrhœa, if recent, is beſt managed, by firſt treating it as a topical inflammation; at the ſame time rendering the urine as ſoft as poſſible by the uſe of demulcent drinks; ſuch as a decoction of marſhmallow root, or a ſolution of gum arabic in water.

The ſeat of the gonorrhœa is always in the inner membrane of the urethra, but it may ſpread to the proſtatæ and veſiculæ ſeminales, and by gently ſqueezing the penis it may generally be diſcovered in what particular part of the urethra this diſorder hath its ſeat; for either a hardneſs will be felt in the part, or the patient will complain of pain on almoſt any degree of preſſure thereon.

Purging with the ſal Glaub. or the ol. ricini, will be proper until the inflammatory ſymptoms abate; and then begin to rub the penis under the urethra with the ungt. cœrul. fort. every night at bed time; or inject a ſolution of argent. viv. in the mucilage of gum arabic, and rendered ſufficiently fluid with linſeed oil freſh drawn; repeat the injection three or four times a day, retaining it eight or ten minutes each time.

When injections are uſed, the patient ſhould always make water firſt, for thus much of the virulent matter is waſhed away. The time to leave off injecting is when the running no longer ſtains the linen with a dark edged ſpot. The running does not always ceaſe at this time, but though it continues a week or two, it gradually leſſens.

During this time avoid all exceſſes; let the exerciſe be gentle and moderate; the diet ſomewhat abſtemious, or at leaſt free from every degree of what increaſes the natural heat, or excites an extraordinary one.

If this method cannot be conformed to, give a few cooling purges at proper intervals, and one of the following pills, or two, if the patient can bear them without affecting his mouth, or exciting any of the ſenſible excretions: ℞ Calom. gr. i. tart. emet. gr. ½, conſ. cynoſb. q. ſ. f. pil. h. ſ. ſumend. Or the following ſolution may be given night and morning with two or three diſhes of tea, or a draught of milk and water, or of whey: ℞ Merc. cor. alb. gr. xvi. ſp. vini. Gal. ℔ i. cujus cap. cochl. mediocr. vel. magn. omn. mane nocteque. This laſt perſiſted in for ſome time, hath effectually removed the different degrees and ſymptoms of a confirmed pox, eſpecially when accompanied with a pint or more of a decoction of ſarſaparilla.

When an ulcer appears, or any ſymptom of the venereal matter, being abſorbed, the uſe of mercury, or ſome other ſpecific, is neceſſary. If mercury is uſed, it ſhould be ſo managed that the whole habit may be affected by it, and yet none of the ſenſible diſcharges produced. It ſhould be given ſo as to produce hardneſs, fullneſs, and a moderate frequency in the pulſe, but nothing further; for mercury is moſt effectual and ſpeedily uſeful when the patient's ſtrength is not leſſened by it. As to a ſalivation, except the patient is ſo irritable that the ſmalleſt quantities of mercury immediately affect the mouth, it is not neceſſary, in order to a ſafe and effectual cure. Indeed an unruly patient is ſometimes beſt managed this way. See SALIVATIO.

In the worſt caſes the mercury is beſt conveyed into the habit, through the ſkin; but in leſs extraordinary circumſtances, its inward uſe may ſuffice. The ſolution of mer. cor. A. is moſt convenient when the patient muſt be expoſed to the air; otherwiſe preparations of crude mercury are to be preferred, or the pill with calom. & tart. emet. above preſcribed. If, without affecting the mouth, mer-

mercurials run off by the inteſtines, give the following pill: ℞ Opii & tart. emet. ā ā gr. ½, conſ. cynoſb. q. ſ. f. pil. mane ac veſper. ſumend.

Sometimes it happens that whilſt the patient continues in the air of a large town, all means prove ineffectual; but, ſoon after his removal into the country, he is reſtored to health. It is alſo moſt ſafe to continue the uſe of mercurials for four or five weeks, although every ſymptom may have diſappeared.

Dr. Smith recommends the following conciſe method of managing a confirmed *lues venerea*. Give mercury only by way of alterative, and adminiſter it as follows: ℞ Merc. calcin. gr. i. ad iii. ſulph. ant. precip. g. ii. ad iv. extr. theb. gr. ſs. ad gr. i. conſ. roſar. ℞. q. ſ. f. bol. omn. noct. hor. decubitus ſumend.

During the uſe of the mercurial bolus the patient ſhould take half a pint of the following decoction four times a day: ℞ Rad. ſarſaparil. ℥ iij. laureolæ ʒ ij. coq. ex aq. font. ℔iiij. ad ℔ij. & cola.

During the cure he directs that the patient be kept warm, uſe a light diet, drink plenty of broth and other thin liquors, and go frequently into a warm bath.

Sometimes the internal uſe of mercury produces uneaſineſs in the ſtomach and bowels, or paſſeth off by ſtool too freely; in theſe caſes, as well as on other accounts, the mercury may with equal advantage be applied by rubbing the ungt. cœrul. fort. on the ſkin, as directed in the article SALIVATIO, which ſee.

To what is already ſaid, it may be added, that the Peruvian bark is a neceſſary addition in all caſes where the patient's ſtrength is diminiſhed, where inflammation attends, and where there are œdematous ſwellings.

In caſe of a woman's being pregnant, the ſame gentle method above recommended may be uſed with all the ſafety and advantage that follows it when this ſuppoſed impediment does not attend. In the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. ii. is an inſtance of a pregnant woman being cured by the uſe of merc. cor. A. in ſp. vin. Gal. taken inwardly, and waſhing the ſores on the external parts therewith.

Purges. Theſe can only be required on account of particular ſymptoms, or a particular habit of body; for the venereal poiſon is only to be deſtroyed by proper alteratives; therefore, as briſk purges and mercurial medicines, when freely uſed, increaſe the irritability of the habit, and thereby render the cure more difficult, ſome prudence is required in their uſe. The gentler purges that irritate leaſt are to be preferred; and mercurials of the ſimpleſt kind ſhould always be uſed; the continuance of either of them ſhould be no longer than until the reſpective ends are obtained. While the complaint is local, purges are obviouſly uſeleſs, except to remove ſome particular ſymptom.

Nitre. It is commonly uſed to abate inflammation in a gonorrhœa; but as it produces weakneſs and uneaſineſs about the neck of the bladder, and hath no pretenſion to the end for which it is given, that is, either to ſheath the acrimony of the fluids, or to defend the urethra from their ſtimuli, emollients and demulcents ſhould be given in its ſtead. Decoction of marſhmallow roots, or ſolution of gum arabic, would be properly directed as common drink.

Lobelia. The root of this plant is one of the ſpecifics uſed by the American Indians, by which the venereal diſeaſe is deſtroyed, and all its ſymptoms removed.

Mezereon. The bark of its root is recommended as a radical cure, and as effectually removing nodes and nocturnal pains. See LAUREOLA FOEMINA. It ſhould be uſed for two or three months.

Sarſaparilla. The root ſoon relieves night pains, headachs, waſting, dry blotches, moiſtures, and even a caries in the bone is put a ſtop to, if a mild mercurial courſe accompanies it. The decoction ſhould be made freſh, at the furtheſt, every day; and is beſt when not made with a mixture of guaiacum. Joined with mercury, it always effects a cure, and often cures after a long uſe of mercury hath failed.

As to the ſymptoms which occaſionally attend and require a particular management, the following methods uſually ſucceed.

Chancres, ſee CHANCRE. Bubo, ſee BUBO. Swelled Teſticles, ſee HERNIA HUMORALIS.

Caruncles in the Urethra. They rarely take place before the running is nearly ſtopped, if ever they are formed at all, for it is a cicatrix that is found on diſſection; the ulcers in the urethra healing, leave a cicatrix which checks the free paſſage of the urine. A bougie paſſed up the urethra, a little beyond the place where it meets with reſiſtance, and kept there an hour or more every day, is the proper method of cure. Sometimes a ſtricture in the urethra is miſtaken for a caruncle, but the cure is the ſame.

Gumma, tophus, or nodus. Theſe are tumors on the perioſteum; the firſt is the ſofteſt; the laſt the hardeſt; they are moſt frequently cauſed by the venereal diſorder; much pain attends them. The decoction of mezereon, as above named, is recommended as a radical cure; a ſalivation is not to be depended on: but ſurgery provides an effectual remedy, viz. by cutting down to the bone, taking out the tumor, or as much as can conveniently be managed, and by bringing on a ſuppuration.

Ulcers. Theſe are on the ſkin, or the mucous membrane; their edges are reddiſh, or ſometimes of an aſh-colour, but their ſurface is whitiſh, and their form irregular; they are ſore or painful: if they are ill-treated, they eaſily become cancerous, and hardly admit of a cure, though they are eaſily brought to look well, and to have the appearance of a healing ſtate. Rough medicines, and a too free uſe of mercury, produces the worſt effects. Mild mercurials are always proper; if there is any morbid acrimony in the blood, demulcents ſhould accompany the mercury; and the bark ſhould never be omitted when venereal ulcers attend; though if there is an inflammatory habit, it ſhould be removed by bleeding, &c.

Venereal, as well as other ulcers, are diſpoſed to good granulation and ſuppuration by the uſe of the bark given with the mercury. The bark alone, by deſtroying the irritability of the ſyſtem, will make the ulcers put on a good appearance and heal; but after a time, the diſeaſe will be apt to make its appearance again, ſo that we ſhould never truſt to any medicine but mercury.

It deſerves notice, that mercury will ſometimes produce ulcers, on the tonſils, uvula, and inſide of the cheek, which do not look much unlike a venereal ulcer, viz. deep, with a looſe ſlough, and unequal hard riſing craggy edges, but appear ſuperficial, i. e. more like an inflamed eroſion. The bark, with cleanlineſs, will remove theſe ulcers in a few days, even when to a perſon unuſed to obſerve theſe caſes, the velum palati would ſeem likely to drop off in two or three days.

Mr. Bell obſerves, in his Treatiſe on Ulcers, that thoſe which he calls ſymptomatic, or that are the reſult of a venereal taint that hath been of a long continuance, are ſingular in the appearance of their diſcharge, which is as follows: at firſt it is thin, but ſoon becomes tough and viſcid; having a very loathſome, though not the ordinary fœtid putrid ſmell, and a ſingular greeniſh yellow colour. In ſuch ulcers as have an old pox for their cauſe, we ſhould depend on the effects of mercury given internally, contenting ourſelves with ſuch external applications as will keep the ſore clean. In this manner, the different ulcers healing up merely by the uſe of internal remedies, proves almoſt to a certainty, that the diſeaſe is eradicated from the habit; and further, it is the only proof that little or no more mercury is required. Venereal ulcers are apt to be inflamed, and then by the pain they occaſion are very troubleſome; if this inflammation becomes conſiderable, bleed; but for the moſt part, a proper application of the ſaturnine poultice will ſuffice. The inflammation removed, the ungt. cereum. ph. Edinb. will be the only needful dreſſing. The pil. merc. ph. Edinb. is generally the beſt mercurial for inward uſe, but ſometimes it fails, and then the merc. cor. alb. is generally more ſucceſsful; it may be given in the form of pills, or ſolution. In ſome obſtinate venereal ulcers, it ſometimes happens that various mercurial preparations are to be tried before it is known on which to depend; but when a proper one is diſcovered, it ſhould be uſed for ſome time after every appearance that is venereal hath vaniſhed. If the ulcer is ſeated near a bone,

and

and fungous fleſh appears in it, a caries may be ſuſpected; in which caſe, beſides the neceſſary treatment for carious bones, mercury muſt be adminiſtered. Theſe ulcers are not unfrequently obſtinate and do not heal, although every venereal ſymptom hath vaniſhed: here we may ſuſpect the preſence of ſome other diſeaſe, and that both have had their ſhare in producing as well as continuing the ulcer. As ſoon as the diſeaſe is diſcovered, the proper remedies for its removal muſt be directed; and then a cure will ſoon be accompliſhed. It may be that the ſores will not heal, though no other diſeaſe is attendant, but from the free uſe of mercury, &c. the body is enfeebled; here the bark, with a nouriſhing diet, a pure air, and moderate exerciſe may, be tried, and uſually ſucceſs will be the reſult. If the ſloughs on theſe ulcers are tough, dreſſings that gently ſtimulate will be required; e. g. ℞ Ung. Baſil. Flav. ℥i. Merc. cor. R. ʒij. m. When the ſloughs are caſt off, and a proper diſcharge is produced, dreſs with ſuch other means as the then ſtate of the ſore requires. When a gland is the ſeat of a general ulcer, a kindly ſuppuration is then difficultly produced, and ſometimes a cure cannot be performed, without deſtroying at leaſt all the hardened part of it. This is beſt done by repeated applications of the lunar cauſtic, which may be repeated every third or fourth day.

Venereal ulcers, whether in buboes, chancres, or otherwiſe, when they appear cancerous, will gradually give way by the uſe of freſh air, a fuller diet, abſtinence from mercury, or by means of hemlock applied outwardly, or given inwardly, whether with or without opiates. Sometimes, a more ſpeedy effect has been obſerved from eating ſix or more lemons in a day. See ſome obſervations of this kind in the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 338, &c. Venereal ulcers in the throat may be conveniently relieved with the following: ℞ Mer. cor. alb. gr. x. ſp. ſal. marin. gut. v. ſp. lav. c. ℥i. m. cap. gut. v—xx. bis diem in aq. puræ vel juſcul. avenac.

Warts and excreſcences. When the infection is ſecurely deſtroyed, theſe may be removed either by a cauſtic or the knife. If they are cut away, deſtroy their roots with the lunar cauſtic, if they are warts, or hardiſh; but the ſofter rub them only with a mixture of quickſilver and lard, in equal quantities, or with the aq. phagæden. When the whole is deſtroyed, heal the ulcer as a common one.

Mr. Deaſe, in the fourth volume of the Edinb. Medical Commentaries, obſerves, how difficult it is to eradicate venereal warts; and at the ſame time cautions againſt perſiſting very long in a courſe of mercury for their removal. He aſſerts, that they continue after the venereal virus is effectually removed from the habit, ſo then they are merely local, and require no other treatment than ſuch applications as will remove and prevent them from returning.

Pains in the bones. Theſe are moſt troubleſome in the night. The decoction of mezereon is here effectual; but an opiate ſhould be given at bed-time, until the diſeaſe is vaniſhed. In this caſe be attentive to the deſtruction of the venereal infection.

Phymoſis. In the venereal diſeaſe this is uſually of the œdematous kind; and beſides the uſe of proper mercurials, the bark ſhould alſo be given from an ounce, to an ounce and a half in twenty-four hours. In every kind of phymoſis, let milk and water be injected between the prepuce and glans very often. If by a due uſe of proper means the phymoſis does not give way, it muſt be cut open with a knife: for beauty the inciſion may be made on the upper-part, but to avoid every inconvenience it may be in one ſide. If the phymoſis hath continued long, ſo that the prepuce is hard and ſcirrhous, the whole of the prepuce ſhould be cut off. Externally the application of Goulard's ſaturnine water, or other ſuch like application, may be uſed to remove the phymoſis in the beginning, but emollient poultices muſt be forborne.

Paraphymoſis. The ſame general method is proper here that is directed for the phymoſis.

Cordee. See CHORDE.

See Aſtruc on the Venereal Diſeaſe; Chapman's Abridment of Aſtruc on the Venereal Diſeaſe; Heiſter's Surgery; Fordyce's Elements, part the ſecond; Falck's Treatiſe on the Venereal Diſeaſe; Fordyce's Review of the Venereal Diſeaſe; Swediar on Venereal Complaints.

LUJULA. Wood-ſorrel. It is the oxalis acetoſella. Linn.

LUMBAGO, from *lumbus*, *a loin*. The rheumatic pain in the loins. See RHEUMATISMUS. The Latins have called a tabes dorſalis thus. Pains from other cauſes, when in this part, alſo take this name.

LUMBAGO PSOADICA. See ARTHROPUOSIS.

LUMBAGO APOSTEMATOSA. See ARTHROPUOSIS.

LUMBAGO AB ARTHROCACE. See ARTHROPUOSIS.

LUMBALIS, & Lumbaris Internus. Names for the pſoas muſcle.

LUMBARES. The lumbal nerves. They paſs out from the ſpinal marrow through the vertebræ of the loins. They become larger from the firſt to the laſt. The firſt *lumbal* nerve throws a large branch backwards, and two filaments to the intercoſtal; the trunk of the nerve goes through the pſoas muſcle, then to the ſpine of the os ilium, at whoſe anterior ſuperior proceſs it throws off ſeveral branches to the muſcles, and one to the ſpermatic cord in the male, and to the round ligament of the female. The firſt going to join the ſecond gives off two filaments, one of, which goes to the ſpermatic cord, the other paſſes under the ligamentum Poupartii to the groin: it is from this that ſome account for the pain that is felt in the thigh during a fit of the ſtone.

This ſecond *lumbar* nerve lies on the inſide of the pſoas muſcle, goes through the head of it, and runs along it; then goes through the annual aperture of the obliquus externus to the ſcrotum in males, and the labia in women. The ſecond *lumbal* nerve joins with the third, and that again communicating with the fourth, form the crural nerve. See CRURALIS.

The fourth and fifth *lumbar* nerves, and the three firſt, ſacral, form the ſciatic nerve, which paſſing out at the great ſciatic notch, runs down between the tuberculum iſchii and trochanter major, along the internal and poſterior part of the thigh, between the biceps and ſemi-nervoſus, as far as the ham, rather nearer the inner condyle of the os femoris than the outer. See CAUDA EQUINA.

LUMBARES ARTERIÆ. They go out poſteriorly from the inferior deſcending aorta, in five or ſix pairs, or more, much in the ſame manner as the intercoſtals. The upper ones ſend branches to the neighbouring parts of the diaphragm and intercoſtal muſcles, and ſupply the place of ſemi-intercoſtal arteries; they are alſo diſtributed to the pſoas, and other adjacent muſcles; and, by perforating the oblique muſcles, they become external hypogaſtric arteries. They alſo go the vertebral muſcles, and enter the ſpinal canal.

LUMBARES VENÆ. Sometimes they proceed from the vena cava, near the biſurcation, and principally on the right ſide; ſometimes they proceed from the left iliac vein: this branch communicates with the azygos and intercoſtal veins.

LUMBARIS. The region of the loins. It is the poſterior external region of the belly. It extends from the loweſt ribs on each ſide, and the laſt vertebra of the back, to the os ſacrum, and the neighbouring parts of the os ilium. The ſides of this region are moſt properly called the loins, but the middle part hath no proper name in man. This region takes in alſo the muſculus quadratus lumborum, on each ſide the lower portions of the ſacro *lumbares*, of the longiſſimi, and latiſſimi dorſi, the muſculus ſacer, &c.

LUMBARIS INTERNUS, i. e. Muſc. pſoas magnus.

LUMBARIS EXTERNUS, i. e. Quadratus lumborum.

LUMBRICALES MUSCULI, ſo called becauſe they are long and ſlender, like *lumbricus*, *a worm*. Theſe belong both to the hands and feet. They are the productions of the flexors of the fingers and the toes, and taking their origin from their reſpective tendons, they wheel about the baſis of the fingers and toes, and join with the extenſors. Their office is, when the extenſors have done their utmoſt

moſt to finiſh the extenſion, and when the flexors have done their utmoſt to finiſh the flexion. Brown calls them, vermiculares, and flexor primi internodii.

LUMBRICI. The round-worms. See VERMES.

LUMBRICI LATI. Tape-worms. See VERMES.

LUMBRICORUM SEM. i. e. Sem. Santonica.

LUMBRICUS TERRESTRIS. The earth-worm. Theſe worms are ſuppoſed to have an antiſpaſmodic and diuretic virtue. If they are moiſtened with vinous ſpirits to prevent their putrefying, and ſet in a cellar, they are almoſt wholly reſolved in a few days into a ſlimy liquor, which is ſaid, when mixed with alkaline ſalts, to yield cryſtals of nitre. They are as good as ſnails for the ſame purpoſes that ſnails are uſed. As to the aq. lumbricorum, common water is to be preferred; and for the ol. lumbricorum, the olive oil may always be uſed.

LUMBUS VENERIS, i. e. Millefolium.

LUNA. So the chemiſts call ſilver.

LUNA PHILOSOPHORUM, i. e. Regulus antimonii.

LUNARE OS. The ſecond bone of the firſt row in the wriſt. It is ſo called, becauſe one of its ſides is in the form of a creſcent.

LUNARIA. Moon-wort. Boerhaave mentions eleven ſpecies. It is a kind of oſmunda, and is ſometimes ſo called; but it is not in uſe as a medicine.

LUNARIA. A name for a ſpecies of thlaſpidium, of oſmunda, of ionthlaſpi, and of medicago.

LUNATICA (ISCHURIA.) A ſuppreſſion of urine which returns monthly. It is noticed by Sauvage.

LUNÆTRIA. In the chemical jargon, it is a ſpecies of hectic, which is curable in one period of the moon.

LUPARIA. Alſo called aconitum Ponticum. Yellow wolf's-bane. Like the other ſpecies it is poiſonous.

LUPIA. A kind of tumor like a ganglion; it is hard, and may be ſeated on any part of the body. When it is in the inſide of the eye-lid it is called chalaza. A round, ſmall, ſoft tumor about the joints is called lupia. Dr. Cullen uſes this term as the generic one for a wen. See NÆVUS.

LUPINUS. A lupine. It is a podded plant, and, with us, only an ornament in gardens. It flowers in June, and ripens its ſeeds in July and Auguſt. Boerhaave mentions ſeven ſpecies. That formerly uſed in medicine was the *lupinus albus*. Linn.

LUPULUS, alſo called Humulus. The hop. This plant hath hollow ſtalks, and broad ſerrated leaves, which are cut into three, or five ſharp pointed ſections. On the tops, grow looſe ſcaly heads, with ſmall flat ſeeds among them. It grows wild in hedges, and at the bottom of hills, in England and other parts of Europe; but thoſe that are in uſe are cultivated in plantations. It is perennial. In Auguſt and September, the ſcaly heads are dried in kilns by means of a gentle fire.

The ſcaly heads have a bitter, warm, aromatic taſte; they give out their virtue to ſpirit, both proof and rectified, by maceration without heat; and to water, by warm infuſion. The extracts obtained from the ſpirituous tincture is an elegant bitter; but the only preſent uſe of this article, is for preſerving malt liquor. The Spaniards boil a pound of hop-roots in a gallon of water to ſix pints, and drink half a pint of the decoction, whilſt in bed, every morning; this they do to cure the lues venerea. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

LUPUS. A name for the cancer, becauſe it eats away the fleſh like a wolf.

LUPUS MARINUS. The toad-ſtone. See BUFONITES LAPIS; alſo the ſea-wolf, whoſe grinder teeth are called bufonnites lapides.

LUPUS PHILOSOPHORUM. Antimony.

LUSCIOSI. See NYCTALOPS.

LUSCIOSUS. One who only diſcerns objects that are very near the eye.

LUTEA, called alſo luteola, ſtruthium, and dyer's weed. The root boiled with ſalt dyes wool of a fine yellow colour. Dioſcorides recommends it as uſeful in the jaundice, but the preſent practice does not notice it.

LUTUM. Lute. Many chemical veſſels require to be covered with ſomething to preſerve them from the violence of the fire, from being broken or melted, and alſo to cloſe exactly their joinings to each other. The matters prepared for thoſe ends are, in general, called *lutes*; when this *luting* is applied as a cover to veſſels, it is alſo called coating. Glaſs veſſels may be covered with a mixture of equal parts of coarſe ſand, and refractory clay, mixed up with water and a little hair, ſo as to form a liquid paſte. This may be ſpread with a bruſh upon the glaſs, and when the firſt coat is dry, lay on another, &c. until the covering is ſufficiently thick.

The *lutes* with which the joining of veſſels are cloſed are of different kinds, according to the nature of the operations to be made, and of the ſubſtances to be diſtilled in theſe veſſels. When vapours of watery liquors, and ſuch as are not corroſive, are to be prevented from eſcaping, it is ſufficient to ſurround the joining of the receiver to the noſe of the alembic, or of the retort, with ſlips of paper, or of linen, covered with a mixture of wheat flour and water, of the conſiſtency of ſoft paſte, or ſlips of bladder wetted, may ſuffice, if carefully applied, ſo as to ſecure every chink. When more penetrating and diſſolving vapours are to be ſecured, the *lute* may conſiſt of a ſoft paſte made of quick lime that is quenched in air, and mixed with the white of egg. When corroſive acid vapours are to be confined, the *lute*, known by the name of fat *lute*, is very proper, It is thus made: ſift fine clay that is well dried and powdered through a ſilken ſcarce, moiſten it with water, and then beat it into a ſtiff paſte with linſeed oil that is boiled, and fit for the painter's uſe. This paſte is to be applied to the junctures, but as it does not dry, it muſt be ſecured by means of ſlips of linen wrapped round it, and theſe ſlips muſt be covered with the *lute* made of quenched lime and white of egg. See Dict. of Chem.

LUXATIO. A luxation or diſlocation. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order ectopiæ. Cœlius Aurelianus calls it delocatio. P. Ægineta, in lib. vi. cap. 8. deſcribes a *luxation* as follows: "It is a removal of the bone received from its proper cavity to another, by means of which voluntary motion is hindered." Boerhaave ſays, that the removal of an articulated bone from its cavity, is either total or partial; and that the former is a *luxation*, and the latter a diſtortion; but a partial *luxation* is properly termed a ſubluxation, becauſe a diſtortion denotes a change in the ſituation of the muſcles. Another diviſion is into ſimple and compound *luxations*: the firſt is, when a wound, a fracture, a contuſion, or other marks of violence attend.

Luxations may proceed from external, or from internal cauſes; and thoſe from internal cauſes are thus known. 1. The limb is ſo relaxed, that it may be eaſily moved in any direction. 2. There is a cavity about the joint, and a hollowneſs between the bones, which may be felt with the fingers. 3. The diſlocated bone may eaſily be replaced, but ſoon ſlips out again ſpontaneouſly, becauſe of the weakneſs of the ligament and muſcles. 4. The diſlocated limb is longer than the ſound one. 5. No pain, inflammation, or convulſion, attends a *luxation* of this kind. 6. This happens generally to the upper part of the femur, or humerus, and ſometimes in the articulation of the foot with the tibia. When a *luxation* happens from an external injury, the diagnoſtics are ſometimes uncertain, becauſe a violent contuſion, or diſtortion, may render the joint tumid, which, with the pain, will obſcure the evidences of a *luxation*. In ſuch dubious caſes we muſt ſuſpend our judgment; and, indeed, could we be poſitive, that a *luxation* had happened, until the inflammation and tumor had, in a good degree, given way, attempts towards a reduction would be improper. However, the moſt readily to diſcover a *luxation*, it may be obſerved, that when the head of a bone is removed out of its place, the other end will be diſtorted in an oppoſite direction; for when the ſuperior end is outwards, the inferior will be inwards, and vice verſa. Further, generally, a tumor is obſervable where the diſlocated part of the bone is ſeated, and an hollowneſs where it receded from; though where there is much fleſh, the tumor and cavity are not eaſily perceived.

Various ſymptoms occur in conſequence of a *luxation*, but theſe are ſomewhat different, or as the parts are different in which the accident hath happened; in general, they are an immobility, or at leaſt a defective motion of the diſlocated limb; a diſtraction of ſome of the adjacent

muſcles, and a relaxation of others; a torpor of the ſubjacent parts; a compreſſion of the adjacent veſſels, whence an atrophy, or a gangrene, pain, an œdema, convulſion, &c.

Compound *luxations* are more dangerous than compound fractures. Boerhaave ſays, "The worſt *luxation* of all is that produced by a ſolution, or a ſeparation of the epiphyſis from the body of the bone. In general, a modeſt prognoſtic is moſt conſiſtent with ſkill, experience, and prudence; but difficulties and uncertainties are to be apprehended from the largeneſs of the *luxation*, that is, the diſtance of the diſlocated bone from its proper place: the figure of the luxated limb; the part in which the *luxation* is ſeated; the parts preſſed, or intercepted; pain; inflammation, and other violent ſymptoms.

The principal indications of cure are, to reduce the luxated part; and ſecondly, to retain it in its proper ſituation. But if inflammation, or tumor are conſiderable, theſe ſhould be removed before a reduction is attempted. In reducing *luxations*, the muſcles ſhould all be put into a ſtate of the greateſt relaxation. Mr. Pott obſerves, that the aſſiſtance of the muſcles are the alone cauſe of the difficulty of reducing *luxations*; that much force is never required, provided the muſcles are relaxed by a proper poſition of the limb; and that in recent caſes, at leaſt, the capſular ligament will rarely, if ever impede. The extenſion ſhould be gradual and continued, until the diſlocated bone is on a level with the cavity from whence it receded, at which time, if the head does not return of itſelf, it muſt be aſſiſted by preſſing upon it, and making a lever of the diſlocated bone. Dr. Hunter ſeems to think that the contraction of the muſcles is rarely an impediment to reduction, but the rupture in the capſular ligament; however, they both recommend a gentle extenſion, and to avoid every violent effort.

A Luxation *of the Ankle.*

Dr. Hunter obſerves that when there is a *luxation* of the malleolus internus, there is generally a fracture of the fibula; but that if the perſon is of a lax habit, the ligaments may be relaxed without a fracture.

If the ankle is luxated inwardly, the bottom of the foot turns outward; if it is luxated outwardly, the bottom of the foot turns inward; if forward, the heel becomes ſhorter, and the foot longer than uſual; if backward, the heel ſeems lengthened, and the foot ſhortened. This kind of luxation is uſually attended with violent pain, and often with other very violent ſymptoms; and the difficulty of reducing the ankle is proportioned to the violence of the cauſe. The patient being conveniently placed, two aſſiſtants ſhould extend the leg and foot in oppoſite directions, whilſt the operator replaces the bones with his hands and fingers. The reduction finiſhed, the patient ſhould keep in bed until the ſymptoms leave him, and he is in ſome meaſure able to reſt upon his ankle.

A Luxation *of the Clavicle.*

When this accident happens, the ſooner the reduction is performed the better, for old *luxations* of this kind are rarely cured.

The clavicle may ſlip from the ſternum either outwardly or inward; in the firſt caſe a preternatural tumor is obſerved about the joining of the bones; in the latter caſe, a ſinus is obſerved in the part affected, the aſpera arteria, the carotids, the contiguous nerve, and the œſophagus, are ſqueezed. As to the reduction of the bone in theſe caſes, the ſame general methods will ſuffice which are laid down in a caſe of a fractured clavicle, when the accident hath happened near the breaſt bone: the ſame may be alſo obſerved with reſpect to a *luxation* happening next the acromion.

A *luxation* happening next the acromion is ſometimes not eaſily diſtinguiſhed from a luxated humerus. Paré obſerves, when this caſe happens, that the upper part of the clavicle protuberates upwards, and a hollow or cavity is obſerved in the part where the clavicle is ſeparated from the acromion; violent pains alſo attend, and the patient cannot move the arm upwards. If in this laſt caſe the reduction is not ſpeedily effected, the arm will moſt probably ſoon become paralytic.

The greateſt care is required in the uſe of bandages; a defect herein may leave a ſtiff or a luxated arm. If the bone is luxated near the ſternum, and is ſtarted outward, beſides bolſters to ſuppreſs the end of the bone, the capelline bandage ſhould be uſed; but, if inward, the ſtellate bandage is to be preferred, on account of its keeping the ſhoulder back. If the *luxation* is next the ſcapula, the ſpica with two heads may be uſed. If both clavicles are diſplaced, the double ſpica muſt be applied as directed in *luxations* of the humerus and ſcapula.

A Luxation *of the Os Coccygis.*

It may be forced internally by a blow, and outwardly by a difficult birth. In this caſe violent pain is felt in the lower part of the ſpine, inflammations, and ſuppuration in the rectum are produced; theſe ſymptoms, with the ſight and touch, diſcover this *luxation*.

If this *luxation* is outward, it may be replaced by preſſure with the thumb; if inward, dip the fore-finger in oil, introduce it as high as poſſible up the anus, and puſh it outward, whilſt the other fingers, applied externally, guide it to a proper place.

The T bandage is proper here. After the bone is reduced, keep the patient pretty much in bed, and when he does ariſe, let him ſit in a chair with a hole in it.

A Luxation *of the Elbow.*

A perfect *luxation* rarely happens here, except the olecranon is fractured, or the ligament greatly weakened. This *luxation* may be backward (which is moſt frequent), forward, outward, or inward. If the *luxation* is backward, the arm appears crooked and ſhorter, and cannot be extended; in the internal part of the flexure the humerus will be prominent; in the external, the olecranon, with a large cavity between both bones. When, by reaſon of the fracture of the olecranon, the cubit is puſhed forward, the os humeri will ſtick out behind, the ulna is prominent on the fore-part, and a ſinus appears in proportion to the *luxation*. If the *luxation* is external, the tumor is ſo too, and vice verſa.

In a violent *luxation*, or one of long ſtanding, the bone cannot be replaced without great difficulty, by reaſon of the ſtrong ligaments and various proceſſes. Recent and ſlighter *luxations* are more eaſily reſtored.

If the ligaments and tendons are rigid, let emollient applications be uſed ſome time before attempting the reduction; the egg liquor is uſeful in this caſe. See ANCHYLOSIS.

Reduce this *luxation* by making an extenſion until the fore-arm can be put into a ſtate of flexion, and then the reſt is eaſily accompliſhed by bearing upon the lower end of the humerus with one hand, and by taking hold of the wriſt and bending the elbow with the other; and if it is on either ſide, the hand of the patient muſt be turned inward or outward, at the ſame inſtant, as the caſe requires. After reduction the arm ſhould be hung in a ſling for ſome time, that the parts may recover their tone.

Luxation *of the Fibula.*

This bone may be ſeparated from the tibia, either at the lower or ſuperior part. When it happens at the inferior part it generally proceeds from a *luxation* of the foot externally; this bone muſt therefore be reduced, bound up, and the reſt of the treatment muſt be agreeable to the directions given for *luxations* of the knee and patella.

A Luxation *of the Fingers.*

The joints of the fingers may be luxated in every direction; but an eaſy extenſion and gentle preſſure with a finger and thumb will eaſily produce them.

A Luxation *of the Bones of the Foot.*

A diſlocation of theſe bones produces great pain, inflammation, and ſometimes convulſions, &c. if ſpeedy aſſiſtance is not obtained. They are reduced as directed in caſe of bones in the hand being the ſubjects of this accident. The toes are treated as directed for the fingers.

A Luxation *of the Hand.*

The hand may be luxated backward, forward, and on each ſide; but backward and forward moſt frequently.

The

The hand is ſaid to be luxated forward when it inclines to the flexor muſcles of the fingers; backwards, when it inclines towards the extenſor muſcles; outwards, when there is a tumor near the thumb and a cavity near the little finger, and inwards when the reverſe happens.

From the diſtortion of the ſtrong ligament there is exquiſite pain and a rigidity of the fingers, which can neither be bent nor extended, by reaſon of the compreſſion of their tendons; from hence will follow inflammation, tumor, abſceſs, gangrene, and a caries of the ſpongy bones of the carpus, which are ſeldom curable but by amputation. But in a recent inconſiderable *luxation*, a milder practice will complete the cure. This kind of *luxation* ſhould therefore be ſpeedily reduced. Firſt by the hand and arm being extended in oppoſite directions; ſecondly, by placing the ſinus of the extended hand on a table or ſome other flat body, that the tumor may be depreſſed. This method muſt take place whatever part of the hand is luxated.

A Luxation *of the Head*,

A ſeparation of the bones of the cranium from the hydrocephalus is by ſome called a *luxation* of the head. Whatever elſe be the cauſe, compreſſion and bandage, if not by other circumſtances forbid, are all that can be applied, beſides the uſe of ſuch means as are adapted to the diſorder.

A Luxation *of the Heel Bone.*

This is luxated both inward and outward. A cavity on one ſide, and a tumor on the other ſide, diſcovers it; ſevere pain attends. Proceed to the cure as is directed when the bones of the hand are luxated.

A Luxation *of the Humerus.*

The head of this bone may ſlip out before, behind (even under the ſcapula), or downward; but never upwards, except the acromion and coracoid proceſs are fractured.

When the humerus is luxated downwards there is a cavity in the upper part of it, perceptible to the eye in ſome inſtances, but to the finger in all, and a tumor in the arm-pit, becauſe the head of the bone is lodged there; the luxated arm is longer than the other, and when it can be moved or extended, it gives exquiſite pain in lifting it up to the mouth.

Freſh *luxations* are moſt eaſily reduced; thoſe of long ſtanding are reſtored with difficulty; but if the head of the humerus grows to the adjacent parts, a reduction cannot be effected by any means.

To perform the reduction bend the fore-arm, and let an aſſiſtant ſupport it; then elevate the arm ſo that the elbow may be advanced ſomewhat above the ſhoulder, bringing it a little inward; then an aſſiſtant properly makes the extenſion, whilſt another, counteracting him, draws the inferior angle of the ſcapula backward toward the ſpine, and preſſeth the acromion downwards; the operator, with his fingers in the axilla, preſſes the head of the bone upward as ſoon as he perceives the extenſion to be ſufficiently made, and at the ſame time, with his other hand, brings the elbow of the luxated arm to the patient's ſide. An extenſion made downwards, or even horizontally, more frequently fails than when it is made in ſome degree upward.

When the *luxation* is forward, that is, when the head of the humerus is under the pectoral muſcle, there is a cavity under the acromion, but the head of the luxated bone projects towards the breaſt more than when juſt in the axilla; and if the arm is moved, a more acute pain is felt than in the preceding caſe; for the great artery and the arms of the nerves are much preſſed. If this kind of *luxation* is not eaſily reduced by the method directed, when the head of the humerus is in the arm-pit, let a pully from the top of a room be faſtened to the arm, juſt above the elbow of the luxated arm, and the patient gradually raiſed from the ground by it; this at leaſt brings the head of the humerus into the axilla, whence, as above directed, it may be reſtored into its proper place. In this proceſs remember to let the fore-arm be brought toward the breaſt, that the muſcles may be relaxed.

If the *luxation* is backward, the cubit approaches the præcordia, and the head of the bone is prominent on the outſide of the ſhoulder; the arm cannot be moved from the breaſt, nor extended without great agony, and the lower angle of the ſcapula will be ſomewhat puſhed out. In this caſe the general procedure may be the ſame as when the head of the humerus is under the pectoral muſcle.

In want of a pully, a tall ſtrong man may take the patient's arm over his ſhoulder and gently raiſe him from the ground, and the operator may puſh the head of the diſlocated bone into its place as the body becomes ſuſpended. This method of ſuſpending the patient is not ſo ſevere as it may ſeem; for as no force is uſed about the ſhoulder to make a counter extenſion, the patient does not ſuffer from thoſe troubleſome excoriations and contuſions, which too commonly attend the other methods.

As to the uſe of machines for reducing a luxated humerus, it is agreed among ſurgeons of the greateſt eminence that they are never needful. Freke's commander is preferred to all the reſt of the inſtruments uſed for this purpoſe; in the uſe of it the limb may be moved in all directions during the extenſion, and the ſituation of the head of the bone can be examined; but great care is required to keep it perpendicular to the ſide of the patient.

As in other *luxations*, bleeding, &c. to prevent or check inflammation and ſwelling, muſt be uſed after the reduction, and the arm ſuſpended in a ſling.

A Luxation *of the lower Jaw.*

This bone is uſually luxated forwards, and that on one or both its ſides. If one ſide only is luxated, the chin inclines to the oppoſite ſide, and on the diſlocated ſide the mouth is wider open. When both ſides are diſlocated, the mouth gapes wide, the jaw ſtarts forward, and the chin falls towards the breaſt, ſo that the patient cannot ſhut his mouth, ſpeak diſtinctly, nor ſwallow with eaſe. This accident may happen from a blow or from yawning.

When one ſide only is diſlocated, it is eaſily reduced; but, when both ſides ſuffer, an immediate reduction is neceſſary, or violent ſymptoms ſoon follow, which are ſometimes fatal.

In order to the reduction, place the patient in a low ſeat, with his head ſecure againſt the breaſt of an aſſiſtant; then wrap your thumbs round with rags, to ſave them from being bit; place them on the patient's teeth, as far back as you conveniently can, at the ſame time fixing your fingers on the outſide of the jaw; when you have ſecure hold of the jaw, preſs it downward; then backward, and then upward; if all this is done, as it were in the ſame inſtant, the reduction will be complete.

If only one ſide is luxated, proceed in the ſame manner, only preſſing the affected ſide moſt forcibly downwards and backwards.

Bandages are uſeleſs in this caſe.

A Luxation *of the Knee.*

This is uſually partial. If it is complete, it is eaſily reduced, but then it is to no purpoſe, becauſe the croſs ligaments are broken. A luxated knee-pan is a neceſſary attendant of a luxated knee, and indeed is often taken for it; but a proper *luxation* of the knee is when the tibia recedes from the femur, which happens backward and to each ſide, but never forward, becauſe of the patella, which hinders it.

As this part is very little covered with fleſh, diſlocations here are eaſily diſcovered.

If the *luxation* is partial, place the patient on a table, one aſſiſtant taking hold of his thigh, and another extending his leg; in the mean time the operator may reduce the bone with his hands or his knees. In children and young perſons, if the extenſion is made with violence, it endangers a ſeparation of the epiphyſes, which is a ſtill worſe diſeaſe than the *luxation*.

A Luxation *of the Knee-pan.*

This may happen externally and internally. In order to its reduction, let the patient's leg be pulled ſtraight, or, if he can, he may ſtand on it erect; then let the operator take firm hold of the patella with his fingers, and force it into its place. After this nothing is required, but to allow a little reſt.

A Luxation

A Luxation *of the Metacarpus.*

In this caſe, what is ſaid on a *luxation* of the hand will be a ſufficient direction.

A Luxation *of the Neck.*

A *luxation* between the head and the upper vertebra of the neck is immediate death, becauſe of the preſſure on the medulla oblongata, or medulla ſpinalis. When a man is ſaid to have broken his neck there is a partial *luxation* of the firſt or ſecond vertebra only; in this caſe the chin is fixed to the breaſt, which prevents his ſpeaking, ſwallowing, or moving the parts below. If an aſſiſtant is at hand, he muſt immediately turn the patient on his back, and ſetting his feet againſt his ſhoulders (being himſelf ſeated on the ground), he muſt place his hand below the patient's ears, and pull, gradually increaſe the force with which he pulls, and in pulling more the head from ſide to ſide.

After reduction, to prevent abſceſſes, &c. bathe the part with ſp. vin. C.

A Luxation *of the Bone of the Noſe.*

This accident is eaſily diſcovered by the eye and the touch. The reduction is effected by a quill put up the noſtrils, and then with the fingers replacing the bone or bones. After the reduction a ſticking plaſter may be applied.

A Luxation *of the Ribs.*

A rib may be luxated upwards, downwards, and inwards. If a rib is forced inwards, the pleura is injured, from whence there proceeds excruciating pains, inflammations, difficulty of breathing, coughs, ulcers, immobility of the body, &c. theſe, with the external poſition of the ſide, evidently diſcover this misfortune; the ſhortneſs of breathing is almoſt a pathognomonic ſign. This *luxation* happens betwixt the rib and the ſpine.

If the rib is diſlocated upwards or downwards, lay the patient prone on a table, or fix the arm on the affected ſide, over a door or a ſtep in a ladder; then with the fingers the rib may be replaced.

Luxations internally are difficultly reduced, becauſe neither the hands nor any inſtrument can be applied to elevate them. However, the patient may be laid on his belly over ſome cylindrical body, and the anterior part of the rib being moved gently towards the back, or ſhook a little, the head may probably recover its ſituation. If this fails, recourſe muſt be had to the method propoſed for fractures of the ribs, when they are forced inwards, and a ſplinter offends the pleura. But, if the ſymptoms are not violent, nor the heads of the ribs much removed, forbear both the inciſion of the fleſh and the violent compulſion of the ribs, as luxated ribs have often remained ſo without danger.

The bandage ſhould be a napkin and ſcapulary, and compreſſes may be applied after ſqueezing them out of camphorated ſpirit of wine.

Luxation *of the Thigh Bone.*

A fracture of the neck of this bone is ſometimes miſtaken for a *luxation*. The head of the thigh bone may be luxated downwards, forwards, inwards, outwards, and backwards. This *luxation*, like that of the humerus, is always perfect, and moſt frequently happens inward and downward, the head of the bone tending towards the large foramen of the os pubis.

When the *luxation* is outwards, the bone generally ſlips upwards at the ſame time: if inwards and downwards, the leg is longer, and more bowed than the other, and the knee and foot turn outwards: the head of the bone is thruſt near the lower part of the inguen and the foramen of the os pubis; ſometimes the compreſſure of a nerve, which communicates with the bladder, cauſes a ſuppreſſion of urine, and the preſſure on the crural nerve a numbneſs in the leg; a ſinus is perceived in the buttock, becauſe of the great trochanter, and the reſt of the bone; and if the reduction is long neglected, the limb withers; if the patient ſhould not require a crutch, he will at leaſt halt; the knee of the luxated limb cannot be brought to the other; the chief pain is perceived in the groin, and no grating can be perceived, as happens when the bone is fractured, and the limb moved. If the *luxation* is backwards, the limb is drawn upwards, whence a cavity is perceived in the groin, and a tumor in that part of the buttock, where the head of the bone and the trochanter are lodged; the limb is ſhortened, the foot bends inward, the heel does not touch the ground, but the patient ſeems to ſtand on his toes, and the luxated limb is more eaſily inflected than extended; in this caſe, many ſtand and walk firmly without the bone being reduced, provided they have a high heel to their ſhoe.

A fractured neck of the thigh-bone is diſtinguiſhed from a *luxation* of its head; firſt, when the thigh-bone is luxated by a flux of humours, without any external violence, but only by walking or riſing up: ſecondly, when it is unattended with pain, tumor, or inflammation: thirdly, when the whole limb may be bent, and turned about the acetabulum without any noiſe, which is uſually heard in fractures; the contrary ſigns indicate a fracture.

In reducing the luxated head of the thigh-bone, a longitudinal extenſion will not ſuffice, but it muſt be according to the direction of the cervix. Mr. Kirkland ſays, "When a thigh is diſlocated inward, or outward, follow Celſus's advice in laying the patient on one ſide, ſo that the part into which the bone hath ſlipped be always uppermoſt, and that from which it hath receded, lowermoſt; by which means the extenſion may be made in any direction you have a mind, and your own invention will point out to you twenty ways of ſecuring the patient upon a bed (for a table is uſually too high), ſo that a proper reſiſtance be made to the extenſion. This done, the knee bent, and a towel fixed properly above it, you muſt place yourſelf on that ſide of the thigh to which the bone is diſlocated, with your knee near the head of the bone, and both hands on the oppoſite ſide of the knee of the patient, an aſſiſtant being fixed at the ankle. The extenſion may then gradually be begun by three or four men, with the thigh rather in a ſtate of flexion; and when there is reaſon to think that the head of the bone is brought to a level with the ſocket, the extenſion being ſteadily continued, the knee may be bent near to the abdomen, and, at the ſame time, whilſt the knee puſhes the bone towards its place, the ankle muſt be moved in the ſame, but the knee of the patient in a contrary direction. Thus the head will always go into the ſocket, provided a due extenſion is made before you attempt to return it."

Sometimes the head of the thigh bone is puſhed between the iſchium and ſacrum; in this caſe, except the patient is very lean, before attempting the reduction, it may, perhaps, be moſt eligible to reduce the patient's fleſh by repeated briſk purges, given at ſhort intervals; for thus the ſtate of the caſe is better diſcovered, and the reduction more eaſily effected.

A Luxation *of the Vertebræ.*

Theſe are rarely perfectly luxated. Thoſe of the neck being ſmall, and very moveable, are more ſubject to this accident than thoſe of the back. Thoſe of the loins are alſo more eaſily luxated than thoſe of the back, becauſe they are more moveable and ſmooth, are deſtitute of thoſe ſinuſes with which the vertebræ of the back are furniſhed, and have a thicker cartilage interpoſed betwixt each. *Luxations* of the vertebræ muſt be imperfect, unleſs attended with a fracture, and a laceration of the ſpinal marrow, which threatens inſtant death. The imperfect *luxations* are often ſpeedily fatal; and they moſt frequently happen in the upper vertebræ of the neck.

Hippocrates obſerves that children, between the ages of four and ten, are apt to have *luxations* of the vertebræ of the neck near the head, from an internal cauſe. An inſtance of this kind I once met with; it was in a boy of about ten years of age; he voided two round worms, and, in ſeveral inſtances, complained, as is uſual, when worms are the only manifeſt cauſe of any diſorder; he obſtinately refuſed every aſſiſtance from medicine, but after a few weeks his neck ſpontaneouſly and ſuddenly returned to its original ſtate, and every other ſymptom preſently vaniſhed.

The vertebræ of the back cannot move much without a fracture; their upper or lower apophyſes, and ſometimes only one of them, are miſplaced; great violence is gene-

rally required in order to a partial *luxation*; when a vertebra is luxated without a fracture, the body leans to one ſide, or forward; if the left-ſide is affected, the patient leans to the right, and vice verſa.

The common ſigns of a *luxation* of the vertebræ in the back, are, the back is crooked and unequal; the patient can neither ſtand nor walk, and his whole body ſeems paralytic; all the parts below the *luxation* are inſenſible and immoveable; the excrements and the urine cannot be diſcharged, or elſe they are involuntarily emitted; the lower parts gradually die, and very ſoon the death of the perſon is the end of complaint.

All the *luxations* in the ſpine are very dangerous, both becauſe of the injury that may be done to the ſpinal marrow, and the difficulty of reducing them. The danger is is alſo greater, the nearer the *luxation* is to the head, becauſe here the ſpinal marrow is ſooneſt hurt. When ſeveral vertebræ are luxated together, the ill ſymptoms are not ſo violent.

For reducing the vertebræ of the neck, ſee LUXATION of the neck. When both the apophyſes of the vertebræ are diſlocated, lay the patient on his belly over ſome round body, as a tub, or drum; then two aſſiſtants may depreſs both ends of the luxated ſpine on each ſide, which elevates, and gradually extends the vertebræ, the ſpina dorſi being thus bent in form of an arch; after this, the ſurgeon preſſes down the inferior diſlocated and prominent vertebræ, and, at the ſame inſtant, expeditiouſly puſhes the ſuperior part of the body upwards. If the firſt attempt fails, repeat it two or three times. When the left apophyſis only is diſplaced, after the patient is laid in the ſame poſture, one aſſiſtant may depreſs the left coxa, and the other the right humerus; and the reverſe, if the injury is on the other ſide. After the reduction, bleed, apply compreſſes wrung out of ſpirit of wine, and then the napkin and ſcapulary.

A Luxation *of the Wriſt.*

One or two of the bones in the wriſt are ſometimes removed from their place, which is diſcovered by a tumor in one part, or a cavity on another, perceptible to the touch; violent pain alſo attends. If the *luxation* is recent, treat it as a *luxation* of the hand.

See Boerhaave's Aphoriſms; Petit's Diſeaſes of the Bones; Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. ii. p. 99, &c. Gooch's Caſes and Remarks: Pott's General Remarks on Fractures and Diſlocations; Kirkland's Obſ. on Pott's Remarks; Med. Muſ. vol. ii. p. 406. Heiſter's Surgery; Wiſeman's Surgery, &c.

LUXATURA, i. e Luxatio.

LYCANCHE. A ſpecies of quinſey.

LYCANTHROPIA, from λυκος, *a wolf*, and ανθρωπος, *a man*. Lycanthropy. It is a ſpecies of melancholy, or of madneſs. Some call it erratic melancholy, becauſe the patient wanders about, and cannot reſt in any one place. The Arabians call it kutubuth, from an animal which perpetually moves up and down on the ſurface of ſtagnant waters. Aetius in his Tetrabib: calls it cynanthropy, as well as *lycanthropy*. It is very probably the diſorder with which the demoniac, mentioned in ſcripture, who dwelt among the tombs, was affected. Oribaſius informs us, that, "Theſe patients leave their houſes in the night time, and in every thing imitate wolves, wander about the tombs until break of day." Actuarius adds, that "they return home then, and come to their ſenſes." You may know them by the following ſymptoms, their looks are pale, their eyes dull, hollow, fixed, dry, and without the moiſture of a tear. Their tongues are dry, and they are ready to periſh with thirſt, their legs, from the bruiſes they received in the night, (and according to Aetius, from the bites of dogs) are full of incurable ulcers." Beſides theſe ſymptoms, it is obſerved by others, that they are very timorous, ſeek ſolitude, ſhun all human kind, they perpetually brood on the moſt extravagant fancies, &c. Bleeding, bitter ſtomach purges, a gentle treatment, and, if poſſible, the procuring of ſleep, are the principal means of relief.

LICHEN PIXIDATUS, i. e. Muſcus Pixidatus.

LYCHNIS. Botaniſts enumerate above eighty ſpecies.

LYCHNIS CORONARIA DIOSCORIDES. Roſe Campion. It is cultivated in gardens, flowers in June, and its ſeeds are purging.

Moſt of the *lychniſes* are ornaments only in gardens; and the name is given to ſeveral plants not included in the long liſt of Boerhaave's, which are called ſpecies of the *lychnis*.

LYCIUM. A name of the nandia, agiahalid, and of three ſpecies of rhomnus, and ſome other plants.

LYCIUM, alſo called arbor-ſpinoſa. Indian thorn.

It grows in the Eaſt-Indies. Its inſpiſſated juice is aſtringent, called cate, and is, by ſome, miſtaken for the terra Japonica.

LYCIUM BUXI FOLIUS, alſo called pyracantha, box-thorn. It grows in hot countries. The rob of the fruit is aſtringent, but is often mixed with amurca, or with the juice of wormwood, or the rob from the berries, of periclimenum, or other ſuch like, are ſubſtituted for it.

LYCOCTONUM, i. e. Aconitum. *Lycoctonum*, or yellow poiſonous aconite. It is alſo a ſpecies of lark-ſpur.

LYCOPERDON, from λυκος, *a wolf*, and περδω, *crepitus*. The ancients gave it this name, becauſe they thought it ſprung from the dung of wolves.

LYCOPERDON VULGARE, called alſo crepitus lupi, boviſta, fungus rotundus orbicularis, duſty muſhrooms, puff-balls. It is the *lycoperdon* boviſta, Linn. Boerhaave enumerates eleven ſpecies. They are round, or egg-ſhaped, whitiſh, with a ſhort, and ſcarcely any pedicle; they grow in paſture grounds. When they are young they are covered with tubercles on the outſide, and are pulpy within. By age they become ſmooth without, and inwardly are changed into a fine light browniſh duſt.

Dr. Biſſet ſays, that it is the moſt powerful vegetable ſtyptic yet known, when externally applied. Gooch preſers it to the agaric of the oak, and even to all fungous ſubſtances. It is ſofter, and more abſorbent than lint, and, if cut into ſlices, might anſwer as well as ſponge, as recommended by Dr. Kirkland after amputations.

LYCOPERSICON, from λυκος, *a wolf*, and περσικον, *a peach*. Wolf's peach. The flowers reſemble thoſe of night-ſhade; the fruit is carnous and ſoft. Boerhaave mentions ſix ſpecies, but Ray thinks them all poiſonous.

LYCOPODIUM, called alſo muſcus clavatus, muſcus terreſtris, muſcus ſquamoſus, plicaria, cingularia, wolf's-claw, and club-moſs.

It is a fertile kind of moſs, deſtitute of pedicles and capitella. It differs from the ſelago in that its capſules grow not ſcattered in the ſinuſes of the leaves, but are collected into a club; for each ſcale covers a kidney-ſhaped and bivalve capſule, which loſes no part of itſelf when ripe. It grows on heaths and hilly places, and flowers in July and Auguſt. It is reckoned cooling and aſtringent.

LYCOPSIS. A name of ſome ſpecies of bugloſs.

LYCOPUS. Water hore-hound.

LYGMOS. An hiccough.

LYGISMOS, i. e. Luxatio, from λυγιζω, *torqueo*.

LYMPHA. Lymph. It is a pellucid, inſipid, pure liquor, the more ſubtil parts of which affords the matter of the fluid of the brain, ſpinal marrow, nerves, and alſo the ſeminal fluid. The gelatinous parts of this fluid nouriſh all the ſolids of every kind, and its finer aqueous parts are through the lymphatic veſſels, by means of the valves and conglobate glands, again conveyed to the heart, where being again united with the blood, it is with it conveyed to all the parts of the body. Boerhaave ſays, that from eight ounces of blood ſeven ounces of lymph ariſes if diſtilled with a gentle heat.

LYMPHÆ DUCTUS, or Lymphatica vaſa. Lymphatic veſſels. They are divided into thoſe of Bartholine, and called alſo abſorbent lymphatics, and thoſe of the moderns; theſe latter lead into larger veins. The *lymphatics* of Bartholine ariſe from the ſurface of the cells of the membrana cellularis, the ſurfaces of the guts, of the urine and gall bladders, and of all other parts, and carry a pellucid liquor towards the receptaculum chyli, and the thoracic duct, in which as the lacteals do, they all terminate. The coats of theſe veſſels are thin and tranſparent, they are much crouded with valves, but not ſo much as is repreſented in many figures, they are alſo very irregularly placed. The lymphatics frequently anaſtomoſe, and in their way paſs through the lymphatic glands; before they enter a gland they ramify, and coming out in branches they unite again. The lymphatics are like the lacteals,

which are abſorbents; and the lymphatics are the general abſorbents, and carry the juices to the duct, the receptaculum, and to the left ſubclavian vein.

Dr. Hunter in the courſe of his anatomical lectures, about the year 1771, gave the following hiſtory of the abſorbent ſyſtem:

1ſt. The Lacteals.

The abſorbent ſyſtem conſiſts of one trunk, the ductus thoracicus, and many branches, which are called lacteals in the primæ viæ, and *lymphatics* every where elſe. I will juſt give you a brief hiſtory of what parts of this ſyſtem were firſt diſcovered, when and by whom.

Herophilus had probably diſcovered them, (viz. the lacteals), for he ſays, "There are veins not going from the inteſtines to the liver, but terminating in certain glands," meaning the meſenteric.

Eraſiſtratus ſaw arteries in ſucking kids, without blood, which Galen did not believe.

Euſtachius in 1560 ſaw the thoracic duct in a horſe, he thought it an uncommon tube, a vena azygos. In his treatiſe publiſhed in 1563, he mentions it, and that he traced it down to an enlarged part at the loins, (viz. the receptaculum chyli) but could go no farther.

Aſellius in 1622 diſcovered and traced the lacteals in a dog from the inteſtines, and thought they went from there to the liver and pancreas, ſo that he was deceived by thoſe going from the liver. He publiſhed his book on this ſubject the year before Harvey's book came out on the Circulation of the Blood, viz. 1627.

Pecquet, in opening a dog, for ſome reaſon or other, took out his heart; preſently after, looking accidentally at the extremities of the veſſels as they lay cut in the thorax, he ſaw a white fluid drop from the end of the ſubclavian vein, which led him on to the diſcovery of the receptaculum chyli, and ductus thoracicus, in 1651.

Bartholine, of Copenhagen, diſcovered them in a human body two years after this, viz. in 1653.

2dly. The Lymphatics.

Fallopius ſaw *lymphatics* going from the liver to the pancreas, as appears from a paſſage in his works; wherein he alſo ſays, he did not know what they were.

Aſellius and Highmore, &c. ſaw them, but like Fallopius, did not know what they were.

Bartholine, of Copenhagen, and Rudbeck, of Sweden, both traced the lymphatics in a dog's leg, and called them vaſa glandularum ſeroſa, ſuppoſing they carried ſome kind of lymph or ſerum.

Dr. Jolliffe, at Cambridge, laſt century, alſo ſays in his works, there are other veſſels beſides arteries, veins, and nerves, which he ſuppoſes carried lymph.

Whatever vague conjectures had been made about this ſyſtem of veſſels, it was my lot, to aſcertain and confirm the uſe of this whole ſyſtem to be conjunctly one and the ſame. At my firſt diſcovery of this, it was immediately objected to by birds and fiſhes not having this ſyſtem as well as the human ſpecies. Mr. Hewſon has removed that difficulty, by having diſcovered them in thoſe and in other animals.

The ſtructure and uſe of the *lymphatic* glands, are not aſcertained.

Since the above, the following have proſecuted this ſubject, and greatly improved what before had been thought reſpecting it, viz. Nuck, Ruyſch, Bidloo, Riolan, Van Horne, Haller, Meckel, Hewſon, Hunter, Portal, Monro, Sheldon, &c.

The *lymphatic* ſyſtem conſiſts of the lacteals, the lymphatic veſſels, the conglobate glands, and the thoracic duct.

The lacteals begin from the inteſtinal tube. The lymphatic veſſels ariſe from moſt parts of the body. The courſe of the lymph and of the chyle is from the extreme parts of the body towards the centre. The *lymphatics* commonly lie cloſe to the large blood-veſſels of the extremities. All the lacteals and moſt of the *lymphatics*, open into the thoracic duct, which lies upon the ſpine, and runs up towards the neck, where it commonly opens into the angle between the jugular and ſubclavian veins of the left ſide; and thus both the chyle and the lymph are mixed with the blood.

The lacteals, the *lymphatics*, and the thoracic duct, all agree in having their coats more thin, and more pellucid than thoſe of the blood-veſſels. But, although their coats are ſo thin, they are very ſtrong. Mr. Sheldon ſays, that both the lacteals and *lymphatics* have a denſe internal coat, which is ſmooth and poliſhed on the inſide; it is connected by a reticular ſubſtance on its outſide, to the internal ſurface of the middle coat. This fine internal membrane prevents the tranſudation of the lymph and chyle, and produces certain duplicatures internally, which form the valves, found in every part of this ſyſtem, and it is exactly ſimilar to the internal coat of the veins. The ſecond coat Mr. Sheldon thinks conſiſts chiefly of muſcular fibres, running in every poſſible direction; the greater number take the circular direction, and ſurround the internal membrane. He adds, that an outward coat may alſo be ſeparated, which is made of a membrane ſimilar to the pleura, or peritoneum.

The coats of the lacteal and *lymphatic veſſels*, have, in common with all other parts of the body, arteries and veins for their nouriſhment. They have alſo nerves: from the blood-veſſels running through them they are ſubject to inflammation, and from their numerous nerves, they are as irritable as any ſet of veſſels in the human body. The lymphatic veſſels abound more with valves than the veins do; theſe valves are generally two in number, and are of a ſemilunar ſhape. In moſt parts of the body the valves are ſo numerous, that there are three or four pair in the ſpace of one inch, but ſometimes there is no more than one pair.

The *lymphatic* ſyſtem, in different parts of its courſe, has the glands called conglobate, or lymphatic. Theſe glands are ſo placed, that the veſſels come in on one ſide, and paſs out on the other in their way to the thoracic duct.

The *lymphatic veſſels* of the lower extremities are thoſe that are ſuperficial, and thoſe that are more deeply ſeated. The ſuperficial ones lie between the ſkin and the muſcles, and belong to the ſurface of the body or the ſkin, and to the cellular membrane which lies immediately under it; one branch of the ſuperficial ones runs upon the top of the foot, another is generally found juſt under the inner ankle. The branch on the foot runs up on the outſide of the tendon of the tibialis anticus, until it hath got above the ankle; and in running over the ſhin bone, it divides and forms a plexus, ſtill aſcending in the cellular membrane to the inſide of the knee, from whence it ſtill advances up the inſide of the thigh under the ſkin, and arriving at the groin, enters the *lymphatic* glands ſituated there. Theſe glands are ſix, ſeven, or eight, in number; of theſe, ſome lie in the very angle between the thigh and the abdomen, and others lie a few inches down on the forepart of the thigh. It is into theſe upper glands alone that the *lymphatic* veſſels of the genitals enter, ſo that the venereal bubo which ariſes in conſequence of an abſorption of matter from theſe organs, is always ſeated in thoſe upper glands; and the lower glands are never affected, except by the regurgitation of the matter, or from their vicinity to the glands firſt diſeaſed, which very rarely happens. And as the upper glands are affected from the genitals, ſo the lower are uſually firſt affected from the abſorption of the acrid matter of an ulcer, &c. in the parts below them. The *lymphatic* veſſels of the genitals having joined thoſe of the thigh, a net work is formed, which enters the abdomen under the edge of the tendon of the external oblique muſcle, called Poupart's ligament; ſome branches of this plexus embrace the iliac artery. Theſe ſuperficial *lymphatics*, probably, are the trunks of theſe veſſels which abſorb from the ſkin and the cellular membrane immediately under it; and as no conſiderable branches can be diſtinguiſhed on the outſide of the leg or thigh, it is probable, that all the *lymphatic* veſſels of thoſe parts bend towards the inſide. Upon theſe veſſels, from the foot to the groin, there is commonly not one *lymphatic* gland, but to this there are ſometimes exceptions. Beſides theſe ſuperficial *lymphatic* veſſels which lie above all the muſcles, or in the cellular membrane under the ſkin, there is a ſet deeper ſeated that lie amongſt the muſcles, and accompany the crural artery, of theſe, the principal trunk can be diſcovered by cutting down to the poſterior tibial artery, near the inner ankle. From this ankle, the

veſſel

veſſel paſſes up along with the poſterior tibial artery, being hid amongſt the muſcles on the back part of the tibia. About the middle of the leg it enters a ſmall gland which is met with in moſt ſubjects. Having paſſed through this gland, it runs up to the back part of the ham, ſtill lying cloſe to the artery, and in the ham it uſually paſſes through three glands. Hitherto this *lymphatic* has been a ſingle trunk; but after it has paſſed theſe glands, it commonly divides into two or three branches, which ſtill accompany the crural artery, and paſs with it through the perforation in the triceps muſcle. Having paſſed the muſcle, they go up with the artery and enter a gland which is deeper ſeated than thoſe which appear on the groin; from this gland they paſs into the ſuperficial glands.

The *lymphatics* of the lower extremities having now reached the trunk of the body, and having paſſed under Poupart's ligament, appear upon the ſides of the oſſa pubis, near the pelvis. A part of them paſſes up along with the iliac artery upon the brim of the pelvis; and another part dips down into the cavity of the pelvis, and joins the internal iliac artery near the ſciatic notch. At this place they are joined by the *lymphatics* from the contents of the pelvis. Beſides thoſe *lymphatic veſſels* which dip down into the cavity of the pelvis, on the inſide of the external iliac artery, there are others which keep on the outſide of that artery upon the pſoas muſcle; of theſe, one part paſſes up to the loins, and goes under the aorta in different branches, getting from the left ſide to the right, and joining the thoracic duct. Another part paſſes under the iliac arteries, and appears upon the os ſacrum, making a beautiful net-work, joining the *lymphatics* of the right ſide, and paſſing under the iliac artery, to form the net-work upon the upper part of the right pſoas muſcle. The *lymphatic veſſels* of the right ſide, joined by ſome from the left, having reached the right lumbar region, appear there in the form of a plexus of large veſſels, and paſs through ſeveral glands. At this part they receive likewiſe large branches under the aorta, from the plexus on the left ſide of the loins, and having, at leaſt got up as high as the ſecond lumbar vertebra, they all join, and form a ſingle trunk called the thoracic duct: at this part they are likewiſe joined by the lacteals.

Into the thoracic duct likewiſe enters the lymph of the other abdominal viſcera. This is brought by a number of veſſels; a plexus of which may be traced from each kidney, lying principally behind the emulgent artery, and opening into large *lymphatic veſſels* near the aorta; with theſe alſo go the *lymphatics* of the glandulæ renales, or renal capſulæ.

The *lymphatic veſſels* of the ſpleen paſs from the concave ſide of that viſcus, along with the ſplenic artery in the ſinuoſity of the pancreas, by the *lymphatic veſſels* of which they probably are joined.

To the ſtomach belong two ſets of *lymphatic veſſels*, the one running upon its leſſer, and the other upon its greater curvature. Of theſe, the former accompanies the coronary artery, and paſſes through ſome *lymphatic* glands that lie by its ſides. The other ſet paſſes from the great curvature of the ſtomach, through ſome *lymphatic* glands that lie cloſe to the arteria gaſtrica dextra. Deſcending by the pylorus, it meets the plexus that accompanied the coronary artery; and near the leſſer curvature of the duodenum, forms a conſiderable net-work. Into this, not only the *lymphatics* from the ſpleen enter, but likewiſe thoſe from the gall-bladder, together with thoſe of the liver, which are very numerous both in its convex and on its concave ſide. Several branches proceed from this net-work, ſome running under the duodenum, and others over it; which all open into the thoracic duct.

The *lymphatics* of the larger viſcera, (ſuch as the liver, the ſpleen and the kidneys) are generally in two ſets; one of which lies upon the ſurface of the organ, and the other accompanies the large blood veſſels in its centre. In the liver, theſe two ſets have been found to communicate with each other; ſo that, by injecting mercury into the *lymphatic veſſels* which lie upon its convex ſurface, Mr. Hewſon hath filled thoſe which accompany the pora bilarii & vena portarum in its centre. Moſt of the *lymphatic* veſſels, which lie upon the convex ſurface of the liver, run towards its falciform ligament, and paſs down by the ſide of the vena cava. But ſome of them run towards the right ligament of the liver, where they paſs down upon the diaphragm to get to the thoracic duct. The *lymphatics* on the concave ſurface run towards the portæ, where they join thoſe which come from the centre of the liver, along with its large blood-veſſels. The *lymphatic veſſels* of the ſtomach, enter with others into the thoracic duct.

The *lymphatics* of the lungs are in two ſets. One ſet paſſes on the poſterior part of each lobe by its root, into the thoracic duct, near the middle of the thorax; the other paſſes from the fore part of each lobe up towards the jugular and ſubclavian veins. Some of the *lymphatics*, on the poſterior part of the left lobe, paſs under the aorta to get to the thoracic duct. Thoſe from the anterior part of the left lobe, paſs into the angle between the jugular and ſubclavian vein of the ſame ſide, joining the thoracic duct at its termination; whilſt thoſe from the forepart of the right lobe do not communicate with the thoracic duct, but paſs into the angle between the right jugular and the right ſubclavian vein.

The *lymphatics* of the head and neck are as follows. By the ſide of each internal jugular vein is a large *lymphatic veſſel*, which is the trunk of thoſe of one ſide of the head and neck. Smaller *lymphatics* are ſeen near the branches of the external carotid artery. From various circumſtances, it is highly probable, that there are *lymphatic* veſſels on the external parts of the head; and though none have been diſcovered on the brain, it is very probable, that it is not deſtitute of them. The ſmall *lymphatics*, which accompany the branches of the external carotid artery, unite upon the neck, and form a large trunk, which accompanies the internal jugular vein, paſſing through ſome *lymphatic* glands, near the termination of this trunk, in the angles between the jugular and ſubclavian veins. The glandula thyroidæa has many *lymphatic veſſels* which can ſometimes be inflated by blowing air into the cells of the gland; theſe veſſels paſs on each ſide of the trachea, one part going into the angle of the right ſubclavian and jugular, and the other joining the thoracic duct upon the left ſide.

Like the leg each arm hath two ſets of *lymphatic veſſels*, one ſet which lies immediately under the integuments, belongs to the ſkin, and the cellular membrane, connecting it to the muſcles; the other accompanies the large arteries, and belongs to the parts deeper ſeated.

The *lymphatic veſſels* diſcovered and delineated, are in general, only to be conſidered as the trunks of the *lymphatics*. Since it is probable, that every (even the ſmalleſt) part of this, as well as all other parts of the body, has one of theſe veſſels adapted to abſorption. That this is the caſe, ſeems to be proved by the experiments made with the variolous matter; for at what part ſoever that matter is inſerted, the *lymphatic veſſels* take it up and carry it into the body, as can be traced by its inflaming the conglobate glands through which theſe veſſels paſs.

See Dr. Hunter's Commentaries. Monro's Deſcription of the Human Lacteal Sac and Duct. Hewſon's Experimental Inquiries into the Lymphatic Syſtem. Sheldon's Hiſtory of the Abſorbent Syſtem.

Amongſt diſorders of the *lymphatics*, Mr. White ſeems very properly to place that called by Puzos, *depot laiteux ſur la cuiſſe*; by Sauvages, *iſchias a ſpargoneſi*; and by others variouſly according to their apprehenſion of its nature and cauſe. Moſt writers have attributed this complaint to a depoſition of milk; but Mr. White treats of it as an affection of the *lymphatics* in the part diſeaſed. Some have named it œdema lacteum.

The ſymptoms of this diſorder Mr. White hath with great accuracy laid down as follows. In about twelve or fifteen days after delivery, the patient is ſeized with great pain in the groin of one ſide; accompanied with a conſiderable degree of fever, which is ſeldom preceded by a ſhivering fit and cold rigor. This part ſoon becomes affected with ſwelling and tenſion, which extend to the labium pudendi of the ſame ſide only, and down the inſide of the thigh, to the ham, the leg, the foot, and the whole limb; and the progreſs of the ſwelling is ſo quick, that in a day or two, the limb becomes twice the ſize of the other, and is moved with great difficulty; it is hot and exquiſitely tender, but not attended with external inflammation. The pain in the groin is generally preced-

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ed by a pain in the ſmall of the back, and ſometimes by a pain at the bottom of the belly, on the ſame ſide; the parts which ſuffer the moſt pain are the groin, the ham, and the back part of the leg about its middle. The pain indeed extends over the whole limb, owing to the ſudden diſtention; but in a day or two it becomes leſs conſiderable. The ſwelling is general and equal all over the whole limb, in every ſtage of the diſorder, it is much harder and firmer than anaſarca; not ſo cold in any ſtate of the diſeaſe, nor ſo much diminiſhed by an horizontal poſition; neither does it pit when preſſed upon by the finger, nor any water iſſue from it, on its being punctured with a lancet. It is very ſmooth, ſhining, and pale, and even and equal to the touch in every part, except where the conglobate glands are ſituated, which in ſome caſes are knotty and hard, as in the groin, the ham, and about the middle of the leg, at its back part. This diſorder generally comes on about the ſecond or third week after delivery, but in one inſtance I knew it to occur ſo early as twenty-four hours after, and another ſo late as five weeks, but neither of theſe are uſual. The firſt parts that begin to mend, both as to pain and ſwelling, are the groin, and labium pudendi; the thigh next, and laſtly the leg. The fever in ſome patients ſubſides in two or three weeks, in others it continues ſix or eight weeks, attended with a quick pulſe and hectic ſymptoms. It ſometimes attacks both the extremities; but this rarely happens. After the diſorder has ſubſiſted a week or two, it is not uncommon for the ſound leg to ſwell towards evening, and become œdematous; but then the groin and thigh are not affected on that ſide, and the leg is much ſofter to the touch than the other, and pits when preſſed upon by the finger.

This diſorder attacks women who are in full ſtrength, and thoſe who are reduced by flooding; thoſe who have a moderate diſcharge of the lochia, and thoſe who have a ſmall or a large quantity; thoſe who give ſuck, and thoſe who do not; whether their breaſts be drawn, or not; and whether they have much or but little milk. It attacks women who were delivered on the knee, and others who were delivered on the ſide; but of thoſe who were delivered on the ſide, it appears that the greater number were affected on that ſide, on which they lay at the time of delivery. It attacks women of all ranks, and of different habits, both the rich, and the poor; the moſt healthful, as well as thoſe who have laboured under chronic diſeaſes; the ſtrong and the weak; the lean and the corpulent; the ſedentary, and the active; the young and the middle aged; after their firſt, or any other labour; and whether the labour be natural or preternatural; but I have not known it happen after a miſcarriage, nor to a woman more than once, though ſhe has afterwards had more children. It happens at all ſeaſons of the year indiſcriminately; and in the country, as well as in large towns. It neither attacks either of the arms, or other parts of the body. I have never known it to ſuppurate, or prove fatal, or any material inconvenience to ariſe from it after a few months were elapſed, except a little ſwelling of the leg, after fatigue, particularly walking.

Mr. White proceeds to point out the diſorders to which it bears, in one point of view or another, a reſemblance, as for example the ſciatica, rheumatiſm, anaſarca, phlegmon, &c. and then obſerves that the proximate cauſe is an obſtruction, detention, and accumulation of lymph in the limb. The parts affected are the whole of the limb from where the *lymphatic veſſels* enter under Poupart's ligament into the pelvis. As this diſorder happens only to lying-in women, and affects the lower extremities only, he adds, that we may conclude that this obſtruction is occaſioned by ſome accident happening during the time of labour, or ſome ſtate peculiar to child-bed. As to the remote cauſe, conjectures may be various, and Mr. White thinks it probably from the child's head preſſing the *lymphatic veſſel* or *veſſels*, which ariſe from one of the lower extremities, againſt the brim of the pelvis, during a labour pain, ſo as to ſtop the progreſs of the lymph; whence it or they burſt, and their contents eſcape. The extravaſation in ſome habits is re-abſorbed readily, in others not ſo readily; when, by lying out of the courſe of its circulation, it will preſs againſt the uterus and bladder, and occaſion forcing pains, and even ſuppreſſions of urine. When the orifice made in the *lymphatic* is healed and the diameter of the tube is contracted or cloſed, the lymph is retained in the *lymphatic veſſels* and glands of the limb and labium pudendi, and diſtends them ſo as to cauſe great pain and ſwelling, which always begin in that part next to which the obſtruction is formed: and when the obſtruction is in part or wholly removed, or the lymph has found a freſh paſſage, the part next to it is conſequently firſt relieved.

In order to the cure, in the firſt or inflammatory ſtage, antiphlogiſtics will be neceſſary, more or leſs ſo as the patient's ſtrength will admit; the bowels ſhould be kept rather lax; and the pains alleviated by opiates internally, by anodyne fomentations, and by the warm and vapour bath; bliſters on the upper part of the thigh have been found uſeful; antimonials, the ſaline draughts given in the act of effervеſcence, cool acidulated liquors, and cool air, all contribute to abate the fever. If the lochia happen to be acrid or putrid, it will be abſorbed and aggravate the diſeaſe; but by frequent emollient, or antiſeptic injections thrown up the vagina the feveriſh diſorder will be much aſſuaged. In the ſecond ſtage, that is, when the pain abates, the ſwelling and tenſion of the parts begin to leſſen, but the quickneſs of the pulſe, and ſome degree of fever remains, the patient may be allowed a little wine, and a fuller diet. A doſe or two of calomel, of two grains each, given at proper intervals hath often been uſeful in this ſtage: before the patient is fit to take the bark, ſhe may take myrrh two or three times a day to the quantity of fifteen grains, in a neutral draught in the act of effervеſcence: when this hath been continued a few days, it may be given in the following form which is more a tonic. ℞ myrrhæ gr. xii. aquæ menthæ vulgaris ſimplicis, & aquæ puræ ſingularum ℥ ſs. aquæ cinnamomi ſpirituoſæ ʒ i. ſalis abſinthii gr. vj. ſalis martis gr. ii. ſs. m. f. hauſtus, ſextâ quaque horâ ſumendus. The limb may be chafed with warm oil, and bathing it in water heated to 82 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer is generally uſeful; after being accuſtomed a few days to this degree of heat, the water may only be heated to 76. The third ſtage is when the pain and fever have left the patient, and no complaint remains, except the ſwelling of the limb, and perhaps a general relaxation; at this period, the bark with or without ſteel will become neceſſary, and dipping the limb in cold water, and embrocating it with ſpirit of wine and camphor, or with diſtilled vinegar, will aſſiſt in bracing it. A circular calico bandage applied to the limb will alſo aſſiſt in the recovery; and if the ſwelling is confined to the ſmall of the leg, the bandage may be changed for a ſtrait or laced ſtocking, or for a half boot. Exerciſe on horſeback, and gentle rubbing of the limb, and ſtroaking it upwards, to facilitate the return of the lymph, will be of advantage; but walking, or doing any thing that can promote a greater ſecretion of lymph, never fails to do manifeſt injury in every ſtage of this diſeaſe, and even until the lymph hath obtained as free a paſſage as it uſually had, and the patient hath recovered her full ſtrength.

See Mauriceaux's Treatiſe des Maladies des Femmes groſſes, &c. edit. v. 4to. He there treats of it under the title of l'Enflure des Jambes et des Cuiſſes de la Femme accouchée. Puzos's Memoir ſur les Depots laiteux, appellés communement Lait repandu. M. Levret's Art des Accouchements, ch. iii. ſect. 7, des engorgement laiteux dans le baſſin, et aux extremités inferieures. Van Swieten's Commentary on Boerhaave's Aphoriſm 1329. M. Raulin's Treatiſe des Maladies des Femmes en Couchée, under the article depots laiteux aux aines & aux cuiſſes. But Mr. White in his Enquiry into the Nature and Cauſe of that Swelling, in one or both of the Lower Extremities, which ſometimes happens to lying-in women, more accurately deſcribes this diſorder than any other writer; he is the firſt who treats ſatisfactorily on its nature, cure, &c.

The infection by poiſon, the ſmall-pox when inoculated, the lues venerea, &c. is conveyed by the *lymphatic*, or abſorbent veins. See Dr. Hunter's Commentaries; Dr. Fordyce's Elements, part the 1ſt. Hewſon's Exp. Inquiries, part 2d. Sheldon's Hiſtory of the Abſorbent Syſtem.

LYNCIS LAPIS, i. e. Belemnites.

LYNCOURION, or Lyncurium, from λυγξ, *a lynx*, and ουρον, *urine*. Various are the opinions of writers concerning what this is; but the moſt probable is that of Dr. Watſon's, viz. that it is tourmelin.

LYRA. Thus the ancients called the inferior ſurface of that part of the brain which is called the fornix, becauſe it is full of medullary lines, reſembling the ſtrings of the lyre.

LYNGODES. The hiccuping quotidian fever.

LYSIMACHIA. Yellow looſe ſtrife, or willow herb. Boerhaave enumerates ſixteen ſpecies of *Lyſimachia*. The name of *Lyſimichia* is from Lyſimachus, the ſon of a king of Sicily, who firſt diſcovered it. It is a ſmall plant which is found about the ſides of rivers, ſaid to be aſtringent, but of no note in medicine.

LYSIMACHIA. It is a name for a ſpecies of the nummularie, caſſada, onagra, galeopſis, and ſeveral other plants.

LYTHARGYRUS. Lytharge. See PLUMBUM.

LYTHOPHYTON NIGRUM. Black coral.

LYSSA. The madneſs of dogs and wolves, or of men who are bit by them.

LYTHRON. Duſt mixed with ſweat; but Hippocrates occaſionally expreſſes by it, the menſtual blood.

M.

M, or m. In preſcriptions it ſignifies miſce, mix, or manipulus, a handful.

MABOUJA. A very hard root of a tree, of which the American ſavages make clubs.

MACALEB GESNERI. See CERASUS.

MACALEB SERAPIONIS, i. e. Phillyrea latifolia lævis.

MACANDON. A coniferous tree mentioned by Bontius. It grows in Malabar; its fruit reſembles the pine nut, but is not ſo hard; it is rather inſipid to the taſte; the flowers reſemble thoſe of the honey-ſuckle. The fruit is roaſted, and eaten as a cure for dyſenteries, and to relieve in the cholera morbus, and other complaints. Raii Hiſt.

MACAPATLI, i. e. Sarſaparilla.

MACAXOCOTLIFERA. The name of a tree in the Weſt Indies; it is about the ſize of a plum-tree; its fruit is called macaxocotl; it is red, of a long figure, of the ſize of a walnut, and yellow within; it is ſweet and laxative. Another ſpecies is the atoyaxacotl, and another is called coztieczocotl by the Mexicans, though others call it a ſpecies of myrobalan. Another ſpecies is called atoyaxocotl chichiltic; and the laſt ſpecies is called chichiaxocotl, which ſignifies running down with ſweat. A decoction of the bark of theſe trees cures the itch, and the powder thereof heals ulcers. Raii Hiſt.

MACEDONISIUM SEMEN. Fuchſius informs us that it is the ſeed of the herb Alexanders.

MACER. Grecian Macer. It is brought from Barbary; its thick yellow bark is aſtringent, ſo is the dried root. Its fruit, called *macre*, deſtroys all ſorts of worms. M. Juſſieu thinks that the macer of the ancients is the ſimarouba of the moderns.

MACERATIO. Maceration. It is an infuſion, or a ſoaking of ingredients in water, or other fluid, in order to extract their virtue.

MACERONA, i. e. Alexanders.

MACHA-MONA. A ſort of calabaſh in Africa and America; the pulp of it is agreeable, and ſerves inſtead of rennet for curdling milk with.

MACHÆRIA. Peach kernels.

MACHAON. He was the ſon of Æſculapius, and brother of Podalirius. *Machaon* bled the daughter of king Damæthus, which is the firſt inſtance of bleeding.

MACIA, i. e. Anagallis.

MACIES. Diſeaſes in which the body, or particular parts, waſte or wither.

MACIS. Mace. It is the middle bark of nutmegs. It is of a lively red colour when freſh, but grows paler with age. It envelops the ſhell which contains the nutmeg. It is dried in the ſun upon hurdles, which are fixed one over another, and then it is ſprinkled with ſea-water to prevent its crumbling in carriage. It hath a pleaſant aromatic ſmell, and a warm, pungent, bitteriſh taſte. Its qualities are ſimilar to that of nutmeg, both as the ſubject of medicine, and of pharmacy. The principal difference is, that *mace* is warmer, more bitter, leſs unctuous, and ſits eaſier on weak ſtomachs; in its yielding, by expreſſion, a more fluid oil; and, in diſtillation with water, a more ſubtile volatile one.

What is called in the ſhops expreſſed oil of mace, is preſſed from nutmegs. See NUTMEGS.

The eſſential oil of *mace* is moderately pungent, very ſubtile and volatile, of a ſtrong aromatic ſmell, like the *mace* itſelf; it is thin, limpid, of a pale yellow colour, with a portion of thicker and darker coloured oil at the bottom. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Dict.

MACOCKI. The Virginian macock or pompion. See Raii Hiſt.

MACOCQUER. Ray takes it for a ſpecies of th macocki.

MACOUNA. A ſpecies of kidney-bean in Braſil. See Raii Hiſt.

MACOW. The ebony tree.

MACROCEPHALOS, from μακρος, *long*, and κεφαλη, *the head, one with a long head.*

MACROPIPER. Long-pepper.

MACROPNUS, from μακρος, *long*, and πνεω, *to breathe*. It is one who fetches his breath at long intervals.

MACULA. A ſpot. A blemiſh. A cutaneous efflorescence which changes the colour of the cuticle. *Macula* lata, a name for the ſhingles. *Maculæ*, a name for the nævi materni, or *macula* matricis; or the ſpots, or marks, ſuppoſed to be impreſſed by the mother's imagination on the fœtus. *Maculæ* albæ, ſee ALBUGO. *Maculæ* hepatice, hepatic ſpots, or efflorescences proceeding from an ichoreſcence in the blood, attended with a ſort of coagulation. *Maculæ* oculorum, a cataract, or ſuffuſion. *Maculæ* peſtilentes, peſtilential ſpots, or efflorescences. *Maculæ* volaticæ, volatic, or ſoon vaniſhing ſpots, ſuch as are often ſeen in children.

MADAROSIS, from μαδος, *without hair*. A falling off of the hairs from the eye-lids, from a defluxion of acrid humours there.

MADELION. Bdellium.

MADISIS. Baldneſs.

MADOR. Such a ſweat as ariſes during faintneſs.

MADREPORA. A petrifying plant, which grows in the ſea, and diſtinguiſhed from coral only by ſeveral perforations in its branches, which are often diſpoſed in the form of a ſtar. Boerhaave enumerates twenty-four ſpecies.

MADREPORA VULGARIS. White coral.

MADROTES. Baldneſs.

MÆMACYLON. The fruit of the arbutus.

MAGALAIZE. See MANGANESE.

MAGDALEONES. Maſſes of plaiſter, or of other compoſitions, reduced to a cylindrical form; they are alſo called cylindri.

MAGDALIÆ, or Magdalides, i. e. Magdaleones.

MAGELLANICA AROMATICA ARBOR. See WINTERANUS CORTEX.

MAGELLANICUS CORTEX, i. e. Cortex Winteranus.

MAGISTERIUM. A magiſtery. This term hath various ſignifications. 1. It is aſcribed to powders made by ſolution and precipitation, as the *magiſtery* of hart's-horn and coral. 2. It is beſtowed on reſins, or reſinous extracts, as the *magiſtery* of ſcammony, &c. 3. The true *magiſtery* is when ſome of the menſtruum remains united with the extracted eſſence. 4. The ancients gave this name to ſeveral white precipitates; and by this term they would have us to underſtand a very ſubtile preparation. 5. This word is generally uſed for a white powder, prepared from ſome mineral, vegetable, or animal.

The firſt chemiſts invented this term for ſome particular precipitated ſubſtances, but not for all; at preſent we have no general idea, or eſtabliſhed characteriſtic, to diſtinguiſh *magiſtery* from precipitate. Every *magiſtery* is now ſome kind of precipitate; but every precipitate is not a *magiſtery*. *Magiſteries* are always very white, and lighter than other precipitates.

MAGISTRALIS. When applied to medicines, it is the ſame with medicamenta extemporanea.

MAGISTRANTIA. Maſterwort.

MAGMA. In a more general ſenſe, it is any thick ointment that will not run with the heat of the body, or a poultice that will not ſpread, on account of its containing much water. In a ſtricter ſenſe, it is the fæces of any ointment after the thinner parts are ſtrained off. Galen reſtrains the word to the fæces of myrobalans.

MAGNA ARTERIA, i. e. Aorta.

MAGNES. The load-ſtone. Called alſo lapis Heracleios, ſideritis, magnates, calamita, lapis Lydius, and load-ſtone. It is called lapis Heracleios, or Heraclius, from Heraclea, a town in Lydia; and Magneſia, from a town in Lydia of the ſame name; and ſideritis, from its attracting iron. It is an iron ore of different colours and ſolidities; the beſt are ſolid, and not porous, nor very heavy. The ſmaller ſtones will lift up more in proportion than the larger. It is ſomewhat aſtringent, but is not uſed in medicine. It attracts iron, or another *magnet*, or repels them, and directs its poles always to thoſe of the world.

MAGNES ALBUS, called alſo magnes candidus, calamita alba, magnes carneus. White load-ſtone. The Italians call it *magnes* carneus, becauſe they ſuppoſe that it attracts fleſh. It is a ſort of rocky marle, and is ſometimes found with the load-ſtone above named.

MAGNES ARSENICALES. Arſenical magnet. Take crude antimony, yellow ſulphur, and cryſtalline white arſenic, of each two ounces; powder them ſeparately; then mix them well together: put the mixture in a glaſs body or crucible, and melt it in a gentle ſand heat, until it hath acquired the conſiſtence of pitch; then the fire being removed, it concretes into a glaſſy maſs of a dark red colour.

Caution is required in handling this glaſſy maſs, as a wound received from it may be dangerous.

This medicine is only to be applied externally, being a mild and gentle cauſtic; it hath been thought to be endued with a power of attracting poiſonous and other morbific matter from the center of the body to the ſurface, like a load-ſtone, and hence its name.

Beſides other virtues attributed to it, Geoffroy ſays, that it opens, cleanſes, and heals ſcrophulous ulcers, without the aſſiſtance of ointments of any kind. It is preferred by ſome for making Mr. Plunket's cancer-plaſter. See CANCER.

MAGNES EPILEPSIÆ. Native cinnabar. It is ſo called becauſe of its uſefulneſs in epilepſies.

MAGNESE. See MANGANESE.

MAGNESIA, i. e. Ethel, alſo manganeſe. It is often the ſame as marcaſita. It is taken for the matter of the philoſopher's ſtone, and for ſulphur; it is a term of art; it ſignifies melted tin, into which mercury being caſt, is thoroughly mixed and incorporated with it, into a brittle ſubſtance, and white maſs; it is alſo a mixture of ſilver and mercury, and a very fuſile metal, called *magneſia* philoſophorum.

MAGNESIA ALBA. The white magneſia. Alba is added to diſtinguiſh it from the *magneſia*, or manganeſe, which is employed in making glaſs. It is alſo called miraculum chemicum, the chemical miracle; becauſe from two pellucid liquors a coagulum is formed, which contains the earth called *magneſia alba*. It was introduced as a medicine in the beginning of the eighteenth century, by count di Palma, at Rome, and continued a very lucrative ſecret. It is a very white, ſubtil powder, or a peculiar earth; it is not calcareous, but poſſeſſed of ſome peculiar properties. Dr. Lewis ſays, he never met with this earth in the mineral kingdom, except in the mother ley of nitre, and in the ſal cathart. amar. but he found it in the earth into which vegetables are reduced by fire; and he aſſerts, that the incinerated earths of animals are of a different kind.

Mr. Henry, apothecary in Mancheſter, gives the following proceſs for making the *magneſia*.

"Diſſolve any quantity of ſal cath. amar. in its own weight of water; filter, and add to it by degrees, a filtered ſolution of pearl-aſhes, in an equal quantity of water, ſtirring them gently, until the mixed liquors have acquired the appearance of a complete coagulum; then ceaſe adding any more of the alkaline lixivium, and immediately throw the mixture into a large veſſel of boiling water; keep it boiling for a quarter of an hour, then take it out, and put it into glazed earthen veſſels; as ſoon as the powder hath ſubſided, and before the water is quite cold, pour it off, and add a freſh quantity of boiling water; repeat theſe ablutions with ſeveral parcels of hot water, till the liquor hath entirely loſt its ſaline taſte; then let it be ſo agitated as to ſuſpend the finer parts of the powder, in which ſtate decant it into other veſſels, and having ſeparated the water from the *magneſia*, by inclination, put it on large chalk-ſtones, until a conſiderable part of the humidity is abſorbed; then wrap it up in ſheets of white paper, and dry it before the fire. Pour hot water upon the remaining powder, ſtir and decant it in its turbid ſtate, and ſeparate the *magneſia* from the water as before; thus the whole, or the moſt of it, will be reduced to an equal degree of fineneſs.

"The larger the quantity of water into which the precipitated powder is caſt, the more ſpeedily and perfectly will the vitriolated tartar, which is formed by the alkali uniting with the acid of the ſal cath. be waſhed off. The neutral ſalt ſhould be waſhed off as quick as poſſible, otherwiſe, by allowing the mixture to ſtand for ſome time, the powder concretes into minute grains, which, when viewed with a microſcope, appear to be aſſemblages of needles diverging from a point. Theſe concretions cannot be rediſſolved by any waſhing, however long continued. Dr. Black orders four times the quantity of water to that of the ſolution to throw the coagulum into, but that is far too little. The water ſhould be pure, diſtilled is the beſt, but it ſhould be kept until its empyreuma is gone off. Hard, or impure water, makes *magneſia* coarſe and diſagreeable. The chalk ſtones on which the *magneſia* is dried, ſhould be expoſed to a moderate heat, that the moiſture may evaporate quickly. Cleanlineſs ſhould be particularly attended to through the whole."

As *magneſia* contains about $\frac{1}{2}$th parts of fixed air, it ſhould be calcined after it is made, and before it is adminiſtered, in flatulent caſes at leaſt. It is calcined by putting it in a common crucible, and placing it in a glowing fire, and keeping it red hot for the ſpace of two hours.

Hoffman obſerves, that *magneſia* often occaſions flatulencies, and gnawing pains in the belly, and generates corroſive juices in the ſtomach; but theſe inconveniences will not be complained of, if care, agreeable to the above proceſſes, is not wanting.

In common with abſorbents, it corrects acidities in the primæ viæ, relieves the heart-burn, and all ſymptoms that have an acid for their ſource; as ſickneſs, giddineſs, vomiting,

miting, pain in the ſtomach, &c. alſo the gripes, convulſions, &c. in children, from the ſame cauſe. It is preferred to all common abſorbents, on account of its laxative quality, which it manifeſts when it meets with an acid in the ſtomach and bowels. If it is mixed with rhubarb, it prevents the rhubarb from leaving a coſtiveneſs behind. If the magneſia is neither accompanied, nor met with by an acid, it is not purgative, but ſimply abſorbent. See Hoffman's Obſ. Phyſ. Chem. lib. iv. Obſ. ii. Dr. Black's Obſ. on the Magneſia Alba, in the Eſſays Philoſ. and Literary of Edinb. vol. ii. Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. Mr. Henry's Strictures on Glaſs's Magneſia, and Mr. Henry's Reply to Dr. Glaſs's Examination of the ſame.

MAGNESIA OPALINA, alſo called opalin, or ruby coloured magneſia of antimony. In making the hepar antimonii, ſome add to the antimony and nitre decrepitated ſal ammoniac, and thus make the opalin. It is a much weaker emetic than the liver of antimony, and does not cauſe great ſickneſs when given in conſiderable doſes to horſes, but paſſes freely by ſweat. Lemery directs it to be made of equal parts of antimony, nitre, and decrepitated ſea-ſalt.

MAGNOLIA. The laurel-leaved tulip tree. Miller mentions three ſpecies, but they are not noted in medicine.

MAGNUM DEI DONUM. So Dr. Mead calls the cort. Peru.

MAGNUM OS. Thus the third bone of the ſecond row in the wriſt is named. It is the largeſt of all the bones there.

MAGNUS MORBUS. The great diſeaſe. So Hippocrates calls the epilepſy.

MAGUDARIS. The root of ſilphium.

MAGUEI. An American name for ſome ſpecies of aloe.

MAHMOODY, i. e. Scamonium.

MAIANTHEMUM. Lily of the valley.

MAIL-ANSCHI. A ſpecies of rhamnus, growing in Malabar. A decoction of its root is commended againſt the gout; and a decoction of its leaves againſt the jaundice.

MAIL-ELOU. It is a tall tree, fifty feet high, growing in Malabar; it is an evergeen. Of the bruiſed leaves and bark is prepared an apozem againſt the after-pains of women in child bed, and for promoting the lochia.

MAIL-ELOU-KATOU. This is larger than the above ſpecies; it is evergreen, and aſtringent.

MAIL-OMBI. This is of the ſize of an apple-tree. Raii Hiſt.

MAJORANA. Marjoram. Botaniſts enumerate five ſpecies.

MAJORANA MAJORI FOLIO, called alſo amaracus ſampſuchus. Sweet marjoram. By amaracus the ancients meant ſweet marjoram; but by leſſer marjoram, they meant the marum. The Egyptians and Syrians call the ſweet marjoram by the name of ſampſuchus. It is the origanum *majorana*; or origanum foliis ovatis obtuſis, ſpicis ſubrotundis compactis pubeſcentibus, Lin. It is a low plant, with ſlender, ſquare branched, woody ſtalks; and little, oval, ſomewhat downy leaves, ſet in pairs; on the tops grow ſcaly heads of ſmall whitiſh labiated flowers, whoſe upper-lip is erect and cloven, the lower is divided into three ſegments. It is ſown annually in gardens for culinary, as well as medicinal uſes. The ſeeds rarely come to perfection with us. They are brought from the ſouth of France, where the plant is ſaid to be indigenous.

The leaves and tops have a pleaſant ſmell, a warm aromatic bitteriſh taſte. Infuſions in water ſmell ſtrong, but taſte weak and unpleaſant; a tincture made with rectified ſpirit of wine, hath leſs ſmell, but more taſte. In diſtillation this plant yields its virtue to water, and thus it affords an eſſential oil, Hoffman ſays in the proportion of ℥ i. from ℥ lxiv. of the leaves ſlightly dried. This oil is hot, but not ſo agreeable as the marjoram itſelf. When carefully drawn it is of a pale yellow colour; but, by long keeping, it turns reddiſh, and if diſtilled with too great heat, it is red at the firſt. The doſe is two drops.

The aromatic matter almoſt all riſes in diſtillation, ſo that an extract poſſeſſes very little of the valuable parts of the plant, which is an uſeful medicine in ſome diſorders of the head and nerves, uterine obſtructions, catarrhs, and humoural aſthmas. The powdered leaves, the eſſential oil properly diluted, and the diſtilled water, are agreeable errhines.

MAJORANA ROTUNDIFOLIA, alſo called origano, zazarhendi herba.

MAJORANA CRETICA, called alſo origanum Smyrnium. See Marum Syriacum.

MAJORANA TENUIFOLIA. Marjoram gentle or perennial.

MAJORANA OLERACEA, called alſo origanum onites. Pot marjoram. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Raii Hiſt.

MALA, from a reſemblance to *μαλον*, *Doric*, or rather *malum*, *apple*, according to Martinius, the prominent part of the cheek.

MALA ASSYRIA. The citron.

MALA ÆTHIOPICA. A ſpecies of lycoperſicon.

MALA AURANTIA. The orange.

MALA AUREA. The orange; alſo the amoris poma.

MALA COTONEA. The quince.

MALA INSANA NIGRA. The fruit of the black fruited night-ſhade. See alſo Melongena.

MALA PUNICA. See Granata Mala.

MALABARICA HERBA. See Coru.

MALABARICA PILA. See Jaca.

MALABATHRINUM. Ointment of malabathrum. It is compounded of myrrh, ſpikenard, malabathrum, and many other aromatic ingredients.

MALABATHRUM. Into this word the Greeks corrupted the Indian word tamalapatrum, i. e. Folium, which ſee.

MALABATRUM, i. e. Folium.

MALACA RADIX, i. e. Sagittaria alexiph.

MALACCA SCHAMBU. A ſpecies of jambos.

MALACENSIS LAPIS. The porcupine bezoar.

MALACHITES, or Molochites. The malachite. It is found in Cyprus and Switzerland. It may be taken for a ſpecies of jaſper or praſſius; it is opaque, of a mallow green; whence its name *μαλαχη*, ſignifying *a mallow*.

MALACIA. A depraved appetite. A longing for unuſual things to eat. It is ſynonymous with pica.

MALACOIDES, from *μαλαχη*, *a mallow*, and *εἰδος*, a *form* or *likeneſs* to. It is a plant which reſembles a mallow, and poſſeſs ſimilar qualities.

MALACOSTEON. A ſoftneſs of the bones.

MALACTICOS. Emollients.

MALA-ELENGI. The name of a tree in Malabar. See Raii Hiſt.

MALAGMA, from *μαλασσω*, *to ſoften*. It is ſynonymous with cataplaſma, from the frequency of making cataplaſm to ſoften; but formerly malagmas were made of many other ingredients.

MALAGRETA, or Malagueta. Grains of paradiſe.

MALANKUA. Zedoary.

MALARUM OSSA. The cheek bones, called alſo malaria oſſa, and zygomatica oſſa. Albinus calls them oſſa jugalia. They are the irregular ſquare bones, placed on the outſide of the orbits. Their four corners are reckoned proceſſes; the poſterior and ſuperior, which are the longeſt, are called the ſuperior orbiter proceſſes; the anterior and ſuperior, which end in acute angles, are called the inferior orbiter proceſs; the anterior and inferior, which are the ſhorteſt, are denominated the maxillary; the poſterior and inferior points are called zygomatic.

MALAVISCUS. A name for the marſhmallow.

MALAXATIO. The ſoftening of any thing, from *μαλασσω*, *to ſoften*.

MALAZISSATUS. One whoſe teſticles are concealed in his belly. He is alſo called emaſculatus and muliera-tus.

MALE. The arm-pit.

MALICORIUM. Pomegranate.

MALIGNITAS. Malignity. Very different are the definitions of malignity, or the different accounts of what conſtitutes it. The fevers termed malignant, upon examining their ſymptoms, ſeem to proceed from coagulation

or

or from diſſolution of the juices; volatile and attenuating medicines relieve in the firſt caſe, and mild acids, cooling emulſions, and agglutinants, are uſeful in the latter. And as theſe medicines act by manifeſt qualities, it may reaſonably be inferred that malignant diſorders ariſe from manifeſt cauſes; ſo that the notion of malignity from a ſecret ſomething, falls to the ground. The fevers that are malignant proceed from ſome particular contagious qualities of the air, not cognizable perhaps by the ſenſes; corrupt and putrified matters diffuſed in the air may both cauſe and continue them.

The ſigns of malignity are, a ſlight coldneſs and ſhivering, a great loſs of ſtrength immediately enſuing, a ſmall, quick, and contracted pulſe, fainting, if an erect poſture is long continued, drowſineſs without any (at leaſt refreſhing) ſleep, and if ſleep comes on it is followed by a greater decay of ſtrength and a delirium; there is no great complaint from pain, thirſt, or other troubleſome ſymptoms, and yet the patient is uneaſy; at length the extremities are cold, the pulſe intermits, and death ſoon approaches.

Theſe diſorders in general may be called malignant which ſuddenly deſtroy the ſtrength of the patient, and in which the flame of life ſeems at firſt to be almoſt quenched.

MALIS. A pungent pain from an animalcule lodged in an ulcerous tumor; or pain from an inſect lodged in any part without ulcer or tumor.

MALLAM-TODDALI. The name of a tree in Malabar, whoſe root, bark, leaves and fruit, are eſteemed as ſpecific in the epilepſy. Raii Hiſt.

MALLEAMOTHE, called alſo pavette, pavate. It is a ſhrub which grows in Malabar. The leaves boiled in palm oil, cures the impetigo; the root powdered and mixed with ginger is diuretic. Raii Hiſt.

MALLEI MUSC. EXTERN. vel Superior, i. e. Tenſor membrana tympani.

MALLEOLI The ankles.

MALLEOLUS. A mallet. In botany the cutting of vines, which are taken with joints of the old wood to their bottom, ſo as to reſemble a little mallet, are thus termed; theſe cuttings moſt certainly take root, and make the beſt plants.

MALLEOLUS. By ſome taken for the talus or ankle bone, where it means the inferior extremities of the tibia and fibula, or the protuberances there.

MALLEOLUS INTERNUS MUSC. i. e. Muſc. externus auris Du Vernii.

MALLEUS. A hammer or mallet, alſo one of the bones in the ears; this bone hath a large round head, which contracts all the way to the neck, from whence the proceſſus Ravianus jets out like a fiſh bone, and on the outſide a ſhort proceſs projects outward, and points againſt the membrana tympani; from thence the manubrium is continued down, and its extremity is fixed to the membrana tympani, and pulls it inwards. When the *malleus* is in its proper ſituation, the neck and head of it are turned upwards, and inwards, and the manubrium downwards, the ſhort proceſs of the handle upwards and outwards near the upper part of the edge of the tympanum, and the proceſſus Ravianus forwards, reaching to the articular fiſſure in the os temporis, whence we may diſtinguiſh the *malleus* of one ear from that of the other. The handle of the *malleus* is tied to the membrana tympani by a fine membranous duplicature. This bone hath three muſcles, viz. the laxator membranæ tympani, the tenſor membranæ tympani, and the muſculus externus auris Du Vernii.

MALPIGHIA. A plant ſo named in honour of Malpighius. It is not noted for any medicinal powers.

MALPIGHIUS. In the middle of the ſeventeenth century, or toward its latter end, he diſcovered the termination of the arteries. From this time medicine made great advances, on which Hoffman, Boerhaave, and others improved, as their ſucceſſors have improved on them.

MALTHEORUM, i. e. Sal gem.

MALUM. A diſeaſe, alſo an apple.

MALUM MORTUUM. A malignant ſpecies of lepra or ſcab, which renders the body livid, with cruſty ulcers, void of ſanies and of pain.

MALUM. In a ſtrict ſenſe it is the diſeaſe called procedentia oculi: it is when the eyes exceed the bounds of the eye-lids.

MALUM TERRÆ, i. e. Rad. ariſtol. R.

MALUS. The apple-tree. The many ſorts of apples that are known in this and other countries are but varieties of one ſpecies in the opinion of ſome. Though we have more than four ſcore ſorts, yet the crab is the only one proper to this iſle.

MALUS SYLVESTRIS, ſive Agreſtis, malus acido fructu ſylveſtris. The crab tree, the wilding, or the welding. It is the pyrus malus of Linnæus.

MALUS HORTENSIS, Malus Sativa. The apple tree.

The firſt of theſe is too ſour to be eaten; their juice is called verjuice, that is, green juice, as the French call it, and is often uſed as vinegar, called alſo agreſta. In moſt inſtances its uſefulneſs, both with reſpect to food and phyſic, is the ſame as that of vinegar.

The ſecond may be conſidered as including all the variety of apples which by culture are improved. They have the common qualities of cooling and abating thirſt; the more acid kinds are ſomewhat laxative; the auſtere have rather a contrary effect. The juice of ſome of them, after being preſſed out, is left a little time to ferment, and then is the liquor called cyder.

MALUS ADAMI. A ſpecies of lemon.

MALUS INDICA. See Bilimbi and Carambolas.

MALUS MALABARICA. See Nux Vomica and Caniram.

MALUS MALUCENSIS. See Jujuba.

MALUS MEDICA. The citron, lemon, and peach.

MALUS PERSICA. The peach and lemon.

MALUS PUNICA. The pomegranate.

MALVA, ὁ μαλαχη, from μαλασσω, *to mollify*. The mallow. Boerhaave enumerates fifteen ſpecies; but the common mallow being more frequently found, and poſſeſſed of the largeſt ſhare of uſeful qualities, is juſtly uſed for them all. It is the malva ſylveſtris, or malva caule erecto herbaceo. foliis ſeptemlobatis acutis, pedunculis petioliſque piloſis, Linn. It is ſufficiently known to need no deſcription. Its leaves and flowers are a little mucilaginous, have no remarkable ſmell, and are rather emollient and laxative. A conſerve is made with the flowers; the leaves are uſed in decoctions for clyſters and fomentations of the emollient kind. The roots have been uſed more as a pectoral than they are at preſent; they have a ſoft ſweet taſte, ſomewhat like liquorice, but have no remarkable ſmell. An extract from them, made with ſpirit of wine, is very ſweet. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

MALVA ARBOREA MARITIMA, alſo called althæa arborea maritima. The mallow tree. It agrees in virtues with the common mallows.

MALVA BETONICÆ FOLIO, i. e. Malacoides.

MALVA ROSEA FOLIO SUBROTUNDO, called alſo malva arborea, malva hortenſis. Tree or garden mallow, and the hollyhock. Of this kind Boerhaave enumerates thirteen ſpecies. They are chiefly noticed as ornamental in gardens. Their medical virtues are ſimilar to, but leſs in degree than thoſe of the common mallow.

MALVA VERBENACEA, called alſo alcea, alcea vulgaris major. Vervain mallow. It is diſtinguiſhed from the common mallow by its leaves being jagged or cut in about the edges. It grows in hedges, and flowers moſt of the ſummer. It agrees in virtues with the other mallows, but is the leaſt mucilaginous of any. Miller enumerates eight ſpecies of the vervain mallow.

MALVA VISCUS. Marſhmallows. See Althea.

MALVASIA. Malmſey, alſo called malviſium, marviſium. It is a generous kind of wine. It is ſuppoſed to be the arviſium of the iſland of Scio.

MAMANGA FRUTEX. An arboreſcent ſhrub in Braſil. The Portugueſe call it lavapratas. Its leaves are applied to wounds and ulcers. The pods yield an oil by expreſſion, which is uſed in maturating poultices. Raii Hiſt.

MAMEI. The mammæ, momin, or toddy tree. It is a fine tall tree, appearing always of a fine green colour, and ſomewhat reſembles the walnut tree; the fruit is as large as a man's two fiſts, and is very agreeable. This tree is found in different parts of the Weſt-Indies, but thoſe on the iſland of Hiſpaniola are the beſt. From inciſions

ſions made in the branches a copious diſcharge of pellucid liquor is obtained, which is called momin or toddy-wine; but it muſt be drank very ſparingly, becauſe of its very diuretic quality: it is eſteemed as an effectual preſervative from the ſtone, as alſo a ſolvent of it when generated. There are two ſpecies. See Raii Hiſt.

MAMIRA. It is ſaid by Paulus Ægineta to be the root of a plant which is of a detergent quality. Some think it is the root of the doronicum; but what it really is cannot be aſcertained.

MAMIRAAN. It is a plant which grows in the water. It hath a leaf like the convolvulus; its taſte is hot and bitter: the ſeed reſembles that of ſeſamum. It is in uſe amongſt the Arabians.

MAMITHA, or Mamithſa. Rhazes mentions it as being in uſe amongſt the Arabians. It is a plant like the papaver maritinum or corniculatum. At the lower part of it is a moiſture that ſticks to the hand; the flower reſembles that of the papaver, and is of a yellow colour; the ſeeds are like thoſe of the ſeſamum both in colour and ſize. The plant is very ſucculent, and hath a ſtrong offenſive ſmell.

MAMMA. The nipple.

MAMMÆ. The breaſts, from *μαμμα, mother*, mamma, plural mammæ. In the *breaſts* are, the *mammæ* or nipples, the areola, the body of the *breaſt*, and the lactiferous veſſels. The ſubſtance of the *breaſt* is deſcribed as lying between two membranes, one before, the other behind; but this is not true. The *breaſts* are compoſed of a glandular ſubſtance and fat; the glandular part is hard, white, and irregularly mixed with fat; but the ſtructure of the *breaſts* are very little underſtood. The whoſe maſs of the glandular part ſeems made up of tubes called tubi lactiferi. See Lactiferi Ductus.

The glands in the *breaſts* of old women are very prominent, and may be taken for ſcirrhuſes.

The arteries and veins are ramifications from the arteriæ and venæ ſubclaviæ, and from the axilliares. The nerves are principally from the coſtales, which communicate with the nervi ſympathetici.

MAMMARIA EXTERNA (Arteria), i. e. Thoracicæ arteriæ ſuperior.

MAMMARIA VASA. The mammary veſſels. They are the arteries and veins of the breaſt.

MAMMARIÆ ARTERIÆ. The arteries of the breaſt. The external are branches from the axillary arteries, and are called the ſuperior thoracic arteries. The internal proceed from the anterior and lower ſide of the ſubclaviæ, near the middle of the claviculæ, and run down, for about one finger's breadth, behind the cartilages of the true ribs, an inch diſtant from the ſternum; in their paſſage they ſend branches to the breaſts and to ſeveral of the adjacent parts; they afterwards go out of the thorax on one ſide of the appendix enſiformis, and are loſt in the muſc. abdom. recti.

MAMMARIÆ VENÆ INTERN. The right ſprings from the vena cava, a little below the bifurcation, runs along the internal edge of the ſternum, &c. as does its correſponding artery. The left ſprings from the ſubclavian, or from the axillary vein.

MAMMIFORMES, or Mammillares proceſſ. The maſtoid proceſſes. In (forma) the ſhape of (mamma) a teat.

MANACA. The name of a bacciferous ſhrub in Braſil. The root is powerfully emetic and cathartic, and is uſed on ſome occaſions by the natives. See Raii Hiſt.

MANANAOG. The plant which bears the St. Ignatius's bean.

MANATEA LAPIS. See Manati.

MANATI, alſo called manati Indorum, manati phocæ genus, vacca marina. The ſea-cow.

The part of this animal which hath been uſed in medicine is the os petroſum of the head; it is of various forms, hard, and white, reſembling ivory. It being harder than bones are in general, hath obtained it the name of ſtone.

MANCANILLA. The manchineal tree. There are three ſpecies in the Weſt-Indies; they are as large as the oak tree; the juice from their bark, whilſt freſh, is cauſtic; the fruit and leaves have the ſame effect, yet are eaten by goats. The wood is ſawn into planks, and brought into England. See Raii Hiſt.

MANCORON. According to Oribaſius's account is a kind of ſugar which is found in a ſort of cane.

MANCURANA. Marjoram.

MANDARU. The pod-bearing Malabarian tree with bifid leaves. Ray mentions the following ſpecies:

1. Chovanna *mandaru* prima, alſo called arbor St. Thomæ, &c. 2. Chovanna *mandaru* ſecunda, &c. 3. Volutta *mandaru*, &c. 4. Canſchena pou, &c.

The flowers purge. The roots, if chewed, relieve pains in the teeth.

MANDIBULA, from *mando, to chew*, a jaw.

MANDIHOCA, Mandiiba, Mandiibabura, Mandiibparata, Madiibumana, Mandiipeba, Mandiipuca, Mandioca, Mandiopiba. All theſe are names for the preparations of the root of the caſſada plant, in order to make it into bread.

MANDRAGORA. The male mandrake. It is the atropa mandragora, Linn. This plant hath monopetalous, multifid, bell-ſhaped flowers; its fruit, is ſoft, globular, and contains ſeed, which are generally kidney-ſhaped. The plant is common in Spain, Italy, and other hot countries. It is anodyne, narcotic, and cathartic; but is only uſed internally as a diſcutient.

Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies. The roots of marſhmallow, of the arundo, and of bryony, are made to reſemble the *male mandrake* roots; the latter is very commonly impoſed for them.

MANDRAGORITES. The mandrake wine, or wine in which the bark of the roots of the male mandrake are infuſed. Half a pound of this bark is put to nine gallons of wine, and are to ſtand together during three months.

MANDSJADI. The name of a pod-bearing tree in Malabar and other parts of the Eaſt Indies; the pods contain ſcarlet-coloured beans, which are ſo exactly to the ſame weight, as to be uſed as weights. See Raii Hiſt.

MANDUCATORES MUSC. from *manduco, to chew*, i. e. Maſſeter.

MANGA, alſo called mangas, amba, amygdalam referens fructus hirſutus, mao, mau. The mango tree. It is a large tree, a native of the Eaſt Indies; the fruit is as large as a gooſe's egg, and ſhaped like a kidney, and of a gold yellow colour. This fruit is pickled and ſent to moſt parts of the world. See Raii Hiſt.

MANGAIBA. A ſpecies of plum-tree in Braſil.

MANGANESE, called alſo magneſia, magneſe, magalaize, maganaize, ſoap of glaſs, &c. It is commonly conſidered as an iron ore, but it contains little or none of this metal. Mr. Cronſtadt makes it a particular earth, and calls it terra magneſiæ. It is of various colours, as red, dark grey, black, white, &c. It is not uſed in medicine. The blacker ſort, which bears a diſtant reſemblance to antimony, is uſed by potters; it is mixed with lead for glazing their coarſeſt wares. The glaſs-makers add a little to their frit, and by continuing them in fuſion, the glaſs is rendered colourleſs. The darker coloured is called Perigord ſtone by the French. *Manganeſe* is found about lead mines. See Dict. of Chem. Neumann's Chem. Works.

MANGARATIA. Ginger.

MANGLE. See Guaparaiba.

MANGOSTAN. A tree which has been tranſplanted from the Molucca iſlands to Java, and at Batavia is admired as an ornament in gardens. The bark is aſtringent.

MANGOSTANS. It is an Indian fruit, of the ſize of a ſmall orange. It is cardiac and ſtomachic; its rind or peel is aſtringent. See Lemery de Drogues.

MANIA. Madneſs. This diſorder receives different appellations, according to its greater or leſs violence, and the varieties of its cauſes and attending circumſtances. Melancholy is the primary diſorder, and *madneſs* is the higher degrees. Alexander Trallian ſays that *madneſs* is nothing but melancholy arrived to a higher degree, and that the connection between theſe two diſorders is ſo great, that a tranſition from one to the other eaſily happens. Aretæus alſo ſays that melancholy is the beginning and origin of *madneſs*, which is brought on by the increaſe of melancholy, rather than by any other cauſe.

Theſe two diſorders agree in their being accompanied with conſtant delirium without fever. And it is alſo certain that he who can leſſen or remove one of theſe complaints, is equally able to afford relief againſt the other.

Madneſs, in all its ſpecies, is a chronical diſorder, and of the tribe uſually denominated nervous: it is defined by ſome to be, "The perception of objects not exiſting, or at leaſt not correſponding to the ſenſes." Hence it will be deſcribed as being a preternatural ſtate of ſenſation. Dr. Cullen defines it to be an univerſal infanity. As a genus of diſeaſe he places it in the claſs neuroſes and order veſaniæ. He points out three ſpecies. 1. *Mania* mentalis when wholly from the affections of the mind. 2. *Mania* corporea, when evidently from a fault in the body. 3. *Mania* obſcura, when not preceded by any evident mental affection or diſorder of the body.

The dull, ſtupid, or forgetful; the very ingenious and penetrating; thoſe of a melancholico-choleric temperament, of a lean habit, with tenſe fibres, and a quick pulſe; thoſe who are prone to anger, particularly thoſe who are eaſily provoked to anger at meal times, are, above all others, ſubject to *madneſs*.

From diſſection of thoſe who died mad or melancholy, it appears that a congeſtion of blood in the veſſels of the brain is a principal cauſe of theſe diſorders. According to the different nature and condition of the blood, and its motion though the veſſels of the brain, both the rational and ſenſitive powers are ſo altered, that the difference of inclinations and appetites is to be accounted for from them. And the immediate cauſe of *madneſs* or of melancholy is a preternatural congeſtion of fluids in the veſſels of the brain, or ſuch an impreſs, on ſome part of this organ of ſenſe, as excites the preternatural ſenſations which more particularly work on the imagination. The mediate cauſes, are a certain weakneſs, or at leaſt a peculiar diſpoſition to irritations of a peculiar kind. The remote cauſes are, violent commotions of mind, ſuch as long-continued or exceſſive grief, dread, terror, fear, &c. intenſe thought, an exceſs of love, narcotic drugs, expoſing the feet and legs to too much cold; and among theſe cauſes a callous pia mater is mentioned as one in the Edinb. Med. Eſſays, vol. iv. art. 26, and to theſe many others might be added.

The preceding ſigns of *madneſs* are, in general, a redneſs of the eyes, a tremulous motion of the eye-lids, a change of diſpoſition and behaviour, a pride which diſcovers itſelf in the countenance, voice, and geſtures, a grinding of the teeth, an uncommon hatred to particular perſons, little ſleep, a violent cephalalgia, a quickneſs of hearing, a ringing and a ſort of muſical noiſe in the ears, increaſed ſtrength, and capacity of bearing cold; and in women, an accumulation of blood in the breaſts as the diſorder increaſes. As to the ſigns in the beginning, progreſs, and declenſion of the diſorder, Aretæus excellently lays them down as follow: "Thoſe who are affected with melancholy are ſad, dejected, and dull, without apparent cauſe. They tremble for fear, are deſtitute of courage, affected with watchings, and fond of ſolitude. They are prone to anger, changeable in their tempers, and aſk a reaſon for the moſt trifling and inconſiderable occurrences. They are at ſome ſeaſons ſo covetous that they will part with nothing, but ſoon become ſilly and prodigal. They are generally coſtive, ſometimes diſcharge no fæces at all, at other times their excrements are dry, round, and covered with a black and bilious humour; they diſcharge a ſmall quantity of urine, which is acrid and bilious. A large quantity of flatulencies are lodged in the precordia. Putrid and fetid eructations are diſcharged from their mouths; ſometimes they vomit a certain acrid humour with the bile. Their countenances become pale, their pulſe is ſlow. They are lazy and weak, but diſcover a preternatural voracity in eating their aliments. When the diſorder advances to madneſs, the patient, when provoked to anger, becomes raging mad. Some wander far from home; ſome cry out in a hideous manner; ſome ſhun the ſight of men, betake themſelves to ſolitude, and only converſe with themſelves; others tear and mangle their bodies. In the higheſt degree of this diſorder, they perceive red images before their eyes, ſo that they in a manner think themſelves ſtruck by lightning. They are immoderately inclined to venery, ſo that they careſs publicly, without either dread or ſhame. But when the diſeaſe is in its decline, they become ſtupid, calm, and mournful; and coming to the knowledge of their misfortune, they are dejected, on account of their calamitous and miſerable ſituation."

Hoffman obſerves that *madneſs* ſometimes remits for a long time, but returns at certain periods, eſpecially about the ſolſtices, the times at which they firſt appeared. Dr. Tyſon, phyſician of the Bethlehem hoſpital, obſerves that the raving fits of mad people, which keep the lunar periods, are generally accompanied with epileptic ſymptoms.

Madneſs ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from an acute delirium or phrenitis; alſo that reſemblance of *madneſs* which is produced by narcotic drugs.

If this diſorder is ſymptomatic a recovery may be more readily expected; but when idiopathic, or when violent or diſappointed love, exceſs of venery, great agitation or uneaſineſs of mind, were the cauſe, a cure will be difficult, and not ſoon to be expected. If the paroxyſms are ſlight and ſhort, the cure may be reaſonably expected. If after ſleep the patient is delirious and inſenſible of cold, or of draſtic emetics or purges; if, in conſequence of a want of ſleep, and of long abſtinence, a great loſs of ſtrength is brought on, or if epilepſy, convulſions, or lethargy come on, death is not far off.

As in other nervous diſorders, ſo in this, the ſame method of cure is not to be indiſcriminately uſed in every caſe.

As the immediate cauſe appears to be a preternatural ſtate of ſenſation, ſo whatever produces an oppoſite one, may be conducive to a cure, whence moderate exerciſe continued within the compaſs of the patient's ſtrength, and travelling in temperate climes are found uſeful; keeping the patient's mind diverted with any amuſement that turns his thoughts directly contrary to thoſe which poſſeſſed them before; if this can be duly continued, the cure is both facilitated and expedited. But ſeverity in beating, terrifying, &c. is very rarely neceſſary, and never in a great degree, for all mad people are great cowards, and after a few inſtances of ſmart rather than ſevere diſcipline, the moſt frantic are eaſily governed.

When the diſorder is ſymptomatic, or the conſequence of other diſeaſes having long continued, or being ill managed, the cure will much depend on the removal of the original diſorders. As when it happens in conſequence of nervous or intermitting fevers long continued, moderate exerciſe in a dry warm air, with the bark, cordials, and ferrugineous preparations are moſt proper. When it happens to weakly women affected with the nervous fever, particularly in child-bed, bleeding and all cooling methods are to be avoided, the patient muſt be kept in bed, and free from every diſturbance; gentle cordials and perſpiratives muſt be given, and the extract of the bark with the flor. mart. ſhould accompany the cordial perſpiratives.

In the young, ſanguine, and robuſt, bleeding is an eſſential ſtep towards relief; as to the quantity to be diſcharged, and the frequency with which it is to be repeated, they are beſt determined by the pulſe.

Anodynes. Theſe, in general, ſuch as camphor, camphor with nitre, muſk, &c. are proper; for though evacuations are required, medicines to ſtrengthen the brain and ſpirits are neceſſary too: and, after due evacuations, ſtrong opiates may be uſed with advantage. If muſk is given, the doſes ſhould conſiſt of from ℈ i. to ʒ ſs. Opium may be given to two grains. Camphor hath been given with great advantage from ℈ i. to ʒ i. ſs. at a doſe, and repeated every night, and ſometimes morning and night. Dr. Kenneir uſe to begin with an antimonial vomit, the next day he gave a large doſe of camphor, and repeated it at night, and thus continued a few days: then in the day he gave pills of Æthiops, gum guaiacum, &c. and at nights the camphor until a cure was effected; in which he often ſoon ſucceeded. Dr. Monro gives borax to ʒ ii. at a doſe, for procuring ſleep.

Emetics are often highly uſeful by their ſtimuli; of theſe the antimonial are generally uſed; but when they fail, the juice of the leaves of aſſarabacca or of groundſel may be given, from one to two table-ſpoons-full for a doſe; though the flor. antimonii are celebrated as being ſpecific, if a ſpecific is known for maniacs.

Diuretics. Dr. Mead obſerves that, in the cure of *maniacs*, evacuations by the kidneys are of greater conſe-

quence

quence than is generally ſuppoſed, eſpecially if the *mania* is of the furious kind, and accompanied with febrile heat. Alkaline ſalts in large doſes are here the moſt effectual diuretics.

Purges. Though the ancients uſed hellebore, they rendered it mild before they adminiſtered it for purging with; and it was becauſe they knew not of any of the milder ſorts which now are in uſe, that they employed this. Alexander Trallian obſerves that in theſe diſorders "gentle purging, a moiſtening diet, and the interpoſition of the bath, are neceſſary; for thoſe who preſcribe hot antidotes and purgatives, render their patients more furious." Such purges as gently evacuate, and that with the leaſt irritation, are the beſt.

Bliſters are rarely uſeful, though not wholly to be condemned.

Bathing. Cold bathing is commended, but perhaps would always be both more ſafe and effectual after a due uſe of the warm. The ancients both uſed and highly extol the uſe of bathing in warm light water, in which ſweet herbs are infuſed. Celſus adviſes to "waſh the patient's head with cold water, and then to lay a folded cloth, gently ſqueezed out of the ſame, upon it, when going into the warm bath: for thus (he ſays) the veſſels in the head are ſtrengthened, and more forcibly drive their contained blood from them, and the warm bath enlarging the veſſels in the body, fits them for receiving more, and ſo leſſening the quantity in the head." Trallian and Aretæus both urge the uſe of hot baths, becauſe, they ſay, "the fleſh of thoſe patients is dry and tenſe, and that ſoftening it tends much to relieve." When baths are made for this purpoſe, their heat ſhould be only ſuch as excites a pleaſing ſenſation. Hoffman is a great advocate for warm bathing; but he firſt directs to due evacuations, a liquid diet, and nitrous medicines.

Some, conſidering melancholy and *madneſs* only as the higher degrees of the hypochondriac diſorders, proceed and adviſe as directed in the cure thereof.

Dr. Muzzel of Berlin, in his Treatiſe of Melancholy, highly extols the ſal diureticus; he directs a dram (the Germans reckon twenty-four grains in ℈ i. to ʒ i. i. e. twelve grains more than our ʒ i.) to be given three times a day in a draught of warm water, which is to be ſweetened with honey: this, with a thin moiſtening diet, the warm bath every night, and the fleſh-bruſh every morning, hath great efficacy.

It ſhould be obſerved that every kind of *madneſs* is attended with a diminiſhed perſpiration, and that the cuſtom of confining theſe patients in cloſe apartments increaſes this morbid ſymptom.

See Aretæus, Alex. Trallian, Celſus, Sennertus, Hoffman, Sydenham, and Boerhaave, Dr. Battie's Treatiſe on *Madneſs*, and Dr. Muzzel's Treatiſe on Melancholy. Arnold on *Madneſs*.

MANIGUETTA. Grains of paradiſe.

MANIHOT. See CASSADA.

MANIODES. Maniacal.

MANIPULUS. A handful. As much as can be contained at once in the hand.

MANJAPUMERAM. It is a large tree, which is common in the Weſt Indies: its flowers are diſtilled, and the water is uſed againſt inflammations of the eyes, &c. See Raii Hiſt.

MANNA, alſo called manna Calabrina, ros Calabrinus. It is called *manna* from the ſuppoſition that it deſcended in dew from heaven; but it is inconteſtibly proved to be the juice of the trees on the leaves of which it is found.

Juices of a like nature, but inferior both in quality and quantity, are obtained from ſeveral ſhrubs and trees in the warm eaſtern countries; but the officinal *mannas* tranſude during the dog-days from the fraxinus rotundiore folio & fraxinus humilior minore & tenuiore folio C. B. in Calabria and Sicily. Fraxinus ornus, vel fraxinus foliolis ſerratis, floribus, corollatis, Linn. It exudes from every part of the tree; but, for a more abundant ſupply, inciſions are made through the bark, whence it flows more freely, and is ſoon inſpiſſated by the ſun's heat. The quality of the *manna* will often vary much, though the produce of the ſame tree.

Manna is a juice of the ſame nature with honey and ſugar, being, like them, ſweet, inflammable, ſoluble in water and in ſpirit; fermentable ſo as yield a vinous ſpirit, a vinegar, tartar, &c. It poſſeſſes, like them, a laxative quality, but in a greater degree. The finer *manna* is in oblong, roundiſh, ſingle pieces; or in flakes, moderately dry, friable, of a whitiſh or pale yellowiſh colour, light and ſomewhat tranſparent; internally it is compoſed as it were of fine capillary cryſtals. The inferior kinds are moiſt, unctuous, brown, mixed with ſmall pieces of wood and other impurities, and in irregular lumps.

Chuſe the whiteſt, drieſt, lighteſt, pureſt, and that which hath a cryſtalline appearance upon breaking, a ſweet taſte, and which is rather biting to the tongue. The flake *manna* is generally preferred; but the ſmaller pieces are as good, if white or of a pale yellow colour, very light, of a ſweet not unpleaſant taſte, and free from impurities. Some chuſe the fat honey-like *manna*, but very injudiciouſly, for it hath either been expoſed to moiſt air, or is damaged by means of ſea-water, or ſome other fluid.

Manna is often adulterated by compoſitions of coarſe ſugar, ſtarch, and ſome purgative ingredients, ſuch as ſcammony; but they are diſcovered by their taſte, weight, compactneſs, untranſparency, their habitude to certain menſtrua. The adulterated ſorts generally render the fluid in which they are diſſolved more or leſs glutinous.

This concreted juice liquefies in a moiſt air, diſſolves readily in water, and by the help of heat in rectified ſpirit alſo, the impurities only being left by both menſtrua. From the ſaturated ſpirituous ſolution great part of it ſeparates as the liquor cools, concreting into a flaky maſs, of a ſnowy whiteneſs, and a very grateful ſweetneſs: the liquor remaining after the ſeparation of this pure ſweet part, on being inſpiſſated, is unctuous, dark coloured, and diſagreeable.

Manna is one of the mildeſt and ſafeſt purgatives, and is excellently adapted for diſcharging the inteſtinal contents in children and very weakly people; it ſheathes acrimony, and is uſeful in coughs, diſorders of the breaſt, and ſuch as are attended with fever and inflammation, as in pleuriſies, &c. It is particularly uſeful in bilious complaints; and helps the diſcharge of mineral waters when they are not of themſelves ſufficiently active. It is apt to create flatulencies and gripes, both which are prevented by a ſmall addition of ſome warm carminative. It purges in doſes of from ʒ i. to ʒ ii. but its purgative quality is much increaſed by a ſmall addition of caſſia. When it is adminiſtered in bilious diſorders, Geoffroy recommends a cuating it with a few grains of tart. emet. thus he ſays the bilious ſerum will be plentifully evacuated, without any nauſea or gripes. Sydenham recommends the addition of lemon-juice to *manna*, as a remedy for the gravel, and ſays, that the acid renders the purgative quality of the *manna* quicker, and alſo cauſes the *manna* to ſit eaſy on the ſtomach. In bilious caſes tamarinds are uſefully joined with *manna*. In the gravel, the hooping cough, and when all poſſible irritation ſhould be avoided, give the *manna* in milk. See Raii Hiſt. Tournefort's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

MANNA THURIS. The coarſer powder that olibanium is broken into by carriage is thus named.

MANNIFERA ARBOR. The aſh-tree which produces manna.

MANSORIUS MUSCULUS. The maſſeter muſcle.

MANTILE. The name of a bandage.

MANUS. The hand. It is divided into the carpus, metacarpus, and fingers. All the poſterior part is convex for greater firmneſs, and the internal part concave, for the greater convenience of graſping. The concave ſide is called the palm of the *hand*.

MANUS CHRISTI SIMPLICES. A name given to certain troches made of the ſugar of roſes.

MANUS CHRISTI PERLATÆ. When pearls are added to the manus Chriſti ſimplices they are thus named.

MANUS DEI. A name for a reſolvent plaſter which is deſcribed by Lemery. It is alſo an epithet for opium.

MANYL-RARA. A tall tree, growing in the Eaſt Indies. Its fruit reſembles an olive, and is eaten to promote an appetite and digeſtion.

MANZIZANION. A name for the colocaſia.

MAON. A ſpecies of African marigold.

MARANDA. A ſpecies of myrtle, growing in the iſland of Zeylon, a decoction of the leaves of which is ſaid to be excellent againſt the venereal diſeaſe.

MARASMODES. A hectic fever in its worſt ſtage.

MARASMUS, from *μαραινω, to render lean*, or *tabid*. An atrophy, or a conſumption, is thus called, when in its laſt or worſt ſtate. Linnæus defines it to be a waſting without loſs of ſtrength, hectic, or expectoration. Cullen defines it a waſting with loſs of ſtrength, but without the hectic fever, &c.

That ſpecies of hectic fever which is common and fatal to old perſons, was by the Greeks called *maraſmus*.

MARATHRITES. Wine impregnated with fennel.

MARATHROPHYLLUM. See PEUCEDANUM.

MARATHRUM. See FOENICULUM & PEUCEDANUM.

MARCASITA. Marcaſite. It is called mundic by the Engliſh miners. It is a ſtone participating of ſome metal, yet in ſo ſmall a quantity that the metal cannot be melted from it, but will vapour away in ſmoak, the ſtone turning to aſhes. The *marcaſites* are commonly in colour like the metal joined to them. The name of *marcaſite* is ſo variouſly given, that nothing determinate can be underſtood by it, ſo Mr. Wallerius propoſes to apply it only to ſuch pyrites as are regularly formed. See Dict. of Chem. edit. ii. Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy.

MARCHED. Litharge.

MARCHIONIS PULVIS. The Marquis's powder. It is deſigned as an anti-epileptic, and conſiſts of peony roots, miſſeto, elk's-hoof, coral, ivory, &c.

MARCOR. A preternatural drowſineſs.

MARCORES. Diſeaſes that are attended with waſting of the body.

MARGA. Marle. It is an earth, compoſed of different proportions of argillaceous and calcareous earths. It is divided into the ſhell and the earthy kinds. The firſt is eaſily diſtinguiſhed by the ſhells mixed with it. Its properties are, to effervеſce with acids, and to fertilize the ſoil to which it is applied. The acid of ſea-ſalt is the beſt for uſe, when *marles* are to be diſtinguiſhed from other earths, or from one another in point of goodneſs, the more the acid diſſolves, the better is the *marle*. The contents of all the *marles*, are different proportions of clay, ſand, and calcareous earth. The ſtone *marle* is a calcareous earth chiefly. See Dict. of Chem. Georgical Eſſays, vol. iii. Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy.

MARGARITÆ, alſo called perlæ, uniones. Pearls. They may be ranked as a ſpecies of bezoar-ſtones. They are ſmall morbid excreſcences, of a calculous kind, of a bright ſemi-tranſparent whiteneſs, formed on the inſide of the ſhell of the concha margaritifera, or mother of pearl fiſh; as alſo of certain oyſters, muſcles, and other ſhell fiſhes. The fineſt pearls are brought from the Eaſt Indies; the next from the Weſt. The oriental have a more ſhining ſilver-like hue than the occidental; the laſt are ſomewhat milky. Inferior ſorts are found in the ſhell on our own ſhores. Thoſe which are not fit for ornamental uſes, are called rag *pearls* and ſeed *pearls*, and are employed in medicine.

True *pearls* calcine in the fire, and become quicklime, and readily diſſolve in acids, the vitriolic excepted. Theſe properties ſhew, that they are an earth of the ſame kind with crab's-claws, oyſter-ſhells, and other calcareous animal abſorbents. *Pearls* have no virtues but what are common to other ſubſtances of the ſame claſs, nor yet do they poſſeſs them in any greater degree. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

MARGINATUS. Bordered. The ſeeds of plants which have a thin leafy border round them, are ſaid to be marginated, as thoſe of the ſtock-gilly-flower, &c

MARINUS PLATYPHYLLOS. Oyſter green.

MARINUM, vel Marinus Sal. Sea-ſalt. It is alſo called common ſalt.

This ſalt is not only extracted from the ſea-water by evaporation, but is alſo found in immenſe quantities in the earth. That which is found in the earth is uſually diſtinguiſhed by the name of ſal gem. Sal gemma. See GEMMA (Sal). This ſalt is perfectly neutral, but differs from all other neutral ſalts, in its occaſioning thirſt if ſwallowed. It is compoſed of a peculiar acid, denominated from it the marine acid, and of the mineral alkali, called natron. It diſſolves in about thrice its weight of cold water; and, if the water is hot, it diſſolves very little more.

The ſolution of this ſalt in water, if gently evaporated, firſt affords certain cubical cryſtals, theſe are the common or alimentary ſalt; after this, by farther evaporation, a quantity of the ſal cathartic. amar. is produced; the remaining part of the ſolution can hardly be cryſtallized, it conſiſts of the marine acid, and a calcareous earth.

When the ſea water is thrown upon rocks, &c. in warm climes, it is gradually evaporated by the ſun's heat, and the remaining ſalt receives the name of bay-ſalt; this is formed into large cryſtals, it does not liquefy in a moiſt air, and, being ſtronger, it preſerves proviſions better.

The common alimentary ſalt loſes part of its acid in the proceſs for preparing it; for *ſea-ſalt*, contrary to other neutral ones, loſes part of its acid in boiling down a ſolution of it to dryneſs; and hence its diſpoſition to liquify in air; but this is prevented by adding a ſmall quantity of acid juſt when it begins to concrete.

Sea-ſalt is fixed and unchangeable in our bodies; it paſſes through us unaltered. It checks fermentation, and prevents putrefaction in the primæ viæ. It readily joins with volatile urinous ſalts, and changes them into a ſal ammoniac, and ſo fits the fluids for running off by urine. It ſtimulates the ſolids, and increaſes their oſcillatory motion; and on theſe foundations are built all the virtues aſcribed to *ſea-ſalt*, of drying, heating, deterging, digeſting, opening, and attenuating, increaſing the appetite, and reſiſting putrefaction. It is uſeful when the appetite fails, digeſtion is weak, the bowels are coſtive, or the urine obſtructed. It checks the operation of vomits, by turning them downwards. In palſies and apoplexies conſiderable advantage is often perceived from ſalt being ſprinkled on the tongue. A free uſe of ſalt hath been blamed, for producing the ſcurvy and itch; but if ſalt is juſtly blameable in theſe caſes, it is becauſe a ſufficient quantity of it was not uſed. See AQUA MARINA.

Common ſalt hath many peculiar qualities, ſome of which are as follow:

1. The ſmalleſt cryſtals are cubic.

2. Fire applied to it makes it crackle; this crackling is called decrepitating, and ſeems to proceed from the air contained in it, which, being rarefied, burſts its way with a noiſe.

3. Spirit of ſalt is the only known ſolvent of gold, but not without being joined with ſpirit of nitre.

4. It is anti-putreſcent from its acid.

5. A larger quantity is ſoluble in a given quantity of water than of any other known ſalt; ſix ounces of common ſalt may be diſſolved in ſixteen ounces of water.

6. Salt diſſolved in water, of a heat nearly equal to that of the atmoſphere, renders the water colder by much.

7. Notwithſtanding the coldneſs, the water in which ſalt is, will not freeze ſo ſoon as the freſher water

8. If ſalt is made very dry, it attracts the moiſture of the air conſiderably in the drieſt ſeaſons; ſo that its gain in weight allows of profit enough, if bought dry, to ſell it as it coſt.

Salt is decrepitated by placing it over a charcoal fire in an earthen veſſel, and ſtirring it continually with a ſpatula; as ſoon as it is hot it crackles, and when the noiſe is over, it is decrepitated, dried, calcined, or burnt.

To depurate ſalt, diſſolve it in ſix times its quantity of rain water, ſtrain the ſolution hot through a cloſe linen bag ſo often as to render it limpid, then exhale in a glaſs veſſel one ſixth part of the water, and ſet it in a cool place, covered from the duſt; if in three days a ſediment is obſerved, pour off the water by decantation: if there is no ſediment, the liquor is fit for proceeding with; and in this caſe evaporate to a pellicle, then ſet it in a cool place for twenty-four hours, in which time it will ſhoot into cubic cryſtals. Keep the firſt for chemical uſes; evaporate the remainder, and proceed as before.

Spiritus Salis Marini *Glauberi. Glauber's Spirit of* Sea-ſalt.

Take of *ſea-ſalt* and ſpirit of vitriol of each one pound; dilute the oil of vitriol with a pint of water, gradually added to it; then, by little and little, add it to the ſalt; under

under a chimney; after this diſtil at firſt with a gentle, afterwards with a ſtronger fire.

The acid of the *ſea-ſalt* is completely diſengaged from its alkaline baſis by the more powerful acid of vitriol, and may now be collected in a concentrated ſtate by diſtillation; but as in this concentrated ſtate its fumes very diſficultly condenſe, a little water muſt be added to promote that effect. The marine acid riſes in white fumes. The ſpirit of *ſea-ſalt* is the weakeſt of the mineral acids, but ſtronger than any of the vegetable kind; it requires a greater fire to diſtil it than that of nitre, yet it is more readily diſſipated by the action of the air.

It is chiefly uſed as a menſtruum for other preparations; but, when given as a medicine, the doſe may be from ten to ſixty drops, in water, or any other convenient liquor. It is an uſeful antiphlogiſtic, aperient, antiſeptic, and diuretic. In putrid fevers it powerfully corrects the putrid ſtate of the blood; ſo great is its ſubtilty that when taken internally it diffuſes its efficacy to remote parts, eſpecially the membranous. To its ſubtilty it is owing that it acts on the nervous coats of the ſtomach ſo as to be the beſt exciter of the appetite of all the mineral acids. In bilious fevers this ſpirit corrects the faulty diſpoſition of the bile. In dropſies, a few drops in each draught of the patient's drink, agreeably allays thirſt, and promotes the diſcharge of urine. Linnæus ſays that if it is properly diluted and applied to chilblains, it radically cures them.

The ſpirit of *ſea-ſalt*, combined with volatile alkalies, produces the officinal ſal ammoniac; with the mineral fixed alkali it regenerates common *ſea-ſalt*; with fixed vegetable alkali it produces the

Spiritus Salis Marini *Coagulatus.*

Drop into Glauber's ſpirit of *ſea-ſalt* a ley of any fixed alkaline ſalt until all effervescence ceaſes; then evaporate the mixture to dryneſs.

This is ſomewhat ſharper than the *ſea-ſalt*; it alſo melts in water, and is fuſed in the fire with more difficulty. Some call it *ſal. marin.* regenerat. but very improperly, as its baſis is not the ſame.

The ſp. *ſal. marin.* Glaub. combined with calcareous earths, forms a very pungent ſaline compoſition, which diſficultly aſſumes a cryſtalline form, deliquates in the air, diſſolves both in water and in rectified ſpirit of wine; this is called ſal ammon. fixum, and ſal muriatic. calcareus. This ſalt is contained in a conſiderable quantity in ſea-water, and remains fluid after the cryſtallization of its other ſaline matter; and is far more antiſeptic than the perfect *marine ſalt.* It is ſaid to be diuretic and lithontriptic. The medicine commonly ſold under the name of liquid ſhell, appears to be no other than a combination of this kind, conſiſting of calcined ſhells diſſolved in the marine acid. Theſe combinations are made by mixing the calcareous earth with ſal ammoniac, and urging the mixture with a gradual fire, until the volatile alkali of the ſal ammoniac is either diſſipated in the air or collected by diſtillation, and only its acid left incorporated with the earth; ſo much of the earth as is ſaturated with the acid may be ſeparated from the reſt by elixation with water.

See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works; Dict. of Chem.

MARIPENDAM. It is a plant in the iſland of St. Domingo; its tops are diſtilled, and thus a water is obtained which is held in great eſteem there againſt pains in the ſtomach, &c. See Raii Hiſt.

MARISCA. An excreſcence about the anus. The piles in a ſtate of tumor. The hæmorrhois tumens, of Cullen.

MARISICUM. See MERCURIALIS.

MARITUS. Authors who have writ about the philoſopher's ſtone, call ſulphur the maritus or huſband, and mercury the uxor or wife.

MARMAROPROSERON. In foſſilogy it is a genus of ſtone, in the order petra. Its characters are, petra, of a fine and cloſe texture; of elegant colours or colour; admitting a degree of poliſh; never, or very ſeldom ſtriking fire with ſteel; and generally ſcraping pretty eaſily with the knife. Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy.

MARMARYGÆ, from μαρμαιρω, *reſplendeo.* It is a variety of pſeudoblenſis (imaginaria). Sparks or coruſcations which ſeem to flaſh before the eyes, in ſome diſorders of the head.

MARMOLARIA, i. e. Branca urſina.

MARMOR. Marble. Chemiſtry conſiders ſtones as ſo many kinds of earth. Foſſilogy divides earths and ſtones into ſeparate claſſes, and places *marble* as a genus in the order of calcareous ſtones. The characters are, a calcareous ſtone, neither tranſparent, or figured, but capable of a fine poliſh, and beautifully coloured. Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy. When *marbles* are calcined, they become quicklime; to which we refer for its medical uſes.

MARMORATA AURIUM. Ear-wax.

MARMOREUS TARTARUS. The hardeſt ſpecies of human calculus.

MARMORACEA VENENA. Such poiſonous ſubſtances are thus named which are fatal in doſes not exceeding the quantity of a grain of wheat.

MAROCOSTINUM. An epithet for a cathartic extract, originally made by Mindererus: Marum and coſtus are two of the ingredients in it, and thoſe from which it is named. Lemery and Bates have named it pilulæ *marocoſtinæ.* It was deſigned particularly for purging off ſerous humours with, but is now neglected. See Pharmacop. Auguſt.

MAROTTI. A tall tree in Malabar, with leaves like thoſe of the bay-tree, and a fruit which contains an oily kernel. The oil expreſſed from the kernel is variouſly uſed by the natives, and often medicinally. See Raii Hiſt.

MARULLIUM. Lettuce.

MARRUBIASTRUM. Boerhaave takes notice of ſix ſpecies of this plant; but not any of them are remarkable for medical virtue.

MARRUBIUM. Horehound. Boerhaave mentions nine ſpecies; but they are not all in uſe as medicines.

MARRUBIUM ALBUM, alſo called praſium album. Common white horehound. Marrubium vulgare, or marrubium album, dentibus calycinis, ſetaceis uncinatis, floribus albis, Linn. It is a hoary plant, with ſquare ſtalks and roundiſh unwrinkled leaves, ſet in pairs on long pedicles, in the boſoms of which come forth thick cluſters of whitiſh labiated flowers, in ſtriated cups, whoſe diviſions terminate in ſharp points or prickles. It is perennial, grows wild in uncultivated grounds, and flowers in June.

The leaves have a kind of aromatic ſmell, but not an agreeable one; however, the diſagreeable part is wholly diſſipated after a few months keeping; their taſte is bitter, penetrating, diffuſive, and durable in the mouth. Taken in large doſes, they prove laxative. This plant is deſerving of more attention than is given to it, for it is a very uſeful aperient and corroborant; in humoral aſthmas, cachexies, menſtrual ſuppreſſions, and ſeveral other chronical diſorders, where is is not alone a cure, it is important in its aſſiſtance. A dram of the dried leaves in powder, two or three ounces of the expreſſed juice, or an infuſion of half a handful of freſh leaves, are commonly directed as a doſe.

The dry herb gives out its virtue both to water and to ſpirit. The expreſſed juice, gently inſpiſſated to an extract, is the beſt preparation; the doſe is from gr. x. to ℈ ſs.

MARRUBIUM AQUATICUM, called alſo lycopus, Heraclea. Water horehound. This is found on the ſides of brooks, but is inferior in virtue to the white ſort.

MARRUBIUM VERTICILLATUM, called alſo alyſſum verticillatum, marrubium Hiſpanicum. Galen's mad-wort. Stachys. The baſe horehound.

Theſe are not in much eſteem. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

MARRUBIUM NIGRUM. See BALLOTE.

MARRUBIUM. It is a name for a ſpecies of ſage, of baſtard dittany, of mother-wort, and ſome other plants.

MARS. So the chemiſts call FERRUM, which ſee.

MARSAO, i. e. Bonduch.

MARSUPIALIS, i. e. Obturator externus and internus; though by ſome, the two Gemini are ſo named, as they reſemble *marſupium, a purſe.*

MARTIANUM POMUM. An orange.

MARTIATUM UNGUENTUM. Soldier's ointment.

noſtrils, and the roof of the mouth. The orbitar proceſs is very irregular, from the ſuperior and anterior part of which, to near the extremity of the naſal proceſs, a ridge proceeds which forms about one-third part of the outward circumference of the orbit. The bodies of the *oſſa maxillaria ſuperiora* are entirely hollow, and form in each a large ſinus, called ANTRUM HIGHMORIANUM, which ſee.

MAXILLARIÆ ARTERIÆ. The maxillary arteries.

The external *maxillary artery* is alſo called the genial, and the angular artery; it is a branch from the external carotid. It runs to the baſis of the lower jaw, juſt cloſe to the attachment of the maſſeter; it gives a branch to the maxillary gland; it paſſes over the lower jaw; it goes up upon the buccinator; it gives off a branch to the lower lip, which anaſtomoſes with the other on the other ſide, and is continued to the upper lip, where it anaſtomoſes likewiſe; there they are called labial arteries. The external *maxillary* then gives off branches to the noſe, goes to the inner canthus of the eye, is loſt upon the forehead, and communicates with the temporal artery.

The internal *maxillary artery* is a branch from the external carotid; it riſes therefrom juſt at the origin of the temporal, and is diſtributed to both the jaws; it is very much convoluted, and gives branches to all the deep-ſeated parts; one branch of it runs through the lower jaw, which is called the inferor *maxillary artery*, whilſt the main trunk of it runs up to the bottom of the orbit, to the foramen, or orbitale lacerum inferius, winds about the antrum, and ſinks into the noſe behind the upper *maxillary* bone, and before the pterygoid proceſs of the os ſphenoides, to be ſpent upon the inſide of the noſe.

MAXILLARIS INFERIOR NERV. The lower maxillary nerve. It is the third branch of the fifth pair of nerves which paſs from the head. It paſſes through the foramen ovale of the os ſphenoides, where it gives off ſeveral branches to the muſcles of the lower jaw, then throws a remarkable branch through the lower jaw to ſupply the teeth, which comes out at the anterior part of the channel, and branches upon the lip; from this, a capital branch is detached to the tongue, called the lingual, which runs between the two pterygoid muſcles, and paſſes to the top of the tongue, going along with the duct of the *maxillary* gland. It is this which gives off the chorda tympani.

MAXILLARIS SUPERIOR NERV. The upper maxillary nerve. It is the ſecond branch of the fifth pair of nerves which paſs from the head. It paſſes through the foramen rotundum of the os ſphenoides, where it throws off a branch to the palate, but the trunk paſſes on in the ſulcus of the upper *maxillary* bone, and goes to the upper jaw, and to the antrum there, when, having given off theſe branches, it comes out below the orbit, and is diffuſed upon the face, particularly upon the noſe, the upper lip, and cheek.

MAXY, i. e. Marcaſita.

MAYS. It is a kind of Indian wheat, of which Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies, but they are only varieties from the ſame ſeed.

MEATUS. A duct, or paſſage. Any canal which conveys a fluid is a *meatus*. The auditory paſſage is called *meatus* auditorius. The Euſtachian tube is called *meatus* a palato ad aurem. The urethra is called *meatus* urinarius. The duct which conveys the bile from the gall-bladder to the duodenum is the *meatus* cyſticus.

MEATUS AUDITORIUS. It is the external paſſage to the ear. It begins at the hollow of the outer ear, and ends at the membrane of the drum. It was formerly a name for the Euſtachian tube.

MEATUS CÆCUS, i. e. Aquæductus.

MECAPATLI. Hernandus mentions four ſorts of ſarſaparilla, of which this one.

MECAXOCHITL. It is the ſmall American long-pepper. See PIPER.

MECCHA. (BALS.). Balm of Gilead.

MECHOACANA ALBA. Called alſo rhabarbarum album, convolvulus Americanus, jalapa alba, bryonia alba Peruviana, mechoacan. Convolvulus mechoacanna, Linn. It is the root of an American ſpecies of convolvulus, chiefly brought from a province in Mexico of the ſame name. It is cut into thin tranverſe ſlices like jalap, but it is larger, whiter, and ſofter. This root was firſt brought into Europe in 1524, as a mild cathartic, which having but little taſte or ſmell, was thought not to offend the ſtomach, but the black jalap hath ſuperſeded its uſe. See Raii Hiſt. Tournefort's Mat. Med.

MECHOACAN. A name of the jalap in common uſe. See JALAPA.

MECON. The Greek name for a poppy.

MECONIO, (SYR. e.) See PAPAVER.

MECONIUM. Opium is the juice of the poppy head, emitted through inciſions made therein. *Meconium* is the juice of the whole plant, which is firſt bruiſed (head, leaves, ſtalk, and all together) then preſſed out.

MECONIUM. The excrement contained in the guts of an infant at its birth. If this matter is not ſoon purged off, it occaſions gripes, &c. A tea ſpoonful of true caſtor oil is an excellent purge in this caſe; but the firſt milk from the mother's breaſt is uſually ſufficient, if it flows in due time.

MEDENA. In Paracelſus it is a ſpecies of ulcer.

MEDENA VENA. According to Caſtellus it is the ſame as vena Medinenſis.

MEDIA SUBSTANTIA VINI BECCHERI, i. e. Tartar.

MEDIANA VENA. A remarkable vein on the inſide of the flexure of the cubit, betwixt the cephalic and baſilic veins. It is frequently opened in bleeding.

MEDIANUM, i. e. Mediaſtinum.

MEDIANUS. The median nerve. See CERVICALES.

MEDIASTINA. Inflammation of the mediaſtinum.

MEDIASTINÆ ARTERIÆ. The arteries of the mediaſtinum. They ariſe from the ſubclavian arteries, and are ſpread about the mediaſtinum.

MEDIASTINÆ VENÆ. The veins of the mediaſtinum. The right comes out from the trunk of the ſuperior vena cava anteriore, a little above the azygos; the left from the ſubclavia.

MEDIASTINUM. It is the membrane called the pleura, which when it goes to the ſpine, it proceeds therefrom, covers the lungs, paſſes to the ſternum, and makes a complete bag on each ſide; this duplicature forms the *mediaſtinum*. It is commonly ſaid, that at the ſternum there is a cavity betwixt the laminæ of the *mediaſtinum*, and that any matter may be diſcharged, if lodged there, by a perforation through the middle of this bone; but this operation, if really required, would be very uncertain; for the *mediaſtinum* does not commonly terminate along the middle of the inſide of the ſternum, but from above, all the way down it, inclines to the left-ſide, ſo that if an inſtrument was thruſt through the middle of the ſternum, it would paſs near an inch on one ſide of this membrane.

The *mediaſtinum* contains in its duplicature, the heart, the pericardium, the vena cava, and the œſophagus.

MEDICA. The French call it St. Foine, and Foine de Bourgogne. It is alſo called *medica* major, trifolium Burgundicum, faleata ſiliqua cornuta, fœnum Burgundiacum, Medic fodder. Pliny ſays it is called *medica*, becauſe it came from Media into Greece, when Darius Hyſtaſpis invaded it. Boerhaave mentions twenty-eight ſpecies, but they are not noted for medical virtues. This kind of plant grows plentifully in Spain and the ſouth of France, and is uſed as fodder for cattle.

MEDICA LUNATA. A ſpecies of medicago.

MEDICAGO. Shrub trefoil. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies of this plant, but they are not noted in medicine.

MEDICAMENTARIA. Pharmacy. It is the art of making and preparing medicines. In an ill ſenſe of the word, it is the art of preparing poiſon. *Pharmacy* hath been diſtinguiſhed into chemical and Galenical. The firſt conſiſted in many operations, in moſt of which fire was a principal medium, whereby extractions were made of the elementary parts of ſimples, which, in their ſeparate ſtate, had qualities different from thoſe of the entire body, of which they were a part, and combinations of different ſimples formed, with qualities not found in any of the conſtituents. The ſecond conſiſted in altering the form, or texture of ſimples, ſo as to render them fit to be taken, or applied,

applied, without attempting any change in their qualities; and in conjoining them in compoſitions of various forms, wherein, nevertheleſs, each ſimple was ſuppoſed to retain its original properties. But theſe diſtinctions have, for ſome time paſt, been laid aſide.

The operations in *pharmacy* may be reduced to theſe four kinds:

1. Commenſuration, or the adjuſtment of quantities. This is neceſſary, both for the due adminiſtration of ſimple and compound medicines, and alſo for the formation of thoſe very compounds.

2. Change of form, or texture, in the ſimple. In many caſes this is prevouſly requiſite, both for the convenient adminiſtering of ſimples, and forming compounds. The inſtances in which this is practiſed, are for the reduction of ſolid cohering bodies to powder, and of theſe that partake both of ſolid and fluid, into pulp; for converting ſalts, and other ſoluble bodies, to fluidity, and, in other caſes, the reſtoring them when fluid to their ſolid ſtate. The ſeveral particular operations, by which theſe changes are produced, are trituration, calcination, ſolution, exſiccation, and cryſtallization.

3. Extraction, or ſeparation. This is here to be underſtood in a general ſenſe of the word, and not confined to the making extracts of the gums and reſins of vegetables. The different elements of many compound bodies having qualities and powers when ſeparate and pure, which they are incapable of exerting when their force is ſuppreſſed by the quantity, or counteracted by the repugnant qualities of other ſpecies with which they are conjoined, are by this means obtained; ſuch are the acid ſpirits, teſtaceous earths, &c.

4. Compoſition. This is of two kinds; firſt, ſimple commixture. Secondly, menſtrual combination. The firſt is where the different ſpecies are intended to act, each according to its proper nature, affording only an auxiliary, and independent power, to the execution of the final intention, without producing any mutual change of, or alteration in each other. But this is the leſs important kind of compoſition, as ſingle ſimples moſtly will anſwer the end of ſuch compoſition. The ſecond of theſe produces many efficacious remedies, which have no adequate ſubſtitutes, obtained by other means; ſuch as the preparations of mercury, Glauber's ſalts, &c. Its conſtituent ſpecies which are commixed, acting on each other, ſo as to produce a mutual change in their qualities and powers, and form from thence a new compound ſpecies, differing in its nature and efficacy from any of theſe of which it is compoſed.

To execute theſe ſeveral intentions, a variety of methods, and their proper inſtruments are employed, and a number of leſſer ſubſervient intentions ariſe occaſionally, and are furniſhed with their correſpondent names, as calcination, cryſtallization, corroſion, depuration, digeſtion, diſtillation, expreſſion, exſiccation, fermentation, fuſion, incorporation, precipitation, pulverization, ſolution, ſublimation, &c.

The means of effecting *pharmaceutic* operations, are of two kinds, viz. chemical and mechanical. By the chemical is meant, the natural media by which bodies can act on, and produce a change in each other, not explicable from the known general properties of matter, or laws of motion; theſe are the menſtrual powers, and fire. By mechanical is meant artificial inſtruments. For brevity ſake in ſpeaking of theſe two kinds, the firſt is called media, the latter inſtruments.

MEDICAMENTOSUS LAPIS. The medicinal ſtone. ℞ Litharg. bol. Gallic. alum. āā ℔ ſs. colcoth. vitr. ℥ iij. acet. acerim. ℔ ij. m. & evaporat. donec durus eſt. This was formerly uſed in collyriums, &c. as an aſtringent.

MEDICINA. Medicine. It is the art of preſerving preſent health, and of reſtoring it when loſt; more properly the laſt. It is uſually divided into Phyſiology, Hygiene, Pathology, Semejotice, and Therapeutice, which ſee.

MEDICINA TRISTITIÆ. An epithet given to ſaffron, on account of its cheering effects.

MEDICINALES DIES, are thoſe days in fevers which are neither critical nor indicatory, and on which it is proper to adminiſter powerful remedies, &c.

MEDINENSIS VENA. So the Arabians called the worm, which is known by the name of dracunculus. They called it *vena*, becauſe they doubted its being a living animal, and *Medinenſis*, from its being frequent at Medina; and therefore Avicenna treats of it amongſt abſceſſes. The *vena Medinenſis* is miſtaken by Le Clere, and many others, for another diſtemper deſcribed by the Arabians, viz. the AFFECTIO BOVINA, which ſee; but Aetius plainly diſtinguiſhes them; and Albucaſis hath two chapters which diſtinguiſh them.

MEDITULLIUM, from *medium*, *the middle*, i. e. Diploe. Sometimes it ſignifies the pith of vegetables.

MEDIUM. The Syrian bell-flower.

MEDIUM TESTÆ, i. e. Bregma.

MEDIUS LAPIS. It is a gem brought from Media; it is black, with a gold-coloured vein, and yields a juice of the colour of ſaffron, and the taſte of wine.

MEDULLA. Marrow. In anatomy it hath various ſignifications. The white ſubſtance of the brain is called *medulla*, or the *medullary* part, to diſtinguiſh it from the cortical. The continuation of the brain, &c. in the ſpine, is called *medulla* ſpinalis; but properly *medulla* is the marrow in the bones.

The beſt time for gathering marrow is about autumn, for at other times it is bloody and brittle like fleſh.

If the marrow is viewed through a microſcope, it ſeems a maſs of ſmall globules joined together like the roe of a herring. The diſtinction which ſome authors make betwixt a *medulla* and the ſuccus *medullaris* is uſeleſs, the marrow in human bones being always fluid. The membrana *medullæ* not only lines the internal ſurface of the bone, but alſo divides the marrow into veſicles, or membranous bags, which are furniſhed with very fine minute veſſels. The marrow is ſecerned into theſe little membranes by the arteries, and the ſuperfluous part is occaſionally carried into the maſs of blood by bibulous abſorbent veins. The uſe of the marrow is to keep the bones firm and flexible, to keep them from becoming brittle, which would ſoon be the caſe without it, as is often ſeen in pocky and ſcorbutic habits, where it is ſeparated in too ſmall a quantity, and is, beſide, bad in itſelf. The membrana *medullæ* hath a nerve which enters with the artery, and makes it ſenſible.

Mr. Sheldon obſerves, that the marrow is never ſenſible but in a diſeaſed ſtate. The dropſy hath the power of removing it. No marrow is found in the fœtus, but a kind of gelatinous fluid in its place. Animal oil never tranſudes in the living body from the bones, nor does marrow prevent their brittleneſs, as it is merely adventitious. The bones of birds contain no marrow, but air.

MEDULLÆ CASSIÆ. The pulp of the caſſia fiſtularis.

MEDULLA OBLONGATA. It is a continuation of the *medullary* ſubſtance of the cerebrum and cerebellum, which paſſes downwards, and a little backwards to the foramen magnum occipitale, where it aſſumes the name of *medulla* ſpinalis. It is rather of a depreſſed pyriform figure, though it is called oblong. It riſes by two crura from the cerebrum, and two peduncles from the cerebellum; the enlargement formed by the union of theſe is called pons varoli, or tuberculum annulare, behind which is a ſtricture upon the *medulla oblongata*, and then an enlargement, which have the name of corpora piramidalia. From the *medulla oblongata*, ſprings the *medulla* ſpinalis, and all the nerves that paſs from the head, except the firſt and ſecond pairs. If the *medulla oblongata* is injured, death is the conſequence immediately.

MEDULLA SPINALIS. It is the continuation of the *medulla* oblongata, from the foramen magnum occipitale, through the vertebræ of the neck, back, and loins. It is of different ſizes: in the neck it is flat and broad, in the back, ſmall; in the loins, large; and at laſt it becomes a bundle of nerves, which have the name of cauda equina, becauſe when taken out, and extended in water, they reſemble a horſe's tail.

MEGALOSPLANCHNOS, from *μεγας*, *great*, and *σπλαγχνον*, *a bowel*. It is a perſon who hath ſome of the viſcera enlarged from a ſchirrus, or other cauſe. In a metaphorical ſenſe, this word is applied to a perſon of great generoſity, and ſignifies that he is magnanimous.

MEGRIM, i. e. Hemicrania.

MEIBOMIUS's GLANDS, i. e. The ciliary glands.

MEL, Honey. The firſt who is ſaid to have gathered *honey*, was Ariſtæus, a pupil of Chiron's. It is a ſweet vegetable juice, collected by the bee from the flowers of various plants, and depoſited in the cells of the

comb; from which it is extracted either by ſpontaneous percolation through a ſieve in a warm place, the comb being ſeparated and laid thereon, or by expreſſion. That which runs ſpontaneouſly is purer than that which is expreſſed, a quantity of the wax, and other matters, being forced out along with it by the preſſure. The beſt ſort of *honey* is of a thick conſiſtence, a whitiſh colour inclined to yellow, an agreeable ſmell, and pleaſant taſte; both the colour and flavour are ſaid to differ in ſome degree, according to the plants which the bees collect it from. It is generally ſuppoſed that *honey* is merely the juice of the flower perſpiring, and becoming inſpiſſated thereon; and that the bee takes it up with its proboſcis, and carries it to be depoſited in their waxen cells, with which to feed their young at preſent, and themſelves in winter; but it is certain that no other method of collecting this juice, beſides that of the bees, affords us *honey*. The *honey* wrought by young bees, and that is permitted to run from the comb without heat or preſſure, is white and pure, and called virgins *honey*. The *honey* of old bees, or that which is forced from the comb by heat or preſſure, is yellow, from the wax. *Honey* produced where the air is clear and hot, is better than that where the air is variable and cold. Where the bee-hives are fixed, there ſhould be plenty of roſemary, thyme, lavender, violets, primroſes, marjoram, baum, ſage, marygolds, &c.

MEL. DESPUMATUM. Clarified honey.

Liquefy the honey in a water-bath, and, as the ſcum ariſes, take it off. Thus the honey is purified from wax and all foreign matters, as flour, &c. which are fraudulently mixed with it, and which, for the moſt part, are found on the ſurface, ſo may be ſkimmed off. On continuing the heat, there ariſes a conſiderable quantity of aqueous fluid, impregnated with the fineſt ſmell of honey; the inſpiſſated reſiduum diſſolves in water and in ſpirit; and if treated with moiſt clay, as practiſed by ſugar-bakers for purifying ſugar from its treacly matter, the unctuous parts of the honey may be ſeparated, and its pure ſweet matter obtained in the form of a ſolid, ſaline, white concrete.

Honey is a natural ſoap, more aperient and detergent than the juice of the ſugar-cane; it diſſolves viſcid phlegm, promotes expectoration; in which intention it is much aſſiſted by acids; it gripes and purges ſome, but this effect is prevented by boiling it; it is detergent; antiacid; antiſeptic; and laxative. But when heat and inflammation are conſiderable, it is hurtful.

The more fixed parts of vegetables, diſſolved in watery liquors, may be thence transferred into honey, by mixing the honey with the watery decoction, or juice of the plant, and then boiling them until the aqueous parts bath exhaled, and the honey remains of its original conſiſtence, and hence the ſeveral mels and oxymels.

Oxymel Simplex. Simple Oxymel.

Take of *clarified honey*, two pounds; of vinegar, a pint. Boil them in a glazed earthen veſſel, with a gentle fire, to the conſiſtence of a ſyrup. Thus the London college directs. But it is ſafeſt to boil it in a glaſs veſſel, for boiling vinegar diſſolves the lead that forms the glazing of earthen veſſels; and metals are diſſolved by vinegar that is many degrees of heat below boiling.

Honey yields by diſtillation an acid ſpirit, a browniſh empyreumatic oil, and a caput mortuum. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem Works.

MELÆNA, i. e. Melaina.

MELAINA. Black bile, or the diſeaſe, the matter of which is black bile. The ſame as MELAINA NUSOS.

MELAINA NUSOS. The black diſeaſe. Hippocrates applies this name to two diſeaſes. In the firſt, the patient vomits black bile, which is ſometimes bloody and ſour; ſometimes he throws up a thin ſaliva, and at others a green bile; ſometimes the mouth is inflamed with the matter that is thrown up, the teeth are ſet on edge, and then what is vomited ferments on the ground. After vomiting the patient is eaſier, but he can neither faſt, nor eat freely; for in the firſt caſe he is troubled with rumbling in the belly, and ſourneſs of the ſaliva, and, after eating, he feels a weight and oppreſſion of the viſcera, with a pungent pain of the breaſt and back, as if inflicted by pins thruſt therein; there is a pain in the ſide, a ſlow fever, head-ach, dim-ſight, heavineſs in the legs, and blackneſs in the ſkin. In the ſecond, the patient is as deſcribed in the article MORBUS NIGER.

MELAMPODIUM. Black hellebore.

MELAMPUS. He was an Argive. He diſcovered the uſe of black hellebore by obſerving that it purged goats when they fed on it. He lived about an hundred years after Moſes. He travelled into Egypt, and from thence he carried much of their theology and arts. He cured the daughters of Prœtus, king of Argos, of madneſs, with hellebore, but whether with the white or black, it is uncertain. This is the firſt account of a purge being given. He bathed them in cold water, and this is the firſt inſtance of bathing as a medicine on record. He cured Iphiclus of impotency with the ruſt of iron. He uſed incantations and charms. Melampus had a ſon named Thyodamas, who inherited his father's medical knowledge. See THYODAMAS.

MELAMPYRO. A ſpecies of eryngo.

MELAMPYRUM. This name is compounded of μελας, *black*, and πυρος, *wheat*, becauſe it moſt reſembles wheat. It is alſo called triticum vaccinum, crataegonum. Purple cow-wheat. It is called cow-wheat, becauſe it is very grateful to black cattle. It is found among corn in many countries, particularly Frieſland and Flanders. Thoſe who eat it are affected as if they had eaten darnel; but by uſe it is eaten without any ſuch ill effect. There is a wild ſpecies, which is called ſatureia lutea ſylveſtris. See Raii Hiſt.

MELANAGOGA. Medicines which purge off black bile.

MELANCHOLIA, from μελαινα, *black*, and χολη, *bile*. Melancholy. It is the leſſer degrees, or beginning of madneſs; or the higheſt degree of the hypochondriac diſorder. See MANIA. Dr. Cullen places it as a genus in the claſs neuroſes, and order vefaniæ. It is but of one ſpecies, but he enumerates ſix varieties, as ariſing from different circumſtances, or attended with different ſtates of mind, as groundleſs fear, a joyous ſpirit, love, religion, indiſpoſition to action, impatience, wearineſs of life, notions of the nature of his ſpecies. The doctor defines it to be a partial inſanity without a bad digeſtion.

MELANOPIPER. Black-pepper.

MELANTHIUM. Called alſo nigella, gith, melaſpermum. Roman nigella, or fennel flower. Boerhaave enumerates ten ſpecies, but they are not noted for their medicinal qualities.

MELAS. Black. An epithet applied to the colour, and the ſkin, and alſo to ſome particular medicines.

*MELAS. See ALPHUS. So the vitiligo is called when of a dark black colour.

MELASMA. A fugillation or bruiſe which turns black. Black blotches on the legs, or other parts not expoſed to the air. It is an ecchymoſis when black.

MELCA. Galen ſays it is a Roman word; and Conſtantine, in lib. xviii, De Agricultuta, ſays, "It is nothing but milk repoſited in an earthen pot, firſt well ſeaſoned with boiling hot vinegar, by which means there was a ſeparation of the thicker ſubſtance of the milk from the whey."

MELEGETA, or Meleguetta. Grains of Paradiſe.

MELEIOS. A ſpecies of alum, which is made in the iſland Melos.

MELI. Honey.

MELIANTHUS, from μελι, *honey*, and ανθος, *a flower*, becauſe in Africa it tranſudes *honey*. Boerhaave takes notice of two ſpecies, but they are not noted for any medical quality.

MELICERIOLA. A ſmall meliceris.

MELICERIS, from μελι, *honey*, and κηρος, *wax*. See NÆVUS It is an encyſted tumor, whoſe contents reſemble *honey* and *wax*. It a ſpecies of wen.

MELIGEION. Blancard ſays it is a fetid oleous humor of the conſiſtence of honey, diſcharged from ulcers, complicated with a caries of the ſubjacent bone.

MELILOTUS, from μελι, *honey*, and λωτος, *a kind of lotus*. It is alſo called *lotus* ſylveſtris, trifolium odoratum, trifolium caballinum. Common melilot. It is the trifolium melilotus, Linn. It is a plant with ſmooth, oval, ſtriated leaves, ſtanding three together on ſlender pedicles, and round ſtriated branched ſtalks, terminated by long ſpikes of papilionaceous flowers drooping downwards,

wards, which are followed by ſhort, thick, wrinkled pods, containing each one or two roundiſh ſeeds. It is annual, or biennial, and found in flower in hedges and corn-fields the greateſt part of the ſummer.

It is eſteemed as reſolvent, emollient, and anodyne, and participates of the virtue of camomile. Its taſte is unpleaſant, ſubacrid, ſubſaline, but not bitter; when freſh it hath not much ſmell, but in drying it acquires a ſtrong one, of the aromatic kind, but not agreeable. The diſtilled water of melilot, though of little ſmell itſelf, remarkably heightens that of other ſubſtances. It formerly gave name to a plaſter, to which its juice gave a green colour; but it is now ſeldom uſed. Boerhaave mentions twelve ſpecies, and Dale adds another, but none of them are now in much uſe.

MELYPHYLLON. Baum.

MELISSA. Balm or Baum. It is called *meliſſa*, from *μελι*, *honey*, becauſe bees gather much *honey* from it. It is called apiaſtrum, from *apis*, *a bee*, becauſe bees love it; meliſſophyllum, from *μελι*, *honey*, and *φυλλον*, *a leaf*; citrago, citraria, and cedronella, becauſe its colour reſembles that of a citron. It is the *meliſſa* officinalis, or *meliſſa* Italica hortenſis, racemis axillaribus verticillatis, pedicellis ſimplicibus, floribus exalis inferioribus ſubſeſſilibus, Linn. It is a well known plant in our gardens; the ſtalks are ſquare, the leaves are oblong, pointed, dark green, ſomewhat hairy, and ſet in pairs, in the boſoms of which come forth pale, reddiſh, labiated flowers, ſtanding ſeveral together on one pedicle, with the upper-lip roundiſh, erect, and cloven, and the lower divided into three ſegments. It is perennial, a native of mountainous places in the northern parts of Europe, and flowers in June in our gardens.

It is one of the mildeſt cordials and corroborants; hath a pleaſant ſmell, ſomewhat of the lemon kind, and a weak aromatic taſte, of both which it loſes much in drying; a ſlight roughneſs, which the freſh herb is accompanied with, becoming at the ſame time more ſenſible; the young ſhoots are ſtronger than the full grown ſtems. Infuſions of the leaves in water ſmell agreeably of the herb, but have not much taſte, though on being inſpiſſated, they leave a conſiderable quantity of a bitteriſh auſtere extract. Infuſions of *balm* do not, like other aromatics, offend the head, as is complained off from ſage, &c. Cold infuſions in water, or ſpirit, are far better than the cohobated diſtilled water, and are the beſt preparations for the plant.

On diſtilling the freſh herb with water, it impregnates the firſt running pretty ſtrongly with its grateful flavour. When large quantities are ſubjected to the operation at once, there ſeparates and riſes to the ſurface of the aqueous fluid a ſmall portion of eſſential oil, which ſome call ol. Syriæ, and others ol. Germanis. It is of a yellowiſh colour, and a very fragrant ſmell.

MELISSA TURCICA, called alſo *meliſſa* Americana triſolia odore gravi, camphoraſma, and Moldavica. Turkey, or rather Canary baum, commonly called balm of Gilead. This ſpecies of baum is a native in the Canary iſles, and ſcarce bears the cold of our climes without ſhelter. It is commended as a ſtrengthener of the ſtomach and the nervous ſyſtem, if infuſions of it are frequently drank.

Boerhaave takes notice of ſeven ſpecies, but theſe two are the moſt uſeful.

MELISSA. It is a name for ſeveral ſorts of Moldavica, the Molucca, and Molucca ſpinoſa, alſo the galeopſis Hiſpanica fruteſcens teucrii folio.

MELISSOPHYLLUM. A name for the black horehound.

MELITÆA, or Melitea terra. Earth of Malta. It is a kind of white marle.

MELITISMOS. A linctus prepared with honey.

MELITITES. Honey-ſtone. It differs from the galactites only in ſweetneſs and colour.

MELLAGO. Any medicine is thus called which hath the conſiſtence and ſweetneſs of honey.

MELLEGUETTA. Grains of Paradiſe.

MELLIFAVIUM, i. e. Meliceris.

MELLIFOLIUM. Baum.

MELLILOTUS. Bird's-foot trefoil.

MELO. The muſk melon. It is called *melon* from *μηλον*, *an apple*, becauſe its pulp reſembles *an apple*. Boerhaave mentions ſeven ſpecies. They are only uſed in deſerts, and require that wine, or ſugar, or ſome antiputreſcent be joined with them, becauſe they putrefy ſpeedily in the ſtomach.

MELOCACTUS, from *melo*, *an apple*, and *cactus*, *a thiſtle*, becauſe it reſembles *an apple*, and is furniſhed with ſpines. Miller mentions two ſpecies, but they are not remarked for any medical virtues.

MELOCARDUUS, i. e. Melocactus.

MELON. It ſignifies an apple, the cheek, or a ſheep. It is alſo a diſorder of the eye, and is when it protuberates out of the ſocket.

MELONGENA, called alſo mala inſana, ſolanum pomiferum. Mad apple. It is through miſtake that they have been thought to have been injurious, and ſo to have been thus named. The Spaniards and Italians eat them both in ſauce and in ſweet-meats: their taſte ſomewhat reſembles citron.

MELOPEPO. The ſquaſh. It agrees in all things with the pompion, except that its fruit is roundiſh, ſtriated, anguious, cut into five parts, and full of flat ſeeds, which are affixed to a ſpungy placenta. It is called *melopepo*, becauſe its fruit is nearly of the ſize of a melon, and it partakes of the nature of a pompion. Boerhaave mentions five ſpecies.

MELOSIS, from *μηλη*, *a probe*. The ſearching of any part with a *probe*.

MELOTHRUM, i. e. Bryonia alba.

MEMBRANA. A membrane. So called becauſe it covers *membrum*, a limb. Winſlow deſcribes a *membrane* to be a pliable texture of fibres, diſpoſed or interwoven together in the ſame place. They differ in thickneſs, according to the ſmallneſs of their fibres, and the number of their planes. Theſe planes are called laminæ.

The cellular membrane. See CELLULOSA MEMBRANE.

The mucous membrane is that covering of the ſurface of any part, whether within the body or more externally, which is expoſed to any extraneous matter, ſuch as the ſkin, internal membrane of the mouth, noſe, lungs, ſtomach, œſophagus, inteſtines, urinary paſſage, &c.

The common membranes, called the common teguments, are the ſcarf-ſkin, the true ſkin, and the cellular membrane: thoſe which cover particular parts are, the dura mater, pia mater, pleura, peritonæum, pericardium, perioſteum, membrana propria muſculorum, a vaſcular membrane which covers all the veſſels of the body, and thoſe which form the tubes, as the ſtomach, inteſtines, arteries, veins, gall-bladder, urinary bladders, &c.

MEMBRANACEI. Inflammation of membranous parts

MEMBRANÆ. The membranes. Thoſe ſo called in midwifery. See INVOLUCRA.

MEMBRANOLOGIA. Membranology. It treats of the common integuments, and of particular membranes.

MEMBRANOSUS, i. e. Faſcia lata.

MENDOSA SUTURA. The ſquamous ſuture in the ſkull: or baſtard ſutures, from *mendax*, *counterfeit*.

MENDOSÆ COSTÆ. The ſpurious ribs.

MENINGÆ ARTERIÆ, i. e. Arteriæ duræ matris.

MENINGES. The membranes of the brain, which are two; the dura mater, and the pia mater. They are called *meninges*, or matres, from being the ſuppoſed origin of all the other membranes.

MENINGÆÆ ARTERIÆ, i. e. Duræ matris arteriæ.

MENINGOPHYLAX, from *μηνιγξ*, *a membrane*, and *φυλασσω*, *to guard*. An inſtrument deſcribed by Celſus, lib. viii. cap. 3. contrived for guarding the membranes of the brain, whilſt the bone is raſped, or cut, after the operation of the trepan.

MENINX. A membrane. But in anatomy it ſignifies the dura and pia mater.

MENORRHAGIA. Exceſſive or extraordinary diſcharge of the menſes. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order hæmorrhagiæ. He diſtinguiſhes ſix ſpecies. 1. *Menorrhagia* rubra. See MENSES EXCESSIVE. 2. *Menorrhagia* abortus. When floodings happen to pregnant women, or miſcarriage. See ABORTUS. 3. *Menorrhagia* lochialis. See LOCHIA.

4. *Menor-*

4. *Menorrhagia* vitiorum. When the appearances of the menſes are unuſual, as by an ulcer, &c. 3. *Menorrhagia* alba. See Fluor Albus. 5. *Menorrhagia* nabothi. When there is a ſerous diſcharge from the vagina in pregnant women.

MENORRHAGIA DIFFICILIS. Difficult menſtruation, as when attended with pain, &c. See Menses Defective.

MENORRHAGIA ABORTUS. Flooding. Miſcarriage.

MENORRHAGIA ALBA, i. e. Fluor albus.

MENORRHAGIA GRAVIDARUM. Flooding. Miſcarriage.

MENORRHAGIA LOCHIALIS. The lochia.

MENORRHAGIA NABOTHI. The whites in pregnant women.

MENORRHAGIA RUBRA. Exceſſive menſes.

MENORRHAGIA VITIORUM. Irregular appearances of the menſes.

MENSA JOVIS. i. e. Verbena.

MENSES, from *menſis*, a *month*, called alſo catamenia. They are the periodical diſcharges of blood from the uterus, from about the age of fourteen to about fifty. In warm climes they appear at about eight or nine years of age; but, with us, not until after twenty in many inſtances, although uſually at the age of from thirteen to fifteen. The quantity is ſuppoſed to be from about four to ten ounces; in ſome women this diſcharge continues to flow two days, in others three or four, or perhaps a week. In warm climes the quantity of the diſcharge may be from two to twenty-four ounces. About their firſt eruption the quantity is ſmall; but in women arrived to maturity it is more. Thus the more lax the conſtitution, the larger the diſcharge is, other circumſtances favouring. Lean women, and thoſe who abound with blood, evacuate more than ſuch as are fat and of a colder temperament; and thoſe who are addicted to luxury and idleneſs, loſe a larger quantity than thoſe who uſe much exerciſe, and live on a poor, or a ſpare diet. Uſually, the ſooner they appear, the ſooner they diſappear. Commonly this evacuation continues in this country to return until from the forty to the forty-eighth, or ſometimes the fiftieth year.

The *menſes* flow chiefly from the uterus. Some imagine, as ſometimes women with child have them, that they ſpring from the vagina; but they may come through the os tincæ, as is plain in floodings; beſides, the procedentia proves it; for in ſuch caſes where the os tincæ protrudes beyond the labia, they have been obſerved to flow through it. Some have the flux by other paſſages, as by periodical vomiting, coughing of blood from the lungs, bleeding from the hæmorrhoidal veins, noſe, &c. But when the menſtrual blood paſſes by theſe preternatural paſſages, it is productive of various diſorders.

The phænomena of the *menſes* ſeems to depend on this. The arteries of the uterus are larger than the arteries in men, and their areas are to the thickneſs of their membranes, beyond the uſual proportion; on the contrary, the veins in the uterus are leſs than in men, and their coats ſtronger in this part than in many others. This mechaniſm, and the increaſe of blood, generated in a month, will explain the phænomena. The heat of the body is in proportion to the craſſamentum of the blood; this craſſamentum increaſing adds to the vital heat, which diſtending the veſſels of the whole body, thoſe arteries which are the weakeſt, will be diſtended in the greateſt proportion, and thus pores, that before only admitted of ſerum to fill the cellular membrane, may now admit of red blood. Thus the increaſed blood mechanically diſcharges itſelf, which being done, the heat of the body is diminiſhed, the arterial coat contracts ſufficiently to reſtrain the blood from paſſing any longer that way. Drs. Friend and Haller, both aſſert that this diſcharge is from a plethora, and ſupport their opinion with proper anatomical remarks. Boerhaave joins them in the ſame, as does many other phyſicians of the greateſt eminence: but ſome aſk, why is not this diſcharge brought on by every ardent or inflammatory fever? To this it is anſwered, that it is very frequently, and when it is not, it is owing to a ſpaſm or other uſual cauſe of their obſtruction. This theory is ſupported by anatomical obſervations, the ſymptoms that precede, and thoſe that follow this evacuation. Before the diſcharge the breaſts ſwell, the head achs, the eyes have their veins full of blood, the back achs, and there are other ſymptoms of a febrile ſtate; the due quantity being excreted, nature is reduced a little below a ſtate of health, as is evident by the languor and diſpiritedneſs. The ſymptoms of defective *menſes* are the ſame as are conſequent in an inert ſtate of the fluids.

Dr. Hunter obſerves, that the immediate cauſe is univerſally allowed to be an accumulation of blood, which burſting the ſides of the veſſels, is diſcharged; that after the diſcharge, the veſſels collapſe and unite again, till the next accumulation, and ſo on every month. And, the final cauſe ſeems plainly to be this: that the female conſtitution is fitted for making more chyle and blood than is required for its own nouriſhment, in order that there may be a proviſion for the preſervation of health; therefore, till the time of pregnancy, a monthly diſcharge of this ſuperfluity becomes neceſſary; and though this is commonly by the uterus, yet it hath happened by other paſſages. Again, that the redundancy of blood which makes the catamenia, was, by nature, deſigned for the fœtus, appears ſtill more probable from their firſt appearance when women are fit to bear children, and their ceaſing when they are paſt it.

One of the lateſt opinions reſpecting the cauſe of the *menſes* is, that they depend upon a topical congeſtion. Dr. Cullen adopts this opinion, and in his lectures obſerves as follows. "The growth of the body depends upon the increaſe of the quantity of fluids giving occaſion to the diſtention of the veſſels, and thus producing the gradual evolution and full growth of the whole ſyſtem. This evolution does not happen equally in every part of the body at the ſame time, but ſucceſſively, according to the different ſize and denſity of the ſeveral veſſels determined by the original ſtamina. Thus the upper parts of the body firſt acquire their natural ſize, and then the lower extremities. By the ſame conſtitution it ſeems to be determined, that the uterus of the human ſpecies ſhould not be conſiderably evolved, till the reſt of the body is nearly arrived at its full bulk. But as the veſſels of every part, by their diſtention and growth, increaſe in denſity, and give thereby more reſiſtance to their further growth, at the ſame time, by the ſame reſiſtance, they determine the blood in greater quantity in the parts not yet equally evolved. By this means the whole of the ſyſtem muſt be ſucceſſively evolved, till every part is brought to that degree of diſtention which is neceſſary to bring them to a balance with reſpect to denſity and reſiſtance with one another. Upon theſe principles, there will be a period in the growth of the body, whence the veſſels of the uterus will be diſtended till they are in balance with the reſt of the ſyſtem; and their conſtitution may be ſuch, that their diſtention may proceed ſo far as to open their extremities, terminating in the cavity of the uterus, ſo as to pour out blood there; or it may happen, that a certain degree of diſtention may be ſufficient to irritate and increaſe the action of the veſſels, and thereby to produce an hæmorrhagic effort, which may force the extremities of the veſſels with the ſame effect of pouring out blood. In either way, he accounts for the firſt appearance of a flow of blood from the uterus in women. In order to this, he does not ſuppoſe any more of a general plethora in the ſyſtem, than what is conſtantly neceſſary to the ſucceſſive evolution of the ſeveral parts of it; and he proceeds upon the ſuppoſition, that the evolution of each particular part muſt eſpecially depend, upon the plethora, or increaſed congeſtion, in its proper veſſels. Thus he ſuppoſes it to happen with reſpect to the uterus; but as its plethoric ſtate, he obſerves, produces an evacuation of blood from its veſſels, this evacuation muſt empty thoſe veſſels more eſpecially, and put them again into a relaxed ſtate with reſpect to the reſt of the ſyſtem. This emptied and relaxed ſtate of the veſſels of the uterus will give occaſion to a new congeſtion of blood in them, till they are again brought to that degree of diſtention, that may either force their extremities, or produce a new hæmorrhagic effort, that may have the ſame effect. Thus, an evacuation of blood from the uterus being once begun by the cauſes before mentioned, it muſt, by the operation of the ſame

cauſes, return after a certain period, and muſt continue to do ſo till particular circumſtances occaſion a conſiderable change in the conſtitution of the uterus. What determines the periods of theſe returns to be nearly in the ſpace of a month, he cannot exactly explain; but ſuppoſes it to depend upon a certain balance between the veſſels of the uterus and thoſe of the other parts of the body. This muſt determine the firſt periods; and when it does ſo, it can be underſtood, that a conſiderable increaſe or diminution of the quantity of the blood in the whole ſyſtem will have but little effect in increaſing or diminiſhing the quantity diſtributed to the uterus. It may alſo alſo be further obſerved, that when the evacuation has been repeated for ſome time at regular periods, it may be ſuppoſed that the power of habit, which ſo readily takes place in the animal ſyſtem, may have a great ſhare in determining the periodical motions of the uterus to be with great regularity, though in the mean time conſiderable changes may have happened with reſpect to the whole ſyſtem."

This theory, Dr. Hamilton obſerves, though ſtill liable to objections, ſeems, however, as rational as any opinion that has yet been advanced: nor ſhall we ever perhaps be able clearly to inveſtigate the ſecret principles upon which this, and many other phœnomena of the animal œconomy equally intricate and myſterious, depend. See Dr. Hamilton's Outlines, p. 56. 60.

Defective Menſes.

When during the age in which the returns of the *menſes* are regular, they approach with difficulty, and are diſcharged ſparingly, they are ſaid to be obſtructed; but when they do not appear at all, they are ſuppreſſed. See AMENORRHOEA.

At the approach, as well as at the exit of the *menſes*, the body is ſingularly ſuſceptible of unnatural and uneaſy impreſſions, and ſuffers much from them. The *menſes* are retarded by cold, poor blood, ſorrow, ſudden frights, exceſſive evacuations of any ſort, aſtringents, violent ſhocks, as by a fall, &c. after which laſt they ſometimes never return. In general, the cauſe is, a defect of craſſamentum in the blood, or a ſtricture of the uterine veſſels. This diſcharge is interrupted naturally during pregnacy, but this is not always the caſe, for ſome have them three months, ſome ſix months, and ſome the whole time of geſtation, but in leſs quantity than at other times, except it be in the few inſtances of women who never have them but during their being pregnant. For the moſt part, the *menſes* are moſtly interrupted during the time of giving ſuck, though many women have a return about the third or fourth month after delivery, and almoſt all have them again by the ninth or tenth.

Beſides the undue diſcharge, moſt of the ſymptoms of a chlorоſis attend alſo, both when the *menſes* are obſtructed and ſuppreſſed. In many inſtances the blood hath diſcharged itſelf by other outlets. Sometimes an epilepſy is an attendant ſymptom, a loſs of memory, a dropſy of the womb, or a ſcirrhous tumor there, and innumerable other diſorders.

The inteſtines and the uterus receive their nerves from the ſame pair; it thence happens that if the one is diſeaſed the other ſuffers; hence the nauſea, ſickneſs, vomiting, bad digeſtion, &c. when the uterus is diſordered.

It is a generally received opinion, that many of the diſeaſes of women are owing to a ſuppreſſion of the *menſes*; but it may, perhaps, be doubted whether this will ſo often prove the cauſe, as the conſequence of other diſorders; as in general, for the removal of obſtructions, there is little more to do than to remedy the particular indiſpoſition of body under which the patient may labour. Hence different and oppoſite methods of cure will be required, according to the habit of body and nature of the ſymptoms.

The indications of cure will then be as the cauſe, e. g. 1. If a ſanguine plethora produces the diſorder, leſſen it. 2. If there is a defect of good blood it muſt be improved. 3. If ſpaſms in the uterine veſſels are preſent, they muſt be remedied. 4. If there is a natural ill conformation of the veſſels, palliatives only can be propoſed; but in every other caſe, one indication may ſuffice, viz. in other reſpects reſtore the body to its healthy ſtate, and this evacuation will ſpontaneouſly flow; if a final ceſſation hath not arrived, and which will manifeſt no morbid effects.

If a viſcidity, or too great a cohefion in the blood be the cauſe, bleeding and attenuants will be neceſſary; the heat in this caſe may occaſion a ſtricture in the veſſels great enough to reſiſt the diſcharge, and here the ſal diureticus is an admirable aſſiſtant; it may be given from ʒ ſs. to ʒ ii. three times a day; if the larger doſe runs off by ſtool, it muſt be leſſened. Nitre, borax, and black hellebore, are alſo proper in theſe circumſtances.

The moſt frequent cauſe is a defect in the quantity of good blood, an attendant of which is generally a redundancy of vapid ſerum. Here antimonial vomits, repeated as frequently as this kind of evacuants is required; aloetic purges, joined with calomel, the tinct. facr. or pil. Ruffi, are excellent both as alteratives and evacuants; bitters, aromatics, and ſerrugineous preparations, finiſh the cure, if moderate and duly repeated exerciſe, and a cordial nouriſhing diet accompany them. In every inſtance of obſtructed *menſes*, if the woman is weakly, endeavour firſt to increaſe her ſtrengh; when that is effected theſe natural diſcharges will uſually return; if they then do not, a prudent uſe of emmenagogues, that is, of ſtimulating forcers, may be admitted; but until the conſtitution is filled with good juices, it would be abſurd to force away what is already very deficient; or to expect that nature ſhould diſcharge that whereof ſhe needs a ſupply.

A ſluggiſh viſcid ſerum may be corrected by repeated doſes of tinct. facr. or of the pil. Ruffi. given ſo as to keep the bowels free from coſtiveneſs, or by pills of ſoap and aloes. If theſe promote the piles inſtead of what is intended, their effect is ſalutary, as this is the beſt ſubſtitute for the uterine flux: but, quitting the aloes on this account, the beſt deobſtruent will be, ſome preparation of iron, or if it heats too much, the black hellebore may be choſen. The breathing of ſome patients is affected by the uſe of iron, but the addition of a little gum ammoniacum ſeldom fails to relieve; the following form in general will ſucceed. ℞ Limat. mart. ʒ vi. gum ammon. ſapon. venet, ad ʒ ii. ſpec. aromat. ʒ i. aloes ʒ ſs ſyr. q. ſ. f. p. mediocr.

When the head-ach and ſickneſs in the ſtomach affects theſe patients, Dr. Alſton extols the uſe of borax; but adviſes it to be given in a fluid ſtate, for he thinks that the ſtomach cannot diſſolve it.

As to forms of medicines adapted to a variety of circumſtances, ſee an excellent variety in Brooks's and the London Practice of Phyſic.

Bleeding is almoſt univerſally the firſt ſtep taken in theſe caſes; but except there is a manifeſt redundance of good blood, this evacuation is rarely to be admitted of. If the operation is performed, the beſt time for it is juſt before the expected approach of the *menſes*.

Vomits are beſt adminiſtered juſt before the menſtrual return; and if a tenſeneſs of the uterine veſſels is ſuſpected to concur to this diſeaſe, the patient ſhould ſit ſo as to receive the vapours of warm water up the vagina, during the operation of vomiting medicines.

Pedilaves are often of peculiar efficacy as aſſiſtants to other means, and may be uſed during bleeding, whilſt a vomit is working off, or two or three times a day during the ſymptoms of the *menſes* approach.

Volatile ſalts diluted with water, and received in the form of vapour up the vagina, powerfully promote the *menſes*, if prudently uſed.

Opiates are often very uſeful to promote thoſe ſpaſms which are excited by a painful approach of the *menſes*, and which too often retard or obſtruct their courſe; it is true that little is to be expected when there is a natural ill conformation of the veſſels; but when pain, or ſpaſmodic ſymptoms are attendant, ten grains of the pil. ſaponac. may be repeated, as the urgency of the caſe requires, until the difficulty is ſurmounted. When ſpaſms increaſe, convulſions ſometimes come on, and increaſe both difficulty and danger; here, beſides gentle opiates, the uſe of galbanum, camphor, balſam of Peru, and other antiſpaſmodics, are required.

An immoderate Flux of the Menſes. See MENORRHAGIA.

A too long continued, or a too frequent return of the

menſes, or any ſuch diſcharge as reduces the patient's ſtrength during the intervals of their return, is called immoderate.

Women with ſoft lax habits, thoſe who have frequently miſcarried, and thoſe with whom are eaſe and plenty, are the moſt frequent ſubjects of this complaint; not but more vigorous conſtitutions may ſuffer this way, and do, when ſubjected to violent exerciſe, &c.

Among the variety of cauſes, the chief is, a weakneſs of the veſſels, particularly of thoſe through which this diſcharge is made; in ſome inſtances the morbid cauſe is, an acrimony and thinneſs of the blood; in others the occaſional cauſes are, violent exerciſe, ſudden violent paſſion, abortion, a plethoric habit, particular medicines or diet, &c.

An approaching hæmorrhage of this kind is uſually attended with a laſſitude of the whole body, a pain in the back and loins, tenſion of the hypochondria, paleneſs of the face, horripilation of the ſkin, conſtriction of the pores, &c. And the companions of this flux, are all thoſe ſymptoms which are the conſequents of impoveriſhed blood.

Whilſt the pulſe is good, bleeding in the arm may be adviſed, and the greateſt advantage attends this operation if performed on the firſt day of the *menſes* appearing. But if the ſtrength is greatly reduced, the ſame means muſt be uſed to check as were uſed to promote this evacuation when its defect is owing to a defect of good blood; theſe are vitriolic acids, the bark, bitters, aromatics, and chalybeates, which muſt be given in the intervals of the diſcharges.

As to the means of relief during the preſent exceſſive flux, what is ſaid in the article abortus may ſerve as a full direction here.

If the *menſes* are too copious in pregnant women, the true and only remedy is opium, which muſt be given until the end is obtained; if the pulſe require it, blood may be taken from the arm; or, if great pains attend in the belly, and it is evident that they are of the ſpaſmodic kind, clyſters, in each of which is a dram or more of the tinct. Thebaic. will be the moſt proper means of relief.

The Menſes *departing.*

It uſually happens that this periodical diſcharge ceaſes betwixt the age of forty and fifty; with ſome women it happens earlier. Sometimes it quits them all at once, but generally its departure is gradual, and this time is often critical with the ſex. Pains in the head and about the loins, nauſea, the flour albus, and many other troubleſome and ſometimes dangerous ſymptoms, are attendant; but they generally yield to frequent bleeding in ſmall quantities, and aloetic purges with chalybeates. The diet ſhould now be rather ſparing, except the ſtrength of the perſon is remarkably diminiſhed, and the exerciſe ſhould be ſomewhat increaſed.

See Freind's Emenalogia; Hoffman's Med. Rat. Syſt. Haller's Phyſiology; Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic.

MENSIS PHILOSOPHICUS. A philoſophical or chemical month. This is not one determined ſpace of time, for, according to ſome, it is three days and nights, others ſay it is ten, and there are who reckon it thirty and even forty days.

MENSTRUA. The menſes in women, and the bleeding piles in men.

MENSTRUUM. This is a barbarous term, and denotes a body, which when artificially applied to another, divides it ſubtily, ſo that the particles of the ſolvent remains thoroughly intermixed with thoſe of the ſolvend. This ſolvent was called a menſtruum, becauſe the chemiſts in its application to the ſolvend firſt uſed a moderate fire for a philoſophical month, or forty days; hence aroſe the name of a menſtrual ſolvent, and at length was called barely a menſtruum. It is ſynonymous with the word ſolvent.

Many bodies are called menſtruums that are hard, and cannot act in that ſtate as ſolvents; and hence menſtruums are divided into the ſolid and fluid kinds; and however theſe may be ſubdivided, all the known menſtruums may be divided into four kinds. 1. Thoſe which act by a mechanical power. 2. Thoſe which act by a mechanical, mixed with a repellent power. 3. Such as act by a mutual attraction between the parts of the ſolvent and ſolvend. Of this kind there are many. 4. Thoſe which act by the joint concurrence of the ſeveral properties included in the three preceding. Of this kind there are the largeſt number.

It is ſuppoſed by many, that the ſolution of bodies is principally affected by their pores, and that to the different form or ſize, or both, of theſe pores, it is owing that different menſtruums diſſolve, or are required for different bodies. But not to mention the various errors which attend this notion, the following appears to be the more probable, if not real cauſe of ſolution. The ſolvent putting the parts of the ſolvend in motion, hurries them along with itſelf; in the ſame motion of fluidity, unites itſelf with them, as water puts ſalt into a like motion of fluidity, and ſo unites itſelf. And as a ſolution is effected by a union of the ſolvent with the ſolvend, ſo, when this union is deſtroyed, and the ſolvent forſakes the ſolvend, the fluidity ceaſes, and the ſolvend is ſeparated from the menſtruum or ſolvent, and thus precipitation is effected. In ſhort, the whole of ſolution and precipitation ariſes from the greater or leſs diſpoſition to unite or recede, that is, in reſpective bodies, to each other; thus gold is diſſolved in aqua regia, but not by ſpirit of nitre, not becauſe its pores do not admit the ſpirit of nitre, but becauſe it is diſpoſed to unite with the one and not with the other; ſo when one ſolvend is rendered fluid by a ſolvent, if another ſolvend, to which the ſaid ſolvent is more powerfully diſpoſed to unite be added, the ſolvent quits its ſolvend, and unites itſelf to the added one, leaving the firſt to precipitate.

The principal menſtrua in pharmacy are, water, acid ſpirits, vinous ſpirits, alkaline ſalts, and oils. See the Dict. of Chem. article SOLUTION. Boerhaave's Chemiſtry.

MENTAGRA. An obſtinate tetter which appeared in Italy during the reign of Claudius Cæſar. It began upon the chin, and extended itſelf over the face, even to the eyes, and deſcended to the neck, breaſt, and hands. In order to the cure, a cautery was applied to ſome convenient part, and made to penetrate the bone.

MENTAGRA. A name for the muſcus pulmonarius.

MENTALES. Alienation of the judgment, in which the functions of the mind are diſturbed.

MENTASTRUM. Hairy water mint.

MENTASTRUM. Horſe mint. The mentha ſylveſtris of Linn.

MENTHA. Mint. It is a perennial herb with ſquare ſtalks, ſerrated leaves, ſet in pairs; and ſpikes of monopetalous flowers, each of which is cut into four ſections, and followed by four ſeeds incloſed in the cup. Boerhaave enumerates thirteen ſpecies; Dale adds four more to them: and of theſe we have ſixteen which grow naturally in England.

MENTHA SPICATA, called alſo mentha ſativa, mentha vulgaris, hart-mint, and common ſpear-mint. Mentha ſativa, Pharm: Edinb. menth. ſpicata. Weſton. Mentha viridis, Linn. or mentha ſpicis oblongis, foliis lanceolatis nudis ſerratis ſeſſilibus; ſtaminibus corolla longioribus, Linn. It hath oblong, narrow pointed leaves, joined cloſe to the ſtalk, and ſmall purpliſh flowers, ſtanding on long ſpikes on the tops. It is a native of warmer climes; it is common in our gardens, and flowers in June and July.

It hath a ſtrong, agreeable, aromatic ſmell, and a bitteriſh, roughiſh, moderately warm taſte; it is reſtringent, carminative, and ſtomachic; in vomitings and weakneſs of the ſtomach few ſimples have an equal efficacy. If an infuſion of mint in water is drank with milk when acidity prevails in the ſtomach, the milk will not coagulate there.

The juice expreſſed from the leaves retains the bitterneſs and reſtrigency, but not the aroma of the mint, in which its chief virtue lies. This herb is very little hurt by keeping, drying, or being expoſed to any moderate degree of heat. In five or ſix hours cold water extracts a rich tincture from the mint; a longer maceration extracts the groſſer parts, and ſo is leſs agreeable. Hot water more readily extracts its virtues, but boiling diſſipates the aroma. Infuſions and tinctures contain the whole virtue

virtue of the mint, the oil and the diſtilled water only the aroma.

That water is the moſt agreeable that is diſtilled from newly dried *mint*; and it is further improved by the method below for making a tincture of *mint*. In diſtillation with water an eſſential oil ariſes, which is of a pale, yellowiſh colour, changing by age to a reddiſh one; and in quantity about an ounce from ten pounds of *mint*, which for this purpoſe ſhould be gathered when the flower is put out: this oil is ſtrong of the *mint*, but not ſo agreeable.

Dry *mint* digeſted in ſpirit of wine, either with or without heat, gives out all its virtue, without its diſagreeable parts. Spirit takes up very little in diſtillation. An extract made with ſpirit poſſeſſes the concentrated virtues of a large portion of dried leaves. Fifteen grains of the reſinous extract obtained from either the common *mint* or *pepper-mint*, by means of ſpirit of wine, is equivalent to ſix drams of the dried herb. The ſpirituous tincture mingles with watery liquors without precipitation or turbidneſs; but ſpirituous liquors impregnated with its pure volatile parts by diſtillation, turn milky on the admixture of water.

Tincture of Mint.

To a pint of *mint* water add half an ounce of the dried leaves of *mint*; let them ſtand four hours in a warm place, and then ſtrain.

The diſtilled water contains as much of the volatile part of the herb as it can retain: however, by infuſion it takes up as much from the *mint* as pure water would. Thus any of the ſimple diſtilled waters may be much improved, and when required the water diſtilled from one vegetable may be the menſtruum for a different one.

MENTHA PIPERITIS. Pepper-mint. Mentha piperita, or mentha floribus capitatis, foliis ovatis petiolatis, ſtaminibus corolla brevioribus, Linn. It hath acuminated leaves on very ſhort pedicles, and the flowers ſet in ſhort thick ſpikes or heads; it is a native of this kingdom, and, ſo far as is known, of this kingdom only; it is plentifully raiſed in gardens on account of its uſefulneſs; its natural ſoil is a watery one, but it does not, like the other ſpecies, loſe much by being cultivated in any other.

It hath a more penetrating ſmell than the other *mints*, a ſtronger and a warmer taſte; it is pungent and glowing, like pepper, and ſinks, as it were, into the tongue; at firſt its taſte is hot, and afterwards it ſeems to be cold and ſomewhat nitrous. It is of great uſe in flatulent complaints, hyſteric depreſſions, &c. it exerts its activity as ſoon as it is in the ſtomach, diffuſes a glowing warmth through the whole ſyſtem, yet is not liable to heat the conſtitution near ſo much as might be expected from the great warmth and pungency of its taſte.

It readily and ſtrongly impregnates either water or ſpirit by infuſion; in diſtillation with water, it gives over a large quantity of eſſential oil, of a pale greeniſh yellow colour, growing darker coloured by age, and poſſeſſes a great degree of the ſmell and pungency of the herb; as much of this oil as can be ſuſpended in rectified ſpirit of wine is ſold under the name of the eſſence of *pepper-mint*. The decoction which remains after diſtillation, like that of the other *mints*, and a bitteriſh ſubaſtringent.

MENTHA AQUATICA, alſo called ſiſymbrium menthaſtrum, mentha rotundifolia paluſtris. Red water mint. Its leaves are ſomewhat oval, and are ſet on pedicles; the ſtamina are long, ſtanding out from the flowers.

MENTHA PALUSTRIS FOLIO OBLONGO, called alſo mentaſtrum hirſutum, auricularia. Hairy water mint. It hath long hairy leaves, which have no pedicles, and broad ſpikes of flowers. Both theſe ſpecies, which are called *water mints*, grow on mountainous grounds and marſhes, and on the banks of rivers, and flower towards the end of ſummer; their ſmell is leſs agreeable than that of ſpear-mint, their taſte more bitter and pungent; the ſecond ſort approaches a little towards penny-royal; they yield much leſs eſſential oil than the ſpear-mint, and their virtues, though ſimilar to it, are much inferior in degree.

The *hairy water mint* is ſuppoſed to be auricularia, planta Zeylanica, or ear-wort; celebrated by Marloe for the cure of deafneſs.

MENTHA CATARIA, called alſo nepeta, cattaria, mentha felina, nep, or cat-mint. It is the nepeta cataria, Linn. It grows wild in hedges and on dry banks; it is moderately aromatic, of a ſtrong ſmell, reſembles a mixture of mint and penny-royal, and participates of their virtues. Cats are fond of it when it is a little withered; whence its name. See Raii Hiſt. Plant. Tournefort's Mat. Med. Lewis's Mat. Med.

MENTHASTRUM. A name for the red water mint.

MENTULA. A name for the penis, becauſe it often plucks a man by the chin from more ſerious buſineſs to venerous embraces.

MENTULA ALATA. A ſubmarine plant which grows on rocks, and reſembles a bird's wing.

MENTULAGRA. A diſorder of the penis, induced by a contraction of the erectores muſculi, and cauſing impotence.

MENTUM. The chin. It is the anterior protuberance which terminates the lower part of the face, from whence it runs to the neck; the under part of the chin is termed its baſis, and it is diſtinguiſhed from the throat by a tranſverſe fold, which reaches from ear to ear; in the middle of the chin is a dimple.

MENTZ. An abbreviation of Index Nom. Plant. Multilinguis Opera Chriſt. Menzelii.

MENTZELIA. A plant growing in Jamaica, but of no medical virtue. It is ſo called by Father Plumier, in honour of Mentzelius.

MENYANTHES. Marſh treſoil, or buck-bean. See Trifolium Paludosum.

MEPHITIS. A poiſonous exhalation, or what the miners call a damp. Venomous ſteams or damps are what the Latins call by this name. The word *mephiticus*, *mephitic*, ſignifies *ſtinking*, particularly ſuch an ill ſmell as ariſes from brimſtone and water, or a damp or ſtrong ſmell from corrupt water mixed with earth and brimſtone. And as the word *mephitic* is uſed to ſignify noxious, hurtful, injurious, &c. it is applied to fixed air. See Air.

MERCURIALIS. Mercurial. An epithet of all preparations of *mercury*. But the atra bilis is alſo called the *mercurial* humour; and the diſeaſes thence generated are named *mercurial* diſeaſes.

MERCURIALIS, alſo called bonus Henricus, tota bona, lapathum unctuoſum folio triangulo, blitum, chenopodium, all-good, Engliſh mercury. It is a plant with triangular leaves, covered underneath with a whitiſh unctuous meal; it hath ſtriated hollow ſtalks, partly erect and partly procumbent, bearing on the tops ſpikes of ſmall imperfect flowers, each of which is followed by a ſmall black ſeed, incloſed in the cup; it is perennial, grows by the road ſides and in waſte grounds, and flowers in Auguſt. The leaves are mucilaginous, and a little ſubſaline, are uſed as emollients in clyſters and fomentations. The young ſhoots are eaten in ſpring; they looſen the belly and promote urine. See Raii Hiſt.

MERCURIALIS MAS, called alſo mercurialis teſticulata, merc. ſpicata, merc. fœmina. French mercury. It is the *mercurialis* annua. Linn. This plant hath ſmooth gloſſy leaves, and branched ſtalks. The flowering plants called female, and thoſe which produce ſeeds, are both annual, and grow wild together in ſhady uncultivated grounds.

The leaves have no remarkable ſmell, and very little taſte; they poſſeſs a ſmall degree of mucilage, and a little ſaline matter, but are not much uſed.

MERCURIALIS SYLVESTRIS, called alſo cynocrambe, merc. montana, wild mercury, dog's mercury. It is the *mercurialis* perennis of Linnæus. It is one of the poiſonous plants found in Great Britain.

The root is creeping, light coloured, and fibrous. The ſtalk is a foot high, erect, green, juicy, and unbranched. The leaves are oval, ſerrated, pointed at the extremity, placed in pairs oppoſite to each other. The flowers grow at the tops of the ſtalks, and in thin ſlender ſpikes out of the alæ of the leaves, and are of a light green. The flowers are of two kinds, male and female. The ſurrows of the germen receive a barren filament, terminated with a gland, marked with two dark-coloured ſpots. It flowers early in the ſpring. It is found in woods, ſhady places, and ditch-banks. It is diſtinguiſhed from the French *mercury* in that it is perennial, being larger, having rough leaves, and the ſtalks not at all branched.

The

This plant is ſaid by many writers to be injurious both to man and beaſt. Dr. Withering ſays, in his Botanical Arrangement, that it is dreſſed like ſpinach; it is very good eating early in the ſpring; that, probably, when the ſeaſon is more advanced, and the plant is become more acrimonious, its ill qualities takes place.

The ſymptoms that are ſaid to be produced by it are a nauſea, vomiting, and afterwards comatoſe ſymptoms.

Its ill effects are removed as in the caſes of poiſonous muſhrooms. See AMANITA & VENENUM.

Wilmot's Obſervations on poiſonous Vegetables.

MERCURIALIS FRUTICOSA INCANA TESTICULATA, called alſo marificum, thelygonon. Children's mercury.

This is only met with in the gardens of the curious, and flowers in ſummer. In Barbary it is uſed againſt diſeaſes peculiar to women.

MERCURIUS. Quickſilver. See ARGENTUM VIVUM.

MERCURIUS ALB. SUBLIMAT. i. e. Merc. cor. alb.

MERCURIUS ALKALIZATUS. Alkalizated mercury, called alſo Æthiopi alb. ℞ Argent. viv. puriſs. ʒ viij. ocul. cancr. ʒ vi. alb. ov. rec. q. ſ. f. paſta mollis. If theſe are rubbed well in a glaſs mortar until the globules of quickſilver diſappear, and then permitted to ſtand until the compoſition is dry, you will have an *alkalizate mercury*, half of which is *mercury* itſelf. This preparation was invented by Dr. Burton. It is obſerved that *mercurials* prepared without a ſaline ſtimulus, are moſt efficacious in intermittents, rheumatiſms, pleuriſies, and peripneumonies, after due bleeding and purging. In other caſes it operates more gently than when reduced to a calx by fire, or is prepared with acids; but is leſs certain in its effects. In general it is an excellent method of adminiſtering *mercury* as an alterative; its doſe may be from three grains to as much as the patient can bear, without promoting any ſenſible excretion. If it runs off by ſtool, opium is better than aſtringents for reſtraining it.

MERCURIUS CALCINATUS. Calcined quickſilver.

This preparation is directed by the London college to be prepared in a flat-bottomed glaſs, with a ſmall hole at the top, for the admiſſion of air; but if the glaſs is large, and the opening a wide one, the air having a more free admiſſion, the proceſs will ſooner be effected. If the heat applied to the quickſilver is ſo great as to make it diſtil, inſtead of calcining, it will be continued in its original ſtate; but by a heat ſomewhat leſs than what makes it riſe, it is reduced to a red ſhining powder, of a ſharp nauſeous penetrating taſte, and is poſſeſſed of a quality which diſorders the body both long and violently, and diſpoſes it to excretions. By agitation, or by triture, ſimilar effects are produced on the *mercury*, and in much leſs time. This red powder gripes more than the merc. dulc. ſexties ſublim. than which it does not appear to be a better medicine, though, in ſome few inſtances, it agrees better with the patient. The doſe is from gr. ſs. to gr. ii. mixed with opium.

MERCURIUS CHEMICORUM, i. e. Argent. viv.

MERCURIUS CINNABARINUS. See CINNAB. FACT.

MERCURIUS CORALLINUS. This is a preparation in the Diſpenſatory of the London college, and is directed with a view to render the merc. cor. rub. a more mild internal medicine; but no conſiderable advantage is obtained by the proceſs.

MERCURIUS CORROSIVUS ALBUS. The white corroſive mercury.

The modes of preparing this medicine are various; but as it conſiſts only of *mercury* and the marine acid, whatever additions are made to theſe in the proceſs, they can only be for facilitating the union of the *mercury* with the marine acid.

The greateſt part of this *mercurial* preparation that is uſed in England is brought from Holland and Venice; and, as many ſuſpect its being adulterated with arſenic, Dr. Lewis gives the following method of detecting the fraud: "Take any quantity of the ſuſpected white corroſive *mercury*, powder it in a glaſs mortar, and mix it well with twice its weight of black flux and a little filings of iron; put the mixture into a crucible capable of holding four or five times as much; give a gradual fire until the ebullition ceaſes, then haſtily encreaſe it to a white heat; if no fumes of a garlick ſmell be perceived during the proceſs, and if the particles of iron retain their form, without any of them being melted, we may be ſure that the mixture contains no arſenic." Neumann denies the poſſibility of this preparation being adulterated with arſenic, and obſerves that inſtead of their ſubliming together, the arſenic will attract the marine acid to itſelf, and the *mercury* will be revived, inſtead of ſublimed, into the form which this preparation is found in.

The white corroſive *mercury* is a violent medicine; it corrupts and deſtroys all parts of the body that it touches more ſpeedily than white arſenic does.

Aq. Phagedenica. ℞ Merc. corroſ. alb. ʒſs. Aq. calcis. ſ lib. i. m. The lime renders it more mild. Lemery's Chemiſt.

Internally taken, it produces the moſt violent ſymptoms, ſuch as thirſt, ſickneſs, vomiting, pain, dejections of blood and mucus, ſwoonings, convulſions, gangrene, and death. When an imprudent doſe hath been given, a vomit of the vitriol. alb. ſhould be inſtantly given, to promote the ſpeedieſt diſcharge; after puking two or three times, give a ſolution of fixed alkaline ſalt in pure water, and let it be plentifully drank; then ſolutions of gum arabic may be plentifully given with proper doſes of opiates; for opium is the beſt corrector of the active preparations of *mercury*.

Notwithſtanding the ill effects of imprudent doſes of this medicine, its uſefulneſs is not equalled by any other known means for relief in many diſorders. In the venereal diſeaſe it is one of the moſt uſeful preparations of *mercury*, if not the moſt ſo: in carcinomatous or phagedenic ulcers, in cancers and cancerous indiſpoſitions, obſtinate cutaneous diſorders, cachectic ulcers, dimneſs of ſight, and glandular ſwellings, it hath ſucceeded in many inſtances when all other known methods of cure have failed. But, as its power is great, ſo it muſt be long continued in very ſmall doſes. The following ſolution of it may ſerve as a general form, and the doſe may be proportioned to the nature of the caſe and the conſtitution of the patient.

℞ Merc. corroſ. alb. gr. xvi. ſpt. vini rect. ℔ i. m. From half a table ſpoonful the doſe may be increaſed as diſcretion will admit, and may be repeated two or three times a day. The beſt vehicles are watery and mucilaginous liquors; the moſt common in venereal complaints is the decoct. ſarſaparil. but in want of it ſolutions of gum arabic will be very uſeful; theſe and ſuch like may be uſed in all other caſes, if the preſcriber directs no other as more particularly adapted to relieve. See Dict. of Chem. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works; Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. i. p. 365, &c. vol. ii. p. 70, &c.

MERCURIUS CORROSIVUS RUBER. Red corroſive mercury; it is alſo called red precipitate. The London College directs to take of purified quickſilver and of the compound aqua fortis, equal weights; to ſet them together in a flat-bottomed glaſs upon a ſand-heat, until all humidity is exhaled, and the dry maſs hath acquired a red colour.

It may be obſerved that the marine acid diſpoſes the mercurial calx to aſſume the bright ſparkling red appearance which is admired in it, and which, though no advantage as a medicine, is eſteemed a mark of its goodneſs and ſtrength. As ſoon as it hath acquired this colour, it ſhould be immediately removed from the fire, or it will ſoon loſe it again.

This preparation is ſometimes mixed with minium and vermillion, but then the bright colour is deſtroyed. If only minium is added, it may be detected by laying a little of the ſuſpected *corroſive mercury* on a very hot iron, for thus the *mercury* will paſs off in fumes, and the lead will be left behind.

The *red corroſive mercury* is only uſed externally; it deſtroys fungous fleſh, and if finely powdered and mixed with the yellow baſilicon ointment, it is an excellent digeſtive for foul ill-conditioned ulcers; it brings on a laudable digeſtion when a thin ſanies is diſcharged from them; from one to two ſcruples may be mixed with an ounce of the ointment.

MERCURIUS COR. SUB. i. e. Merc. corroſ. alb.

MERCURIUS DULCIS SUBLIMATUS. Dulcified mercury ſublimate. It is called calomel, and when the ſublimation hath been repeated to ten or twelve times, it hath been called panacea mercurii.

It is the merc. cor. alb. dulcified by the addition of crude *mercury*. The London College directs the proportion of nine ounces of quickſilver to twelve ounces of the corroſive *mercury*, and orders the ſublimation to be ſix times performed; whereas that of Edinburgh only orders three or four; and in the Auguſtan Diſpenſatory one ſublimation only is required.

The dulcification intended in this proceſs is wholly effected by the combination of ſo much freſh *mercury* as may fully ſatiate the acid of the white corroſive *mercury*, and therefore, though triture and digeſtion promote the union of the two, they are not properly the cauſe of the dulcification; and, as to ſublimation, it rather tends to diſunite theſe ſubſtances, ſo need not be ſo often repeated as according to ſome directions is required.

By whatever method this medicine is prepared, if it proves too acrid, by boiling it in water, the acrid parts will be diſſolved and ſeparated; after the boiling, let the water be poured off, the powder dried, and then ſublimed again. To every ten ounces a quart of water may be allowed for boiling it in.

The marks of ſufficient dulcification are, its being perfectly inſipid to the taſte, and indiſſoluble by long boiling in water; and whether or not that the water hath taken up any part of the mercury, may be known by dropping into the liquor a ley of any fixt alkaline ſalt, or any volatile alkaline ſpirit; if the decoction hath any mercurial impregnation, it will grow turbid on this addition, if otherwiſe, it will continue limpid. To prevent deception here, let diſtilled water be always uſed. If this merc. dulc. is rubbed on gold, and it turns pale only, and not white, the dulcification is ſufficient; or if the *dulcified mercury* turns black on being mixed with lime-water, it is duly prepared.

As to the ſuppoſition of arſenic being ſometimes mixed with it, what is ſaid in the article merc cor. alb. is applicable to this.

Calomel is very ſubject to conſiderable variation in its efficacy, &c. as a medicine, from the different management in its preparation. The diſadvantages which attend it are greatly removed by the following method of making it, which Dr. Swediar hath favoured us with, by tranſlating it from the Acta Stockholm, where it was inſerted by Mr. Scheele, to whoſe ingenuity the world is indebted both for it and other chemical purſuits. Mr. Scheele's proceſs and obſervations on it are as follow:

"Half a pound of quickſilver, and the ſame quantity of pure aqua fortis, are to be put into a ſmall veſſel with a long neck, the mouth of which is to be covered with paper. The veſſel is then to be placed in a warm ſand bath; and after a few hours, when the acid affords no ſigns of its acting any longer on the quickſilver, the fire is to be increaſed to ſuch a degree that the ſolution may nearly boil. This heat is to be continued for three or four hours, taking care to move the veſſel from time to time, and at laſt the ſolution is to be ſuffered to boil gently for about a quarter of an hour. In the mean while we are to diſſolve four ounces and a half of fine common ſalt in ſix or eight pints of water. This ſolution is to be poured boiling into a glaſs veſſel, in which the above mentioned ſolution of quickſilver is to be mixed with it, gradually, and in a boiling ſtate alſo, taking care to keep the mixture in conſtant motion. When the precipitate is ſettled, the clear liquor is to be drained from it, after which it is to be repeatedly waſhed with hot water till it ceaſes to impart any taſte to the water. The precipitate obtained by this method is to be filtered, and afterwards dried by a gentle heat.

"It might be ſuppoſed, that when the nitrous acid ceaſes to effervеſce with the mercury, it is ſaturated with it: but this is far from being the caſe; the acid, when the heat is increaſed, being ſtill able to diſſolve a quantity of it; with this difference, however, that the quickſilver at the beginning of the proceſs is calcined by the acid, but afterwards is diſſolved by it in a metallic form. In proof of this we may obſerve, that not only more elaſtic vapour ariſes, but alſo that by adding either fixed or volatile cauſtic alkali, we obtain a black precipitate; whereas, when the ſolution contains only calcined quickſilver, the precipitate becomes yellow by ſuch an addition. If this black precipitate is gently diſtilled, it riſes in the form of quickſilver, leaving a yellow powder, which is in fact that part of the mercury that in the beginning of the operation was calcined by the nitrous acid.

"The boiling of the ſolution for about a quarter of an hour is neceſſary, in order to keep the hydrargyrum nitratum in a diſſolved ſtate, it being much diſpoſed to cryſtallize. In general, ſome of the mercury remains undiſſolved; but it is always better to take too much than too little of it, becauſe the more metallic ſubſtance the ſolution contains, the more *mercurius dulcis* will be obtained.

"It is neceſſary to pour the mercurial ſolution into the ſolution of ſalt by a little at a time, and cautiouſly, ſo that no part of the undiſſolved quickſilver may paſs along with it. Two ounces of common ſalt are ſufficient to precipitate all the mercury; but then it may eaſily happen that ſome ſuperfluous *mercurius* corroſivus attaches itſelf to this precipitate, which the water alone is incapable of ſeparating completely. This is undoubtedly the reaſon why *mercurius* precipitatus albus is always corroſive. I have found that common ſalt poſſeſſes the ſame quality as ſal ammoniac, viz. that of diſſolving a great quantity of *mercurius* corroſivus. I therefore employ four ounces and a half of common ſalt, in order to get the *mercurius* corroſive entirely ſeparated.

"If we conſider the manner in which *mercurius dulcis* is obtained in the dry way, by ſublimation, we ſhall not find it difficult to give the rationale of this new proceſs.

"*Mercurius* corroſivus albus is a middle ſalt, conſiſting, as is well known, of marine acid combined with calx of mercury. This ſalt is capable of diſſolving a good deal of quickſilver in a metallic form; but for this purpoſe the moſt minute particles of each muſt be reciprocally mixed. This happens, when by means of heat they are both converted into vapour. The ſame thing occurs in the above mentioned proceſs. The ſolution firſt ſpoken of contains the calx mercurii and quickſilver divided into the moſt minute particles. If to this ſolution we add marine acid, or (to ſave expence) common ſalt, the marine acid will unite with the calx of mercury, and the reſult of this union will be a true *mercurius* corroſivus albus; and as the ſolution contains quickſilver in its metallic ſtate, this will immediately attract as much of the *mercurius* corroſivus as is neceſſary to ſaturate it, and by this means a real *mercurius dulcis* will be produced, which from its being inſoluble, will be immediately precipitated."

"The following facts are proofs that this precipitate is a good *mercurius dulcis*: 1ſt. It is entirely taſteleſs. 2dly: I have ſublimed it, and examined what aſcended in the beginning, and which ought to have been corroſive, if the precipitate had contained any thing of the nature, it being well known that *mercurius* corroſivus aſcends ſooner than *mercurius dulcis*; whereas, through the whole of the ſublimation, what aroſe was a pure *mercurius dulcis*, exactly like that which is obtained in the common manner. 3dly, I have mixed this precipitate with one fourth part of quickſilver, and ſublimed it, upon a ſuppoſition that if it contained too much *mercurius* corroſivus, it would be able to unite with more quickſilver; but ſo far was this from being the caſe, that the quickſilver was not diminiſhed in weight by the experiment. 4thly, It is known that cauſtic alkali and lime-water give *mercurius dulcis* a black colour. The ſame thing happened with mine. The black colour is no other than quickſilver, divided into very fine particles.

"That the proceſs I have been deſcribing, is more advantageous than that which is uſually adopted, I cannot doubt; becauſe, 1ſt, this *mercurius dulcis* can be prepared with leſs difficulty, with leſs expence, and without employing corroſive ſublimates. 2dly, As there can be no danger of its being in any degree corroſive, provided it be ſufficiently edulcorated, it may always be given with ſafety. 3dly, The operator is not expoſed to that noxious duſt, which in the old method ariſes during the trituration of the corroſive ſublimate and quickſilver. 4thly, This is much finer than the common *mercurius dulcis*, it being impoſſible to make the latter equal to it in this reſpect, however long it may be triturated."

Of all the preparations of *mercury* this is the moſt fre-

quently uſed; it is attenuant, and powerfully diſſolves the fluids; it gently ſtimulates the ſolids; and all the virtues attributed to the ſimple *mercury*, this preparation of it eminently poſſeſſes; none of the mercurials that enter the blood are ſo little diſpoſed to affect the firſt paſſages. The doſe is from gr. i. to ℈ i. according to the intention; but five or eight grains are rarely exceeded.

MERCURIUS EMETICUS FLAVUS. The yellow mercurial emetic, alſo called turpethum minerale. Turbith mineral. This is another preparation of *mercury*, which is given in the London Diſpenſatory; but to the directions given there, it may be added that the beſt method of edulcorating it is by impregnating the water intended to be uſed in its ablution, with a determined proportion of fixed alkaline ſalt; for by this means the waſhed turbith will not only turn out greater in quantity, but will alſo be more equal in ſtrength.

The *yellow emetic mercury* is a powerful emetic; it, like other mercurials, will excite a ſalivation: in robuſt habits it hath been uſed in leprous diſorders and glandular obſtructions. As an emetic it hath been given to ten grains, but it is beſt if given in ſmaller quantities, and joined with ipecacuanha. Half a grain, or a grain, given every or every other night, hath been productive of the beſt effects in the worſt degrees of the venereal diſeaſe, in obſtinate rheumatiſms, and ulcers that were difficult of cure. It is a powerful medicine, but yet does not appear to exceed the other leſs violent mercurials, except in particular inſtances; ſuch as where, from a peculiarity in the patient's conſtitution, it is particularly favoured in its effects.

MERCURIUS MORTIS, i. e. Mercurius vitæ.

MERCURIUS PRÆCIPITATUS ALBUS. White precipitate of mercury. The London College directs the following method of preparing it: take of ſal ammoniac, and of corroſive ſublimate, equal weights; diſſolve them together in water, filtre the ſolution through paper, and with a ſolution of ſome alkaline fixt ſalt make a precipitation: then waſh off all acrimony from the precipitated powder.

Great care is required leſt more of the fixed alkali be added than is neceſſary, for then the precipitate, inſtead of being white, will be yellow. This preparation is almoſt conſtantly confined to external uſes. Half a dram or two ſcruples of it, added to an ounce of pomatum, is uſed as an elegant cure for the itch; the ſame quantity may be diſſolved in two ounces of a thick decoction of lineſeed, as a liniment for curing chancres when ſituated on the glans penis, or on the inſide of the prepuce; a rag being dipped in it may be applied to the glans, and then the prepuce may be drawn over it.

This precipitate is adulterated with ſtarch, and with white lead. The firſt is diſcovered by its being gluey on being diſſolved in a ſmall quantity of water; the ſecond may be detected by putting a little into a crucible with one third of its weight of alkaline ſalt; make them red hot, and continue until no fumes ariſe; then take in the reſiduum, and if it does not melt in water, it is bad.

MERCURIUS PRECIPITATUS PER SE, i. e. Merc. calcin.

MERCURIUS SACCHARATUS. Sugared Mercury.

Take of pure quickſilver and brown ſugar-candy, of each half an ounce; of the oil of juniper, ſixteen drops; grind them well in a mortar, until the quickſilver diſappears. The deſign of this ſeems to be for the convenience of giving mercury in a draught.

MERCURIUS VITÆ, alſo called pulvis Algarothi. The mercury of life. See ALGAROTHI PULVIS.

Take any quantity of the butter of antimony, dilute it plentifully with pure water, and thus the reguline part of the antimony will be precipitated in the ſtate of a white powder, thus named.

After the precipitation of this powder, and duly waſhing it in ſeveral waters, it poſſeſſeth no degree of the marine acid; but is a calx of antimony, that is conſtantly of the ſame ſtrength, and therefore preferable to the glaſs of antimony for making the emetic tartar with.

See theſe and ſeveral other preparations under the article MERCURIUS, in the Dict. of Chem. Lewis's Mat. Med. Newman's Chem. Works.

MERGEN. Coral.

MEROCELE. The femoral rupture.

MERON. The thigh.

MESARÆON, *μεσαραιον*, from *μεσος*, *medius*, and *αρσια*, *belly*. The meſentery. Hence its arteries and veins are called meſaraic veſſels.

MESARAICA, vel Meſaraica major vena. The meſaraic or meſenteric vein. It is the continuation of the vena portæ ventralis. See PORTÆ VENA. It bends towards the ſuperior meſenteric artery, ſends off two veins, then runs up over that artery, and accompanies it in thoſe portions of the meſentery and meſocolon which belong to the ſmall inteſtines, the cœcum and right portion of the colon; as it runs down it forms an arch obliquely, like that of the artery, which is alſo ramified on the convex and concave ſides. It very much accompanies the meſenteric artery, and is branched out in ſomewhat the ſame manner.

MESARAICA MINOR VENA, i. e. Hæmorrhoidalis interna.

MESENTERICÆ ARTERIÆ. The meſaraic or meſenteric arteries.

The upper *meſenteric artery* riſes very little below the cœliac. The aorta, a little above its diviſion, gives off the inferior meſenteric to the left ſide upon the meſocolon, the loweſt branch of which goes to the extremity of the anus, and forms the hæmorrhoidal artery. The upper branches anaſtomoſe with the ſuperior meſenteric. Theſe two are azygous. The upper meſenteric branch forms a large arch in its courſe from the right ſide to the left of the meſentery, and from its convex ſide there goes out many branches to the inteſtines, where they communicate by reciprocal arches, &c. The branches which go out from the concave ſide are but few; they ſpread themſelves in the meſocolon, the colon, &c.

MESENTERICÆ GLANDULÆ. The meſenteric glands. The lymphatic glands in the meſentery are larger in young than in old ſubjects; and, if not the proper ſeat of the evil, they are always affected in that diſeaſe.

MESENTERIUM. The meſentery, from *μεσος*, *middle*, and *εντερον*, *an inteſtine*. It is thus named from its being, as it were, in the middle of the *inteſtines*. It is a duplicature of the peritonæum, connected by a cellular membrane, expanding and receiving the guts as in a ſling. It begins looſely upon the loins, extending to all the *inteſtines*, except the duodenum; but that part of it which belongs to the great guts is called meſocolon. It prevents the *inteſtines* from twiſting, and keeps them in their proper places. It ſuſtains the arteries, veins, lymphæducts, and nerves, in their paſſage to and from the *inteſtines*.

Many diſorders are ſpoken of by different writers, as taking their riſe from the *meſentery*; but Dr. Hunter ſays, that it is rarely diſeaſed, and then its glands, which are ſometimes diſordered in children, are not affected ſo frequently as is ſuſpected. Riverius, in his Prax. Med. lib. 13, hath a chapter on obſtruction in the glands of this membrane, in which he obſerves that the cauſes and cure are the ſame as when this diſorder happens in the liver.

MESENTERITIS. Inflammation of the meſentery; which ſee. Dr. Cullen makes it a ſpecies of peritonitis, which ſee; and calls it PERITONITIS MESENTERICA.

MESEREON, i. e. Laureola fœmina.

MESIRE. A diſorder of the liver, mentioned by Avicenna, accompanied with a ſenſe of heavineſs, tumor, inflammation, pungent pain, and blackneſs of the tongue.

MESOCOLON, from *μεσος*, *the middle*, and *κωλον*, *the colon*. See MESENTERIUM.

MESOGASTRION. It is the ſubſtance on the concave part of the ſtomach, between the oriſices, which attaches it to the adjacent parts.

MESOGLOSSI. The muſcles called genioglooſſi.

MESOMERIA. So Ruffus Epheſius calls all that part of the body which lies betwixt the thighs.

MESOMPHALION, from *μεσος*, *middle*, and *ομφαλος*, *navel*. The middle of the navel,

MESOPHYRON. So Ruffus Epheſius calls that part of the face which lies betwixt the eye-brows.

MESOPLEURIOS. An epithet of the intercoſtal muſcles.

MESO-RECTUM. It is a production of the peritoneum, which inveſts the inteſtinum rectum. About the middle

middle of the fore-ſide of this inteſtine it forms a ſemicircular fold, which appears when the inteſtine is empty, but is loſt when it is full.

MESOTHENAR. It is a flat, and near a triangular muſcle, lying between the firſt phalanx of the thumb and the bottom of the palm of the hand; it is inſerted into the ligament which connects the os magnum of the carpus to that which ſupports the thumb, and it is inſerted too into that bone of the metacarpus which ſupports the middle finger, as well as to that which anſwers to the index; from thence, the fibres contracting to an angle, form a tendon, which is inſerted into the head of the firſt phalanx of the thumb. See Winſlow's Anatomy.

MESPILUS. The medlar. The common *medlar* is a tree about the ſize of an apple-tree; the leaves are ſtrong and ſharp-pointed; its flowers appear in May, and the fruit ripens in September. In Germany theſe trees are found in the woods, but with us they are only in gardens. The fruit hath an auſtere aſtringent taſte, and cannot be eaten before long keeping; this fruit is more aſtringent than that of the quince tree.

Boerhaave mentions thirteen ſpecies of *medlars*, but with us they are not in uſe. Some of theſe are as follow

MESPILUS ARONIA, alſo called aronia, azarolus, the lazarole, or Neapolitan medlar.

MESPILUS FOLIO SUBROTUNDO FRUCTU RUBRO; called chamæmeſpilus geſneri, coloneaſter.

MESPILUS APII FOLIO, &c. called alſo ſpina alba, oxyacanthus, white-thorn, or hawthorn.

MESPILUS ACULEATA PYRIFOLIA; alſo called pyracantha, evergreen thorn.

MESIPILUS FRUCTU NIGRO, &c. alſo called vaccinia alba, idæa tertia Cluſii; white whortles, &c.

The fruit of all theſe have ſimilar virtues, but differ in degree.

MESPILUS. A name of the white boam tree, and of the ſervice tree.

MESQUITE. An American tree, like the oak tree, but bearing a pod like the kidney-bean. It is not uſed in medicine.

METACARPIUS. A ſmall fleſhy muſcle, ſituated obliquely between the large internal angular or tranſverſe ligament of the carpus, and the whole inſide of the fourth metacarpal bone. It is fixed by a tendon to the os orbiculare, and to the neighbouring part of the large ligament of the carpus, and at its other end is fixed in the outer edge of the fourth metacarpal bone.

METACARPUS, from μετα, *after*, and καρπος, *the wriſt*, or Metacarpion. It is that part of the hand which is ſituated between the wriſt and the fingers. The ancients called the carpus by the name of brachiale, and the *metacarpus* they called poſt-brachiale. The *metacarpus* on its inſide forms the palm of the hand, and on its outſide the back of the hand. The firſt phalanx of the thumb is not, as formerly, thought a part of the *metacarpus*. The firſt metacarpal bone ſupports the fore-finger, the fourth or laſt the little finger.

METACINEMA. A removal of the pupil of the eye from its proper ſituation.

METACONDYLI, from μετα, *after*, and κονδυλος, *a knuckle*, the laſt joints of the fingers next the nails.

METALLORUM. Of metals. They are generally reckoned ſix in number, and are ranked according to their ſpecific gravity; but ſince the experiment of profeſſor Braun hath proved that mercury is malleable when in a due degree of cold, it may alſo be ranked as a ſeventh. The characteriſtics of metals are, they are the heavieſt of all foſſils, fuſible in the fire; but when cold again are ductile and malleable as before.

In point of gravity the firſt is gold, then platina (if ranked amongſt *metals*), mercury, lead, ſilver, copper, iron, and tin.

Sulphur is the bond of union in all *metals*. *Metals* are bituminous ſubſtances which have undergone a long digeſtion, for by depriving them of their ſulphur they are reduced to aſhes, and then to glaſs; and by reſtoring the ſulphur this glaſs is converted into *metal* again. Ores are the compoſitions in which *metals* are found, or the beds in which they are produced: *metals* and minerals moſtly abound with ſulphur and arſenic, which are ſeparated in the ſmelting furnace, and the body does not become truly metallic until they are ſeparated; and ſulphur and arſenic added to *metals* bring them to ores again.

Metals are diſtinguiſhed into the noble and perfect, the baſe and imperfect. Gold and ſilver are noble or perfect; but the others are called baſe or imperfect, becauſe they are liable to ruſt, and to loſe of their weight if continued long in the fire.

All the metals diſſolve in acids, ſome in one, and ſome in another; and in moſt of theſe ſolutions the inflammable principle of the *metals* is abſorbed or expelled. Gold, ſilver, and mercury, ſuffer no reſolution or diſſipation of their parts from any known power; if changed into the appearance of calx they are recoverable without any loſs.

Semimetals are metallic ſubſtances joined with ſome heterogeneous particles, as ſulphur, ſalt, ſtone, or earth.

Such are antimony, calamine ſtone, blood-ſtone, &c. See Dict. of Chem. Neumann's Chem. Works; Boyle on the Growth of Metals.

METALLUM FLUIDUM, i. e. Argent. viv.

METALLURGIA. Metallurgy. It is that part of chemiſtry which is concerned in the ſeparation, depuration, and preparation of metals. Sometimes it implies the digging them out of the mines.

METAPEDIUM, i. e. Metatarſus.

METAPHRENON. The back; properly the part betwixt the ſhoulders.

METASTASIS, from μετατιθημι, *to transfer*. It ſignifies a tranſpoſition and ſettlement of ſome humour or diſeaſe on ſome other part. It makes its way through the cellular membrane.

METASYNCRISIS, from μετα, importing *change*, and συγκρινω, *to collect, or mix together*. The word is applied differently by different authors; but they all mean a change in the part to which the word is applied. Aſclepiades thought every thing was formed by a concourſe of atoms, for which reaſon he called all bodies ſyncrimata or ſyncriſeis, mixtures; and alterations in the congeries of atoms he calls metaſyncrineſthai.

METATARSIUS. A fleſhy maſs lying under the ſole of the foot; it is fixed by one end in the fore part of the great tuberoſity of the os calcis, and running forward from thence it terminates in a kind of ſhort tendon, which is fixed in the tuberoſity and poſterior part of the lower ſide of the fifth bone of the metatarſus. It moves the laſt bone of the metatarſus, and draws the fourth bone along with it, and contracts the ſole of the foot, increaſing the convexity of the upper ſide.

METATARSUS, from μετα, *after*, and ταρσος, *the tarſus*. It is compoſed of five bones, but theſe bones and the bones of the toes being ſo ſimilar to the metacarpus and fingers, need no farther deſcription. The *metatarſus* is alſo called planta, planum, veſtigium, ſolium, pectus, præcordium, and pectuſculum.

METEORISMUS, i. e. Tympanites.

METEL, or Metella. A ſort of nux vomica. See Raii Hiſt.

METEOROS, from μετα, and αιρω, *to elevate*. Elevated, ſuſpended, erect, ſublime, tumid. Galen expounds pains of this ſort as being thoſe that affect the peritoneum, or other more ſuperficial parts of the body; theſe are oppoſed to more deep ſeated ones.

METHEMERINOS. A quotidian fever.

METHONICA, alſo called nienghala, mendoni, lilium Zeylanicum ſuperbum. The ſuperb lily. It is only valued for its beauty.

METL. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of American aloes.

METOPION, or Metopium. An oil, or an ointment deſcribed by Dioſcorides; it is thus named, becauſe it had galbanum in it; galbanum was the produce of a plant called metopium. Metopium is alſo a name of the oil of bitter almonds.

METOPON or METOPUM, from μετα, *poſt*, and ωψ, *oculus*, the forehead.

METOSIS. A kind of amauroſis, from an exceſs of ſhort ſightedneſs.

METRA. The womb.

METRENCHYTA, from μητρα, *the uterus*, and εγχυω, *to infuſe or pour into*. Injections for the uterus.

METRENCHYTES. A womb ſyrenge.

METRITIS. Inflammation of the womb.

METROCELIDES, from *μητρη, a mother*, and *χηλις, a ſpot or mole*. A mole or mark impreſſed upon the child by the mother's imagination on the fœtus.

METROPROPTOSIS, from *μητρα, the womb*, and *προπιπτω, to fall down*. A deſcent of the uterus.

METRORRHAGIA. Exceſſive menſes.

MEU. See MEUM.

MEUM, from *μειον, leſs*, becauſe of the extreme tenderneſs of the leaves. Spignel, baud-money, or bauld-money. Aethuſa Meum, Linn. It is a perennial plant, whole leaves are capillaceous and much ſmaller than thoſe of fennel, but its ſeeds are bigger and broader than the ſeeds of fennel. The root is of the ſame nature as that of fennel or lovage, but ſmells more agreeably, and taſtes warmer and ſweeter. The plant hath an aromatic pungency, borders on the fetid, and abounds with volatile ſalt. It is more pungent than fennel, and milder than lovage.

MEUM ALPINUM GERMANICUM. German or mountain ſpignel. It is alſo called mutellina and phellandryum. It poſſeſſes virtues ſimilar to thoſe of the common ſort.

MEUM LATIFOLIUM ADULTERINUM, called alſo ſeſeli perenne folio glauco breviori, fœniculum ſylveſtre, ſerulæ folio breviori, ſaxifraga montana minor, &c. Baſtard ſpignel. Boerhaave makes this a ſpecies of ſeſeli. It grows on dry hills, and flowers in June. The root is of a drying burning quality.

MEXICANUM BALS. i. e. Balſ. Peruv.

MEXICANAVA, i. e. Botrys Mexicana.

MEZEREON. See LAUREOLA.

MIASMA. Contagion, and miaſmata, as they relate to diſeaſes, are productive of ſome of the febrile kinds, and of them only. They are generally floating in the atmoſphere when they are injurious to mankind; but they are not obſerved to act but when they are near the ſources from whence they ariſe; that is, near to the bodies of men from which they immediately iſſue, or near to ſome ſubſtances, which, as having been near to the bodies of men, are imbued with their effluvia, and in which ſubſtances theſe effluvia are ſometimes retained in an active ſtate for a very long time. It ſhould here be remembered that the notion of contagion properly implies a matter ariſing from the body of man under diſeaſe; and that of *miaſma*, a matter ariſing from other ſubſtances.

Dr. Cullen remarks, that the ſubſtances imbued with the effluvia from the bodies of diſeaſed men, may be called fomites; and that it is probable that contagions, as they ariſe from fomites, are more powerful than as they ariſe immediately from the human body. Further, that though the fomites are poſſeſſed of matter from the human body, yet this matter paſſing from the fomites is called *miaſma*; which requires further to be diſtinguiſhed from the *miaſmata* ariſing from marſhes, &c. by the epithets human and marſh miaſmata.

On this ſubject of contagion and *miaſma*, Dr. Cullen obſerves as follows. As fevers are ſo generally epidemic, it is probable that ſome matter floating in the atmoſphere, and applied to the bodies of men, ought to be conſidered as the remote cauſe of fevers. Contagions have been ſuppoſed to be of great variety; and it is poſſible that they may be ſo; but that they truly are, does not appear clearly from any thing that we know at preſent. The number of genera and ſpecies of contagious diſeaſes, of the claſs phyrexiæ, at preſent known, is not very great. They belong to the order of fevers, of exanthemata, or of profluvia. Whether there be any belonging to the order of phlegmaſiæ, is doubtful; and, though it ſhould be ſuppoſed, it will not much increaſe the number of contagious pyrexiæ. Of the contagious exanthemata and profluvia, the number of ſpecies is nearly aſcertained; and each of them is ſo far of a determined nature, that, though they have now been obſerved and diſtinguiſhed for many ages, and in many different parts of the earth, they have been always found to retain the ſame general character, and to differ only in circumſtances, which may be imputed to ſeaſon, climate, and other external cauſes, or to the peculiar conſtitution of the ſeveral perſons affected. It is, therefore, probable, that, in each of theſe ſpecies, the contagion is of one ſpecific nature, and that the number of contagious exanthemata, or profluvia, is hardly greater than the number of ſpecies taken notice of in our ſyſtems of noſology. While the contagious exanthemata and profluvia are thus limited, it is probable that the contagions which produce the continued fevers are not many; nay, it is not evident, that there are more than one common ſource of them. It is well known that the effluvia conſtantly ariſing from the living human body, if long retained in the ſame place, without being diffuſed in the atmoſphere, acquire a ſingular virulence, and, in that ſtate, applied to the bodies of men, become the cauſe of a fever which is very contagious. The late obſervations on jail and hoſpital fevers have fully proved the exiſtence of ſuch a cauſe; and it is ſufficiently obvious, that the ſame virulent matter may be produced in many other places. At the ſame time, the nature of the fevers ariſing, render it probable, that the virulent ſtate of human effluvia is the common cauſe of ſuch fevers, as they differ only in a ſtate of their ſymptoms, which may be imputed to the circumſtances of ſeaſon, climate, &c. concurring with the contagion, and modifying its force.

Miaſmata ariſe from various ſources, and are of different kinds; but we know little of their variety or of their ſeveral effects. We know with certainty only one ſpecies of *miaſma*, which can be conſidered as the cauſe of fever; and from the univerſality of this, it may be doubted if there be any other. The *miaſma*, ſo univerſally the cauſe of fever, is that which ariſes from marſhes or moiſt ground, acted upon by heat. So many obſervations have now been made with reſpect to this, in ſo many different regions of the earth, that there is neither any doubt of its being in general a cauſe of fevers, nor of its being very univerſally the cauſe of intermittent fevers in all their different forms. The ſimilarity of the climate, ſeaſon, and ſoil, in which intermittants ariſe, and the ſimilarity of the diſeaſes, ariſing in different regions, concur in proving that there is one common cauſe of theſe diſeaſes, and that this is the marſh *miaſma*. What is the particular nature of this *miaſma*, we know not; nor do we certainly know whether or not it differs in kind: but it is probable that it does not, and that it differs only in the degree of its power, or perhaps in its quality, in a given ſpace.

It remains moſt probable, that the remote cauſes of fevers are chiefly contagious or *miaſmata*, and neither of them of great variety. *Miaſmata* are ſuppoſed to cauſe intermittents, and contagions to cauſe continued fevers ſtrictly ſo named. It may further be added, that both contagion and *miaſmata* are of a debilitating or ſedative quality. They ariſe from a putreſcent matter. Their production is favoured, and their power increaſed, by circumſtances which favour putrefaction; and they often prove putrefactive ferments with reſpect to the animal fluids. Though fevers generally ariſe from marſh or human effluvia, and other remote cauſes of fevers, which have been commonly ſuppoſed, cannot with any certainty be excluded. See Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. i.

MICA THURIS. See OLIBANUM.

MICROLEUCONYMPHÆA, alſo called nymphæa, morſus ranæ, ſtratiotes, frog-bit. It grows in muddy waters, and flowers in July. It is not much uſed, but is ſaid to agree in virtues with the leuconymphæa.

MICRONYMPHÆA. It is leſs than the nymphæa; it grows in ditches, and is ſaid to poſſeſs the ſame virtues with the nymphæa.

MIGRANA, i. e. Hemicrania.

MILIARES GLAND, i. e. Sebaceous glands.

MILIARIA, Miliaris, vel

MILIARIS FEBRIS. The miliary fever. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order exanthemata.

It is ſo called from the ſmall puſtules or veſicles which appear in the ſkin, principally on the upper parts of the body, and in ſome meaſure reſemble a millet-ſeed. At firſt theſe puſtules are ſmall veſicles, full of a limpid and afterwards of a whitiſh and almoſt pearl-coloured ſerum; ſometimes they are reddiſh, or red and white ones mixed. Many writers term the diſeaſe when the puſtules are white, purpura alba, and when they are red purpura rubra.

It is generally ſuppoſed to be a child-bed diſeaſe, but

except the woman is kept too hot and in a ſweating ſtate too long, it rarely happens at this time, and when it does it is produced by cauſes which would have been followed by the ſame effect had the patient not been a child-bed woman.

This diſorder is denominated ſimple when none but *miliary* puſtules are accompanied with red ones, which, when appearing alone, are called a raſh.

The cauſes are generally ſaid to be an exceſſive ſeroſity and an acid acrimony in the blood, with a preternatural commotion of the ſpirits. Theſe cauſes ſeem evident from the large quantities of pale coloured urine uſually diſcharged in theſe fevers, the plentiful flux of ſaliva, the almoſt total abſence of thirſt, the uſefulneſs of abſorbents, the injury received from acids in many inſtances of this diſorder, the moderate degree of heat, &c.

Sometimes a degree of bilious acrimony attends this diſorder. Great diſturbance in the mind, eſpecially from the depreſſing paſſions, bring on this diſorder where there is the leaſt tendency to it already in the conſtitution.

It is preceded by a weakly habit of body, a ſerous ſtate of the blood, a weakneſs in the mind, which diſpoſes it to be ruffled by external impreſſions, cloſe thinking, ſome tedious and painful diſorder, a ſour ſmell in the ſweat, an internal heat, with a dull ſenſe of thirſt; and if the patient is a woman at or near the time of bringing forth a child, ſhe complains of a great oppreſſion in her breaſts, and is often ſighing. The fever approaches with pains reſembling the colic, or the gravel, or the rheumatiſm, and ſometimes like thoſe of labour; after a few days the pains abate, an alternate cold and heat is felt all over the body, the palms of the hands are very hot, but the heat elſewhere is far leſs in proportion; the pulſe is frequent but weak, the ſpirits are uſually much ſunk, the breaſt ſeems as if oppreſſed with a great weight, frequent and deep ſighs occur, and, as an inſeparable companion, the patient's ſleep is ſuddenly interrupted at the firſt onſet of the complaint, and he continues without ſleep during whole days and nights, and at the ſame time is neither ſeized with pain in the head, nor a delirium; a whitiſh cruſt ſometimes appears on the tongue, at others its appearance is like that of a perſon in health; the urine is thin and pale, though ſometimes it is nearly as in health; ſometimes a pain is complained of in the ſtomach after ſleep; a tremor often accompanies this fever; and, in the worſt degrees, and laſt ſtages of the diſorder, delirium, convulſions, difficulty of breathing, &c. come on. The exacerbations in theſe fevers recur like the paroxyſms of an intermittent. The oppreſſion in the breaſt, which is productive of ſighs, the uncommon ſinking of the ſpirits without any evident cauſe, watchings, and the tumultuous agitation of ſpirits, commonly called a hurry of the head when the patient endeavours to compoſe himſelf to reſt, as alſo the frequent and weak pulſe, may be conſidered as pathognomonic ſigns of the *miliary* puſtules being about to appear, and they continue until the puſtules become prominent, after which they moſtly diſappear. For the moſt part the puſtules are only on the neck, breaſt, and interſtices of the fingers, though ſometimes they are alſo found all over the body, and after increaſing to their full ſize they gradually diſappear, the cuticle remaining rough on thoſe parts where they were ſeated. In the compound ſort theſe puſtules itch more or leſs.

It ſometimes happens that this fever begins with ſymptoms ſo mild that it is neglected, and thus becomes very dangerous before help is demanded; the time of the puſtules appearing is not eaſily to be determined; they ſometimes are obſerved on the third day, and ſo on to the fourteenth.

In the decline of the diſorder, the upper parts of the hands are often moiſt with a cold ſweat; and after the eruptions are abated, a ſwelling of the feet, legs, and thighs come on, a tumor or abſceſs in the breaſt, a defect in the memory, an immoderate diſcharge of urine, and if the patient is a child-bed woman, the lochia become exceſſive, hyſteric ſymptoms, an internal heat, languor, and loſs of appetite follow; and when theſe happen, a fatal hectic is not rare.

The puſtules are moſt numerous where the ſweat is moſt copious; they are about the ſize of millet or poppy ſeeds, at firſt are filled with a pellucid ſerum, and ſometimes they have a diſagreeable ſmell, but happen when they will they do not appear to be critical; from a pellucid fluid the contents of the puſtules change to a pearl, or a pale yellow colour.

When reddiſh puſtules appear without a fever, they are chronical, and appear at ſtated ſeaſons; but the white ones rarely appear without a fever. The red ſort itch the moſt.

The different ſtates and kinds of the *miliary* fever ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the ſynochus, the nervous fever, and the catarrhal fever.

In the beginning though the ſymptoms were mild, if heating medicines, or an heating regimen were uſed, and a diaphoreſis not brought on, the diſorder will be dangerous. If from the beginning of the fever any particular part is affected with pain; if the patient is hot without any ſenſe of pain; if he labours under a ſickneſs of the ſtomach; and if theſe ſymptoms are ſucceeded by alternate heats and colds recurring at unequal intervals, a defect of the ſpirits, an oppreſſion of the breaſt, accompanied with ſighs, and uneaſy reſpiration, and, at laſt, if the puſtules make their eruption with a gentle and continual diaphoreſis, the patient is, for the moſt part, in a hopeful condition. If a delirium, convulſions, &c. appear in the beginning, they may more eaſily be removed by proper care and medicines; but in the progreſs or decline of the diſorder their preſence is much to be dreaded. If a diarrhœa comes on, and is ſuddenly checked, whether this happens ſpontaneouſly, or by the uſe of means, it endangers an apoplexy. The urine changing ſuddenly from a yellow to a pale colour is a threatning ſymptom. In child-bed women a diarrhœa is a very dangerous ſymptom. Much ſleepineſs is a favourable ſymptom, red puſtules are leſs dangerous than white ones. When puſtules appear and vaniſh by turns, much danger is threatened.

The principal intentions of cure are, 1. To correct the peculiar acrimony. 2. To relax the ſtrictures occaſioned by the acrimony. 3. To evacuate the offending matter by the ſkin; and, 4. To prevent the return of that which is already excreted through it.

According to the patient's ſtrength let him continue in bed, or be raiſed a few hours in the day. The linen and bed cloaths may be changed as oft as the nauſeous ſweating may require.

Freſh air may be admitted into the room as much as is agreeable to the ſenſations of the patient. The bed cloaths ſhould not be more numerous than when in health.

The patient's conſtant drink may be Seltzer water, a decoction of ſarſaparilla, or other ſuch like liquors, which ſhould be always given warm.

Medicines of the cordial and perſpirative kind are proper, but avoid all heating ones.

In the red kind, a little nitre may be added to the medicines, if the heat is conſiderable, or rather the ſp. nitri. D. ſpt. feb. D. Clutton.

The bowels ſhould be kept eaſy, and as near to a natural ſtate as may be.

Very frequently this fever tends much to that of the nervous kind, in which caſe a ſimilar treatment with what is there recommended will be proper; but if a putrid diſpoſition manifeſts itſelf, the dulcified mineral acids, with cordials and the bark, will be required.

When the eruptions appear and retire, camphor will be an important addition to whatever other medicines the ſtate of the caſe may require.

Sometimes in the beginning of the diſorder, the nature of the caſe is miſtaken; and from miſtaken management, the morbid matter, inſtead of paſſing through the ſkin, is determined to ſome other part, and there produces ſymptoms which are various, as are the parts affected in the ſtomach, a vomiting, in the bowels a purging is excited, &c. but when under theſe circumſtances, the complaint is diſcovered to be a *miliary* fever, gentle continued diaphoretics alone will be the propereſt remedies, and opiates, as well as aſtringents, ſhould be admited.

Bleeding can very rarely, if ever, be admitted in this diſeaſe; for thoſe inflammatory ſymptoms, which require this operation, rarely if ever attend.

Bliſters ſhould hardly ever be omitted; they are beſt applied one after another, that is, a freſh one ſhould be ap-

plied as ſoon as the former one begins to ceaſe from diſcharging; and, except ſome violent ſymptoms require, more than one at once is not convenient. It may be obſerved, that when a bliſter begins to dry, the ſymptoms become worſe, but are relieved by the operation of the next; hence the propriety of ſucceeding one by one. Apply the bliſters on the moſt ſenſible parts, as on the inſide of the legs and thighs; though if inflammation, or any other ſymptom in any particular part, ſhould require it, a bliſter may be uſefully applied there.

As to diaphoretics the cool ones, joined with ſuch cordials as in the judgment of the preſcriber may be indicated, will be the beſt.

All the variety of ſymptoms attendant on *miliary fevers*, taken collectively, are to be removed by the ſame medicines which would be proper if they each appeared ſeparately; and a gentle diaphoreſis is the proper remedy.

If convulſions come on from a tranſlation of the morbific matter, let a clyſter be given, and afterward the patient ſhould ſwallow repeated doſes of volatile ſpirits in what he drinks. By the ſame means, aſthmatic ſymptoms are removed if they appear.

A vomiting and diarrhœa are mitigated by the ſaline draughts, with ſaffron and crab's eyes.

See Hoffman, Mead, Buchan's Domeſtic Medicine, and Sir David Hamilton's Treatiſe on the Miliary Fever.

MILIARIS NAUTICA. A kind of typhus, called by Huxham febris nautica peſtilentialis. Miliaris gland. i. e. gland. Sebacea.

MILIARIS PURPURATA. It is a kind of typhus.

MILIOLUM. A ſmall tumor in the eyelids, of the ſize of a millet ſeed.

MILITARIS Herba, i. e. Millefolium.

MILIUM, from *mille*, a *thouſand*, becauſe of its numerous ſeeds. Millet. It hath large, broad graſs-like, ſomewhat hairy leaves; they encompaſs the ſtalk, which grows to be three or four feet high, bearing on the top a large panicle, hanging down the head, compoſed of many ſlender ſtalks, with many ſmall glumes growing on them, including ſmall, white, hard, ſhining grain. It grows plentifully in Poland, &c. It is ſown in April, and reaped in Auguſt or September, and is uſed as food. It is nutritious and very eaſily digeſted. See Raii Hiſt.

MILIUM INDICUM. Called alſo ſorgo, ſorghum, melica. Indian millet. It is ſown in Spain, Italy, and other warm countries. This ſpecies binds the belly very much. In Turkey they feed their hogs and poultry with it.

MILIUM. A name of the lachryma Jobi, and of the lithoſpermum.

MILLEFOLIUM, alſo called ſtratiotes, Achillea, ſupercilium veneris, lumbus veneris, myriophyllon, chiliophyllon, militaris herba. Common yarrow, millfoil. It is called *millefolium*, from its numerous leaves; and Achillea, becauſe Achilles firſt diſcovered its efficacy in curing wounds; and ſtratiotes, from *ςρατος, an army*, on account of its uſefulneſs in healing wounds. It is the Achillea *millefolium* of Linn. Achillea foliis bipennatis nudis: laciniis linearibus dentatis, caulibus ſulcatis, Linn.

It is a plant with rough ſtiff leaves, divided into ſmall ſegments, ſet in pairs, along a middle rib, like feathers; the little flowers ſtand thick together in the form of an umbel on the top of the ſtiff ſtalk, and conſiſt each of ſeveral whitiſh, or pale purpliſh petala, ſet round a kind of looſe diſk of the ſame colour, followed by ſmall crooked ſeeds. It is perennial, grows plentifully on the ſides of fields, and on ſandy commons, and it flowers almoſt all the ſummer.

The leaves and flowers are mild corroborants, and antiſpaſmodics; their ſenſible qualities promiſe conſiderable activity; they have a weak, but agreeable aromatic ſmell, a bitteriſh, roughiſh, pungent taſte; the leaves are moſt bitter, the flowers have moſt ſmell, and the young roots having a glowing warm taſte like that of contrayerva, but they loſe much of their ſmell in drying.

Both water and ſpirit take up the virtue of the leaves and flowers; but water extracts the aſtringency, and ſpirit the aromatic, in the greateſt degree. If the flowers are diſtilled with water, they yield an eſſential oil; and if the plant was gathered from a rich ſoil, the oil will appear of a blue colour; if from poor ground, it will be green.

A ſtrong decoction of the root and leaves hath cured a dyſentery. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

MILLEGRANA MAJOR, i. e. Herniaria Glabra.

MILLEONORBIA, i. e. Scrophularia.

MILLEPEDES. See ASELLI.

MILPHOSIS. A Greek primitive. A baldneſs of the eye-brows: alſo an increaſe of the fleſh in the corners of the eyes.

MIMOSA. Boerhaave enumerates ſeven ſpecies of this plant, but none of them are uſed in medicine.

MINÆA, i. e. Anime.

MINEA. A ſpecies of myrrh.

MINERALIA. Minerals. In the mineral kingdom is found, 1. An oil called petroleum; this differs in conſiſtence, &c. and thence receives different names. 2. Earths. Theſe are of different kinds, and include all the ſtones, they being only indurated earths. 3. Metals. And, 4, The acids known by the name of *mineral* acids.

MINIUM. Red lead. See PLUMBUM.

MINIUM GRÆCORUM. Native cinnabar.

MINUTA. An epithet for a violent fever, accompanied with a ſyncope, which is ſaid to reduce the patient ſo, that he cannot ſupport it more than four days.

MIRABILIS PERUVIANA, i. e. Jalap.

MIRABILIS SAL. i. e. Glauber's ſalt.

MISERERE MEI. The iliac paſſion.

MISTURA. A mixture. It differs from juleps in not being tranſparent, having ſome powder, or other ſubſtance, diſſolved or mixed with it, as a part of the whole.

MITELLA. A ſcarf for ſuſpending the arm. In botany it is the name of ſome plants, of which Boerhaave enumerates four ſpecies.

MITHRIDATUM. Mithridate. See CONFECTIO DAMOCRATIS.

MITRALES VALVULÆ. The mitral valves. See COR. So called from reſembling a mitre.

MIVA. Marmelade.

MIXTIO. Mixtion. Stahl uſed this expreſſion to ſignify the union of the firſt principles in the moſt ſimple compounds. In the Engliſh language, thoſe principles of bodies are emphatically called a mixt, which are ſo intimately united to each other, as hardly to manifeſt themſelves on the ſevereſt trials (as in caſe of alkaline ſalt in glaſs, acid in flint, ſulphur, or mercury, in metals, &c.) to diſtinguiſh them from aggregates or compounds, where the texture is looſe, and the parts more eaſily ſeparated.

MNIUM. It is a fertile kind of moſs, furniſhed with little flowery heads, or ſeminal ones, if they may be ſo eſteemed, which are of two ſorts; for ſome are naked and duſty, having neither capſule nor cover, nor are they ſurrounded with a membrane; but the others are like the reſt of the floriferous kinds of moſs, particularly the hypna and the bryа; and the different manner of flowering is what diſtinguiſhes this kind from all the reſt. There is uſually a variety in the little heads, ſometimes in the ſame, ſometimes in different plants; and the pedicles which ſupport membranaceous heads are pretty long and bare; but thoſe which have their heads naked are obſerved to be much ſhorter than the others, and ſurrounded with very ſmall leaves.

MOCHLIA, from *μοχλος, a lever*. A reduction of the bones from an unnatural to a natural ſituation.

MOCHLICA. Violent purges.

MODERNI. Moderns. The revival of learning in Europe was cauſed by the deſtruction of the Greek empire at the taking of Conſtantinople, by Mahomet the Great; for on that occaſion, many learned Greeks retired from that city, and brought with them the ſciences into Italy. The day, therefore, on which Conſtantinople was taken, may be called the birth-day of learning, with reſpect to the weſtern parts of Europe, and this was on the 27th of May, 1453. All before this are ancients, all ſince are moderns.

MODIOLUS, from *modus, a meaſure*, being contrived to enter only to a certain depth. The crown or ſaw of the trepan; or a circular trepan, reſembling in ſhape the nave of a wheel, which is its true ſignification.

MOGI-

MOGILALIA, from μογις, *difficulty*, and λαλεω, *to ſpeak*, a difficulty of ſpeech. It is the pſelliſmus acheilos of Dr. Cullen.

MOLA. A name for the knee-pan, for the dentes molares, and for the jaws. It alſo ſignifies a grinder.

MOLA, from μυλη, *a mole*. A falſe conception, a ſhapeleſs maſs in the uterus, without a placenta. If the ſymptoms of a miſcarriage happen in the firſt, or beginning of the ſecond month, the fœtus being then very tender, and lying in the os internum two or three days, will diſſolve it into a kind of jelly, which coming away, is called a falſe conception; and, if during the time of child-bearing, a flooding comes on, after its being reſtrained, a large coagulum of blood is formed, which after more or leſs time is diſcharged; it hath a fibrous appearance from the compreſſion of the womb, and is called a *mole*. This coagulum is only fibrous on the outſide, whereas the placenta is equally ſo both within and without, and thus they are perfectly diſtinguiſhed.

The ſigns of a *mole* are, in general, the ſame as pregnancy, except that in pregnancy the belly often becomes flat, and leſs, until the end of the ſecond month; on the contrary, when there is a *mole*, the belly increaſes from the firſt, and ſo continues to the ſecond or third month, at which time it generally comes away. If it continues longer, it often proves troubleſome by the flooding it occaſions; and if the woman is weakly, its conſequence may be death.

During the firſt four months, a *mole* is not eaſily diſtinguiſhed from pregnancy; but after this period it may be obſerved, that the *mole* excites no motions in the womb like thoſe of a living child; beſides, a *mole* diſtends the belly equally, but a child makes it moſt prominent towards the navel, or on one ſide; a *mole* changes its ſituation in the belly according to the poſture of the mother, but this never is known to happen whilſt the fœtus is alive; and in caſe of a *mole*, the general health is uſually worſe, but in pregnancy it uſually improves after the fourth month.

When a *mole* occaſions no ill ſymptoms in the mother, no violence ſhould be uſed to bring it away, but it may continue many years without occaſioning any remarkable inconvenience. If it comes away by the end of the third month, it rarely happens that any aſſiſtance is neceſſary, though it uſually occaſions more or leſs of a flooding. When aſſiſtance is neceſſary, let the finger be gradually introduced into the uterus, and, if that ſuffice not, introduce another, and thus the *mole* will generally be excluded by the pains which attend on theſe occaſions. As there is no placenta, ſo if after the diſcharge of the *mole* the flooding ceaſes, the whole is at an end; but if it continues, another *mole* may be ſuſpected, and, with a little patience and care, it being alſo brought away, the woman will ſoon recover. See La Motte, Mauriceau, Smellie, and other practical authors on midwifery.

MOLAGO-CODI. Black-pepper.

MOLARES. Grinders. So the large teeth on each ſide the dentes canini are called.

Dr. Hunter obſerves that the two firſt are ſmaller than the reſt; at the baſis of their body they terminate in two points, and therefore Mr. John Hunter thinks the name bicuſpides is more proper for theſe than *molares*. Theſe, i. e. the two firſt on each ſide, have ſhort fangs, but are double at their extremities: he (Mr. J. Hunter) thinks the name *molares* is very proper for the other three on each ſide; theſe have four points at the baſis of their bodies, two anteriorly, and two poſteriorly; theſe have generally two fangs in the lower jaw, and three fangs in the upper. Mr. John Hunter, in his Natural Hiſtory of the Human Teeth, which ſee, obſerves, that the firſt and ſecond of the grinders (commonly ſo called) are nearly alike; theſe two ſtand next behind the canini or eye-teeth; they are, as above noticed, called bicuſpides; the firſt of theſe two is frequently the ſmalleſt, and hath rather the longeſt fang; this, as well as the eye-teeth, hath in many inſtances their point bent. In the upper jaw, the bicuſpides are rather thicker than in the lower. The bicuſpides, and eſpecially the ſecond of them, in both jaws, are oftener naturally wanting than any of the teeth, except the dentes ſapientiæ. The bicuſpides and the grinders alter very little in ſhape on their grinding ſurfaces, by uſe; their points only wear and become obtuſe. The two firſt grinders differ from the bicuſpides in being much longer, and in having more points upon their body, and more fangs. The body forms almoſt a ſquare, with rounded angles. The grinding ſurface has commonly four points or protuberencies, two of which are on the inner, and three on the outer edge or part of the tooth, and generally ſome ſmaller points at the roots of theſe longer protuberencies. The body towards its neck divides into two flat fangs, one forward, the other backward; theſe fangs are often bifurcated. The firſt grinder is ſomewhat larger and ſtronger than the ſecond; both the firſt and ſecond grinders have ſhorter fangs than the bicuſpides have. In the upper jaw they have three fangs. The firſt and ſecond in the upper jaw are placed directly under the maxillary ſinus. The third grinder is the dens ſapientiæ.

MOLARES GLANDULÆ. They are two glands, nearly of the ſame kind with the ſublingual glands, each of them being ſituated between the maſſeter and buccinator, and in ſome ſubjects they may be eaſily miſtaken for two ſmall lumps of fat. They ſend out ſmall ducts, which perforate the buccinator, and open into the cavity of the mouth, almoſt oppoſite to the laſt dentes *molares*, and from thence Heiſter, who firſt deſcribed them, called them thus.

MOLDAVICA. Turkey baum or balm. Boerhaave mentions ſix ſpecies, but they are not remarkable for their virtues.

MOLLE. Indian maſtich. See LENTISCUS.

MOLLITIES. A ſoftneſs of the bones. See MOLLITIES OSSIUM.

MOLLITIES OSSIUM. A ſoftneſs of the bones. In children this is called the rickets. Mr. Sharp thinks it is cauſed by a redundance of oil, or from a bad quality in the juices. Dr. Hunter is of opinion, that an exceſs of oil or marrow hath no ſhare in the cauſe, but that a defect of boney matter is the immediate cauſe; and this defect is occaſioned by a ſcorbutic, venereal, or other taint in the juices. However, they both agree with moſt practical writers, that in order to a cure, cleanlineſs, a change of air, frictions, a good diet, cold-bathing, exerciſe, and chalybeate medicines are proper.

MOLLIFICATIO. A barbarous term for a palſy of the muſcles, in any particular part.

MOLLUGO. Baſtard medlar. See RUBIA. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies, and Dale adds a fourth.

MOLUCCA. Molucca baum or balm. Boerhaave names two ſpecies. Their qualities agree with thoſe of melliſſa.

MOLLUCCENSE LIGNUM. It is the wood of the tree that produces the Molucca grains. This wood hath a burning, acrid, cauſtic taſte.

MOLY, called alſo allium latifolium liliflorum. Moly of Theophraſtus, or Homer's moly. Boerhaave mentions ſeven ſpecies, and gives the following as the character of it. It reſembles garlic in every reſpect, except that it hath a ſweet taſte, or, at leaſt, not a diſagreeable one.

Some take it to be a ſpecies of rue; but as ſome uncertainty attends the deſcription of what it is, the curious are referred to Ray's Hiſtory of Plants, to James's Med. Dict. &c. for an account of what it does.

MOLY ALPINUM. Spotted ramſons.

MOLYBDÆNA. In pharmacy it is the metallic recrement, called plumbago. It ſometimes ſignifies black lead; and, in botany, it is the name of a plant which is alſo called plumbago.

MOLYBDOS. Lead.

MOLYZA. An head of garlic, or garlic which hath a head not diviſible into cloves.

MOMISCUS. The part of any of the dentes molares next the gum. The dentes molares themſelves are alſo called momiſci.

MOMORDICA, called alſo balſamina, pomum Hieraſolymitanum, cucumerina, pomum mirabile. The male balſam apple. It is cultivated in the gardens of the curious, but is not uſed in medicine. The fruit is ſomewhat cooling. Boerhaave takes notice of five ſpecies.

MONBIN. The hog plum-tree. It grows in the ſavannas, in low marſhy grounds. Its wood ſerves as cork to ſtop bottles with. See Miller's Dict.

MONERES. It is properly a boat with a ſingle oar; but it is figuratively applied to a melancholy perſon, becauſe of his love of ſolitude.

MONOCEROS. See UNICORNU.

MONOCOCCOS GERMANICA. Spelt wheat.

MONOCOLON. In Paracelſus it is the inteſtinum rectum.

MONOCULUS, or Monophthalmus. It is a roller of ten or twelve feet in length, and two or three fingers breadth. It retains the dreſſings on the eye-lids or eyes. To apply it, fix it on the occiput, letting about a foot hang down, and from thence carry it obliquely round the head, acroſs the wound, &c. to where it began; having carried it thrice round, the remainder goes circularly about the temples, occiput, and forehead; the end hanging behind, is then to be brought over the vertex to the forehead, and the whole ſecured. A napkin, or an handkerchief, does as well. It alſo ſignifies a perſon with only one eye, or with one eye leſs than the other. See MONOPIA.

MONOMACHON. The inteſtinum cæcum.

MONOPAGIA, or Monopegia. A pain in the head which affects only one point.

MONOPHYLLON, called alſo ſmilax unifolia humillima, unifolium, ophrys unifolia, lilium convalulum minus. One blade. It grows in woods and thickets, and flowers in May and June. The flowers are ſaid to be alexipharmic and vulnerary. See Raii Hiſt.

MONOPIA, from μονος, *ſolus*, *alone*, or *one*, οψ, *oculus*, *an eye*. Thus the Greeks called thoſe who were ſaid to have only one *eye*: the Latins called them monoculi, and in the Scythian language they were called arimaſpes; *ari*, in that tongue, ſignifying *alone*, and *maſpe*, *the eye*. According to fabulous hiſtory, the ancient Scythians had but one *eye*, which was placed in the middle of the forehead. This fiction took its riſe as follows: the Scythians were great archers, and as one *eye*, in ſhooting, is ſhut while the other is open, they were ſo accuſtomed to look with one *eye*, that the other was rarely ſeen. But theſe words alſo are applied to thoſe who have *one eye* leſs than the other. When this deformity of a larger and a leſſer *eye* is obſerved in infancy, it is recommended to keep ſuch children from ſuch exerciſes as require the uſe of only *one eye*, as looking through microſcopes, perſpective glaſſes, teleſcopes, &c. See Orthopædia, tranſlated from the French of M. Andry.

MONOPS. So the perſon is called who hath but one eye, or who hath one eye leſs than the other.

MONORCHIS, from μονος, and ορχις, *a teſticle*. A perſon is thus named who hath but one teſticle.

MONOSPERMALTHÆA. A kind of plant of which there are two ſpecies, but they are not of any uſe in medicine.

MONSPELIENSIUM, i. e. Baccharis.

MONS VENERIS. The hill or mount of Venus. It lies before and on the upper part of the ſymphyſis of the oſſa pubis; it is an eminence formed by fat in the ſubjacent cellular membrane, and in adults is generally covered with hair.

MONSTROSITAS, vel Monſtrum. Monſter. It is generally applied to preternatural productions amongſt animals, with inſtances of which Schenckius, Parey, and ſome other writers, abound. See ACEPHALOS and PRÆSENTATIO.

MONTIA. A plant in New Spain was thus named by Dr. Houſtoun, in honour of Dr. Monti, profeſſor of botany at Bononia. It is of no medical uſe.

MORBI ORGANICI. Diſeaſes of particular organs of the body. It is ſynonymous with Dr. Cullen's locales. See LOCALES.

MORBILLI. The meaſles. Avicenna calls them variola cholerica. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe under the name rubeola, in the claſs pyraxiæ, and order exanthemataæ. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies. 1. Rubeola vulgaris. When the eruptions are unfluent, and hardly riſe above the ſkin. 2. Rubeola variolares. When the eruptions are diſtinct and elevated. This diſorder appeared in Europe about the time that the ſmall-pox appeared, and hath great affinity to it. They both came from the Eaſt, are both infectious, and only attack the ſame perſon once, though ſome ſay this is not certain.

The *meaſles* is an acute diſorder; Dr. Mead ſays it is of the peripneumonic kind; ſome call it an eruptive fever of a ſimple, inflammatory nature; others rank it as an eruptive catarrhal fever; Dr. Morton ſays, that the ſcarlet fever is the confluent *meaſles*; and Dr. Watſon obſerves, that in the ſmall-pox the eruption is critical, but not ſo in the *meaſles*; there the eruption is merely ſymptomatic, as it is well known that the cough, the peripneumony, &c. are not relieved by the eruption, but moſt generally continue after it is over; and further he obſerves, that it is a common notion that the *meaſles* are a good preparative for the ſmall-pox, but that the opinion is falſe, and that from experience, he obſerves, it is moſt prudent not to inoculate for the ſmall-pox, until at leaſt ſix months after a bad kind of the *meaſles*.

All ages are ſubject to this diſeaſe, but for the moſt part children are its ſubjects. In great towns it is more fatal than in villages.

In ſome conſtitutions the *meaſles* give notice of their approach many days before an evident invaſion, by a ſmall, frequent, and dry cough, without any other ſenſible complaint, though more frequently by a general uneaſineſs, by ſucceſſions of ſhivering, and heat, and by a ſevere head-ach in grown perſons, a heavineſs in children, and often hoarſeneſs, and by what more particularly characteriſes this diſtemper, an inflammation, and a conſiderable heat in the eyes, attended with a ſwelling in the eye-lids, a defluxion of ſharp tears, and ſo acute a ſenſation in the eyes that they cannot bear the light, by very frequent ſneezing, and a dripping from the noſe. Sooner or later a feveriſhneſs is manifeſt, and then it ſoon increaſes, a cough comes on, a ſtuffing, with a degree of anguiſh, and continual reaching to vomit; violent pain ſeizes the loins, and ſometimes a looſeneſs, in which caſe the vomiting is leſs troubleſome. In ſome a conſiderable ſweating chiefly prevails. The ſymptoms are generally more violent than in the milder kind of ſmall-pox; they uſually increaſe to the fourth day, at which time little red ſpots, like flea-bites, begin to appear in the forehead, and other parts of the face, which being increaſed in number and bigneſs, run together, and form large red ſpots of different figures; on the third day theſe ſpots appear in ſome, but in others not until the fifth; theſe red ſpots are compoſed of ſmall red pimples, ſeated next each other, and riſing a little higher than the ſurface of the ſkin, ſo that they may be felt upon preſſing them ſlightly with the finger, though they can ſcarce be ſeen; many of theſe ſpots ſoon joining, form red ſtreaks or ſuffuſions, larger or ſmaller, which inflame the ſkin, and produce a ſwelling of the face, whence the eyes are ſometimes cloſed; each ſpot or ſuffuſion is elevated a little above the face; in the other parts of the body this elevation is not perceptible by any circumſtance but the roughneſs of the ſkin; this eruption firſt appearing in the face, is afterwards extended to the breaſt, back, arms, thighs, and legs, and they generally ſpread plentifully over the breaſt and back, and ſometimes red effuſions are ſeen on the breaſt, before any thing appears on the face. The eruption is not followed by ſo ſenſible an abatement of the ſymptoms in the *meaſles*, as in the ſmall-pox; the reaching and vomiting, it is true, totally abate, but the cough, fever, head-ach, &c. grow more violent; the difficulty of breathing, the weakneſs of, and defluxion upon the eyes, the conſtant drowſineſs and loſs of appetite, perſiſt in their former ſtate. Sometimes a bilious vomiting is obſerved a day or two after the eruption, which relieves conſiderably. Sometimes the patient is relieved by a copious diſcharge of blood from the noſe, which greatly relieves the complaints in the head, eyes, and throats. On the third or fourth day after the eruption firſt appear, the redneſs diminiſhes, the ſpots dry up and fall off in branny ſcales, the forehead and face grow rough, but, in the other parts of the body, the ſpots appear very large and red; in about another day, ſooner or later, according to the malignity of the ſymptoms attending, all ſpots are vaniſhed in the face, and but few remain elſewhere; the face and limbs, and ſometimes the whole body, is, as it were, covered with bran ſprinkled over them; but in ſome ſeaſons, this branny appearance is not attendant. On the ninth day from the beginning, when the progreſs hath been ſpeedy, and on the eleventh when it hath been ſlow, no trace of redneſs is to be found, and the ſurface of the ſkin ſoon reſumes its uſual appearance.

ance. At the going off of the ſpots, the defluxion on the eyes increaſe, the fever and difficulty of breathing increaſe, the cough becomes more troubleſome from the defluxion on the lungs, ſo that the patient can get no reſt in the day, and very little in the night; this bad ſymptom is worſt after too heating a regimen, and too warming medicines, which are often uſed to promote the eruptions; from theſe circumſtances ariſes a peripneumonia, which deſtroys a great number of patients. The bad ſymptoms are often followed by a looſeneſs, which immediately ſucceeds the diſeaſe, and continues ſeveral weeks after all other ſymptoms are quite removed. This looſeneſs is often fatal. Sometimes it happens that after an hot regimen, the eruptions turn livid, and then black; but this happens only in grown perſons, and except due bleeding and cooling antiſeptics prevent, it is fatal. If during the courſe of the diſeaſe, or immediately after it, ſome conſiderable evacuation, ſuch as the vomiting of a bilious matter, a bilious looſeneſs, a conſiderable diſcharge by urine, or plentiful ſweating comes on, the patient recovers ſoon after the ſpots diſappear from the ſkin; but ſometimes for want of theſe evacuations, the venom of the diſeaſe is not duly expelled, but is tranſlated to the lungs, occaſioning inflammation there, with a fever, anguiſh, cough, or other ſymptoms, and along with them no ſmall danger of life. This outrage is uſually leſs vehement than what attends the *meaſles*, but it proves tedious and chronical, and the cough reſembles the hooping-cough; but when a cool regimen hath been uſed, theſe conſequences are rare.

The *meaſles* in their dangerous ſtate may be conſidered as a peripneumonia. The favourable ſymptoms are, a moderate looſeneſs, a moiſt ſkin, and a plentiful diſcharge of urine. If the pain in the head, which attends in the beginning, continues through the various ſtages, it generally leaves ſome bad complaint, and, not ſeldom, a gutta ſerena. When the *meaſles* are over, if a cough and hoarſeneſs remain, a conſumption is likely to follow. The dangerous ſymptoms are, a ſudden diſappearance of the ſpots, a delirium, great loſs of ſtrength, coldneſs of the extremities, reſtleſsneſs, violent vomiting, a continual cough, profuſe ſweats, convulſions, a difficulty of ſwallowing, the ſpots turning pale, or livid.

The regimen ſhould be the ſame as in the ſmall-pox; but when the ſpots are gone, do not expoſe the patient too ſuddenly to a cold, or a damp air, for thus an aſthma may be brought on.

Bleeding very rarely fails to be a firſt ſtep towards relief in this diſorder. If the ſymptoms are very mild, this operation is not neceſſary; but if the heat is conſiderable, the breathing much affected, or the breaſt ſeems oppreſſed, blood muſt immediately be taken away, and bleeding may be repeated at any time of the diſeaſe, if the pulſe is hard, and other ſymptoms ſeem to require it. When ſymptoms are violent, there is danger of an inflammation of the lungs; therefore, whether the eruptions have not appeared, are already out, or on the decline, the lancet muſt not be ſpared.

The regimen, and other means, being of the cooling kind, the cough will demand attention; it, with the hoarſeneſs, are beſt relieved by vapours of warm water received into the throat. After the appearance of the eruption, an anodyne ſhould be given every night; and if there is any tendency to coſtiveneſs, a clyſter may be given every day from the very beginning.

The bark is of ſingular advantage in this diſeaſe; and after bleeding, and rendering the bowels ſoluble, its uſe may be begun the firſt days of the diſeaſe; it much relieves the hoarſeneſs, cough, and many other ſymptoms. If purple or livid ſpots appear, the bark, with vitriolic, or any of the dulcified mineral acids, will be abſolutely neceſſary. Dr. Cameron of Worceſter obſerves, that the coming on of bad ſymptoms, after the diſappearing of the *meaſles*, is owing to the retroceſſion of the morbid acrimony, and that they may be prevented by giving ſmall doſes of the bark in ſubſtance, with a little watery extract of myrrh in ſmall cinnamon water; thus, he ſays, the fever and the cough will ceaſe on the ſeventh day, but the efflorescence ſtays on the face until the twelfth, becauſe the bark prevents the retroceſſion of the morbid matter.

If hæmorrhages happen, avoid aſtringents, and ſtrong opiates; but gentle opiates may be uſed, with vitriolic acids and the bark.

A looſeneſs coming on in the beginning, or any other period of this diſeaſe, is uſeful if it is moderate, but if it ſeems to affect the ſtrength of the patient, it muſt not totally be neglected, nor yet checked very ſuddenly; bleeding is generally neceſſary in this caſe, and ſmall doſes of rhubarb may be given with ſaffron and the teſtaceous powders. If the looſeneſs attends after the *meaſles* are paſt, a few grains of the cort. eleuther. may be added to each doſe of other medicines; rhubarb may be given every morning, and a gentle opiate at night.

If ſymptoms of a peripneumony come on, treat the caſe as a peripneumony in its firſt ſtate: e. g. bleed, apply a bliſter between the ſhoulders, and give the antimonial powder as is uſual in that fever.

If livid ſpots, or other ſymptoms of putreſcency appear, give the bark with elixir of vitriol, Clutton's febrifuge ſpirit, or other dulcified mineral acids.

If convulſions proceed from the *meaſles*, immediately apply a bliſter.

If the puſtules ſink ſuddenly, proceed as in the ſmall-pox under the ſame kind of circumſtance.

When the *meaſles* go off, gentle purging ſhould be repeated, or perſpiration kept up for ſome days.

Thoſe who die of the *meaſles*, are uſually taken off on the ninth or tenth day by a ſuffocation, or by an inflammation in the lungs. Some, when the diſeaſe is ended, have a looſeneſs, which continues ſeveral weeks, and brings on a mortal tabes; and others have a ſlow fever, with an atrophy, and a ſwelling of the belly, which are fatal.

The *meaſles* may be inoculated by means of the hot ſharp rheum, which diſtils from the eyes, or from the blood, or by means of flannels placed under the arm-pits, where the effluvia may be imbibed, and this applied where a ſmall puncture is made. Tiſſot aſſures us, that he practiſed the inoculation of the *meaſles* for twelve years, and the more he inoculated, the more he ſaw reaſon for encouraging others to do the ſame. Dr. Home of Edinburgh propoſed, by inoculating the *meaſles*, to prevent its mortality, to prevent the cough, and to prevent the diſorders which in the natural way are conſequents of this diſeaſe: and his experience manifeſts the advantage of inoculating the *meaſles*, to exceed even thoſe which are obſerved from inoculating the ſmall-pox.

See Hoffman, Mead, Sydenham, and Huxham on the Meaſles; Dr. Homes's Medical Facts and Experiments; Tiſſot's Advice to the People; Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 132—135, and p. 247—260; Brook's and the London Practice of Phyſic; Med. Muſ. vol. ii. p. 46—48.

MORBILLOSA, i. e. Morbilli.

MORBUS. A diſeaſe. Galen defines it to be "ſuch a preternatural diſpoſition or affection of the parts of the body, as primarily, and of itſelf, hindered their natural and proper action." Hippocrates ſays, "a diſeaſe is that which afflicts a man." Dr. Geo Fordyce, in his Elem. of the Pr. of Phyſ. ſays, "A *diſeaſe* is ſuch an alteration of the chemical properties of the fluids or ſolids, or of their organization, or of the action of the moving power, as produces an inability or difficulty of performing the functions of the whole, or any part of the ſyſtem, or pain, or preternatural evacuation. Some define *diſeaſes* one way, and ſome another; ſome deſcribe *diſeaſes* by their cauſe, and others by their effect, ſo that much perplexity and uncertainty is met with on this ſubject.

As to particular *diſeaſes*, that immediate and conſtant effect of the immediate cauſe which in all caſes occurs, conſtitutes the *diſeaſe*, and the relation of this with reſpect to any particular *diſeaſe*, is its definition; e. g. an inflammation is a too rapid afflux of humour through the part. If it is ſaid, that this is not different from a congeſtion of blood, it is anſwered, that a congeſtion of blood is too great an afflux of fluid to the part: the one is too rapid, the other too great; in the one the humour flows through, in the other it flows to the part: and further to diſtinguiſh them, it may be obſerved, that inflammation is too rapid an influx from an erethiſm as the immediate

cauſe; and a congeſtion is too copious an influx, from a relaxation of the part, as its immediate cauſe.

Diſeaſes are divided into acute and chronical; but, perhaps, the diviſion would be better, if the diſtinction was into febrile and not febrile.

Several profeſſors of medicine have arranged *diſeaſes* under their reſpective claſſes, orders, genera, &c. The following is according to the method purſued by that celebrated teacher of the healing art, Dr. Cullen. See his Synopſis Noſologiæ Methodicæ, Edit. 5.

Claſſis I. Pyrexiæ,	Ordo	I. Febres.
		II. Phlegmaſiæ.
		III. Exanthemata.
		IV. Hæmorrhagiæ.
		V. Profluvia.
Cl. II. Neuroſes,	Ordo	I. Comata.
		II. Adynamiæ.
		III. Spaſmi.
		IV. Veſaniæ.
Cl. III. Cachexiæ,	Ordo	I. Marcores.
		II. Intumeſcentiæ.
		III. Impetigines.
Cl. IV. Locales,	Ordo	I. Dyſæſtheſiæ.
		II. Dyſorexiæ.
		III. Dyſcineſiæ.
		IV. Apocenoſes.
		V. Epiſcheſes.
		VI. Tumores.
		VII. Ectopiæ.
		VIII. Dialyſes.

Theſe orders are again ſubdivided into near 150 genera.

The ſolids ſeem to be the more immediate ſeat of chronical diſeaſes; and, according to ſome, the cellular membrane is the part originally affected. Acute *diſeaſes* ſeem to be ſeated in the blood. Inflammatory and putrid *diſeaſes* ariſe from a fault in the craſſamentum; nervous fevers from a fault in the ſerum.

See the Seats and Cauſes of Diſeaſes inveſtigated by Anatomy, by J. B. Morgagni, M. D. tranſlated into Engliſh by B. Alexander, M. D. Ramazini's Treatiſe on the Diſorders of Artificers, tranſlated into Engliſh by Dr. James; Eſſay on the Diſorders of People of Faſhion, by M. Tiſſot, M. D.

MORBUS ARQUATUS. The jaundice.

MORBUS ATTONITUS. The epilepſy.

MORBUS CADUCUS, or Comitialis. The epilepſy.

MORBUS COXARIUS. See ARTHROPUOSIS.

MORBUS GALLICUS. The venereal diſeaſe.

MORBUS HERCULEUS. The epilepſy.

MORBUS HUNGARICUS. A kind of tertian remittent fever; Juncker calls it febris Hungarica five caſtenſis, which is of the typhus kind.

MORBUS INFANTILIS. The epilepſy.

MORBUS MAGNUS. The epilepſy.

MORBUS NIGER. The black diſeaſe. So Hippocrates named this diſeaſe. In it a concrete blood of a blackiſh red colour, and mixed with a large quantity of inſipid acid, or viſcid phlegm, which is thrown up by vomit. This evacuation is generally preceded by a pungent, tenſive pain, in both the hypochondria, and the appearance of the *diſeaſe* is attended with anxiety, a compreſſive pain in the præcordia, and fainting, which laſt is more frequent, and more violent, when the blood, which is evacuated, is fetid and corrupt. The ſtomach and the ſpleen are the principal, if not the proper ſeat of this diſorder.

This diſorder ſeems to differ not from a vomiting of blood, any other than as one inſtance of the ſame differs from another in proceeding from a different cauſe.

The pains attending this diſorder are ſpaſmodic, and muſt be diſtinguiſhed from an inflammation in the ſtomach.

The ſpleen is often enlarged, or the liver much diſordered in this *diſeaſe*; when ſymptoms indicating theſe attend, a cure is hardly to be expected, but great danger attends when fainting is frequent and conſiderable; but the worſt prognoſtic ariſes from a diſcharge of black, pitch-like fetid matter by ſtool. The patients ſubject to this terrible diſcharge of black matter by ſtool, are either hypochondriac or diſpoſed to hæmorrhoidal diſcharges; hence the ſpaſmodic pains which are felt in this diſorder; for the blood paſſes with difficulty through the meſaraic veſſels: and when in the piles a black blood is diſcharged, it will be eaſy to diſtinguiſh the piles from the black diſeaſe, by the abſence of thoſe pains in the former which conſtantly attend in the latter.

The fainting, which is ſo conſiderable in this diſorder, is ſuppoſed to be owing to the putreſcence of the blood, which is thrown out into the bowels, and mixes with the fæces there.

During the fit, if the body is plethoric, bleed; if the pulſe is quick and ſtrong, a draught of water ſhould be gradually ſwallowed, in which is a dram of nitre, and half an ounce of the ſyrup of poppy heads; this may be repeated as required. When there is great thirſt, pungent and vellicating pains, with ſpaſmodic ſtrictures in the ſide, almond emulſions, with a little nitre and ſyrup of poppy heads, ſhould be frequently drank; emollient clyſters with nitre, ſhould alſo be injected frequently.

To check the ſpaſms, the following liniment is recommended;

℞ Camphor. ʒ i. ol. amygd. ℥ i. ol. rhodii gut. xx. m. After rubbing the region of the ſtomach, and the left hypochondrium with this, a bladder of warm water may be applied thereto.

After the fit, to prevent a return, give half a dram of rhubarb, in a glaſs of water, at bed-time, twice a week. If any other diſorder is attendant, endeavour to remove it, and let a mucilaginous nutritive kind of diet be uſed, but avoid oily kinds of aliment.

See Hippocrates, lib. ii. De Morbus, ſect. v. Hoffman Rat. Med. Syſt. Edinb. Med. Comm. vol. iv.

MORBUS STRANGULATORIUS, i. e. Suffocatio ſtridula.

MORBUS TRUCULENTUS INFANTUM, i. e. Suffocatio ſtridula.

MORBUS NARONIANUS. It is a kind of remitting tertian fever.

MORBUS REGIUS. The jaundice.

MORBUS SACER. The epilepſy.

MORDEHI. Thus the Eaſt Indians call a diſeaſe to which they are ſubject. In it the ſtomach is diſordered, whence ariſes a perpetual heat, copious ſweats, and ſupervening cold, which weaken it ſtill more. See F. Hoffman, De Morb. Epid.

MORDEXYN. At Goa, in the Eaſt Indies, a diſorder is very common which ſeizes the patient ſuddenly and unexpectedly; it is attended with a continual nauſea and vomiting. It often proves fatal. F. Hoffman, De Morb. Epid.

MORINA. A plant to which Tournefort gives this name, in honour of Dr. Morin of Paris. It is cordial and perſpirative.

MORINGA. A large tree in Malabar, and other parts of the Eaſt Indies, whoſe fruit is a foot long, as thick as a carrot, with eight corners, and delicious to the taſte. The leaves, roots, bark, and fruit, are antiſpaſmodic and ſudorific. See Raii Hiſt.

MORION INDICUM. The black part of the onyx ſtone.

MORO. An abſceſs in the fleſh, reſembling a mulberry.

MOROCHTHUS, alſo called leucogæa, leucophragis, galaxius, graphida, galactites. French chalk, white marking ſtone. It is an indurated clay, of an olive colour, clouded with white; it is ſmooth and fattiſh.

MOROSIS, from α, priv. and *μερος, the mind*; or *μωρος, ſtultus, folly, ſtupidity*. Stupidity, idiotiſm, defect of imagination. The Greek word *moroſis*, correſponds moſt with our Engliſh word *fooliſhneſs* (in the common acceptation of it), which is, when reaſon is rendered ſomewhat defective. The immediate cauſes are, a deficiency of vital heat, or a defect in the brain. *Stupid* children ſometimes become ſprightly youths; but if *ſtupidity* continues to the age of puberty, it is hardly ever removed. If *ſtupidity* follows upon a violent paſſion, an injury done to the head, or other evident cauſe, if it continues long, it becomes incurable. But the *ſtupidity* which conſiſts in a loſs of memory,

memory, and ſucceeds a lethargy, ſpontaneouſly ceaſes when the lethargy is cured. See AMENTIA.

MOROSITATES. Diſeaſes which render it difficult to pleaſe, to gratify, or to ſatisfy. Dr. Cullen makes it ſynonymous with dyſorexiæ.

MORPHÆA. Morphew, ſcurf. It is ranked as a ſpecies of leproſy, though differing from it in this, that the ſeat of the leproſy is in the fleſh, but that of the morphew in the ſkin. The alphus is ſometimes thus named.

MORPIONES. Crab-lice. They are ſo called from their reſembling crab-fiſh. They are in the arm-pits, eye-lids, eye-brows, and pudenda of grown perſons. They are flattiſh, and ſtick ſo cloſe to the ſkin, as with difficulty to be diſlodged. They are alſo called plactulæ, petolæ, peſſolatæ, and, from their often infeſting the pubes, they are called pediculi inguinales. They are deſtroyed either with black ſoap, or mercurial ointments, or a ſolution of ſublimate in roſe-water, of which laſt the proportion may be ʒi. of ſublimate to ℔i. of the water.

MORSELLUS, or Morſulus. A lozenge or troche.

MORSURA. A venomous bite, generally underſtood to be venomous, as of a mad dog, a viper, &c.

MORSUS. A bite. Figuratively it is uſed to expreſs a ſort of pain reſembling that which is excited by a bite, or by gnawing.

MORSUS DIABOLI. The Devil's bit. In anatomy it is the jagged extremity of the Fallopian tubes of the uterus. In botany, it is a ſpecies of ſcabious; viz. the ſcabioſa ſucciſa, Linn. Devil's bit.

MORSUS GALLINÆ. See ALSINE.

MORSUS RANÆ, i. e. Microleuconymphæa.

MORTA. The ſame as pemphigus.

MORTARIOLUM. In chemiſtry, it is a ſort of mould for making cupels with. In anatomy, it is the ſockets of the teeth.

MORTIFICATIO. A mortification. From *mors*, *death*, and *facio*, *to make*; and, indeed, when it happens to the aged, death is the frequent conſequence. The Greek word *ſphacelus* is very ambiguous in its uſe among the ancients. Hippocrates uſes this term in different ſenſes; ſometimes he confines it to a corruption of the bone, and in this ſenſe Celſus uſes the verb *vitiari*; but theſe words were afterwards, and now are uſed in general to expreſs the corruption of the fleſh as well as bones, as Galen in many places expreſſes, and the preſent uſe of the word in practice teſtifies. For a *mortification* of the ſoft parts only, Hippocrates often uſes the word ſapran, mydoſan, and ſepomenen. The word *ſphacelus* was uſed by the ancients to expreſs violent pains, violent inflammations which tended to mortify the part where they were ſeated, a *mortification* in part, or in general, and alſo the withering of any part. Galen ſays, in Com. iv. Lib. de Art. & Com. vii. Aph. I. that ſphacelus is taken for an incipient gangrene.

Boerhaave ſays, that a gangrene is a beginning *mortification*. Mr. Pott obſerves, that a gangrene is in the cellular membrane and the ſkin; but that a ſpacelus, or *mortification*, is deeper, attacking the muſcles. When a *mortification* is in the bone, it is called a caries. Dr. Cullen conſiders the *mortification* (which he names ſphacelus), not as a genus of diſeaſe, but as a mode of inflammation terminating.

A *mortification* is, when all vital action ceaſes in a part, or is the putrefaction thereof, whilſt a principle of life remains in the reſt of the body; for if it was univerſal, the body would only be a carcaſs. Celſus deſcribes the progreſs of a gangrene and ſphacelus thus: "In this ſpecies of ulcer, the fleſh is black, or livid, alſo dry or parched, and the external ſkin is generally full of blackiſh puſtules; then that which is next to it is pale or livid, and almoſt æruginous, and without ſenſation. It is ſtill worſe in an inflammation, ſince all the ſymptoms ſpread at once the ulcer into the puſtulous place, the puſtules into that which is pale and livid, the pale or livid into that which is inflamed, and that which is inflamed into that which is found."

Dr. Kirkland well obſerves, that it is very proper to diſtinguiſh betwixt local gangrenes inclining to ſpread, and gangrenes from a bad habit; on which he obſerves as follows:

"When the *mortification* ariſes ſimply from injury done to the limb, it is not preceded by a gangrene, but comes on in conſequence of an abſolute ſtagnation of the blood and juices alone, and accordingly the ſkin, and all the injured parts, become dead and putrid at the ſame time, without any previous emphyſema. A *mortification* ariſing indeed from a weakneſs, and deficiency of native heat, comes on in the ſame manner, only more gradual, with the ſame appearances; but the ſtate of the patient will eaſily lead to the nature of the diſeaſe. When external injury is the cauſe, if an inciſion is early made, the part is inſenſible, and no other than extravaſated blood is diſcharged. In this kind of *mortification*, the countenance is ſerene, nor does any other fever ſupervene, but ſuch as is common to contuſed wounds; and unleſs the affected part is very near the body, the diſeaſe ſlowly extends itſelf by the acrid fluids corroding the neighbouring parts in the manner of a cauſtic, till matter enough is abſorbed to contaminate (unleſs prevented) the whole maſs of blood. But a ſtop may always be put to a local ſphacelus; for a *mortification* rarely ariſes merely from the injury done to the part, which would not give way to proper management.

"When a *mortification* (ſuppoſe when a compound fracture hath happened) ariſes from an internal cauſe, that is, from a gangrenous diſpoſition of the juices; ſoon after the injury is received, whether a large wound is made by external violence, or a ſmall wound by protruſion of the broken bone, the lymph which ſtagnates about the wound immediately inflames and corrodes the veſſels which contain it; when air bubbles in the adipoſe and other membranes are inſtantly formed, which air bubbles, by increaſing the inflammation, are increaſed, and extended immediately upon the ſmalleſt degree of obſtruction taking place, all over the limb, &c. an emphyſema often firſt diſcovering the tragedy that is acting under the ſkin, not yet apparently diſeaſed. A fever at this time frequently comes on, accompanied with a delirium, great dejection of ſpirits, and often a particular wildneſs in the looks; the pulſe is either quick, low, weak, and fluttering, or quick, unequal, and hard, and the ſcene is frequently cloſed with a rapidity that will not admit of aſſiſtance. If an inciſion is made into the affected part, when the air bubbles are firſt formed, it is ſenſible, and blood is diſcharged from the arteries, in a florid ſtate, as free as uſual; the adipoſe membrane is of a darkiſh yellow colour, and the muſcles only appear browner than common. Afterwards the ſkin becomes inflated, and the muſcles, not yet having loſt their ſhape, frequently force themſelves out immediately upon making an inciſion, with a larger diſcharge of wind, and a quantity of frothy matter: the blood in the veſſels is now turned to a black coagulated maſs, the adipoſe membrane, and the membranes in the interſtices of the muſcles and fibres, and the muſcles themſelves, putrefy; and, laſtly, the ſkin alſo becomes livid and putrid; from all which it is evident that a gangrene brings on a ſphacelus, while the blood is yet circulating in the veſſels."

The uſual ſigns of a preſent gangrene are, the ſudden removal of inflammation (when inflammation attends); the leſſened ſenſation of the part, the ſkin does not ſo ſpeedily mortify as the cellular membrane; hence, till the ſkin is deſtroyed, there is a little feeling. A pale, cineritious, dark, livid, or black colour, which is always worſe as it recedes from the pale to the black. Softneſs and flaccidity of the parts, ſo as to retain the impreſſion made by the finger; puſtules or bliſters, full of lymphatic yellowiſh or reddiſh ichor; this is generally accounted the pathognomonic ſign of a gangrene on the external part of the body. When a gangrene is induced by cold, an itching and a violent ſenſe of puncture, together with intenſe redneſs, ſoon ſucceeded by blackneſs, which indicates *mortification*: the cold produces firſt a paleneſs, which is ſucceeded by redneſs accompanied by a troubleſome pungent pain, or an uneaſy itching. Then the redneſs is increaſed to a purple colour, and then the part becomes black.

The

The immediate cauſe is, the reduction of the vital heat in the part to a certain degree below that which health requires.

The mediate cauſes are, violent inflammation, which by the heat attending ſo diſtends the cellular membrane as to compreſs the veſſels, ſtop the circulation in the adjacent parts, and deſtroy the vital action there. The acrimony of the juices, by rupturing the veſſels in an inflamed part, occaſions an extravaſation of blood, which putrefying, produces a *mortification*. A contuſion or wound of the ſpinal marrow, by preventing any further influx of the vital heat to the parts below where the injury is received, cauſes a *mortification* there. External compreſſion, intenſe cold, compreſſion from tumours internally, poiſons, &c.

The prognoſtics are to be taken from the patient's age, the attending diſorder (if there is any), the circumſtances of the *mortification*, the ſtrength of the patient, a knowledge of the cauſe, the ſeaſon of the year, &c.

The indications of cure are, to confirm the ſtrength, or to raiſe and maintain the vital heat a little above the natural healthy degree, to prevent the ingreſs of the putrid matter into the veins, to check and remove the putrefaction formed.

The bark is the only known ſpecific, but yet its uſe is not to be indiſcriminately admitted of in every caſe; in habits that are lax and feeble, no objections can occur to prohibit it; but in inflammatory habits nitre, or mineral acids, ſhould accompany it if given, and great caution is neceſſary before it is directed. If the inflammation is conſiderable, the mineral acids are more proper than the bark.

If the pulſe is ſtrong, large, and hard, and the extremities of the body are warm, the urine red and high coloured, the circulation is ſufficiently ſtrong, ſo need not be increaſed; but, if the pulſe is weak, and the ſymptoms indicate a defective vital heat, cordials will be neceſſary.

Mr. Pott's obſerves, that a *mortification* proceeds from a circulation that is too rapid or too languid; that, in the firſt caſe, bleeding and diluters, and in the ſecond, cordials and invigorating medicines, muſt be preſcribed. When a *mortification* is from an internal cauſe, there is uſually great pain, and opium is directed to be freely uſed. This ſhould be done whether the cauſe is internal or external; in theſe caſes opium is the greateſt cordial known.

If a putrid ſcurvy affects the patient, adminiſter ſuch medicines as will oppoſe it; or if any other diſorder attends, the proper means muſt be made uſe of by which it may moſt ſpeedily be removed.

The external applications ſhould be removed as often as they ſeem to have acquired a putrid ſmell, which will be in three or four hours, while the diſorder is in its progreſs, but when it abates the dreſſings may continue proportionably longer.

As an external application, Heiſter recommends the following: ℞ Aq. calcis ſi. ℔ i. ſp. vini camph. ℥. iii. ſp. ſal. ammon. ℥ ſs. m. apply it frequently and warm; it is powerfully antiputreſcent, it ſtimulates and digeſts. As a cataplaſm, the catapl. e cymino is moſt commonly directed, and rarely need be ſet aſide for any other. When a mortified part is ſcarified, immediately foment it with a proper antiſeptic fomentation made warm, and after fomenting it for ſome time, apply a warm antiſeptic cataplaſm. If emollients are mixed with antiſeptic, they aſſiſt in ſeparating the putrid parts, and ſtopping the farther progreſs of the *mortification*.

When the eſchar or the mortified parts begin to ſeparate, remove no more at each dreſſing than comes away without pain or loſs of blood. Bladders of warm water may be laid over the dreſſings; they continue the heat much longer and more equally.

That ſpecies of *mortification* which ariſes from cold, ſee in the article CONGELATUS.

Some inſtances of *mortification* require that the limb be amputated. When this misfortune happens to the extremities, and penetrates to the bones, deſtroying the whole ſurrounding ſoft parts, amputation is often neceſſary. However, in general, amputation ſhould not take place until a ſeparation of the mortified part from the ſound is perceptible. But as ſoon as this ſeparation hath occurred, no time ſhould be unneceſſarily loſt in having recourſe to the operation; for ſo long as any of the corrupted parts remain in contact with the ſound, the ſyſtem muſt ſtill be ſuffering by the conſtant abſorption of putreſcent particles. Inſtances of deviation from this general rule, ſee the articles FRACTURA, ARTERIA, &c. It ſometimes happens that the arteries of the lower extremities oſſify, which, by deſtroying the elaſticity, produces a *mortification*, which appears firſt at the toes, and afterwards in the limb, nearly as high as the oſſification terminates: ſo that in *mortifications* from this cauſe, we ſee why the amputation, during their increaſe, is of ſo little ſervice, unleſs performed above the oſſification; but we have no way to judge where the oſſification ends, except by the inference we make from the gangrene ſtopping.

It may be further added, that, at the point of alteration from a *mortification*, the adjacent part is yet in a bad ſtate, and ſhould be ſtill left quietly, until, with the aſſiſtance of cordial, &c. medicines, granulations of good fleſh appear on the ſound part; and diſcovers the healthy ſtate of the blood. Until this appearance, amputation is but rarely to be admitted.

See Boerhaave's Aph. the Engliſh tranſlation, p. 104—118, Hildanus de Gangræna & Sphacelo; Heiſter's Surgery; Kirkland's Obſ. on Pott's Remarks on Fractures; Pott's Works.

MORUM. An excreſcence on the ſurface of the ſkin in many parts of the body, reſembling a mulberry. When this happens on the eye-lids, the Arabians call it alchute.

MORUS. The mulberry-tree. The morus nigra, Linn. Its fruit hath the common quality of all other ſweet fruits, abating heat, quenching thirſt, and promoting the groſſer ſecretions. A ſyrup is made of the juice of this fruit, but otherwiſe it is of very little uſe in medicine. See Raii Hiſt.

MORUS. A name of lignum flavum.

MORXI. A peſtilential diſtemper very common in Malabar and other parts of the Eaſt-Indies.

MOSA. A ſort of liniment much uſed in ſome parts of Germany; it is made of wheat flour and milk, and is of no greater conſiſtence than what requires a ſpoon for eating it with.

MOSCH. Caſtellus ſays they are a ſort of roriferous veſſels, which Bilſius diſcovered in the kidneys.

MOSCHATELLINA, called alſo ranunculus nemoroſus, ariſtolochiæ rotunda concavæ, &c. denticulata. It is called moſchatellina, as, diminutive from moſchus; that is to ſay, it is a ſmall plant which ſmells like muſk. Its root is reſolvent and detergent. See Raii Hiſt.

MOSCHUS. Muſk. It is an odoriferous grumous ſubſtance. The animal which affords this odoriferous drug, is the capreolus moſchi of Geſner, animal moſchiferum of Ray, &c. the *muſk* animal of Le Brun, &c. the moſchus moſchiferus of Linnæus, and the Tibet muſk of Pennant. This animal is a quadruped, with cloven hoofs, ſomewhat of the form of a roebuck, according to Mr. Pennant's deſcription of it, who further informs us, that the noted drug which bears the ſame name with this animal, is found in a bag or tumor of the ſize of a hen's egg, on the belly of the male only; this bag is kidney-ſhaped and pendulous, furniſhed with two ſmall orifices; the largeſt is oblong; the other is round, the one is naked, the other is covered with long hairs. The *muſk* is contained in this. The hunters cut off the bag, and tie it up for ſale. The Tibet *muſk* is the beſt, and is the ſtrongeſt in rutting time. See Pennant's Hiſt. of Quadrupeds.

Pomet gives a good figure of this animal in his Hiſtory of Drugs. The beſt *muſk* is brought from Tonquin in China; it is in thin bags that have browniſh hairs; an inferior ſort comes from the Eaſt-Indies in bags that have white hairs in them. Neumann ſays, the quality of one is not inferior to that of the other.

Fine *muſk* is brought to us in round thin bladders, about the ſize of pigeons eggs, covered with ſhort browniſh hairs, well filled, and without any aperture or appearance of having been opened. The *muſk* itſelf is dry, with a kind of unctuoſity, of a dark reddiſh brown or ruſty blackiſh colour, in ſmall round grains, with very few hard black clots, perfectly free from any ſandy or

other viſible foreign matter. Chewed and rubbed with a knife on paper it is bright, yellowiſh, ſmooth, and free from grittineſs. Laid on a red hot iron it catches flame, and burns almoſt entirely away, leaving only an exceeding ſmall quantity of light greyiſh aſhes. It hath a bitteriſh ſubacrid taſte, and a fragrant ſmell, agreeable at a diſtance, but diſagreeable if nearly ſmelt to, unleſs weakened by a large admixture of other ſubſtances.

A ſmall quantity macerated in rectified ſpirit of wine imparts a deep tincture and a ſtrong impregnation to it; the ſpirit ſo covers the flavour of the *muſk*, that this tincture diſcovers but little ſmell, but on dilution the full fragrance of the *muſk* is manifeſted: a drop or two communicates to a quart of wine, or to watery liquors, a rich muſky ſcent. The quantity of liquor which may thus be flavoured by a certain known proportion of *muſk*, is the beſt criterion of the genuineneſs and goodneſs of it.

Rectified ſpirit of wine takes up completely the active matter of the *muſk*; watery liquors take it only in part, though, by the intervention of a mucilage, the whole quantity of the *muſk* mixes with the water, as in the following julep.

Julepum e Moſcho. The Muſk *Julep.*

Take of roſe-water, ſix ounces; of *muſk* twelve grains; of the mucilage of gum arabic, and of double-refined ſugar, of each two drams; grind the *muſk* with the mucilage, then add the ſugar, &c. This julep is an improvement of the hyſteric julep with *muſk*, of Bates. Volatile ſpirits are, in many caſes, a uſeful addition to *muſk*, and enables the water to keep more of it diſſolved; two drams of the volatile ſpirit may be added to the above julep.

By diſtillation, water becomes ſtrongly impregnated with the ſcent of *muſk*, and ſeems to elevate all its odoriferous matter, while rectified ſpirit, on the contrary, brings over little or nothing of it.

The principal uſe of *muſk* is in nervous diſorders. Its impreſſions of the organs of ſmell ſometimes diſorders perſons who are hyſterically diſpoſed, or whoſe conſtitutions are poſſeſſed of great ſenſibility; yet, when taken inwardly, it abates ſymptoms of that kind which its ſmell produces. It is one of the principal of the antiſpaſmodic claſs of medicines. But much of the advantage of this medicine is loſt by giving it in too ſmall doſes. Dr. Wall, of Worceſter, relates, that two perſons, who were labouring under a ſubſultus tendinum, extreme anxiety, and want of ſleep, occaſioned by the bite of a mad dog, were perfectly relieved by two doſes of *muſk* of ſixteen grains each; he further obſerves, that convulſive hiccoughs, attended with the worſt ſymptoms, were removed by a doſe or two of ten grains; that where, on account of convulſions, no medicine could be given at the mouth, *muſk* anſwered the end, when adminiſtered by way of clyſter; that thoſe who are averſe to perfumes take it very well by way of bolus; that under ſix grains he never ſaw any benefit by its uſe, but that ten grains and upward promotes a diaphoreſis without heating or giving any uneaſineſs; but, on the contrary, abates pain, raiſes the ſpirits, and after the ſweat begins it promotes ſleep; and that in maniac caſes it hath afforded a temporary relief. Dr. Owen, of Shrewſbury, relates a ſingular inſtance of ſucceſs from yet larger doſes, in a convulſive diſorder; after all other uſual methods failing, he gave doſes of half a dram every four hours. See Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii.

When *muſk* occaſions hyſteric ſymptoms by its ſmell, fetids applied to the noſe ſoon afford relief.

See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works; Schrockii Hiſtoria Moſchi.

MOSCH ARABUM, i. e. Abelmoſch.

MOSQUITÆ. It is a cutaneous diſorder in the Eaſt-Indies, which ſometimes is produced by ſweating, and ſometimes by the bite of an inſect which the Portugueſe call moſqueta; whence the name of the diſeaſe. When the pimples riſe on the ſkin, an itching immediately follows which, if ſcratched, is ſoon followed by an ulcer. When ſweating is the cauſe, perſpirative medicines are taken inwardly, and the itching is allayed by waſhing the ſkin with vinegar in which nitre is diſſolved. See Bontius de Med. Ind.

MOSUS GALLINÆ. Chick-weed.

MOSYLETICUS BLASTUS. The name of a ſpecies of caſſia mentioned by Oribaſius.

MOSYLLON. An epithet for the choiceſt cinnamon.

MOTORES OCULORUM. Theſe nerves are alſo called motores oculorum communes, oculares communes, and oculo-muſculares. Theſe are the third pair of nerves from the head; they pierce the dura mater by the ſides of the cella turcica, run through the foramen lacerum orbitale ſuperius, and go to all the muſcles of the eyes, except the obliquus ſuperior and abductor of each. They go likewiſe to the levator palpebræ ſuperioris, and ſend twigs to form the ciliary nerves; ſome twigs are alſo ſent to the choroides and iris.

MOTORES OCULORUM EXTERNI. Theſe nerves are alſo called oculares externi, ophthalmici externi, orbitarii, and oculo-muſculares-externi. They are the ſixth pair of nerves that go out from the head. They lie between the fifth, go to the abductores oculorum, run forward on the ſide of the ſella turcica, and get into the orbit by the foramen lacerum orbitale ſuperius; by the ſide of the ſella turcica they give off what is called the beginning of the intercoſtal nerves, but are more properly branches of the intercoſtal, which join theſe nerves.

MOTORII. Diſeaſes from clonic ſpaſm. See Spasmus Clonicus. Alſo the Motores Oculorum.

MOUL-ELAVOU, alſo called arbor lanigera ſpinoſa, goſſipium arboreum caule ſpinoſo. It is a tall cotton bearing tree; of the bark of the root an emetic is prepared.

MOUL-ILA, ſeu Moul-elavou. The Indian lemon tree, the fruit of which is both acid and aromatic like the pepper. See Raii Hiſt.

MOULLAVA. A podded Indian plant; but it is not noted for any medical virtue. See Raii Hiſt.

MOUROUVE. Ray mentions this as reſembling a plum-tree, and bearing yellow flowers, which are followed by a fruit reſembling a cherry.

MOUNT SION WATER. This is a chalybeat, and no known water of the kind is obſerved to keep ſo well, and to retain its natural contents ſo long. See an Eſſay on the Liverpool Spa Water, by T. Houlſton, M. D.

MOXA, alſo called Artemiſia Chinenſis. Moxa, or mugwort of China. It is a ſoft lanuginous ſubſtance, prepared in Japan from the young leaves of a ſpecies of mugwort, by beating them together when thoroughly dried, and rubbing them betwixt the hands, till only the fine fibres are left.

The down on the leaves of mullein, cotton, hemp, &c. do as well as *moxa*.

In the Eaſtern countries it is uſed by burning it on the ſkin: a little cone of the *moxa* is laid upon the part, previouſly moiſtened, and ſet on fire at the top; it burns down with a temperate glowing heat, and produces a dark-coloured ſpot, the exulceration of which is promoted by applying a little garlic; the ulcer is left to diſcharge, or is ſoon healed, according to the intention in uſing the *moxa*.

MUCAGO. Mucilage.

MUCHARUM. A barbarous word, ſignifying an infuſion of roſes, made with warm water, and with ſugar, reduced to a ſyrup.

MUCILAGO. A mucilage. It is any viſcid glutinous liquor made with warm water, as the mucilage of gum arabic, or of quince-ſeeds, which are made by diſſolving the gum, or the ſoluble part on the huſk of the ſeed in water.

Mucilage is alſo that humour which is ſeparated from glands about the joints, in order to the eaſy motion thereof. See Synovia.

MUCILAGINIBUS OLEUM. The oil of mucilages.

The London college directs the roots of marſh-mallow, half a pound; linſeed and fenugreek ſeeds, of each three ounces; to be boiled in a quart of water, and two quarts of olive oil; but expreſſed oils do not take up any of the mucilaginous or gummy parts of vegetables; hence nothing from theſe ingredients can be found in the oil, except the flavour of the fenugreek ſeeds.

MUCILAGINOSA LIGAMENTA, i. e. Lig. Capſulares.

MUCOCARNEUS. In M. A. Severinus it is an epi-

thet for a tumor, or abſceſs, which is partly fleſhy, and partly mucous.

MUCOSÆ GLANDULÆ. The glands diſcovered by Cowper in the penis, commonly called Cowper's glands.

MUCOSUM LIGAMENTUM. It is betwixt the nature of a ligament and a cartilage, and full of glairy matter. It is ſituated betwixt each of the vertebræ, and admits them to recede from, or approach nearer to each other. To this it is owing, that at night a man is half an inch ſhorter than in a morning.

MUCRO. A ſharp-point. Thoſe leaves or fruits of plants which are terminated in a ſharp point, are termed mucronated. Mucro is alſo the ſharp-point of the heart.

MUCRONATUM, from *mucro, a point of a ſword.* (Os.) or more properly mucronata cartilago. i. e. the enſiform cartilage.

MUCUNA GUACU. The largeſt and moſt beautiful kind of phaſeolus in Braſil. It grows on a tree of the ſame name. The beans are poiſonous, but eaſily rendered fit for food. See Raii Hiſt.

MUCUS. By it is uſually underſtood that viſcid fluid which is ſecreted in the membrana pituitaria, and diſcharged from the noſe upon blowing. But *mucus* is the covering for the ſurfaces of all the membranes in the body that are expoſed to any extraneous matter; ſuch as the ſkin, internal membrane of the mouth, noſe, lungs, œſophagus, ſtomach, inteſtines, urinary paſſages, &c. It is a compound of coagulable matter and water. It defends the membranes from being too much ſtimulated by what is applied to them. It is colourleſs, inſipid, inodorous, and incapable of ſtimulating; but if its ſecretion is ſuddenly increaſed, inſtead of a ſimple *mucus*, it becomes a watery kind of fluid, containing the ſalts of the blood, and, in conſequence of them, is capable of ſtimulating, loſes its quality of defending the membranes from acrimony, and further, its colour often is changed to a whitiſh, or a greeniſh yellow, and now and then it acquires a ſmell. See Fordyce's Elements, part i. p. 21, &c.

MUGO. A name for the mountain-pine.

MULÆ. Puſtules contracted either by heat or cold.

MULLA. A name for ſeveral ſpecies of jeſſamy.

MULSUM. Hydromel. But ſometimes it ſignifies wine ſweetened with honey.

MULTICAPSULAR PLANTS. They are ſuch as have ſeveral pods of ſeeds ſucceeding each flower, as the celandine, &c.

MULTIFIDUS SPINÆ. This muſcle lies under the ſpinalis. It riſes from the roots of the tranſverſe proceſſes, and runs to the roots of the ſpinal proceſſes; it is commonly called tranſverſalis, and is diſtinguiſhed into the tranſverſalis colli, dorſi, and lumborum. The tranſverſalis lumborum is alſo called ſacer.

MULTIFORME (Os) i. e. Os Cuboides.

MULTIPEDÆ. Multipeds. They are ſuch as have more feet than four. It is the ſame as millepedes.

MULTIPES. A polypus.

MULTISILIQUOUS PLANTS. They are ſuch as have after each flower many diſtinct, long, ſlender, and many times crooked caſes, or ſiliquæ, in which their ſeed is contained; and which, when they ripen, open of themſelves, and let the ſeeds drop. Of this kind are columbines, houſleek, &c.

MUMIA. Mummy. This name is variouſly applied. It is given to a human carcaſe that is dried by the ſun and ſands. Theſe bodies by drying are of the conſiſtence of horn, and light, and are called white *mummies*. Other carcaſſes are embalmed, and then are called *mummies*; of this kind are thoſe which are called Egyptian. *Mumia* medullæ is the marrow of the bones. *Mumia* elementorum; ſo Paracelſus and Helmont name a balſam, which is defined to be the balſam of the external elements. *Mumia* tranſmarina; thus ſome have called manna. *Mumia*; thus water is called which is collected in a phial from the breath of a man received therein, after waſhing his mouth with water. *Mumia*; it is a ſubtil, ſpirituous, ætherial ſubſtance, innate in every body, and remaining therein in ſome meaſure after death. *Mumia*, that which is taken from a human body is a reſinous matter, hath an hardened, black, ſhining ſurface, is acrid and bitter to the taſte, and of a fragrant ſmell. *Mumia*, that which is particularly called *mummy* of the Arabians, is a concreted liquor, obtained in ſepulchres by exudation from carcaſſes embalmed with aloes, myrrh, and balſam. *Mumia*, that which is called Egyptian, is what runs from bodies that are ſeaſoned with piſſaſphaltos, as well as the carcaſe itſelf that is ſo ſeaſoned.

MUMPS. It is a ſpecies of quinſy. Dr. Cullen names it cynanche parotidæa. This name is given to a diſorder which manifeſted itſelf by a ſlight fever, ſoon after the appearance of which, the face, neck, and particularly the throat, were conſiderably ſwelled, and of a ſomewhat deeper colour than a damaſk roſe, but the tumor rarely extended to the eyes. This ſwelling was chiefly external, and ſometimes ſo increaſed in a few days, as to obliterate the features; and yet this quick and extraordinary diſtenſion of the parts was rarely attended with pain.

This diſorder was of the inflammatory kind; it chiefly affected the young and the poor; it was very rarely mortal, and ſeldom terminated in an abſceſs, but gave way to general antiphlogiſtic methods.

Sometimes the tumor ſubſided in three or four days, and from the face was tranſlated in men to the teſticles; but this circumſtance required no alteration from the general method of cure, nor did the ſwelling in the teſticles ever ſuppurate.

The patients bore bleeding, purging, and nitrous medicines very well. In ſome a thickneſs and hardneſs remained upon the parotid and maxillary glands, after the patient was very well in all other reſpects; theſe yielded to ſmall doſes of merc. dulc. with gentle purging, the affected part being kept warm, and the patient to a ſuitable regimen. Sometimes a mild mercurial ointment was uſeful. See Gooch's Caſes and Remarks, p. 74—76, and Appendix to the ſame, p. 13, &c.

MUNDICATIVA, or Mundificativa. Cleanſing, deterging, purifying.

MUNDIFICATIVUM PARACELSI. ℞ Mel Brit. tereb. venet. ää ℔ ß. ſs. vitel. quatuor. ov. coq. ad conſiſt. ung. & ſing. ℥ i. adde merc. precip. rub. ʒ i.

MUNDUY-GUACU. The Barbadoes nut.

MUNTINGIA. It is a roſe-ſhaped flower, of which Miller enumerates three ſpecies. Father Plumier diſcovered it, and gave it this name in honour of Dr. Muntingius, profeſſor of botany at Groningen, in Holland.

MUOIDES, i. e. Platyſma myoides.

MURALIS. Pellitory of the wall.

MURECI. A berry-bearing tree in Braſil; the berries are purging. See Raii Hiſt.

MURIA. Brine. It is made of common ſalt, and ſo of the ſame nature and uſe. An acrimony in the juices reſembling that of *brine*, is called a muriatic acrimony.

MURUCUIA. A name of ſome ſpecies of granadilla.

MUSA, alſo called muza, mauz, palma humili, ficus Indica, bala, banana, platanus. The plantain tree.

Muſa is the Arabic name; bala is the Malabarian name. Though called a tree, it hardly deſerves the name of a ſhrub, ſince it hath an annual ſtalk, which is like a reed. The leaves are an ell long, and three ſpans broad; of theſe leaves it is ſuppoſed that Adam and Eve made aprons. The fruit is a delicious food, and reſembles meal and butter. It is found in all the eaſtern countries, and in Africa. See Raii Hiſt.

MUSADI. Sal ammoniac.

MUSCARI. Muſk or grape hyacinth. Boerhaave enumerates twelve ſpecies, but no medicinal virtues.

MUSCIPULA, alſo called lychnis viſcoſa rubra, viſcaria. Catch-fly. It grows among corn, and is cultivated in gardens, but not uſed in medicine, though ſome ſay its ſeeds are warm and diuretic. See Raii Hiſt.

MUSCO-FUNGO. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of lychnis and lychnoides.

MUSCOVADO. See SACCHARUM.

MUSCOSÆ GLANDULÆ. Some of the conglobate glands are thus called, to diſtinguiſh them from the conglomerate, which are called glandulæ vaſculoſæ.

MUSCULARIS ARTERIA, i. e. Scapularis externa arteria.

MUSCULARIS VENA. A branch of the poſterior or upper branch of the external jugular; it ſpreads in the muſcles, which cover the ſcapula and joint of the

humerus. Winſlow ſpeaks of its riſing alſo from the axillaris.

MUSCULI OBLIQUI SUPERIORES NERVI, i. e. Pathetici.

MUSCULO CUTANEUS NERVUS. See CERVICALES.

MUSCULORUM COMMUNIS MEMBRANA, alſo called muſculoſa. Winſlow denies its exiſtence, but others deſcribe it as conſiſting of ſome ſmall fibres glued together, a proper quantity of which is connected by the cellular membrane, which fills up the interſtices of muſcles. Winſlow ſays, that the elongations of the lamina of the cellular membrane may have given riſe to the notion of a muſc. com. memb. for in ſome places this membrane is cloſely united to the proper membrane of the muſcles.

MUSCULOSA, i. e. Muſculorum communis membrana.

MUSCULOSI. External or muſcular inflammations.

MUSCULUS, from *μυς*, either a *mouſe* or *muſcle*. The ſhell fiſh called muſcle, or muſſel. See MYTILUS. The whale, according to Pliny. Alſo thoſe bundles of fleſhy fibres by which the motions of all animal bodies are performed; or, as ſome deſcribe it, "it is a bundle of thin and parallel plates of fleſhy threads or fibres incloſed by one membrane; an original part of an animal body, framed of its proper membrane, fibrous fleſh, a tendon, vein, artery, and nerve: it hath the power of contracting and lengthening, and is the chief inſtrument of voluntary motion."

Generally the word *muſculus* is ſaid to be derived from *mus, a mouſe*; but the true derivation is from *μυειν, to draw* or *contract*.

A *muſcle* is divided into the head, belly, and tail. The head is the tendinous part which is fixed on the immovable joint, and is called its origin. The belly is the middle, fleſhy part, whoſe fibres are the true muſcular fibres, and have the power of motion. The tail is the tendinous part, which is inſerted into the part to be moved by it, and is called the inſertion.

A *muſcle* is compoſed of the ſame number of fibres in all its parts, only thoſe of the tendon are more compact than thoſe of the belly.

The uſe of the tendon is, 1ſt, To avoid a large quantity of fleſh, near the joint, which would have obſtructed the motion of the limb. 2dly, To prevent clumſineſs in particular places, for fleſh in the hand would have been inconvenient. 3dly, That the fleſhy part of the muſcle might be nearer the centre of motion. 4thly, For the better admitting of that friction, which in leſs compact parts would have been injurious.

The arteries, veins, and nerves, generally enter the middle of muſcles, but this is not certain or conſtant; they ramify alike throughout their whole ſubſtance. The large arteries and veins run according to the direction of the muſcular fibres; the leſs anaſtomoſe and run tranſverſe. The uſe of the nerve in a *muſcle*, is to bring the immediate cauſe of motion thereto; that of the arteries is to diſtribute the blood through the part: but a *muſcle* hath more blood conveyed to it than is required for its nouriſhment, and, therefore, the free influx of blood ſeems neceſſary to the contraction of the *muſcle*. Albinus ſays, that the arteries in the *muſcles* terminate in the cellular membrane and the muſcular fibres; but this latter termination is not to be proved.

Thoſe *muſcles* which are deſtined for the moſt action, have the larger quantity of nerves imparted to them, and vice verſa.

The *muſcles* are commonly attached to the bones, and the tendons are inſerted into the ſubſtance of the bone. When a *muſcle* is fleſhy at its inſertion, it is only fixed to the periоſteum. Some *muſcles* are fixed to cartilages, but do not ſink into them, being only attached to the perichondrium. Some are fixed to ligaments: as thoſe in the fore-arm; others into membranes, as thoſe of the eye; and others again into fleſhy parts, as thoſe of the tongue.

There are many diviſions of *muſcles*, ſuch as the oblong, hollow, and mixt; the oblong are ſubdivided into the rectilinear, half penniform, the penniform, the complex penniform, the radiated, &c.

The appendicles of muſcles, are, 1ſt, The faſcia, or aponeuroſis. 2d, The frænum, or annular ligament, by which the tendons of ſome *muſcles* are confined. 3d, The ſacculi mucoſi.

Amongſt the many phænomena relating to *muſcles*, the following are a few which deſerve ſome attention. 1 A *muſcle* in action grows tenſe and ſhorter; it can contract itſelf ſo as to be ſhortened one third. 2. The diameter of a *muſcle* in action is not greatly increaſed. 3. If the brain is injured to a certain degree, all the *muſcles* ſubſervient to the will become paralytic. 4. If the cerebellum is injured, all the involuntary motions ceaſe. 5. If a nerve, or an artery, going to a *muſcle*, is tied, or deſtroyed, the *muſcle* becomes paralytic. 6. Irritation upon the *muſcle* produces motion. 7. Some *muſcles* continue to act, after all communication with the nerves and blood veſſels is taken away. 8. The action of *muſcles* is inſtantaneous, and, in moſt parts of the body, ſubſervient to the will. This laſt phænomenon alone, Dr. Hunter obſerves, is ſufficient to confute the various hypotheſes of Crowne, Mayow, Borelli, Keil, Boerhaave, Baglivi, Cowper, Nichols, Vernoulli, &c. as the numerous apparatus which they ſuppoſe neceſſary, can never account for that inſtantaneity which is obſervable in muſcular motion. See Brown on the Muſcles; Winſlow's Anatomy; Cooper's and Albinus's Tables of the Muſcles.

MUSCULUS ANTERIOR MALLEI, i. e. Muſculus externus auris.

MUSCULUS EXTERNUS AURIS DU VERNII, called by Winſlow muſculus anterior mallei. It is placed in a fiſſure on the temporal bone, above the glenoid cavity, where the lower jaw plays, runs inward, and is inſerted into the Ravian proceſs of the malleus irregularly forwards from the incus, and by taking off from the vibratory motion of the bones, it is ſuppoſed to fit the ear for receiving weaker ſounds.

MUSCULUS EXTERNUS MALLEI, i. e. Tenſor membrana tympani.

MUSCULUS INTERNUS MALLEI, i. e. Luxator membrana tympani.

MUSCULUS SUPERIOR MALLEI, i. e. Tenſor membrana tympani.

MUSCULUS TUBÆ NOVUS, i. e. Circumflexis palati.

MUSCUS. Moſs. Numberleſs almoſt are the varieties of this kind of production; but as they ſhare little or nothing in medical worth, the curious are referred to Ray, Dale, Miller, and other botanic writers.

MUSCUS ARBOREUS, called alſo uſnea, muſcus quernus. Hairy tree moſs. Three ſorts of moſſes were formerly kept, viz. the *hairy tree moſs*, which is whitiſh, and compoſed of filaments; the green common moſs, which is picked from human ſkulls; and the cup moſs from the ſides of banks. But preſent practice diſcards theſe with all the tribe of moſſes. See Raii Hiſt.

MUSCUS. A name of ſome ſpecies of coralloides, of lycoperdon, of fern, of liverwort, and ſome other vegetable productions.

MUSCUS PULMONARIUS, called alſo pulmonaria arborea, oak-lungs, and lung-wort. It is made up of flat, wrinkled, rough leaves, greeniſh above and aſh-coloured underneath, having ſeveral round, reddiſh, brown ſpots on the ſuperficies, in which the ſeed is ſuppoſed to lie. It hath a bitteriſh and reſtringent taſte. It grows ſpontaneouſly on the oak tree. See Miller's Bot. Off.

MUSCUS PIXIDATUS, called alſo muſcus pyxoides terreſtris, lichen pyxidatus major. Cup moſs. It is a ſpecies of *lichen*, hath many hoary, whitiſh green, ſmall leaves, ſpread on the ſurface of the earth, among which ariſe little, whitiſh, duſky, hollow cups, a quarter of an inch high, ſhewing neither flower nor ſeed; they grow upon dry barren ground. A decoction of this is reckoned a ſpecific againſt the hooping cough.

MUSCÆ HISPANICÆ. Spaniſh flies.

MUSIA-PATTRÆ, i. e. Moxa.

MUSTUM. Muſt. By *muſt* is meant the ſaccharine juice of ſeveral fruits, ſuſceptible of the ſpirituous fermentation, and particularly of grapes, before the commencement of this fermentation; accordingly *muſt* is, properly ſpeaking, what is called ſweet wine.

MUSTUS. The white calx of urine.

MUTELLINA. Mountain or German ſpignel.

MUTITAS. Dumbneſs. The want of power to articulate

culate words. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſcineſiæ. He diſtinguiſhes three ſpecies. 1. *Mutitas* organica. As when the tongue is taken away, or ſomehow injured. 2. *Mutitas* atonica. As when the nerves of the tongue are wounded, or become paralytic. 3. *Mutitas* ſurdorum. As when children are born deaf.

MYACANTHA. Butcher's broom.

MYAGRO. A name for the rapiſtrum, and of the turritis.

MYAGRUM. This plant hath a turbinated fruit, like an inverted pair, unicapſular, preſſing in the ſtalk, containing one ſeed with two empty cells. Boerhaave mentions two ſpecies. Their virtues are the ſame as thoſe of rapiſtrum.

MYAGRUM. A name for a ſpecies of turritis, and of alyſſon.

MYCE, from *μυω, to wink, ſhut up,* or *obſtruct*. A winking, cloſing, or obſtruction. It is applied to the eyes, to ulcers, and to the viſcera. eſpecially the ſpleen, where it imports obſtruction. In botany it imports a fungus. In ſurgery it is a fungus, ſuch as riſes in ulcers or wounds. Some writers ſpeak of a yellow vitriol which is called myce.

MYCHTHISMOS, from *μυζω, to mutter* or *groan*. In Hippocrates it is a ſort of ſighing or groaning during reſpiration, whilſt the air is forced out of the lungs.

MYCONOIDES. An epithet for an ulcer which is full of mucus.

MYCTER. The noſe.

MYCTERES. The noſtrils, *μυκτηρ*, i. e. a Greek primitive.

MYDESIS, from *μυδαω, to abound with moiſture*. It imports in general, a corruption of any part from a redundant moiſture. But Galen applies it particularly to the eye-lids.

MYDON. Fungous fleſh is a fiſtulous ulcer.

MYDRIASIS. A preternatural dilatation of the pupil of the eye. The ſame as AMAUROSIS, which ſee.

MYLACRIS. The knee-pan.

MYLE. The knee-pan, or a mole in the uterus.

MYLO-GLOSSI, from *μυλη, dens molares*, and *γλωσσα, lingua*. Theſe muſcles are often wanting. They are ſmall fleſhy planes, ſituated tranſverſely on each ſide, between the ramus of the lower jaw and the baſis of the tongue; they riſe from near the inner ſide of the dentes molares, and thence run to the baſis of the tongue.

MYLOHYOIDES. Theſe muſcles riſe with a large baſis from the inferior part of the lower jaw, and are inſerted at the baſis of the os hyoides.

MYLON. See STAPHYLOMA.

MYLO-PHARYNGÆI. So Dr. Douglaſs calls the genio-pharyngæi. So alſo the cephalo-pharyngæi are called.

MYOCEPHALUM, from *μυια, a fly*, and *κεφαλη, the head*. A tumor in the uvea tunica of the eye, which reſembles the head of a fly.

MYOCOILITIS. So Vogel names inflammation of the muſcles of the belly. See INFLAMMATION.

MYODES PLATYSMA, from *μυς, a muſcle*, and *πλατης, broad*, i. e. platyſma myoides.

MYOLOGIA, from *μυς, a muſcle*, and *λογος, a diſcourſe*.

MYOPIA, or Myopiaſis, from *μυω, to ſhut*, and *ωψ, the eye*. Short ſight. Becauſe people ſo affected generally half *ſhut* their *eyes* when they intenſely look at an object. The ſight of *myopes* is ſo ſhort that they can neither read nor diſtinguiſh objects without concave glaſſes; this is owing to the too great convexity of the cryſtalline humour of the eye, whereby the rays, unleſs the object is placed cloſe to the eye, are united before they reach the retina; conſequently viſion muſt be indiſtinct in ſuch. The concavity of the ſpectacles muſt be proportioned to the ſight, and *myopes* ſhould begin with the leaſt concave glaſſes, and when they read they ſhould uſe them as little as they conveniently can. It is a ſpecies of dyſopia; which ſee.

MYOPS. A perſon who is ſhort ſighted. It is the dyſopia diſſitorum of Cullen.

MYORESHALON. A growing of the tunica uvea over the ſight.

MYOSITIS. In Sagar's Syſtem of Noſology this word is uſed to ſignify the rheumatiſm, particularly when it affects the muſcles of the limbs proceeding from the joints.

MYOSOTIS, from *μυς, a mouſe*, and *ους, an ear*. Mouſe-ear cheek weed. Becauſe it hath hairy leaves, and grows longitudinally like a mouſe's ear. It reſembles the alſine in every reſpect, only the flower is larger, and the fruit, which is like the horn of an ox, opens at the apex. Boerhaave mentions ſix ſpecies, but they are not remarkable for any medical properties. See Raii Hiſt.

MYOSURUS, called alſo cauda muris, holoſteum, holoſtes, ranunculus. Mouſe-tail. The leaves are gramineous; it flowers in May; it grows on the way ſides; its virtues are like thoſe of plantain.

MYOTOMIA, from *μυς, a muſcle*, and *τεμνω, to cut*. A diſſection of the *muſcles*.

MYREPSICA OLEUM. The oil of ben nut.

MYRICA. A ſpecies of tamariſk.

MYREPSUS. The laſt very eminent among the Greek phyſicians, at leaſt of thoſe who have left their works in the Greek language; but hitherto, as Galen follows or keeps near to Hippocrates, all to this author keep cloſe to Galen. After theſe the Arabians added many articles to the materia medica; they deſcribe the ſmall-pox, meaſles, and ſpina ventoſa. The orientals have the ſpirit of Hippocrates in their copies of his writings, but they have nothing but what is in the Greek and Latin handed down to us. From *Myrepſus* we may proceed to Paracelſus.

MYRINGA, or Myrinx. A barbarous word for the membrane of the ear called the drum.

MYROPHYLLON, called alſo milleſolium aquaticum. Water fennel, It grows in marſhy ſoils, flowers in April, and is ſaid to be vulnerary. See Raii Hiſt.

MYRIOPHILLUM. Pond-weed.

MYRISTICA. See NUX MOSCHATA.

MYRISTICA NUX. Nutmeg.

MYRMECIA. A ſort of wart about the ſize of a lupine, with a broad baſe, deeply rooted, and very painful. It grows on the palms of the hands, or on the ſoles of the feet. It is a ſoft and often moiſt ſort of wart.

MYROBALANI. Myrobalans. They are a dried fruit of the plum kind, and are brought from the Eaſt-Indies. There are four kinds, and are brought from Bengal, Cambaia, and Malabar. They have been recommended as ſomewhat aſtringent and ſtrengtheners of the ſtomach, but are not now in uſe. Myrobolanos is in the Greek the ſame as nux or glans unguentaria in the Latin, which, in plain Engliſh, is a nut or acorn fit for making precious ointments. Out of the *myrobalans* deſcribed by Dioſcorides, Pliny, and Galen, they uſed to expreſs a fragrant oil, which was uſed in ointments.

MYROBALANI CHEBULÆ. Chebul myrobalans. Theſe reſemble the yellow ſort in figure and their ridges, but are larger and darker coloured, inclining to brown or blackiſh, and with a thicker pulp.

MYROBALANI CITRINÆ, vel Flavæ. Citron or yellow mirobalans. They are ſomewhat longer than the Belliric ſort, have generally five large longitudinal ridges, and as many ſmaller between them, ſomewhat pointed at both ends.

MYROBALANI BELLIRICÆ, called alſo Arabibus Belleregi, Bellileg, Bellegu. Bellirick myrobalans. They are of a yellowiſh grey colour, and an irregularly roundiſh or oblong figure, about an inch long, and three quarters of an inch thick.

MYROBALANI EMBLICÆ, called alſo Arabibus embelgi, embleg, or ambegu. Emblic myrobalans. They are of a dark blackiſh grey colour, roundiſh, about half an inch thick, with ſix hexagonal faces opening from one another.

MYROBALANI INDICÆ, vel Nigræ, alſo called Arabibus aſuar. Indian or black myrobalans. They are of a deep black colour, oblong, octangular, differing from all the others in having no ſtone, or only the rudiments of one, from whence they are ſuppoſed to have been gathered before maturity.

All the ſorts have an unpleaſant, bitteriſh, auſtere taſte, and ſtrike a black colour with a ſolution of vitriol. They are gently purgative and aſtringent. The doſe in ſubſtance is from ʒ i. to ʒ ſs. m. in infuſion or decoction from ʒ ſs. to ʒ iſs. Water extracts their ſtyptic virtue, and the extract is aſtringent. The Indians tan leather with them. The faba Bengalenſis, or the Bengal bean,

is a vitiated fruit of the myrobalan kind; it is round, flattiſh, wrinkled, and of the ſize of a ſmall fig, hollow in the middle, of an irregular ſhape, hard, tough, brown outwardly, and blackiſh within, of but little ſmell, and an auſtere and aſtringent taſte. It is vitiated by the puncture of an inſect, by which it is often hollowed like a gall. It is a powerful aſtringent, it alſo incraſſates and allays acrimony. See Raii Hiſt. Tournefort's Mat. Med.

MYROBALANUS ZEYLANICA. The gum elemi tree.

MYRON. An ointment, medicated oil, or unguent.

MYRRHA. Myrrh. It is alſo called ſtacte. It is a gummy reſinous concrete. It is brought immediately from Alexandria, Smyrna, and Aleppo; but from what plant it is obtained is uncertain. It is ſaid to be a produce of the Scandix odorata, or Scandix ſeminibus ſulcatis angulatis, floribus albis, Linn. Sweet fern, or *Myrrh.* Curtis, in his catalogue of the medicinal, &c. plants, in the London Botanic Garden, calls it *myrrha.* It is brought to us in globes or drops of various colours and ſizes. Chuſe ſuch as is of a reddiſh brown colour, not verging too much to yellowiſh or blackiſh; ſuch as is uniform on the outſide, internally ſpeckled or ſtreaked with white, clear and bright, ſomewhat unctuous to the touch, but not tenacious ſo as to ſtick to the fingers.

This drug is ſubject to a variety of frauds; it is mixed with hard, ſhining, yellow pieces of a gum which reſembles gum arabic, and is void of ſmell or taſte. Pieces of bdellium are mixed with it, and are known by their darker colour, and their being ſoft within, which *myrrh* never is, alſo by their different ſmell and taſte. Sometimes an unctuous gummy reſin, of a moderately ſtrong, ſomewhat ungrateful ſmell, and a bitteriſh, very durable taſte, obviouſly different both from thoſe of bdellium and *myrrh.* Alſo pieces of a hard, compact, dark coloured kind of tears, leſs unctuous than *myrrh,* of an offenſive ſmell, a moſt ungrateful bitterneſs, and of a very reſinous nature. The *myrrh* itſelf is either, 1. Blackiſh, which is gathered from old trees, and being more reſinous, is fitter for tinctures. 2. Yellow, which is from young trees; this ſort contains much gum; it eaſily diſſolves in the mouth, hath a much more agreeable aromatic ſmell, and is what ſhould be uſed for pills, powders, and watery ſolutions.

Myrrh is eſteemed as being balſamic, vulnerary, antiſeptic, attenuant, deobſtruent, powerfully promoting the fluid ſecretions, &c. Its doſe may be from gr. v. to ʒ ſs.

It diſſolves almoſt totally in boiling water, but as the liquor cools, the reſinous part ſubſides; and if the ſolution is evaporated to an extract, the bitter of this drug only remains. By diſtillation with a boiling heat in water, the whole of its flavour ariſes, partly impregnating the diſtilled water, and partly collected and concentrated in the form of an eſſential oil, which is in ſmell extremely fragrant, and rather more agreeable than the *myrrh* in ſubſtance; in taſte remarkably mild, and ſo ponderous as to ſink in water. From ʒ ii. to ʒ iii. of this oil are obtained from ℥ xvi. of the gum. Rectified ſpirit diſſolves leſs *myrrh* than water does; but it extracts more perfectly that in which its bitterneſs, flavour, and virtue conſiſt. The ſpirituous ſolution contains all the active matter; in diſtillation nothing is carried away by the ſpirit, ſo that the extract obtained from a ſpirituous ſolution is a very fragrant bitter, tenacious reſin, and poſſeſſes all the virtue of the *myrrh.*

The London College directs the tincture of *myrrh* to be prepared with proof ſpirit. It may be obſerved that rectified ſpirit takes up all the active parts, and proof ſpirit the whole of the *myrrh,* except its impurities; ℥ iii. of *myrrh* is ordered to be added to ℔ ii. of ſpirit.

Elixir Myrrhæ *Compoſitum.* *The Compound Elixir of* Myrrh.

Take of the extract of ſavine, one ounce; of the tincture of caſtor, one pint; of the tincture of *myrrh,* half a pint. Digeſt and ſtrain off the tincture. This was formerly called elixir uterinum.

Tinct. Myrrhæ & *Aloe.*

℞ *Myrrh.* pulv. ʒ iſs. aloes hepat. ʒ i. ſp. vini R. ℔ ii. m. This is frequently uſed externally as a vulnerary.

Pulv. e Myrrha *Comp.* *Compound Powder of* Myrrh.

Take of the dried leaves of rue, dittany of Crete, *myrrh,* of each an ounce and a half; aſſa fœtida, ſagapenum, Ruſſia caſtor, opoponax, of each an ounce, mix and beat them into a powder.

This is a reformation of the troches of *myrrh,* which were contrived by Rhazi againſt uterine obſtructions.

Oleum Myrrhæ *per Deliquium.*

Boil an egg very hard, take out the yolk, and fill the cavity with *myrrh,* bind the divided ſides together, ſet it in a cool moiſt cellar, and it will all run into a liquid.

It is uſed for removing freckles on the face. It poſſeſſes all the ſmell and taſte of the *myrrh;* it may be precipitated and coagulated by ſpirit of wine; and this coagulum is again diſſolved by water. See Raii Hiſt. Miller's Bot. Offic. Tournefort's Mat. Med. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

MYRRHINE. The myrtle.

MYRRHIS, called alſo cerefolium Hiſpanicum, cicutaria odorata, ſweet cicely, great chervil. It is the ſcandix odorata, Linn. Boerhaave enumerates fifteen ſpecies, and gives the following as characters; the petals are unequal, the ſeed is ſtriated, reſembles the beak of a bird. This plant is cultivated in gardens, and agrees in virtues with chærefolium. It alſo hath ſomething of the taſte of cloves, and, like them, is uſeful in the ſcurvy. The branches reſemble thoſe of fern, have a pleaſant aromatic ſmell, the ſtalks are hairy, the flowers are white, and appear in May or June. It is more an eſculent than a medicinal plant, though it is ſomewhat diuretic. See Raii Hiſt.

Myrrhis is a name of the chærophyllum.

MYRRHIS SYLVESTRIS. A name of the caucalis ſylveſtris folio chærophilli.

MYRTIDANON. By this Hippocrates means the berry of the Indicum, which he ſays the Indians call pepper. But Dioſcorides means by it an excreſcence which grows on the trunk of the myrtle, and which is more aſtringent than the myrtle itſelf.

MYRTOCHEILIDES. A name for the nymphæ of the female pudenda.

MYRTON. The clitoris.

MYRTUS. The myrtle Some derive the name from *myrrha,* becauſe it ſmells like myrrh; others from *Myrtha, a virgin,* ſaid to be turned into this tree after her death; ſhe was beloved by Pallas.

MYRTUS COMMUNIS ITALICA. Common myrtle. The *myrtus communis,* Linn. It is an evergreen ſhrub, with oblong leaves, pointed at both ends, in the boſoms of which ſpring ſolitary white pentapetalous flowers, followed by black oblong umbilicated berries, full of white crooked ſeeds. It is a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe; the berries, which are called myrtilli, rarely come to perfection with us.

The berries are recommended in alvine and uterine fluxes, and diſorders from laxity and debility; they have a roughiſh not unpleaſant taſte, and are accompanied with a ſweetiſh aromatic flavour. The leaves are aſtringent, and if rubbed they yield an aromatic flavour. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

MYRTUS BRABANTICA, called alſo rhus myrtifolia Belgica, gale, frutex odoratus ſeptentrionalium, elæagnus cordo, chamælæagnus Dodonæo. Gaule, ſweet willow, Dutch *myrtle.*

It is a ſmall ſhrub, much branched, with oblong, ſmooth, whitiſh green leaves, ſomewhat pointed or converging at each end; among which ariſe pedicles bearing ſcaly cones, which include the ſeeds, one little ſeed being lodged in each ſcale. It grows wild in waſte watery places in many parts of England. It flowers in May or June, ripens its ſeeds in Auguſt, and loſes its leaves in winter. The leaves, flowers, and ſeeds, have a ſtrong fragrant flavour, and a bitter taſte; they are uſed to deſtroy moths and cutaneous inſects, of which they are reckoned deſtructive of all kinds. An infuſion of them, taken inwardly, deſtroys worms, and ſtrengthens the ſtomach. They are a good ſubſtitute for hops, as they preſerve malt liquor very well, but render it very inebriating. See Raii Hiſt. Plant. Lewis's Mat. Med.

MYTILUS. The muſſel. As from muſhrooms, ſo from this ſhell-fiſh very alarming ſymptoms are often produced. Some attribute theſe effects to a quality in the *muſſels*, either proper to this fiſh, in general, or accidentally acquired from the ſituation in which they derive their nouriſhment: others charge the pea crab, which is often found in them, as the injurious cauſe: but as ſimilar effects are obſerved to ariſe from various other cauſes beſides muſhrooms and *muſſels*, the peculiarity of the perſon's conſtitution ſeems to be that to which the whole is owing. On undoubted evidence it appears, that ſimilar complaints have often been produced by eating ſalmon, by taking the Peruvian bark, by waſhing the hands in water after fiſh hath been boiled in it, bathing in the ſea, cantharides applied to the ſkin, the internal uſe of wild valerian root, &c. When an itching, &c. affects the ſkin from external applications, it may be ſaid that ſuch effects ariſe from a mechanical cauſe. When the ſame ſymptoms airſe in the ſame parts from various kinds of aliment and medicine received into the ſtomach, is it not from the influence of ſympathy that they are produced? This idea ſeems to be ſtrongly confirmed by the relief that ſoon follows from diſcharging thoſe aliments or medicines by an active emetic.

The ſymptoms conſequent on eating muſſels, are accurately deſcribed in the ſecond volume of the Memoirs of the Academy at Bruſſels; a tranſlation of which, the Editor of the Lond. Med. Journal hath inſerted in that uſeful Work; ſee vol. iii. p. 136. It is as follows. "The ſigns which announce the noxious effects of boiled *muſſels*, are an univerſal uneaſineſs or numbneſs, that commonly takes place three or four hours after they have been eaten. Theſe ſymptoms are ſucceeded by a tightneſs of the throat, a ſenſe of heat about the head and eyes, immoderate thirſt, naufea, and ſometimes vomiting. If the patient hath the good fortune to vomit up the whole of the venomous matter, this evacuation is generally ſufficient to ſtop the progreſs of the complaint; but if he brings up none, or only a part of the noxious ſubſtance, the diſorder becomes more or leſs alarming, according to the quantity of deleterious matter in the firſt paſſages, and according to the particular conſtitution of the patient. The want of a ſufficient evacuation by vomit encreaſes the tightneſs of the throat, and the ſwelling of the face, eyes, and tongue; all the parts within the mouth appear inflamed, and as it were excoriated, and the redneſs ſoon ſpreads to the outer ſurface, appearing firſt in the face, and extending from thence to the neck, breaſt, and abdomen, and by degrees over the whole body. This particular eruption is the ſymptom the moſt diſtinguiſhing and characteriſtic of the malignancy of *muſſels*; it is conſtantly accompanied with a kind of delirium, with a ſingular uneaſineſs, and an inſupportable itching; it has no affinity with the eruption produced by the eryſipelatous fever, with the ſcarlatina, meaſles, purpura urticata, or any other known ſpecies of red eruption: it has theſe particularities, viz. that it never appears unleſs *muſſels* have been eaten; that it is not preceded by fever; that it is accompanied by ſymptoms which appear united in no other diſeaſe; and laſtly, that the whole ſurface of the body, though redder than in any other eruptive diſeaſe, appears as it were ſpotted with an infinite number of red ſpots of a deeper red than the reſt of the ſkin. Theſe points are infinitely ſmaller than a millet ſeed; if we examine them through a lens, we ſee diſtinctly that they are the openings or pores of the cuticle, which leaves minute ſpots of the cutis expoſed to our view, while the redneſs which is ſeen only through the epidermis, appears of a paler hue."

In general, when people are thus affected by eating *muſſels*, the ſame treatment will be proper that is directed when muſhrooms are the offending cauſe. See AMANITA. The itching is conſiderably allayed by waſhing the whole ſurface of the body with vinegar and water for about half an hour.

The author of the above account of the ſymptoms that are the effect of eating *muſſels*, adviſes, as a preventive of their injuries, to waſh them with water, and afterwards with vinegar, and then to boil them for uſe in an earthen pot with vinegar and water, and a few grains of Jamaica peper.

MYTTOTUM. A kind of food made of garlic, onions, and cheeſe, bruiſed together.

MYURUS. An epithet for a ſort of ſinking pulſe, when the ſecond ſtroke is leſs than the firſt, the third than the ſecond, &c. Of this there are two kinds; the firſt is when then pulſe ſo ſinks as not to riſe again; the other, when it returns again and riſes in ſome degree. Both are eſteemed bad preſages.

MYXA. Mucus. But in botany it is a plant which is alſo called ſebeſten, myxara, ſebeſtina domeſtica, myxas. The SEBESTEN, which ſee.

MYXOSARCOMA. A ſort of tumor, alſo called mucocarneus.

N.

N. In preſcription ſignifies number.

NABEA, i. e. Œnoplia.

NABIT. Powdered ſugar-candy.

NACTA. An apoſtemation of the breaſts, particularly thoſe of women.

NADUCEM. So Avicennna calls a mole in the womb.

NÆVUS. A mole on the ſkin, generally called a mother's mark; alſo the tumor known by the name of a wen. Dr. Cullen gives the wen as the general name lupia, and conſidering it as a genus, he places it in the claſs locales, and order tumores.

All preternatural tumors on the ſkin, in the form of a wart or tubercle, are called excreſcences; by the Greeks they are called acrothymia, and when they are born with a perſon they are called nævi materni, or marks from the mother. A large tumor depending from the ſkin is denominated ſarcoma. Theſe appear on any part of the body; ſome of them differ in their colour from the reſt of the ſkin, whilſt others are red, black, &c. Their ſhapes are various, ſome reſembling ſtrawberries, others grapes, &c. Heiſter adviſes their removal by means of a ligature, a cautery or a knife, as circumſtances beſt ſuit.

As to the tumor called a wen, its different ſpecies are diſtinguiſhed by their contents. Dr. Aitken, in his Element of Surgery, divides the wen into the following ſpecies. 1. Atheroma. 2. Meliceris 3. Steatoma. They are encyſted tumors; the matter contained in the firſt three following is inſpiſſated lymph, and that in the fourth is only fat. Monſ. Littre is the firſt who hath particularly deſcribed the fourth kind; and to the following purpoſe he ſpeaks of them all. A wen is ſaid to be of three ſorts, according to the kind of matter it contains; that whoſe contents reſemble boiled rice, or curds, or a bread poultice, is called atheroma; if it reſembles honey, it is named meliceris; and if it is like ſuet it is denominated ſteatoma: but there is a fourth ſort, which may be called liponie, becauſe of its fat contents reſembling greaſe. He ſays that he hath ſeen one on the ſhoulders of a man which

was

was a thin bag, of tender texture, full of a ſoft fat, that it had all the qualities of common greaſe; and though the fat in the lipome reſembles that in the ſteatoma, yet they cannot be the ſame, for the matter of the ſteatoma is not inflammable, nor does it melt, or if it does, it is with great difficulty, and imperfectly; whereas it is the contrary with the lipome. When the man who had the above named lipome was fatigued, or had drank freely of ſtrong liquors, his lipome was inflamed for ſome days after, and its contents rarifying increaſed the ſize of the tumor. See Mem. de l'Acad. Roy. des Sciences l'Ann. 1709.

The lipome ſeems to be no other than an enlargement of one or more of the cells of the adipoſe membrane, which is filled only with its natural contents. Its ſoftneſs and largeneſs diſtinguiſh it in general from the other ſpecies, though ſometimes the fatty contents will be ſo hard as to deceive. As this kind of wen does not run between the muſcles, nor is poſſeſſed of any conſiderable blood veſſels, it may always be cut off with eaſe and ſafety.

As to the other kind of wens, their extirpation may or may not be attempted, according as their ſituation is with reſpect to adjacent veſſels, the wounding of which would endanger the patient's life.

See Wiſeman's Surgery; Turner's Surgery; Heiſter's Surgery; Warner's Caſes in Surgery; Gooch's Caſes and Remarks, p. 281, &c. Cullen's Noſology.

NAGAM. A pod-bearing tree in the Eaſt-Indian iſlands.

NAI CORONA. Coubage. See PHASEOLUS.

NAKIR. According to Schenkius it is a violent flatulence which paſſes from one limb to another, and is attended with pain.

NALUGN. A bacciferous ſhrub which grows in Malabar, and flowers twice a year. Its different parts are uſed by the natives in flatulent and ſome ſpaſmodic diſorders, &c. See Raii Hiſt.

NANA, or Nanas. The pine-apple. See ANANAS.

NANDI-ERVATAM. A ſmall Eaſt-Indian ſhrub, the whole of which is lactefcent; the juice deſtroys worms, and is uſed with many other intentions. See Raii Hiſt.

NAP, or Napeca. A ſpecies of jujube. See ŒNOPLIA.

NAPELLUS, i. e. Anthora, and luparia. See ACONITUM.

NAPHA. Orange flower water.

NAPHTHA. It is the thinneſt of the liquid bitumens; it is a perfectly fluid, thin bitumen or mineral oil, clear and colourleſs as cryſtal, of a ſtrong ſmell, extremely ſubtil, ſo light as to ſwim on all known liquors, ſpreading to a vaſt ſurface on water, exhibiting rainbow colours, and is highly inflammable. This name is given to this kind of thin oil, whether it is ſeparated by nature or art from petroleum or other bituminous matter. Petroleum is a groſſer oil of this kind. The true naphtha is uſeful as an external application for removing old pains, nervous diſorders, ſuch as cramps, contractions of the limbs, paralytic affections, &c. See BITUMEN and PETROLEUM.

NAPIFOLIA. Boor cole.

NAPIUM, i. e. Lampſana.

NAPO BRASSICA, i. e. Braſſica radice napiformis.

NAPTA, i. e. Naphtha. It is alſo a name for the tumor called nata or natta.

NAPUS. See BUNIAS.

NAPY. Muſtard.

NARCE, from ναρκη, *the torpedo fiſh*, which is ſaid to ſtupefy in its touching, whence narcotica. A torpor, ſtupor, or dulneſs of ſenſation. It alſo ſignifies a ſtupefaction of the ſenſes by medicines, in order to render a perſon leſs ſenſible of pain.

NARCISSO-COLCHICUM. A ſpecies of lilio-narciſſus, remarkable for nothing but the beauty of its flower. Boerhaave calls it lilio narciſſus luteus autumnalis minor.

NARCISSO-LEUCOIUM. The flowers conſiſt of ſix leaves, in the form of a lily, and the root is bulbous. Boerhaave mentions ſix ſpecies; but they are not noted for any medical virtue.

NARCISSUS. The daffodil. Botaniſts enumerate many ſpecies; Boerhaave mentions forty-ſeven; but their virtues as a medicine hath not gained them a place in practice.

NARCISSUS PALLIDUS CIRCULO LUTEO. Common pale daffodil, or primroſe-peerleſs.

NARCISSUS LUTÆUS SYLVESTRIS, alſo called bulbocodium, codianum, codiaminum flore codii, bulbus ſylveſtris, pſeudo-narciſſus Anglicus. Wild daffodil.

The roots of theſe are ſomewhat purgative and emetic; the doſe is two drams in infuſion.

NARCOSIS, from ναρκη, *torpor, ſtupor, numbneſs.* A ſtupefaction.

NARCOTICA. Narcotics, from ναρκαω, *to affect with a ſtupor or torpor*, or ναρκη, *torpedo*, a fiſh which ſtupefies what it touches. Narcotics are ſoporiferous medicines which induce ſtupefaction. See ANODYNA.

NARDUS INDICA, called alſo ſpica, ſpica Indica, ſpica nardi, nardus Syriaca. Indian ſpikenard, nard, or Syrian nard. It is the andropogon nardus, Linn.

Dioſcorides makes the India and the Syrian nard to be different, but they are the ſame. They are the buſhy top of the root, or the remains of the withered ſtalks and ribs of the leaves of an Indian graſſy leaved plant, of which we have no particular account. The nard, as brought to us, is a congeries of ſmall, tough, reddiſh brown fibres, cohering cloſe together, but not interwoven, ſo as to form a bunch or ſpike about the ſize of a finger: ſometimes two or three bunches iſſue from one head, and ſometimes bits of leaves and ſtalks in ſubſtance are found among them. The ſpikenard of India and Syria alike reſemble valerian in their virtues; but the Indian is warmer and more ſpicy than the Syrian; it is alſo ſomewhat pungent and bitteriſh. It alſo agrees very nearly in its virtues with cyprus.

NARDUS CELTICA, alſo called ſpica Celtica, ſalinuca, Celtic ſpikenard. It is the valeriana Celtica, Linn. It is a ſmall ſpecies of valerian, with uncut, oblong, obtuſe, oval leaves; it is a native of the Alps, from whence we have the dry roots, conſiſting of a number of blackiſh fibres, with the lower parts of the ſtalks adhering, which laſt are covered with thin yellow ſcales, the remains of the withered leaves. Its virtues reſemble thoſe of valerian.

There is a mountain nard, but it is only the root of the large valerian. Non of theſe are in much eſteem in practice. See Raii Hiſt.

The wild nard, i. e. aſſarabacca, is chiefly uſed amongſt farriers; but it is uſed as a ſternutatory in medical practice.

NARDUS ITALICA. Broad leaved lavender.

NARDOSTACHYS. Spikenard.

NAREGAM. A name of two ſorts of Indian lemon tree.

1. Mal-Naregam. A ſort of dwarf lemon-tree growing in Zeylon and Malabar. It differs from a lemon only in its having but one ſeed.

2. Tſjeron-katou-neregam. This ſpecies hath always flowers and fruit upon it. It is found in the ſame countries with the firſt kind. See Raii Hiſt.

NARES. The noſtrils. The internal nares, or cavity of the noſe, comprehend the whole ſpace between the external *nares*, and the poſterior openings immediately above the arch of the palate, by which a probe may be paſſed from the noſe to the fauces, from whence thoſe cavities reach upward as far as the lamina cribroſa of the os ethmoides, where they communicate forward with the ſinus frontales, and backward with the ſinus ſphenoidales. Into the noſtrils, the two frontal ſinuſes, the two antra Highmoriana, the cellulæ of the os cuneiforme under the upper ſpongeous bone of the noſe, open into the noſtrils, and excrete the mucus thereinto. The ſpongeous bones, which are two in each noſtril, are covered with the mucous membrane alſo; whence mucus is collected and diſcharged, and thus the ſurface of the mucous membrane of the noſtrils is enlarged. The olfactory nerves, without their duramatral covering, pierce through the holes in the os ethmoides, and ſpread themſelves on the mucous membrane of the noſtrils; a branch from the fifth pair is alſo ſent here.

In Heiſter's Surgery is an inſtance of cure, when the noſtrils, after the ſmall-pox, were cloſed up. An opening was made into them with a ſmall knife, and kept diſtended until the wound was healed.

NARIFUSORIA. Medicines which are inſtilled into the noſtrils.

NASA. See NATA.

NASALE. An errhine.

NASALIS ARTERIA. See MAXILLARIA EXTERNA ARTERIA.

NASALIS, alſo called compreſſor naris, and rinæus. It riſes fleſhy from the extremity of the os naſi, and adjacent parts of the os maxillare, and is inſerted into all the cartilages of the ala. It dilates the noſtrils.

NASALIS PROCESSUS. See MAXILLARIA SUPERIORA OSSA, and OS FRONTIS.

NASCALE. A ſort of peſſary made of wool or cotton.

NASCAPHTHON, i. e. Caſcarilla.

NASDA, i. e. Naphtha.

NASI OSSA. The bones of the noſe. Theſe are the two ſmall bones which compoſe the upper part of the noſe, and are ſupported by the ſeptum naſi.

NASITAS. A ſpeaking through the noſe.

NASO PALATINI DUCTUS, i. e. Inciſorii ductus.

NASTOS. The walking cane.

NASTURTIUM. Quaſi naſi tormentum, to be the torment of the noſe, becauſe the acrimony of the ſeed, whilſt it is bruiſing, excites ſneezing. In all reſpects it reſembles the mithridate muſtard with a leſs foliaceous margin, and multifid leaves to diſtinguiſh it. Boerhaave enumerates eleven ſpecies.

NASTURTIUM HORTENSE. Common garden creſſes. A low plant, with variouſly cut, winged leaves, bearing on the top of the round ſtalk and branches tufts of tetrapetalous white flowers, which are followed by roundiſh capſules, flatted on one ſide, and full of reddiſh round ſeeds. It is annual, and raiſed in gardens. It is an uſeful dietetic herb in ſcorbutic caſes, when viſcid juices are the fault in the conſtitution, and when the chylopoetic organs are weak. It is nearly of the ſame qualities as water creſſes, but ſomewhat milder. The ſeeds are more pungent than the leaves, and agree in their general qualities with thoſe of muſtard.

NASTURTIUM AQUATICUM, called alſo laver odoratum, ſiſymbrium, cardamine. Water creſſes. Siſymbrium naſturtium. Or ſiſymbrium aquaticum, foliis pinnatis, foliolis ſubcordatis, floribus albis tetrapetalis, ſiliquis declinatis, Linn. A juicy plant with browniſh, oblong, obtuſe leaves, ſet nearly in pairs, without pedicles, on a middle rib, which is terminated by an odd one, larger and longer pointed than the reſt. The ſtalks are hollow, pretty thick channelled and crooked; on the tops grow tufts of ſmall tetrapetalous white flowers followed by oblong pods, which burſting, throw out a number of roundiſh ſeeds. It grows in rivulets, and the clearеſt ſtanding waters, and flowers in June. The leaves remain green all the winter, but are in the greateſt perfection in ſpring.

The leaves are, to the taſte, moderately pungent; when rubbed betwixt the fingers, they emit a quick penetrating ſmell like that of muſtard, but weaker. This herb is a mild, acrid, aperient antiſcorbutic, of the ſame general virtues with the garden ſcurvy-graſs, but much leſs pungent, and, in a great meaſure, free from the peculiar flavour thereof. The expreſſed juice carries with it all the virtue of the plant; but whether the leaves are eaten as a ſallad, or the juice taken alone, their uſe ſhould be continued ſome time, and the quantity of either, not ſparing, if much benefit is expected.

NASTURTIUM INDICUM, alſo called acriviola, flos ſanguineus Monardi, naſturtium Peruvianum, cardamindum minus. Indian creſs, or yellow lark-ſpur. The leaves are round and umbilicated, and placed alternately; the ſtalks are trailing, the flowers conſiſt of fine leaves, formed like violets; the ſeeds are round and rough, three of them ſucceed in each flower. It is a native of Peru. Miller enumerates five ſpecies. Their young ſhoots are uſed as pickles. Their medical virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of the common ſort with us. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

NASTURTIUM. A name for a ſpecies of thlaſpi, of araliaſtrum, and of ſeveral other plants.

NASUS. The noſe. The external parts of the noſe are the root, the arch, the back or ſpine, the ſides, the tip, the wings, the external nares, and the part under the ſeptum. The internal parts are, the internal nares, ſeptum narium, the circumvolutions, the conchæ ſuperiores, the conchæ inferiores, the poſterior openings of the internal nares, the ſinus frontales, ſinus maxillares, ſinus ſphenoidales, ductus lachrymalis, and ductus palatini. The nerves are the olfactory, and a branch from the fifth pair. The cartilaginous part of the noſe keeps alway open to admit of reſpiration. It grows narrower a little above like a funnel. The membrana pituitaria, which lines the noſe, is very vaſcular and papillous at thoſe parts where it is moſt expoſed to the ſtream of the air. The whole membrane is full of ſmall glands which ſeparate mucus; and this membrane gives riſe to polypous excreſcences.

The noſtrils of infants are ſometimes obſtructed, and it is common to greaſe the *noſe* in order to relief in this caſe; but three or four grains of white vitriol diſſolved in half an ounce of water, anſwers much better for ſoliciting a diſcharge of the too viſcid mucus.

NATA or NATTA. A ſort of tumor of the wen kind; it hath a narrow baſis, but a much larger body. Linnæus ſpeaks of it as rooted in a muſcle.

NATARON, i. e. Natron.

NATATIO. Swimming. It is uſeful in ſummer, is promotes perſpiration, and attenuates the fluids, but it injures the head. Oribaſius gives ſome further directions on this ſubject in lib. vi. cap. cap. 27.

NATES. The buttocks. Alſo a name of two prominences of the brain, which are alſo called teſtes.

NATRON. See ANATRON.

NATSIATAM. The tree which bears the coculus Indicus.

NATURALIA. The pudenda.

NAUSEA, from ναῦς, *a ſhip*. This is properly the ſickneſs perceived on ſailing; but it is uſed to expreſs all ſorts of ſickneſs, and propenſities to vomit, whether called ſickneſs, nauſea, qualm, loathing, or whatever elſe.

Nauſea may be defined to be an approach to ſickneſs. It is ſuch a ſubverſion of the ſtomach, as that it reſts not in its natural, eaſy ſtate. Sickneſs is that affection of the ſtomach, whence there is an inclination of the actual ejection of it contents.

Sea-ſickneſs depends on nervous irritability and ſpaſms; it is a diſeaſe of the brain from the unuſual motion which the ſhip gives it, and from thence, by conſent of parts, it is carried to the ſtomach, where it occaſions vomiting. Long voyages uſually overcome this diſorder, but ſhort ones ſeldom do. Keeping the bowels ſolutive is always found to relieve; and drinking ſea-water with wine is a preventive from ſea-ſickneſs in many.

A nauſea is deſcribed by ſome as a gentle convulſion of the œſophagus, accompanied with an inverſion of its periſtaltic motion, and producing an inclination to vomit. Others again ſay, it is the idea of ſome ungrateful ſubſtance, accompanied with ſpaſms of the œſophagus and ſtomach. Generally it is an attendant on dyſpepſia.

The lips are covered with the continuation of the inner coat of the ſtomach, whence whatever vellicates this coat, either in the ſtomach, or œſophagus, and often in the mouth, occaſions a *nauſea*, or a ſickneſs.

A *nauſea* always precedes a vomiting, and then it is attended with a tremulous motion of the lips. It attends all inclinations to vomit, and cardialgias. It is often attended with a diſcharge of a limpid mucus from the ſtomach, or œſophagus, or both, when no inclination to vomiting is preſent; and this happens from the ſpaſms affecting the glands there. It often indicates worms in the primæ viæ. It generally ſucceeds crudities in the ſtomach, which, as they are acrid, when the ſtomach is empty, they then particularly excite a *nauſea*, which, however, is alleviated by taking any kind of aliment. It precedes violent diſorders in the head, eſpecially ſuch as derive their origin from the upper orifice of the ſtomach. It attends hypochondriac diſorders, and others, the ſomes of which lodge in the primæ viæ; and in the beginning of malignant fevers it is generally attendant.

According to the variety of cauſes, the remedies will be, when acrid ſordes in the primæ viæ produce a *nauſea*, preſent relief is obtained from a freſh ſupply of food, and a gentle emetic, or a few aloetic purges will often remove

move the diſorder. Indeed, in general, after theſe general evacuants, warm, ſtrengthening, ſtomach medicines, ſeldom fail to cure.

If an exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors is the cauſe, the warmth of the bed, riding, and the elixir of vitriol, ſucceeds the beſt.

In the beginning of fevers, when bile regurgitates into the ſtomach, and in many other inſtances of *nauſea*, and even of vomiting, the colombo root is almoſt a ſpecific.

A *nauſea* may be relieved, in general, by the ſame means as a vomiting. See VOMITUS.

NAUTICUS, i. e. Tibialis poſticus. It is ſo called from the uſe which ſailors make of it in climbing.

NAVICULARE OS, or Naviforme, from *navicula, a little veſſel*, See SCAPHOIDES.

NAVIGATIO. Sailing. It is beneficial to weak perſons. In a calm, when the ſhip's motion is gentle, an uncommon alacrity, an increaſed perſpiration, a keener appetite, and a quicker digeſtion, are excited; but when a patient is very weak, the violent agitation of a ſhip in a rough ſea is not very ſafe.

See Obſ. on Diſeaſes incident to Seamen, by Lewis Rouppe, M. D. The Uſe of Sea Voyages in Medicine, by E. Gilchriſt, M. D.

NEAPOLITANUM UNGUENTUM. Neapolitan ointment. Take of lard, waſhed with the juice of ſage, one pound; quickſilver, four ounces; oil of bays, chamomile, and worms, of each two ounces; oil of ſpike, one ounce and a half; ſpirit of wine, one ounce; wax, two ounces; turpentine, waſhed with the juice of elecampane, three ounces; the powder of ground pine and ſage, of each two drams: mix, and make an ointment.

This is now never made, the ung. coerul. mit. being ſubſtituted for it, as well as called by the ſame name.

NEAPOLITANUS MORBUS. A name for the lues venerea.

NEBI POULI. A ſpecies of bilimbi.

NEBULA. A wafer. Alſo a white ſpot in the cornea of the eye

NECESSARIÆ RES. The non-naturals.

NECROSIS, from *νεκρος, dead.* A mortification. It is called the dry gangrene. A mortification gradually takes place without much preceding inflammation; the dead parts become hard and dry.

NECROSIS OSTILAGINEA, i. e. Raphania.

NECTAR. The ancients fabled this to be the drink of the gods, whence many ſorts of liquors have been thus called.

NEDUM-SCHETTI. The name of a bacciferous ſhrub which grows in the Eaſt-Indies, of which an ointment is made by boiling in oil, and is then uſed againſt pruriginous diſorders.

NEDYIA. The abdominal viſcera.

NEDYS. The ſtomach, or the belly.

NEDYUSA. An epithet for thirſt, ſignifying its being violent.

NEFRENDES. Properly it is ſucking pigs; but it is applied to young children, or old people, who have no teeth.

NEGUNDO MAS & FŒMINA, i. e. Vitex trifolia minor Indica ſerrata, & vitex trifolia Indica rotundifolia.

NEIÆRA. The lower part of the belly.

NEIEM-EL-SALIB. An Egyptian name for the croſsgraſs, which is alſo called gramen dactylon Ægyptiacum, gramen crucis. Egyptian cock's-foot graſs, and graſs of the croſs.

NELUMBO. A name for the Egyptian bean.

NEMOROSA, i. e. Anemonoides.

NENUFAR, i. e. Flor. nymphæa, and leuco nymphæa.

NEPA, a crab, a ſcorpion, and a ſpecies of broom.

NEPENTHES, from *νη*, importing *negation*, and *πενθος, mourning.*

The *nepenthes* of the Egyptians was, according to Olaus Borrichius, a preparation of opium and dutroy, both the produce of Egypt. Romantic accounts are given of it. See Schultz's Hiſt. Med.

NEPENTHES, called alſo planta mirabilis, the wonderful plant, bandura, utricaria, priapus vegetabilis, aromatico. It is a plant which grows in thick foreſts, in the iſland of Ceylon, where its long fibres ſupply it with water, and where no ſun comes to exhale it. Its root is ſaid to be aſtringent, and the herbs cooling; but it is moſt remarkable for its appendages at the ends of the leaves, which turn up, and contain a cooling limpid liquor.

NEPETA. Catmint. See Cataria auguſtifolia major.

NEPETELLA, i. e. Cataria minor vulgaris.

NEPHRALGIA. Pain in the kidneys or ureters; alſo inflammation there.

NEPHRALGIA RHEUMATICA. The rheumatiſm in the muſcles of the loins. The ſame as lumbago.

NEPHRELMINTICA (ISCHURIA). A ſuppreſſion of urine from worms.

NEPHRITICA (ISCHURIA). A ſuppreſſion of urine from inflammation of the kidneys.

NEPHRITICA AQUA. See NUX MOSCHATA.

NEPHRITICUM LIGNUM, alſo called lign. peregrinum, nephritic wood. Dale thinks it to be the wood of the tree which bears the ben nut. It is the guilandina moringa, Linn. It is brought from America in large compact pieces; the out-part is of a whitiſh, or pale yellowiſh colour; the medullary ſubſtance is of a dark brownifh, or reddiſh colour. If it is bruiſed, and macerated in water for half an hour, or an hour, it imparts a deep tincture, appearing, when placed betwixt the eye and the light, of a golden colour, but, in other ſituations, of a fine blue colour; a property in which it differs from all other known woods. Pieces of other woods are often mixed with it, which only give a yellow tincture. If this wood is ſteeped in rectified ſpirit of wine, the ſame blue tincture is obſerved as when water is the menſtruum; if an acid is joined to the tincture, it becomes yellow, but the blue is again reſtored by an alcali. It is the only vegetable blue that is deſtroyed by acids.

To the taſte it is ſlightly bitter, and the raſpings have a faint aromatic ſmell. A ſtrong infuſion of it in water is gently aſtringent, and is recommended in diſorders of the urinary paſſages. It does not, like the warmer diuretics, heat, or otherwiſe offend the parts; but its efficacy hath not obtained it a place in general practice. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

NEPHRITICUS, from *νεφρος, a kidney.* Belonging to the kidneys. It is uſed with reſpect to diſorders of theſe, or to medicines adapted to their cure.

NEPHRITICUS LAPIS, called alſo lapis Indicus nephriticus. Nephritic ſtone. It is a greeniſh, tranſparent, foliated ſtone, of the nature of French chalk. It hath been worn as an amulet againſt diſorders of the kidneys. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Dict. of Chem.

NEPHRITIS. Any diſtemper in the kidneys, from *νεφρος, a kidney.* An inflammation in the kidneys. This diſorder is not very frequent, for a determination of the fluids to the kidneys occaſions an increaſed ſecretion of urine, ſometimes mixed with blood, which prevents inflammation. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order phlegmatiæ.

The general cauſes are, whatever hinders the extremities of the arteries from tranſmitting their fluid; as a wound, contuſion, abſceſs, a tumour, a long continued defluxion, a ſmall ſtone, &c. whatever hinders the conveyance of the urine into the pelvis, ureters, and bladder; ſuch as forcibly convey the thicker parts of the blood into the urinary ducts, as running, violent riding, exceſſive heat, an effort of the body, a plethora, acrid diuretics, poiſons, &c. a long continued ſpaſmodic contraction of theſe veſſels. When theſe veſſels are ſeized with a violent inflammation, they are often ſo conſtricted, that no urine can be diſcharged; or if a ſmall quantity is evacuated, it is pellucid, thin, and aqueous, which is an unpromiſing ſign; the nerves cohering to theſe veſſels, and lying contiguous to them, being often irritated, pains and convulſions are produced in the ſtomach, meſentery, inteſtines, and uterus; hence ariſes eructations, nauſeas, vomiting, fluxes, iliac paſſions, retentions of urine, ſtupor, immobility of the legs, &c. preternatural heat in the loins.

A ſtone in the kidney uſually excites inflammation in the internal membrane thereof, and in the tubuli uriniferi.

The inflammation begins with a pungent burning pain in the region of the kidney, that is in the back, near the

articulation of the ſhort ribs, higher up on the left-ſide than on the right, often ſhooting down by the ureters to the bladder, and by the ſpermatic cord to the teſticle; a fever; the urine is ſometimes red at the firſt, but ſoon becomes pale, and is frequently diſcharged in ſmall quantities, and that with difficulty, pain, and heat. Sometimes a redneſs appears externally; the thigh and leg of the affected ſide is ſeized with a ſtupor; the pain is increaſed upon ſtanding, walking, couching, lying on the oppoſite ſide, or in any other caſe where the kidney is moved, or the ſurrounding part extended; there is pain in the groin, and in the teſticle next adjacent; the pulſe is hard and frequent, and, as the pain encreaſes, it often becomes ſmall, quick, and ſometimes intermittent, with coldneſs of the extremities, cold ſweats, ſickneſs, bilious vomitings, fainting, delirium, convulſions, &c. The patient lies with the moſt eaſe on the affected ſide.

An inflammation in the kidnies ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the gravel, a ſtone obſtructing the ureter, an inflammation of the pſoas muſcle, or other adjacent parts, from the colic, and other inflammatory and ſpaſmodic pains in the inteſtines.

If the diſeaſe is protracted beyond the ſeventh or eighth day, and there is a ſtupor or heavineſs of the part, with frequent returns of chillineſs and ſhivering, &c. there is reaſon to ſuſpect that matter is forming in the kidney, and that an abſceſs will enſue.

If the urine becomes higher coloured, is ſecreted in a larger quantity, and at laſt is copious, thick, and mixed with mucus, a gradual relief follows, and thus the cure is effected. It may go off by a metaſtaſis, or terminate in an abſceſs, mortification, or a ſchirrhus. Inflammations in this part often ſuppurate on the fourth day, if not prevented by either a natural, or an artificial attempt towards a cure; but yet theſe failing, an abſceſs may be began ſo late as the fourteenth day. This abſceſs may be diſcharged into the pelvis, the abdomen, or externally through the integuments and the ſkin; in the firſt caſe, if the matter is kindly, a cure may follow, but otherwiſe an hectic deſtroys the patient; in the ſecond caſe it is fatal; and, in the third, an ulcer, of very uncertain cure, is formed.

When the preſence of this diſorder is once manifeſted, immediately bleed, and in general proceed as in other internal inflammations.

Decoctions of parſley roots, infuſions of line-ſeed, or the Arabic emulſion, with a double quantity of the gum, are convenient as common drink; and to prevent their palling the appetite, a little lemon juice and ſugar may be added to render them grateful.

A moderately warm ſemicupium, and laxative clyſters frequently injected, contribute much to promote the ſecretion of urine.

If inflammation appears externally, apply fomentations and poultices to the part ſo affected.

In caſe of a ſuppuration, the treatment is nearly the ſame as in a ſuppuration of the liver. After the abſceſs is burſt, the patient ſhould drink freely of a decoction of marſhmallow roots, or ſuch like liquors, and take the bark freely. In this caſe the bark is preferable to the uſual method of adminiſtering balſamics.

If pains are exceſſive, give opiates to moderate them; and if vomiting is troubleſome, give tepid water, ſweetened with honey, and let the patient drink ſmall quantities frequently.

If a gangrene takes place, it is known by the violence of the cauſe of the ſymptoms, the want of relief by remedies, and the ſudden remiſſion of the pain without apparent cauſe, cold ſweats, a weak intermittent pulſe, hiccoughs, either no diſcharge of urine, or ſuch as is livid, black, full of hairs, fetid, and foul, with a ſudden and conſiderable loſs of ſtrength. In thoſe caſes, no cure can be expected.

See Boerhaave's Aphoriſms, and Van Swieten's Comments thereon; Fordyce's Elements, part the ſecond; Brooks's, and the London Practice of Phyſic.

NEPHROLITICA (Ischuria). A ſuppreſſion of urine from the ſtone in the kidneys.

NEPHROMETRÆ. The pſoæ muſcles.

NEPHROPLETHORICA (Ischuria). A ſuppreſſion of urine from a plethora.

NEPHROSPASTICA (Ischuria). A ſuppreſſion of urine from a ſpaſm in the kidneys.

NEPHROTHROMBOIDES (Ischuria). A ſuppreſſion of urine from grumous blood in the kidneys.

NEPHROPYICA (Ischuria). A ſuppreſſion of urine from purulent matter in the kidneys.

NEPHROPHLEGMATICA (Ischuria). A ſuppreſſion of urine from pituitous or mucous matter in the kidneys.

NEPHROPLEGICA (Ischuria). A ſuppreſſion of urine from a paralytic ſtate of the kidneys.

NEPHROS. A kidney.

NEPHROTOMIA. Nephrotomy. It is the extracting of a ſtone from the kidneys by a wound made for that end. Rouſet was the firſt who adviſed this operation. In Mezeray's Hiſtory of France is the following narrative: "The doctors of the faculty of phyſic at Paris, knowing that an archer of Bagnolet, who had been very much afflicted with the ſtone, lay under ſentence of death, begged of the king that he might be put into their hands, to make an experiment whether they could open the kidney, and take out the ſtone. They obtained their requeſt, and the operation ſucceeded ſo well, that the man lived many years after in good health."

Many writers ſpeak in favour of this operation, and aſſert that it is practicable with ſafety; but from the courſe of the renal artery it does not appear to be poſſible, without deſtroying the patient. See Renes. Beſides the objection from the renal artery, there are others apparently inſurmountable. See Avicenna, Scrapion, Wedelius, Meckren, Heiſter, Med. Muſ. vol. ii. p. 370.

NERANTIA. An orange.

NERION, called alſo nerium, rhododaphne, rhododendron, oleander, laurus, roſea, roſe-bay. It is called nerion, from *νι*, a privative particle, and *ϛεργω*, *to love*; that is to ſay, a plant not to be loved. *Nerium*, from *νερον*, *humid*, becauſe it grows in moiſt places. Rhododaphne, from its flowers reſembling a roſe, and its leaves a bay-tree. Rhododendron, becauſe it ſometimes grows to the ſize of a little tree, and hath a flower like a roſe. The branches are divided and ſubdivided by threes, and the leaves grow three together. It grows in maritime places. The leaves and flowers are poiſonous; if any of them are ſwallowed, deglutition is immediately ſtopped, but vomiting and purging ſoon comes on. Vinegar is an antidote in this poiſon. See Raii Hiſt.

NEROLI OLEUM. It is the eſſential oil of orange flowers. See Aurantium.

NERONIANA. An epithet for veneſection, when more than one vein is opened in a day.

NERVALIA OSSA, i. e. Arcualia oſſa.

NERVEA SPONGIOSA, i.e. Corpora cavernoſa penis.

NERVI. The nerves. *Nerve* was a name among the antients given to a genus, of which there were three ſpecies, viz. the *nerves*, ſo called by the moderns, the tendons, and ligaments; but afterwards the word was confined to thoſe productions of the brain, which are the means of ſenſe and motion in every part. They are continuations of the medullary ſubſtance of the brain; and, like the brain, they have an infinite number of blood veſſels diſperſed about them. They receive their ſtrength from the membranes that ſurround them. They have two coats, at leaſt as far as the eye can trace them, one from the pia mater, the other from the dura mater. The *nerves* are ſuppoſed to depoſit their coats when they arrive at the place of office. In their riſe and progreſs from the brain they are ſuppoſed to decuſſate each other, that is, thoſe which riſe on the right ſide of the brain paſs out on the left, and thoſe which riſe on the left paſs out on the right; their origin, however accurately traced, cannot be found out: that they decuſſate each other, is ſuggeſted at leaſt from a concuſſion of the brain, in which caſe, a blow is received on one ſide, and the injury done is on the other; but again, there are many exceptions to this. Frequently the nerves form plexuſes in their courſe, in which they become one. In their courſe through the body they commonly branch with the blood-veſſels, but ramify more regularly. That junction which in the arterial and venal ſyſtem is called anaſtomoſis, in the *nerves* is denominated communication. From this communication of *nerves*

ſome

ſome inſtances of ſympathy are accounted for; but how far this is the truth is not eaſy to aſſert, as there is hardly a *nerve* but in its paſſage communicates with ſome branch of almoſt every *nerve* in the body. In the ganglions of the *nerves* there is always a particular redneſs, on which conjectures are formed by different anatomiſts, but their opinions are not well ſupported: Lanciſi ſays that theſe ganglions are only on thoſe *nerves* which are governed by the will.

All the *nerves* in the body originally proceed from the cerebrum or cerebellum, by means of the medulla oblongata, or medulla ſpinalis. They go out in pairs, and are afterwards divided into branches to be diſtributed on all parts of the body.

From the head there goes out ten pair of *nerves*; the firſt and ſecond pair proceed from the cerebrum, and are called the olfactory or firſt pair; and the optic *nerves*, or ſecond pair. The reſt proceed from the cerebellum, and are called motores oculorum, or third pair; pathetici, or fourth pair; trigemini, or fifth pair; motores oculorum externi, or ſixth pair; auditorius, or ſeventh pair; par vagum, or eighth pair; hypogloſſi externi, or ninth pair; ſuboccipitales, or tenth pair.

From the ſpinal marrow there goes out about twenty-four pair, which have the general name of vertebrales; ſeven of which paſſing through the vertebræ of the neck, are called cervicales; twelve paſs through thoſe of the back, and are called dorſales; five paſs through thoſe of the loins, and are called lumbares; and there are five or ſix pair which, paſſing through the os ſacrum, are called ſacri *nervi*.

The *nerves* that ſubſerve the vital functions ariſe from the cerebellum; thoſe that are ſubſervient to the ſenſes proceed chiefly from the baſis of the brain; and thoſe that are deſtined to the voluntary motions of the touch, are principally from the ſpinal marrow.

In many inſtances, if a nerve is cut, compreſſed, or deſtroyed, all motion, ſenſation, and nutrition in that part to which the nerve is diſtributed is loſt; yet this does not always happen, for if all, or at leaſt the principal *nerves* in the part are not deſtroyed, it recovers its health and vigour. This is evident in performing the operation for the aneuriſm, in which caſe, if the nerve is tied with the brachial artery, a temporal numbneſs only is felt, and ſenſation in any degree below the ligature is not loſt. If a ligature is made on the *nerve* on the ſide of the windpipe, the animal will be dumb. If a pointed inſtrument is puſhed between the occiput and atlas of a dog, he dies inſtantly. The ſame ſymptoms happen in wounds of the cerebrum, cerebellum, and medulla ſpinalis. All nerves which have their origin from below an injury of the medulla ſpinalis, loſe their ſenſe and motion. A member may be deprived of its motion, and yet not loſe its ſenſation, or it may loſe its ſenſation and retain its motion. Senſation remains ſome time after the limb is amputated. Preſſure makes a part paralytic. As the *nerves* are continuations of the medullary part of the brain and ſpinal marrow, it is probable that they are partly nouriſhed by thoſe veſſels which are ſpread on that production of the pia mater which ſurrounds them, in like manner as the brain derives it nouriſhment from the arteries of the pia mater; if this be the caſe, we may readily ſee why the *nerves* loſe their powers when they are wholly deprived of the arterial blood, and alſo retain them, in ſome meaſure, after the brain is oſſified and petrified.

The *nervous* fluid is often ſpoken of as ſynonimous with the animal ſpirits, &c. But Dr. Kirkland obſerves, in his Inquiry, vol. i. p. 433, that, by *nervous* fluid, we mean what we diſcover upon diſſecting the brain or *nerves*; and which a rupture in the tumour, accompanying the biſid ſpine, diſcovers to be eſſentially neceſſary to life: for we may eaſily ſuppoſe a fluid reſiding in the *nerves*, of ſuch high importance to life as it evidently appears to be, to bring on (when both the *nerves* and itſelf are diſeaſed) the *nervous* ſymptoms we diſcover before the gouty matter is thrown off into the extremities, &c. in other inſtances of diſeaſe.

There are many claſſes of *nerves* differing in ſmallneſs, and it is ſuppoſed that one claſs may remain entire, while another is ſomewhat hurt, and perhaps this is the cauſe of a gradual decline of the ſenſes.

It is alſo to be obſerved that ſome *nerves* are ſuſceptible of one impreſſion only, or with ſuch at leaſt as many others are not affected by; e. g. the ſemen ſtimulates the *nerves* of the teſticles and veſiculæ ſeminales, but of no other part; ſome aſſiſt in viſion, others ſmell, &c.

On the *nerves*, their uſe, &c. ſee Winſlow's Anatomy, where the *nerves* are very accurately deſcribed; Monro's Diſſ. on the Nerves; it is annexed at the end of his Oſteology; beſides theſe, the curious may conſult Steno, Vieuſſens, Willis, Ridley, Leuwenhoeck, and Ruyſch. See alſo Hale's Stat. Eſſays, vol. ii. p. 59, 60; Whytt on the Sympathy of the Nerves and Nervous Diſorders; Kirkland's Diſſ. on the Brain and Nerves, and on the Sympathy of the Nerves. Monro on the Structure, &c. of the Nerves.

NERVOSUS FEBRIS. The nervous fever. Under this name we may conſider nervous diſeaſes in general; they are a numerous kind of complaints. Sydenham ſays that fevers make two thirds of the diſorders to which men are ſubject, and the hyſteric (or, as we may ſay, nervous diſorders) one half of the reſt. From difference in degrees, or other circumſtances, the different denominations ariſe, and from a ſimple yawning to the outmoſt extreme of madneſs is the extent in which theſe varieties are manifeſted. In ſome the fever is latent, in others it is leſs obſcure, ſo that with its epithet it denominates the diſeaſe; whence ſome have defined nervous diſorders in their oppoſite extremes to be, the habitual or chronical, and the acute, nervous fever. Dr. Cullen places the nervous fever under the name of typhus, in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order febres.

When theſe diſorders are chronical, though the ſtomach, or guts, or other particular part may moſt be complained of, the cellular membrane is probably their immediate ſeat. When the caſe is acute, a contaminated lymph is the ſource of every morbid ſymptom.

The chronical kinds are called vapours, hyſterics, hypochondriac diſorder, &c. The acute is uſually denominated the *nervous fever*, little fever, ſlow fever, a fever on the ſpirits, &c.

Thoſe who have diſordered viſcera, lead ſedentary lives, are ſtudious, oppreſſed with long anxiety, who are eaſily affected by external occurrences, &c. are the moſt ſubject to nervous complaints.

The ſymptoms attendant on nervous complaints reſemble almoſt every diſorder that the human body is ſubject to: according to the part more immediately affected, and the peculiarities of the patient's conſtitution, the different diſeaſes proper to that part, will ſeem to preſent themſelves. As the occaſional cauſe then is, and the part in which its influence is exerted, the ſymptoms will be, wind in the ſtomach and bowels, heart-burning, ſour belching, ſqueamiſhneſs, and ejection of a watery fluid or other kind of matter from the ſtomach, a want of appetite, and indigeſtion, or an uncommon craving of food, and quick digeſtion, debility, faintneſs, a ſenſe of emptineſs about the ſtomach when hungry, a ſtrong deſire for uncommon food, inflations of the ſtomach, pain and cramp in the ſtomach, oppreſſion about the præcordia, uneaſy though not painful ſenſations about the ſtomach, low ſpiritedneſs, anxiety, timidity, ſtrong pulſations within the belly, ſpaſms in the bowels, diſtenſions of portions of the bowels, colic pains, a grumbling noiſe in the bowels from wind, the belly often lax, but more frequently coſtive, pains in the back and belly reſembling the gravel, a ſenſe of irritation and heat in the neck of the urethra, with a frequent deſire of making water, a copious diſcharge of limpid urine, frequent ſpitting, ſudden ſluſhes of heat all over the body, ſhiverings, a ſenſe of cold in certain parts as if water was poured on them, and at other times an univerſal glow, flying pains in the limbs, pain in the back and between the ſhoulders, pains attended with a hot ſenſation, ſhifting often from the ſides or back to the interior parts of the abdomen, cramps or convulſive motions of the muſcles, or of a few of their fibres, ſudden ſtartings of the legs or arms, frequent involuntary motion of the muſcles of the neck, or head, or arms, or legs; a general convulſion affecting at once the ſtomach, bowels, throat, legs, arms, and almoſt the whole body, in which the patient ſtruggles as in an epileptic fit; long faintings, which, in ſome inſtances, follow one another after ſhort intervals, palpitation of the heart, pulſe variable, a dry cough, with difficult

ficult breathing, or a conſtriction of the lungs, which in ſome perſons return periodically; yawning, hiccough, ſighing, a ſenſe of ſuffocation as if from a ball or a lump in the throat, crying, laughing; in the day the patient is moſtly cool, with a ſlow or natural pulſe, but in the time of ſleep hot flushes often ſpread over the whole body; the pulſe is quicker and ſtronger, and faintneſs or ſickneſs is felt; a giddineſs, eſpecially after riſing up haſtily; pains in the head, which in many return periodically; pain in a ſmall part of the head, which generally fixes on the crown, as if a nail was drove in; ſinging in the ears, dimneſs of ſight, miſt before the eyes, objects ſeen double, unuſual ſmells perceived, obſtinate watchings, ſometimes attended with uneaſineſs which is not to be deſcribed, but which is leſſened by getting out of bed; diſturbed ſleep, frightful dreams, night-mare, drowſineſs, fear, peeviſhneſs, ſadneſs, deſpair; at intervals the ſpirits are too active and gay, wandering thoughts, impaired memory, ridiculous fancies, ſtrange perſuaſions of their labouring under diſeaſes of which they are free, and imagining their complaints as dangerous as they find them troubleſome.

After being long afflicted with ſome of theſe (for they never are all attendant in the ſame perſon), the patient ſometimes becomes melancholy or mad, or goes into the black jaundice, a dropſy, the phthiſis pulmonalis, palſy, apoplexy, or other fatal diſtemper.

A fever coming on in patients much affected with theſe ſymptoms, or that is the effect of cauſes which will alſo produce them, forms the acute ſpecies of nervous diſorders, and the patient is then ſaid to labour under a *nervous fever*.

Thoſe who are liable to the above ſymptoms are diſtinguiſhed into the following claſſes.

1. Such as, though uſually in good health, are yet on account of a preternatural irritability of the nerves, apt to be affected frequently with violent tremors, palpitations, faintings and convulſions from fear and grief, ſurprize or other paſſions, and from whatever diſagreeably affects the more ſenſible parts of the body. Theſe may be called ſimply *nervous*.

2. Such as, beſides being liable to the ſymptoms mentioned in the firſt claſs, from the ſame cauſes, are always troubled with indigeſtion, flatulence, &c. may be ſaid to be hyſteric.

3. Thoſe who from a leſs delicate feeling are ſcarce ever affected with palpitation of the heart, fainting, &c. from diſturbed paſſions; but, on account of the diſordered ſtate of their ſtomach and bowels, are ſeldom free from indigeſtion, flatulence, want of appetite, or too great craving, and ſuch ſymptoms as therefrom ariſe; ſuch as belching, coſtiveneſs, oppreſſion about the precordia, low ſpirits, diſagreeable thoughts, diſturbed ſleep, &c. may be ranked as hypochondriac.

4. When a fever is manifeſt in a patient attended with nervous ſymptoms, or when a fever coming on from a cauſe which induces nervous ſymptoms, the diſorder is called a *nervous fever*. The ſymptoms of which are well deſcribed by Hippocrates as follow: "There are frequent tranſient chillineſſes in the day; a giddineſs or miſt before the eyes; a liſtleſſneſs, with great laſſitude and wearineſs all over the body; frequent yawnings, with little flying pains; dozing; inappetency; dryneſs of the lips and tongue; ſighings, with great and unaccountable anxiety; deliriouſneſs and forgetfulneſs by fits; oppreſſion and pain about the region of the heart and ſtomach; difficulty of breathing by intervals; the tongue generally white, but ſometimes redder than ordinary, together with a heat in it; a low, quick, unequal pulſe; heat and thirſt, but moderate; pale urine, often and ſuddenly made; frequent nauſeas and flushings; faintings on every the leaſt motion and ſurprize; cold clammy ſweats by turns; theſe, more or leſs, uſually accompany the *nervous fever*, and will continue thirty or forty days, unleſs ſtupors, ſyncopes, and death, end the ſcene before." Huxham deſcribes the *nervous fever* admirably; and Sir Richard Manningham, in his Febricula, is very particular in his deſcription of it, and to the above ſymptoms he adds, that the pathognomonic ſigns are:

1. A low, quick, and unequal pulſe, that is, it is ſwift, frequent and large, then preſently it becomes low and quick, &c. alternately; this, he obſerves, is its greateſt inequality, and is a characteriſtic of this fever.

2. A heat in the tongue, without much thirſt.

In all diſeaſes the nerves ſuffer more or leſs; but nervous diſeaſes are ſuch as ariſe firſt from a peculiar or preternatural irritability of the nerves in general, or of thoſe in any part in particular; whence, what is applied to them, whether of a morbid quality or not, may alike be productive of that variety of ſymptoms which form the deſcription above given; or, ſecondly, from the peculiar quality of ſuch morbid humours, &c. whoſe moſt manifeſt effects are from the diſorders which they excite in the nervous ſyſtem. But, perhaps, the firſt may more ſtrictly be called nervous, though the ſecond enlarge the liſts of diſorders ſo called, conſiderably.

The remote cauſes are numerous; they are violent paſſions; long continued ones in leſs degrees, ſuch as grief, fear, &c. indolence; exerciſe beyond the ſupplies received for a due ſupport; eager purſuits, whether of pleaſure or buſineſs, irregularity in diet, or in the general manner of living, a cold damp, or a hot and moiſt air, ſudden and great changes in the climate, defective perſpiration, exceſſive evacuations, and indeed whatever much leſſens the vis vitæ.

The immediate cauſes are a defect of vital heat, an acrimony from contagion, or from ſome other cauſe; and ſometimes the remote cauſe, viz. the peculiar or preternatural ſenſibility of the nerves is the immediate cauſe, as when nervous affections are excited by what in a natural or healthy ſtate of the nerves would be unperceived.

Many circumſtances occur to, or are attendant on, perſons ſubject to nervous diſorders, which prove occaſional cauſes; ſuch are flatulence in the ſtomach and bowels, worms, &c. there; ſchirrhous obſtructions in any of the abdominal viſcera, &c.

And as to the acute ſpecies, or *nervous fever*, if whatever can excite fever, is attendant on any of the immediate cauſes of nervous diſorders in general, there will no more be required to produce it.

Nervous diſeaſes, it is already obſerved, reſemble almoſt every other diſeaſe which affect the human frame, and oftentimes it is very difficult to diſtinguiſh thoſe ſemblances from thoſe which are reſembled; for, as ſcarce any part of the body is without nerves, and very few altogether without feeling, the nerves muſt not only ſuffer, when they themſelves, or the brain, or the ſpinal marrow are primarily affected, but alſo when the other parts are diſeaſed; and hence the difficulty, perhaps impoſſibility, of fixing a certain criterion by which nervous diſorders may at once be diſtinguiſhed from all thoſe not ſo called; though, in ſome inſtances, a ſmall degree of attention will enable us ſo to do.

The prognoſtics in nervous diſorders, of the chronical as well as of the acute, are both difficultly formed and uncertain; in the firſt, if the diſeaſe is recent and left to itſelf, it is rather troubleſome than dangerous; but a faulty treatment may be productive of other complaints, that are both difficult of cure and dangerous. In the ſecond, the favourable ſigns are, the ſymptoms being ſlight; the pulſe becoming fuller on the uſe of cardiacs; if toward the end of the diſeaſe a gentle ſweat or diarrhœa, but particularly if a ſalivation without aphthæ break out; or if miliary eruptions appear, without any preceding profuſe ſweat: the leſs favourable ones are, a coldneſs of the extremities, whilſt the reſt of the body is warm and perſpires; the fauces becoming livid; and reddiſh or purple ſpots appearing on the ſkin; but the following are fatal, viz. a trembling of the tongue, the nails becoming livid, the ſight failing or being nearly loſt, the delirium changing to a coma, the excrements diſcharged involuntary, and the tendons twitching.

However troubleſome *nervous* diſorders are, they have this advantage, viz. that their ſubjects are not very liable to thoſe of the inflammatory kind, and rarely, if ever, ſuffer much from them. But, before a cure is attempted, the patient ſhould be informed that his diſorder admits of relief, but hardly of a radical cure; for the remaining diſpoſition to be ſtrongly affected by ſlight cauſes, not being changed, relapſes are ſo eaſily occaſioned, that a continuance of health, when all manifeſt ſymptoms are removed,

moved, cannot be promiſed. Secondly, that without perſeverance in the uſe of means, no advantage can be expected. Theſe patients poſſeſs a degree of deſpair which makes them catch at every means of relief, more as charms than medicine; to this, and not to the inſufficiency of well ordered preſcriptions, the frequent want of ſucceſs is to be imputed. Mankind are highly pleaſed with ſudden miraculous cures, but their adherence to them is often fatal. Indeed, when nature fails, and ſtrength is inſufficient for co-operating with medicines, no expectations can be indulged.

The general indications of cure will be,

1. To palliate the ſymptoms.

2. To leſſen or remove the morbid irritability of the *nerves*.

3. To correct the occaſional cauſes, eſpecially the morbid ones.

1. To palliate the ſymptoms, the moſt remarkable of which, with the method of relief, are as follow:

Convulſive motions, or fixed ſpaſms. In theſe caſes, if ſlight, a gentle opiate given an hour before the approach of the fit, when its return can be gueſſed at, will often prevent it; but, in the more violent inſtances, bleeding ſhould precede, and then opiates muſt be given freely, both as to the largeneſs of the doſe and the frequency of the repetition. Beſides this, which of all others is the moſt powerful, the following in different degrees, and on different occaſions, afford the wiſhed-for relief; they are camphor, caſtor, muſk, fetid gums, æther, volatile alkaline ſpirits, &c. To theſe may be added, the warm bath, ſemicupiums, pedilaves, emollient clyſters, and warm fomentations. Sometimes the ſpaſms in one part are relieved by painful applications on another, ſuch as bliſters, acrid cataplaſms, and frictions; fear or ſurprize, when they can be prudently excited, may produce the moſt deſirable effect. Bandages tightly applied to the part affected, and continued for a ſhort time, will often procure relief. The particular cauſe being diſcovered, and the particular diſpoſition of the patient being attended to, will aſſiſt in determining which of theſe methods may moſt likely be ſucceſsful.

Fainting with convulſions. If the pulſe admits of it, bleeding ſhould be the firſt means uſed; the ſtrongeſt acid ſpirits ſhould be held to the noſe, or, in want of them, take the fetid and volatile alkaline ſpirits; hot bricks may be applied to the feet, and the legs, arms, and belly may be ſtrongly rubbed; or, if convenient, the legs may be put into water that is blood warm, or rather more ſo; and as ſoon as the patient can ſwallow, if the conſtitution is ſanguine and plethoric, give a draught of water, with a large ſpoonful or more of ſharp vinegar in it; but if the habit is lax and feeble, a gentle cordial is to be preferred.

Pain with cramps in the ſtomach. If there is a tendency to vomit, waſh the ſtomach with a few draughts of chamomile tea, after which give from fifty to eighty drops of the tinct. Theb. in ſix ounces of warm water, by way of clyſter. If the cramps return the clyſter ſhould be repeated; muſk ſhould be given in large doſes with ſome cordial liquid, the anodyne balſam may be rubbed on the region of the ſtomach, or the patient may be put into a warm half bath. Except great weakneſs forbids, bleeding ſhould be uſed, if the pain is violent.

Indigeſtion and vomiting, with pains in the ſtomach. When theſe happen from faulty humours in the ſtomach, vomits, gentle bitter purges, the teſtacea, elixir of vitriol, &c. are proper. If too great ſenſibility in the ſtomach is the cauſe, beſides ſtrengthening the ſtomach with the bark, bitters, &c. from five to thirty drops of laudanum may be taken an hour before dinner and ſupper. In ſome inſtances, a draught of warm water with a little brandy, after the principal meals, prevents thoſe ſymptoms.

An hyſteric or flatulent colic. If there is coſtiveneſs, give a laxative clyſter with a dram or two of aſſa fœtida diſſolved in it; and if there are troubleſome vomitings, after ſeveral draughts of water in which toaſted bread hath been boiled, give the ſame draughts with pepper-mint water, and a few drops of Thebaic tincture in each: or, if the Thebaic tincture was given clyſter-wiſe in warm-water, and the ſaline mixtures few allowed whilſt in the act of effervescence, the effects will be more certain and ſpeedy; beſides, if a thorough paſſage can be procured by means of a few pills with calomel and aloes, this operation will be much favoured by the opiate clyſters, and thus the ſymptom is, for this moſt part, effectually removed.

Flatulence in the ſtomach and bowels. Beſides keeping the body ſolutive, draughts of warm water may be taken, in which is a ſmall quantity of pepper-mint water, brandy, ſpirit of nitre, or ſpirit of hartſhorn, according as one or other are obſerved to be moſt generally uſeful; with ſome a little elixir of vitriol anſwers this purpoſe, and others require a few drops of laudanum.

The *nervous* or ſpaſmodic aſthma. Bleeding according to the ſtate of the pulſe, and repeated doſes of the paregoric elixir, uſually ſucceed. Or if the wind in the ſtomach cauſes or increaſes this ſymptom, a ſolution of aſſa fœtida with a little ſpirit of hartſhorn will be a uſeful help. But if the aſthma is attended with fixed obſtructions of the lungs, or a conſiderable accumulation of phlegm, opiates muſt be omitted, and bleeding, with bliſters, uſed in their ſtead; the lac ammon. with aſſa fœtida, will alſo be proper. To prevent returns, be careful to ſupply the patient with every proper means for recovering and eſtabliſhing the ſtrength of the conſtitution in general.

A palpitation of the heart. If this ſymptom ariſes from ſympathy when the ſtomach is weak and diſordered, for preſent relief give an opiate; and then go on to recover the healthy ſtate of the ſtomach. If the matter of the gout, &c. be repelled, and occaſions this diſorder, the proper means of relief will be warm ſtomachics, laxatives, camphor, volatile ſalts, warm pedilaves, bliſters on the legs, ſinapiſm on the feet, and, if plethoric, bleeding. If ſuppreſſed evacuations are the cauſe, they are not to be reſtored, or if polypi, &c. produce it, the beſt palliatives are, frequent ſmall bleedings, gentle purges, cooling attenuants, a light diet, and the avoiding of all that hurries either body or mind.

An immoderate diſcharge of pale urine. An opiate, mixt with any convenient vehicle, gives the ſpeedieſt relief.

Periodical head-achs. After thoſe general methods which uſually remove diſorders in the ſtomach, ſuch as crudities and indigeſtion, give the bark in an infuſion of valerian root; but, if the caſe is ſymptomatic, regard muſt be had to the original diſeaſe.

Low-ſpiritedneſs. The cold-bath is, in general, the beſt help in this caſe; but, beſides this, the particular cauſe of the *nervous* diſorders in general which affect the patient, ſhould be adverted to, and alſo of this ſymptom in particular; ſuch as a diſordered ſtomach, grief, obſtructed uſual evacuations, &c. each of which muſt be remedied before ſucceſs can be expected.

2. To leſſen or remove the morbid irritability of the nerves.

The medicines adapted to this end are, ſuch as not only ſtrengthen the ſtomach in particular, but alſo the whole conſtitution; and alſo thoſe which, by their peculiar action on the *nerves* to which they are applied, leſſen for a time the too great ſenſibility of the general ſyſtem; and of this kind are,

Bitters. Of which the propereſt are gentian root, the tops of the leſſer centaury, and the yellow rinds of Sevil oranges; theſe may be infuſed in ſtrong white wine; but if the ſtomach is diſturbed with acidities, in which caſe a peculiar coldneſs is alſo felt there, an infuſion in boiling water will be the beſt, and to this a proper quantity of brandy may be added: if theſe heat too much, add a little of the elix. vitr. to each doſe. Sometimes it happens that bitters lie heavy on the ſtomach, and leſſen the appetite, in this caſe omit and proceed with other means.

Bark. This ſtrengthens more and heats leſs than any of the bitter kind of medicines. It may be given in ſuch forms and in conjunction with any other means as preſent circumſtances render neceſſary. Joined with bitters, and given in a ſpiritual vehicle, it generally anſwers the intention of preſcribing it.

Elixir of vitriol. When this kind of preparation agrees with the ſtomach, twenty or thirty drops may be taken twice a day in a glaſs of water or brandy and water. It ſtrengthens the ſtomach, reſtores a decayed appetite, and

both allays flatulence, and helps digeſtion. When the tongue is white, and ſome degree of thirſt attends, from a heat in the ſtomach, it moderates the ſame, and relieves all its conſequent ſymptoms.

Iron. Few, if any, medicines ſo remarkably ſtrengthen the ſtomach and bowels, and indeed the whole habit, as preparations of this kind. The beſt preparation is the ſimple filings, juſt as they fall from under the file, if they can be complied with, notwithſtanding the ſymptoms which they ſometimes excite. From five to twenty grains or more may be taken three times a day; but if the filings offend, the tincture, or other preparations, may be tried. Preparations of iron ſometimes ſucceed beſt in conjunction with the bark and bitters. The Bath waters excel in diſorders of the *nervous* kind.

As theſe medicines require a long continued uſe before any good can be expected from them, the bark and bitters may be taken during the winter and ſpring, now and then intermitting their uſe for a week or two; and in ſummer uſe ſuch preparations of iron as are found moſt convenient; this direction is principally to be regarded when the waters are drank from ferrugineous ſprings.

Cold bathing. This ſhould be regularly continued during the ſpring, ſummer, and autumn quarters. Thoſe with ſpare habits may go into the bath twice or thrice a week; but the more corpulent or fleſhy may go in daily.

It ſhould be noted that, though all theſe are recommended, they are not all to be uſed at once, but ſingly or in conjunction, at the diſcretion of the preſcriber; and further, when the patient hath a quick pulſe and a preternatural heat, inſtead of bitters and iron, the bark with the vitriolic elixir will be moſt proper.

Air. If the air is hot, whether from the ſun or a fire, it injures *nervous* patients; and, whether hot or cold, if it is moiſt, the worſt nervous ſymptoms will thereby be produced; ſo that a dry air is always to be choſen, and a cool or warm one, as the ſenſations of the patient may direct.

Food. The ſolid part of diet ſhould be ſuch as affords a due degree of nouriſhment with the leaſt trouble to the ſtomach. All exceſs is hurtful, ſo are fat meats, and rich ſauces.

Wine. Much wine, and indeed of any liquid, after eating, retards digeſtion in weak ſtomachs. The beſt time to take wine or other cordials is when the ſtomach is nearly empty. If thoſe whoſe ſtomachs are weak, and upon motion, have hot qualms, are languid, and apt to ſweat, were, on ſuch occaſions, to eat a morſel of bread and drink a glaſs or two of wine, their ſtrength would be ſpeedily recruited, and every diſagreeable affection would vaniſh.

Exerciſe. Without this the beſt remedies may fail. Riding ſhakes the body equally, and more than walking does, and fatigues it leſs: and, whatever mode of exerciſing is engaged in, the laſt meal ſhould be nearly digeſted before attempting it.

Amuſement. As nothing injures the ſtomach more than depreſſing paſſions, chearfulneſs muſt be contained.

3. To correct the occaſional cauſes, eſpecially the morbid ones, ſuch as

Morbid matter in the blood. In many inſtances we cannot diſcover this; but when it is manifeſt, as when a wandering gout attends, ſuch means as leſſen its increaſe, or determine it to the extreme parts, are immediately to be preſcribed, and ſteadily perſiſted in. If there is a ſcorbutic, leprous, or other kind of acrimony, means adapted to each reſpectively will be the proper method for removing thoſe *nervous* ſymptoms depending on it.

A diminution or ſuppreſſion of natural evacuations. When theſe are obſerved to give riſe to *nervous* diſorders, they muſt be recalled; and in the mean time the *nervous* ſymptoms muſt be palliated.

The drying up of old ulcers, and the ſudden retiring of pimples on the face. In theſe caſes gentle purging, perpetual bliſters, and iſſues, are the only means, except the ulcers can be made to diſcharge afreſh, and the pimples to return.

A want of craſſamentum in the blood. In this caſe, whilſt troubleſome *nervous* ſymptoms are palliated by means of cordial and anodyne medicines, whatever attending diſorder can conduce to the diminiſhing of the craſſamentum, muſt be removed: and by means of ſuch medicines and aliments as are beſt adapted to this end, the blood muſt be repleniſhed. Beſides a light cordial and nouriſhing diet, moderate exerciſe, a dry air, the bark, aromatics and preparations of iron, will be the beſt.

Tough phlegm in the ſtomach and bowels. Gentle but repeated emetics, after which, to ſtrengthen the ſtomach, bitters, chalybeates, and exerciſe, will be neceſſary; and to reſtore the ſecretory veſſels to an healthy ſtate, give the tinct. facr. frequently in ſmall doſes. According as the phlegm abounds, more or leſs, repeat the emetic every ſecond or third week, and work it off with warm water, in which is a little flower of muſtard. Beſides theſe, as lime water diſſolves phlegm in the ſtomach, a quart at leaſt ſhould be drank at three times every day; the firſt draught may be taken an hour before breakfaſt, the ſecond as long before dinner, and the third the ſame diſtance of time before ſupper.

Aliments noxious from their quality or quantity. Whether a habit is formed of eating too freely or too ſparingly, let the error be gradually avoided. Valetudinarians ſhould never eat ſo much at a time as to incommode them either for buſineſs or ſtudy. As to the quality of what is eaten, ſuch things ſhould be avoided as reſt uneaſily on the ſtomach, creates flatulence, or is very fat.

Violent affections of the mind. Beſides other general methods recommended in *nervous* diſorders, diverting the mind by proper objects in the day, and an opiate at night, are the moſt proper, except it be the fruition of the object in caſes of diſappointment.

When a fever attends, or in the *nervous* fever. Bliſters ſhould be applied early; by their ſtimulus and the drain they occaſion, their advantage overbalances their inconveniences; the patient ſhould be kept in bed: light cordials, with diaphoretics, volatiles, and as early a uſe of the bark as poſſible, are the principal remedies. To moderate the feveriſh heat, Clutton's febrifuge ſpirit, joined with any proper cordial, and taken in all the patient's drink, is a moſt agreeable medicine. The ſp. nitri D. very effectually abates the ſickneſs which often attends.

In this kind of fever there is rarely any extraordinary degree of plethora, ſo there is as rarely any remarkable critical diſcharge obſerved. In giving the cordial, diaphoretic medicines with volatiles, as above directed, their too free uſe will produce a ſweating, which keeps up the fever; therefore, to ſecure the proper medium, obſerve the urine; if from being pale, it aſſumes an amber colour, the doſes are duly proportioned, and that more eſpecially if when in bed a kindly moiſture comes on without reſtleſſneſs. As ſoon as a turbidneſs appears in the urine, give the bark with cordials. For procuring ſleep in *nervous* fevers, a few grains of flor. mart. are by many preferred to every other means. A ſymptom of all others the moſt to be dreaded in this diſorder, is madneſs, which ſometimes comes on when women are much reduced in child-bed; is this caſe carefully avoid bleeding and all elſe that can leſſen the vis vitæ, and ſteadily adhere to the cordial diaphoretic method in general uſed to remove the *nervous* fever, and to theſe add the extract of bark with the flor. mart.

On *nervous* diſorders, amongſt the ancients, ſee Hippocrates, Aretæus, Fernelius, Duretus, Hellerius, Mercurialis, &c. Among thoſe of later date, ſee Sydenham, Hoffman, Shebbeare's Practice of Phyſic, Smith's Diſſertation on the Nerves and Nervous Diſeaſes, Whytt on Nervous Diſeaſes, Huxham, Hume, and Sir Richard Manningham on the Nervous Fever.

NERVORUM RESOLUTIONES, i. e. Comata.

NERVINUM OLEUM, i. e. ol. viride Ph. Lond.

NESTIS. A name of the inteſtinum jejunum.

NEURAS. A name for the poterion, a ſpecies of tragacantha.

NEUROCHONDRODES, from νευρον, *a nerve*, and χονδρος, *a cartilage*.

NEUROLOGIA. Neurology. A deſcription of the nerves.

NEUROMETERES. The pſoai muſcles.

NEURON. A nerve.

NEUROSES, from νευρον, *a nerve*. Nervous Diſeaſes. Theſe form a claſs in Dr. Cullen's Noſology; and under this

this title he comprehends thoſe preternatural affections of ſenſe or motion, which are without fever, as a part of the primary diſeaſe; and all thoſe which do not depend upon a topical affection of the organs, but upon a more general affection of the *nervous* ſyſtem, and of thoſe powers on which ſenſe and motion more eſpecially depend.

NEUROTICA. Nervous medicines.

NEUROTOMIA, from *νευρον, a nerve.* An anatomical diſſection of the nerve.

NEUROTROTOS, from *νευρον, a nerve,* and *τιτρωσκω, to wound.* A perſon who labours under a *wound* of a *nerve.*

NEUTER. Neutral. In chemiſtry this word is applied to ſuch ſalts as are formed of ſuch proportions of acid and alkali that neither of them predominate in the compound. There are many ſalts of this kind, which yet have different qualities from each other; ſome of them are natural, and others are artificial. They have a more extenſive uſe in medicine than any other kind. In general they are cathartic, and when mixed with human fluids, they produce no change there.

NEUTHA. Thus that part of the membrane is called which is torne away, and covers a part of the whole face of a child at its birth.

NHAMBI [Brasiliensibus]. A plant in Braſil, whoſe leaves, when chewed, taſte like muſtard or maſturtium, and if rubbed on a bubo preſently remove it. See Raii Hiſt.

NHANDU, alſo called piper caudatum. It is a ſmall ſhrub which grows in the woods in Braſil, and bears a ſpecies of katkins, full of round blackiſh ſeeds, as large as thoſe of the poppy, and with a taſte much reſembling that of pepper. See Raii Hiſt.

NICKEL. It is a kind of ſemi-metal. It is contained in the reddiſh yellow mineral, called kupfernickel, which, beſides *nickel,* contains iron, regulus of cobalt, arſenic and ſulphur. See Dict. of Chem.

NICOLAUS PRÆPOSITUS. He was of Tours, and was the firſt who writ a general Diſpenſatory, which was publiſhed about the middle or latter end of the fifteenth century.

NICON. A name for hellebore.

NICOTIANA, called alſo petum, tabacum, hyoſciamus Peruvianus, picelt. Tobacco. It is the *nicotiana* tabacum, Linn. It is a plant with alternate leaves and monopetalous tubulous flowers, divided into five ſections; the flowers are followed by an oval capſule, which opening longitudinally, ſheds numerous ſmall ſeeds. Its root is annual. It is ſown in ſpring, and flowers in July. Boerhaave mentions four ſpecies, but there are ſeveral more.

NICOTIANA. Tobacco. It hath large ſharp pointed pale green ſoft leaves, about two feet in length, joined immediately to the ſtalk without pedicles. It was brought into Europe by M. Nicott, a Frenchman, from whom it is called *Nicotiana*; he brought it from the iſland of Tobago, in America, about the year 1560; but is now cultivated in many parts of Europe. Sir Francis Drake firſt brought it into England, and Sir Walter Raleigh firſt made its uſe a ſort of faſhion amongſt us.

The leaves have a ſtrong diſagreeable ſmell, and a burning acrid taſte; they give out their active parts both to water and to ſpirit, but moſt perfectly to the latter, but yield nothing conſiderable by diſtillation with either; nevertheleſs their acrimony is much abated in inſpiſſation of the tincture, the watery extract being leſs pungent than the leaves themſelves, and the ſpirituous not much more ſo. The American *tobacco* is ſtronger than that which is raiſed in England, and affords a more fiery extract, though in leſs quantity.

If *tobacco* is taken inwardly in a ſmall doſe, or if a decoction of it is uſed as a clyſter, it proves violently cathartic and emetic, occaſioning extreme anxiety, vertigoes, ſtupors, and diſorders of the ſenſes; however, ſome have ventured on it in ſome obſtinate chronical diſorders. By long boiling in water its deleterious power is abated, and at length deſtroyed. The ſmoke of *tobacco* received by the anus is of ſingular efficacy in obſtinate conſtipations of the belly, for deſtroying aſcarides, and for recovering men that ſeem to be drowned.

Tobacco is ſometimes uſed in lotions and unguents for cleanſing foul ulcers, and deſtroying cutaneous inſects; it is deſtructive to all inſects whether in the vegetable or animal world. Beat into a poultice with vinegar, and applied to the hypochondres, it hath diſcuſſed tumors there.

A conſtant chewing of *tobacco* deſtroys the appetite by depriving the conſtitution of too much ſaliva; however, though it is improper for lean, dry and hectic habits, it is uſeful to the more groſs, to thoſe of very moiſt temperaments, and thoſe who are ſubject to diſeaſes of the colder kind. When the gums are ſurcharged with rheum, or when the lungs are œdomatous, *tobacco* may be uſeful as an errhine. Snuff never hurts, if not ſwallowed, but is better omitted by thoſe who are inclined to an apoplexy. The oil of the *tobacco* which aſcends in the ſmoak, blackens the teeth, and decays them.

NICOTIANA MINOR, called alſo hyociamus luteus, priapeia. Yellow henbane, Engliſh tobacco. Its leaves are ſhort, and ſomewhat oval, and ſet on pedicles; by theſe three characters it is diſtinguiſhed from the American ſorts, with which it agrees in their qualities, but is weaker. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works; Edinb. Med. Eſſays, vol. ii. art. 5.

NIDOR. The ſmell of burnt animal ſubſtances; hence eructations, which have a ſavour like putrefied fleſh, are called nidorous.

NIGELLA. It is a plant whoſe root is annual, leaves capillaceous, and flower roſaceous. Boerhaave enumerates ten ſpecies. The ſort formerly uſed as a medicine, was the *nigella* ſativa, Linn.

NIGELLA ARVENSIS, alſo called melanthium. Wild fennel flower.

NIGELLA ROMANA, alſo called gith, melanthium. Fennel flower.

It is called *nigella,* as it were nigrella, from the black colour of the ſeeds; alſo melanthium, i. e. black flower, though the flowers are not black; and melaſpermum, black ſeed.

This plant in none of its ſpecies, are in uſe with us; they are ſaid to be aperitive, reſolvent, diuretic, and carminative. The ſeeds poſſeſs ſimilar virtues, but are alſo expectorant. See Raii Hiſt.

NIGELLASTRUM, called alſo pſeudomelanthium, lychnis ſegetum major, nigella officin. lychnoides ſegetum, cockle, or corn campion. It is Boerhaave's ſixth ſpecies of lychnis; the ſeeds are uſeful in flatulent diſorders, but are rarely uſed. The plant grows amongſt corn, and flowers in June and July. See Raii Hiſt.

NIHIL ALBUM, i. e. Album Græcum.

NIHIL GRISEUM. See Spodium.

NIGRA VITIS. The black vine.

NIGRA FABRILIS. Black lead.

NIGRITIES [Os]. So the antients called a caries.

NIGUAS. So the Spaniards call the worms which get under the toes off the Indians, and which are deſtroyed by the oil from the ſhells of caſhew nuts.

NIIR-NOTSJIL. A kind of tree, or ſhrub, in Malabar; the leaves of which when eaten with rue, are ſaid to cure the lues venerea. See Raii Hiſt.

NIIR-PONGELION. A tree which reſembles the pear-tree, and grows in Malabar. The fruit is eaten by parrots; the ſeeds are uſed, with other ingredients, for making an antiſpaſmodic liniment. See Raii Hiſt.

NIL, i. e. Indicum, and colinil.

NILA HUMMATU. A name for two ſpecies of the datura Malabarica. Both theſe ſpecies very much reſemble the ſtramonium. See Raii Hiſt.

NILENT SIUNDA. Common night-ſhade.

NILICA-MARAM. A kind of Indian plum.

NIMBO ACOSTÆ, called alſo aria bepou; azedarach. It is a tall tree in the iſland of Zeylon, and other parts of the Eaſt Indies. It reſembles an aſh; the fruit is like an olive, and from it an oil is expreſſed, for ſtaining cottons with. The leaves are uſed to deſtroy worms. See Raii Hiſt.

NINDSIN, Ninzen, or Ninzin, i. e. Ginſeng.

NIRLES. So the meaſles are called in the north parts of Great Britain.

NIRUALA. A large tree in Malabar, whoſe leaves provoke urine, though only externally applied. See Raii Hiſt.

NIRURI. An Indian bacciferous ſhrub, of which there are two kinds.

NISI. Blancard ſays, it is ginſeng.

NISSOLIA. Crimſon graſs vetch. It reſembles lathyrus in every thing, except that the leaves ſtand ſingle, and have no tendrils, but are like the leaves of the geniſta fagittalis. It is alſo called lathyrus ſylveſtris minor, and ervum ſylveſtre.

NITRIALES. All things capable of reducing to a calx, as nitre, ſulphur, &c.

NITRUM. Nitre. Called alſo Sal Petræ, Helinitrum, and Salt Petre. It is a neutral ſalt, formed by the coalition of the common vegetable fixed alkaline ſalt, with a peculiar acid; it hath a ſharp penetrating taſte; it is compoſed of near equal quantities of volatile and fixed nitrous aerial ſalts; it is ſoluble in eight times its weight of very cold water; and in leſs than three times its weight of water, which is temperately warm; and in one third its weight of boiling water. Dr. Alſton obſerves, that when the atmoſphere is temperate, two ounces of water diſſolves half a dram of *nitre*. A ſaturate ſolution of *nitre*, ſet to cryſtallize, ſhoots into cryſtals like ſprig cryſtals; but on evaporating part of the fluid firſt, it concretes into tranſparent colourleſs cryſtals, of an hexagonal priſmatic ſhape, terminating in pyramids of the ſame number of ſides. In a moderate heat it melts as thin as water, and when heated to ignition, it deflagrates on the contact of any inflammable ſubſtance, with a bright flame, and a conſiderable hiſſing noiſe; and leaving, after detonation, its fixt alkaline ſalt, the acid being deſtroyed by the act of accenſion, and thus is produced the

Nitrum *Fixum*.

Take of powdered *nitre*, four ounces; of powdered charcoal, five drams; mix them well by rubbing in a mortar; then inject the mixture by a little at a time, in a red-hot crucible. A deflagration, with a hiſſing noiſe, happens on each injection; the whole quantity being thus deflagrated, continue the fire ſtrong for half an hour. Thus the acid of the *nitre* is either deſtroyed, or changed to another nature, and the remaining ſalt differs not from the ſalt of tartar, except that a very minute portion of the *nitre* generally remains unchanged. This *nitrum fixum* is purified by ſolution in water, filtration, and evaporation. It muſt be kept cloſe from the air. Dr. Alſton ſays, it is a ſtyptic, and of the nature of alum; but it is rarely uſed, except for the making the tinct. nitri, which does not appear to differ from the tinct. ſal. tart.

The origin of the acid of *nitre* is unknown. It is true, that common waters, both atmoſpherical and ſubterraneous, often contain a little of this acid in combination with earthy and other bodies, ſo as to yield by cryſtallization, on ſupplying the vegetable fixt alkali, a perfect *nitre*; and that when animal and vegetable ſubſtances, mixed with porous and abſorbent earths, have been expoſed to the air till they are thoroughly rotted, they are found in like manner to contain a ſmall portion of *nitre*, or of nitrous acid, ſo as to give out a little *nitre* to water, either without addition, or on being ſupplied with the proper alkaline baſis. On this foundation *nitre* is prepared in ſeveral parts of Europe; where they expoſe earth, wet with urine, or animal dung, to abſorb the aeral acid; on ſea coaſts, ſheds are made over heaps of vegetable ſubſtances, both the marine and others; of animal ſubſtances, as the entrails, &c. of beaſts and fiſhes, the rubbiſh of old buildings, &c. promiſcuouſly jumbled together, and open to the air, but covered from rain: on the ſurface of theſe heaps, a nitrous cruſt is found. The greateſt quantities are brought to us from Perſia and the Eaſt Indies; but whether it is there a natural or artificial production, is not known. It is brought to us crude, and of different complexions, as grey, blackiſh, &c. but that which is of a blackiſh caſt is the beſt, as it requires only a bare ſolution, colation, and cryſtallization for purifying it. Very often it is mixed with ſea-ſalt, from which it is purified as follows:

Nitrum *Purificatum*.

Boil *nitre* in water until it is diſſolved; filter the ſolution through paper, evaporate, and ſet it to cryſtallize in a cool place. The liquor which remains after cryſtallization may be further evaporated, and ſet to ſhoot as before; but this proceſs muſt not be too long protracted. The uſual method of evaporating for cryſtallization is till a pellicle appears; but this direction fails in *nitre*, for it does not contract a pellicle: here, when the liquor is become ready for ſhooting, a little ſhould be taken up in a ſpoon; as it cools, the ſalt will begin to ſhew itſelf in threads. In this proceſs, the ſea-ſalt is all ſeparated, for it remains diſſolved, after the greateſt part of the *nitre* hath cryſtallized. The cryſtals which ſhoot after the ſecond evaporation, are not totally free from the ſalt; but the refiners purify it ſo well, that ſuch as is found in the ſhops is perfectly fit for uſe.

Geoffroy ſays, that *nitre* loſes in melting half its weight of watery moiſture, and recovers this again on being diſſolved and cryſtallized; whence, it ſeems, that one part of melted *nitre* is equal to two parts of the cryſtals; but on making the experiment, his obſervation is not found true.

To improve the virtue of *nitre*, it is deflagrated with ſulphur; by which a portion of the nitrous acid paſſes off with the ſulphur; and as Dr. Alſton obſerves, the *nitre* is thus rendered a little leſs cooling. The proceſs is as follows, and when finiſhed, the preparation is called

Sal Prunellæ.

Take two pounds of pure *nitre*; melt it in a crucible, or in an iron pot; then ſprinkle into it by little, and little, the flowers of ſulphur, waiting each time until the deflagration is over, and then add more, until an ounce has been thus conſumed; then with an iron ladle take it out, and caſt it into moulds of what ſhape you pleaſe. If the ſulphur is in a larger proportion, its effects will be to change the *nitre* into a different medicine; as is inſtanced in the

Sal Polychreſtum.

Take of pure *nitre*, melt it in an iron pan, and then add by little and little, an equal weight of the flowers of ſulphur, waiting until the deflagration of one portion is over before another is added; when all the ſulphur is expended, continue the *nitre* over the fire for an hour. Thus the acid of the *nitre*, and the inflammable principle of the ſulphur, detonate together, and are diſſipated; whilſt the acid of the ſulphur (which is the ſame as the vitriolic acid) remains combined with the alkaline baſis of the *nitre*. For this ſal polychreſtum, the *nitrum vitriolatum* is ſubſtituted; Dr. Alſton ſays, that this ſalt much reſembles the tart. vitr. but is rather more acid, and that a doſe of half a dram is diaphoretic; a dram, is diuretic; and two drams cathartic. The ſalt may be obtained by pouring gradually on *nitre*, the pure acid of vitriol, or ſulphur; this acid decompoſes the nitrous acid, which flies off immediately in yellow or red fumes, and may be collected in a retort, with a moderate heat, and is the

Spiritus Nitri, or Spiritus Nitri Glauberi.

Put two pounds of *nitre* into a retort; add, by degrees, one pound of the oil of vitriol, diluted with an equal quantity of warm water; diſtil it in a ſand-heat gradually increaſed, till the matter remains dry. The ſpirit is rectified, by a ſecond diſtillation, with the heat of a water-bath, in a glaſs cucurbit, with its head and receiver; the phlegm ariſes, leaving the ſpirit behind.

One pound of the oil of vitriol expels all the acid from about two pounds of *nitre*, but not from more: ſome add equal parts of the two; but in both caſes, the ſpirit is the ſame, the difference affecting only the reſiduum. If two parts of *nitre* are taken, to one of oil of vitriol, the remaining alkaline baſis of the *nitre*, is completely ſaturated with the vitriolic acid; and the reſult is a neutral ſalt, the ſame as the vitriolated tartar: if more *nitre* is uſed, a part of the *nitre* in ſubſtance will remain behind, blended with this vitriolated ſalt; if leſs *nitre* cannot afford alcali enough to ſaturate the vitriolic acid, and the reſiduum will not be a neutral, but a very acid ſalt. In this laſt caſe, one advantage attends; the acid

ſalt is readily diſſolved in water, ſo as to be got out without breaking the retort, which the other cannot.

The acid of *nitre* is next in ſtrength to the vitriolic, and diſlodges all but that from the alkaline ſalts and earths. It differs from all the other acids, in deflagrating with inflammable matters; if it is dropped on ol. carui, it will flaſh, and make an ebullition as ſtrong as though on the fire, and will yield ſuch fumes, as by mixing with air, will be ſenſible for three or four hours. If a ſolution of any inflammable ſubſtance, as hartſhorn, &c. in this acid, be ſet to evaporate, as ſoon as the matter approaches to dryneſs, a violent detonation enſues. This acid is chiefly uſed as a menſtruum, and as the baſis of ſome other preparations. Diluted in water it hath been given as a diuretic from ten to fifty drops.

If three parts of *nitre* be uſed, to one of the vitriolic acid, a part of the *nitre* remains unchanged, after the ſpirit is diſtilled from it. On diſſolving the whole reſiduum in hot water, and ſetting the filtered ſolution to cryſtallize, the vitriolated ſalt ſhoots firſt, the greateſt part of the *nitre* continuing diſſolved; and this is the

Nitrum *Vitriolatum*.

The reſiduum, after diſtilling the ſp. nitri Glaub. of the Lond. Pharm. being diſſolved in warm water, filtered, and then ſet to cryſtallize, is the general method of obtaining the preparation, which, as already obſerved differs not from the tart. vitr. except in being a little more acrid; nor is its difference from the ſal polychreſtum conſiderable.

Aqua Fortis Simplex.

Take of *nitre*, and of green vitriol, not calcined, of each three pounds; of calcined green vitriol, a pound and a half, mix them well, and diſtill them with a ſtrong fire, as long as any red vapours ariſe. The ingredients ſhould be perfectly well mixed together, before they are put to be diſtilled, or elſe but a ſmall quantity of the aqua fortis will be obtained. Mixing the vitriol requires ſomewhat more heat than when the oil of vitriol is uſed, for its acrid ſpirit muſt be ſeparated before it can act on the *nitre*; but then, too much heat may force over ſome of the metallic part of the vitriol. The produce of the proceſs is, a ſpirit of *nitre*, containing ſo much more phlegm, or watery moiſture than Glauber's ſpirit, as the vitriol employed does more than an equivalent quantity of the oil of vitriol, and is liable to an admixture with the vitriolic acid, more or leſs of which is generally forced over.

Aqua Fortis Duplex.

Take equal parts of *nitre*, green vitriol calcined to redneſs, and of dried clay. Diſtill them in an earthen retort. The making of this is a diſtinct trade, on account of the large demand for it amongſt the dyers, and other artiſts. But when this is intended for medicinal uſes, or for the nicer chemical experiments, it requires to be purified; for the rough *nitre* is uſed, and a great heat, whence both the ſpirit of ſalt and a ſolution of iron are contained in it.

Aqua Fortis Purificata.

Drop into the impure aqua fortis, a ſmall quantity of the tincture of ſilver, and when the cloudineſs or milkineſs, which it occaſions, ſubſides, drop in more, and thus continue until a freſh addition occaſions no farther change; then pour the liquor into a glaſs retort, and diſtill it in a ſand-heat to dryneſs. The ſilver abſorbs both the marine and the vitriolic acids, and forming a concrete with them, they all fall together.

Good aqua fortis diſſolves about half its weight of ſilver.

Aqua Fortis Compoſita.

Take of aqua fortis ſixteen ounces in weight, of ſea-ſalt one dram, diſtill to dryneſs. This is deſigned as a menſtruum for quick-ſilver, for the preparation of merc. cor. rub. which the marine acid in this compoſition renders of a more ſparkling appearance, and more beautiful to the eye, than when made with the nitrous acid alone.

Aqua Regia.—Regalis Regis.

Put an ounce of crude ſal ammoniac powder, into a large cucurbit, and add to it, by little and little, four ounces of the ſpirit of *nitre*, or of double aqua fortis; let them ſtand in a ſand heat until the ſalt is entirely diſſolved. Or, the ſalt may be powdered fine, and gradually added to the acrid ſpirit, which ſhould be of a middle ſtrength, between ſingle aqua fortis and ſtrong ſpirit of *nitre*.

The nitrous ſpirit obtained from rough *nitre*, contains ſome of the marine acid, as well as the vitriolic; the firſt is diſcovered and ſeparated by dropping in a little ſolution of ſilver; the latter by a ſolution of chalk, or any other calcareous earth, made in the pure nitrous acid; the ſilver abſorbing the marine acid, and the chalk the vitriolic, and forming with thoſe acids, indiſſoluble concretes, which immediately render the liquor milky, and then fall to the bottom. The ſolutions may be ſlowly dropped in, until no more milkineſs appears; and in caſe of an exceſs of their quantity, and the ſpirit is required pure, it muſt be re-diſtilled.

The nitrous ſpirit, combined with vegetable fixed alcalies, reproduces common *nitre*; with the mineral fixt alcali it produces

Nitrum *Cubicum*.

Diſſolve chalk or lime in purified aqua fortis, and add the ſolution, by degrees, to a ſolution of Glauber's ſalt in water, ſo long as a freſh addition produces any milkineſs; a white powder will precipitate; after which, the liquor is to be filtered, and after due evaporation, ſet to cryſtallize. Thus a ſpecies of *nitre* is formed, not much different from the common ſort; it cryſtallizes into cubical, inſtead of priſmatic figures; but as a medicine, this, and the common ſort, may be indifferently uſed.

Nitrum *Flammans*

Is a combination of the nitrous acid, and volatile alcaline ſalt. It is alſo called *nitrum* volatile, and *nitrum* ammoniacale; it is very ſubtil, pungent, and diſſolves in rectified ſpirit of wine.

The nitrous acid in its moſt concentrated ſtate, ſaturates about five-ſixths its weight of vegetable fixt alcali. Solutions of calcareous earths in this acid are bitteriſh and pungent, difficultly aſſume a cryſtalline appearance and when evaporated, and exſiccated by heat, it ſoon deliquates again in the air. The nitrous acid diſſolves zinc, iron, copper, lead, biſmuth, mercury, and ſilver, the moſt readily of all the acids; it diſſolves tin imperfectly, and it only corrodes the regulus of antimony. Aqua fortis diſſolves ſilver, mercury, iron (and that beſt when mixed with equal parts of common water), copper, lead, regulus of antimony, biſmuth, zinc, tin imperfectly, gold not at all: but by the addition of ſal ammon. crud. it loſes this name, and becomes aqua regia, ſo called becauſe it diſſolves gold, which chemiſts call the king of metals; it alſo diſſolves iron, copper, tin, mercury, regulus of antimony, biſmuth, zinc, and lead, more than the ſpirit of ſea-ſalt does; but does not diſſolve ſilver.

The concentrated acid combined with ſpirit of wine loſes its acidity, the coalition of the two producing a new compound called,

Spiritus Nitri *Dulcis*.

Take of rectified ſpirit of wine one quart, of Glauber's ſpirit of *nitre* half a pound. Mix them by pouring the ſpirit of *nitre* on the other, and diſtil the mixture with a gentle heat, as long as what comes off will not raiſe any fermentation with a lixivial ſalt.

This dulcified ſpirit is held in juſt eſteem for quenching thirſt, promoting the natural ſecretions, expelling flatulencies, and moderately ſtrengthening the ſtomach; it is ſtrongly antiſeptic. Mixed with a ſmall quantity of ſp. C. C. or ſp. vol. arom. or any volatile alcaline ſpirit, it proves mild, yet efficacious, diaphoretic and diuretic, eſpecially in fevers. The ſp. nitri D. allays vomiting when ſaline mixtures fail. It is often adulterated with water, which diminiſhes its grateful ſcent. A ſmall proportion of ſp. nitri D. gives a French brandy flavour to malt ſpirits.

Nitre makes no impreſſion on blue paper, nor tincture of turnſol, nor ſyrup of violets; a violent fire is neceſſary, to draw the ſpirit from this ſalt; it flames upon the fire, and kindles readily, though its ſpirit extinguiſhes fire; it does not curdle milk; *nitre* and oil of tartar makes an almoſt inſenſible ebullition. It is one of the principal of the antiphlogiſtics, of general uſe where inflammations attend them from the ardency of the blood; it is an antiſpaſmodic, when irritation, or inflammation is excited by ſtimulating drugs, for if mixed with regulus of antimony, gamboge, ſcammony, &c. their uſual ill effects are prevented. When uſed in gargariſms for inflammations of the fauces in acute fevers, it thickens the ſalival fluids into a mucus, which keeps the part moiſt for ſome time, whereas if *nitre* is not added, a dryneſs of the mouth preſently enſues. It promotes urine, tends too looſen the belly in hot diſpoſitions, and checks diarrhœas from the acrimony of the bile; it is of ſingular ſervice in the cholera morbus when accompanied with anxiety, and in the cardialgia of hypochondriacs; its virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of neutral ſalts in general, but exceed them in degree in many inſtances; in the ſmall-pox, if the fever runs too high, *nitre* ſoon reduces it; ſometimes it is aſſiſted in its efficacy by a conjunction with volatile ſalts, or camphor, at the ſame time that it is often by this means rendered more grateful to the ſtomach; thus managed it is uſeful in removing pains in the limbs; it checks bloody urine from an inflammatory cauſe; hæmorrhages from rarefaction, and inflammation are reſtrained by its internal uſe; in hæmoptoes and other diſorders of the lungs, *nitre* is generally uſeful; as an alterative, it hath been uſeful, by a long continuance of it, in the leproſy, and particularly ſo in the cure of old ulcers in the legs; joined with warm carminatives, it carries their efficacy though the inteſtines, which otherwiſe would be confined to the ſtomach.

Nitre, however, ſhould not be given without caution; though uſeful in moſt diſorders of the lungs, if the vis vitæ is defective, it is better omitted; the ſame may be obſerved in almoſt all other caſes. It often occaſions a nauſea, or a pain in the ſtomach if taken in a ſolid form; in this caſe, plentiful dilution, or warm medicines accompanying its uſe, theſe are prevented, or removed, if they happen to come on.

The doſe of *nitre* may be from three grains to two ſcruples, or more, every hour or two. And if each doſe is given as ſoon as it is diſſolved, its efficacy will be greater, and thus it alſo reſts more eaſy on the ſtomach.

Decoctum Nitroſum.

Take half an ounce of *nitre*, one ſcruple of cochineal, boil them in a quart of water until the *nitre* is diſſolved, then add two ounces of ſugar; and when cold, ſtrain off the clear liquor. This is palatable, and agreeable to the eye. Three or four table-ſpoonsfull may be taken for a doſe, and repeated according to the intention of giving it. In ſome inſtances *nitre* produces pain, nauſea, and even ſickneſs. It is ſaid that, when it is boiled before it is adminiſtered, no ſuch effects are obſerved; and farther, that when *nitre* has excited a nauſea, &c. it may afterwards be given as above preſcribed, and it will remove the ſickneſs previouſly excited.

See Hoffman de Salium Medicorum, & de præſtantiſſima *Nitri* Virtute. Stahl de Uſu *Nitri* medico. Neumann's Chem. Works. Lewis's Mat. Med. Dict. of Chem.

NITRUM ANTIQUORUM, i. e. Anatron.

NITRUM ARTIFICIALE HOFFMANI. It is made of the ſpirit of ſal ammoniac and ſpirit of *nitre*. It perfectly diſſolves in rectified ſpirit of wine.

NITRUM CALCAREUM VERUM. It is a ſolution of calcareous earth, in the nitrous acid.

NITRUM CAUSTICUM. The amber-coloured ſcoriæ, ariſing in the purification of the regulus antim. martialis with *nitre*, are a ſtrong cauſtic alkali, and are thus named.

NITRUM FACTITIUM, i. e. Borax.

NITRUM NATIVUM, i. e. Borax.

NITRUM STIBIATUM. After making the calx of antimony, it is directed to be waſhed in ſeveral waters, until they become inſipid; theſe waters being mixed, then evaporated over a gentle fire till a cuticle forms on the ſurface, they yield in the cold, cryſtals which are thus called. They poſſeſs but little of the antimony.

NIX FUMANS. Quick-lime.

NIX ANTIMONIALIS. Thus the white flowers of the regulus of antimony are called.

NOBILIS VALVULA. See Cor.

NOCHETZLI NOPALLI, or Nocheznopatli. The cochineal plant.

NOCTAMBULATIO, i. e. Somnambulo.

NOCTAMBULO. One who walks when aſleep, i. e. Somnambulo.

NOCTUINI OCULI. Grey eyes.

NODOSA. Knotted. In ſurgery, it is an epithet for a ſort of ſuture; and for various bandages. The gout is alſo called *knotted* when it forms knots at the joints.

NODULUS. In pharmacy, it is a knot tied on a rag, including ſome medicinal ingredient, with which the liquor this *nodulus* is ſuſpended in, is intended to be impregnated. It is alſo a bag, in which ingredients are included, in order to be ſuſpended in a diet drink, or medicated wine.

NODUS. A node. See Tophus.

NOEL VALLI. See Valli.

NOELA TALI. The Indian barberry-tree, with an orange leaf. It grows in Malabar, it is ever-green, its fruit reſembles barberries; they are cooling and antiſeptic. See Ray's Hiſt.

NOLI ME TANGERE. Touch me not. In botany, it is a ſpecies of balſamina, of perſicaria, and a name for the ſenſitive plant. In ſurgery it is a ſpecies of ulcer, and a kind of wart on the eye-lid which appears blackiſh, in which caſe it preſently mortifies; or a cancerous ſore, which, becauſe it is uſually provoked by medicines, is called *touch me not*. It is alſo a name of a ſpecies of herpes.

NOMA. A phagedenic ulcer, from νεμω, *to eat away*.

NOME. A phagedenic ulcer. Alſo a ſpecies of herpes.

NONANA. An erratic intermitting fever returning every ninth day.

NONNATURALIA. The non-naturals. They are ſix, viz. air, meat and drink, ſleep, waking, motion and reſt, things excreted, and things retained, and paſſions of the mind. Theſe things affect man without entering into his compoſition, or conſtituting his nature; but yet are ſo neceſſary that he cannot live without them.

The luxury of moſt climes conſiſts very much in the exceſs of what is needful in its kind, and in the requiſites to correct that exceſs. In hot climes they ſurfeit themſelves with fruits, and other vegetables, they cool their fruits, creams, wines, &c. to an unſalutary degree, with ice, &c. Then, to correct the inconveniences of theſe exceſſes, they uſe brandy, hot tea, high ſauces, &c. In cold climes they ſurfeit with animal diet, fermented liquors, exerciſe, cloathing, &c. for which they uſe oppoſites to moderate their exceſſes, or rather the inconveniences thereof.

There are very few diſorders happen to our frame, in which an error in one or more of the *non-naturals* have not an influence as a cauſe thereof.

Beſides what is ſaid on each article of the *non-naturals* in theſe ſheets, ſee Dr. Fr. Cliſton's tranſlation of Hippocrates on Air, Water, and Situation; Wainwright on the *Non-naturals*; Sanctorius's Med. Static. Keil's Animal Œconomy.

NONUS HUMERI, (Muſc.) i. e. Coraco Brachiæus.

NONUS HUMERI MUSCULUS PLACENTINI, i. e. Teres minor.

NOPAL, & Nopalnocheztli. The cochineal plant.

NORTHAW, or North-hall water. It is of the purging kind, and ſimilar to that of Epſom.

NOSOCOMIUM, from νοσος, *a diſeaſe*, and κομεω, *to take care of*. An hoſpital.

NOSODOCHIUM, from νοσος, *a diſeaſe*, and δεχομαι, *to take*. An hoſpital.

NOSOLOGIA, from νοσος, *a diſeaſe*, and λογια, *a diſcourſe*. Noſology. It is an explication of diſeaſes, or a diſcourſe concerning the nature and properties of them. The ſolids are conſidered as the proper ſeat of diſeaſes; as the

the contamination of the fluids are only manifeſt by their effect on the ſolids; and from the rigid or lax fibres, diſeaſes are uſually traced. See Tonicus. alſo ſee this ſubject concifely and ſatisfactorily treated of in Haller's Phyſiology.

NOSOS. A diſeaſe.

NOSTALGIA. Broken heart. Longing for home; or national inſanity. As when abſent from one's native country, the deſire of returning is vehement.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſorexiæ. He obſerves two ſpecies. 1. *Noſtalgia* ſimplex. When no other diſeaſe attends. 2. *Noſtalgia* complicata. When it is attended with ſome other diſeaſe.

NOSTOCH, i. e. Cœlifolium.

NOSTRATIBUS LIGNUM, i. e. Flavum lignum.

NOTHÆ COSTÆ, from νοθος, *ſpurious*. The ſpurious ribs.

NOTIÆUS, from νωτος, *the back*. An epithet for the ſpinal marrow.

NUBA. A ſpecies of manna which is of a roſy colour; alſo braſs.

NUBECULA. See Nubes. It is alſo a cloud in the urine.

NUBECULA SUSPENSA, i. e. Enæorema.

NUBES. Clouds. In ſurgery it is the ſame as albugo and encauma.

NUCAMENTA. Catkins.

NUCES GALLÆ. See Gallæ.

NUCHA. The back of the neck. Properly the region upon the firſt vertebra of the back. It is an Arabic term.

NUCIOSITAS, i. e. Myopia.

NUCIPERSICA. The nectarine.

NUCI-PRUNIFERA. See Saponaria and Nux Virginiana.

NUCIS MOSCHATA, vel

NUCISTA. The nutmeg. See Nux Mosch.

NUCLEUS. A kernel. In botany it is that part of the fruit which is incloſed in a hard ſhell, as the kernels of almonds and apricots.

NUCULA TERRESTRIS. See Bulbocastanum.

NUMMULARIA. This plant is ſo called from *nummus*, money; becauſe its leaves are round. It is alſo called centimorbia, becauſe it is ſaid to be uſeful in an hundred diſeaſes. In Engliſh it is named herb two-pence, and money-wort.

It is a low creeping plant with ſquare ſtalks, and ſmooth, little, roundiſh, or heart-ſhaped leaves, ſet in pairs at the joints, upon ſhort pedicles; in their boſoms appear yellow ſolitary monopetalous flowers, each divided into five oval ſegments, and followed by a ſmall round capſule, full of minute ſeeds. It is perennial, grows wild in moiſt paſture grounds, and flowers from May to the end of ſummer. It is reſtringent, antiſcorbutic, and vulnerary. Boerhaave thinks it ſimilar to a mixture of ſcurvey-graſs and ſorrel; but it is weaker than either of them.

NUMMULARIA RUBRA; called alſo Lyſimachia. The ſpecies formerly uſed in medicine was the lyſimachia nummularia, Linn. The juice of this ſpecies of money-wort, is like that of becabunga; it hath a ſaponaceous, aromatic, and balſamic taſte; its virtues are the ſame as a mixture of cochlearia with acetoſa. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

NUSCHIOSUS. See Nyctalops.

NUTRICATIO. Nutrition, accretion, or growth. It hath generally been thought that *nutrition* is chiefly performed by means of the nervous fluid, becauſe thoſe parts whoſe nerves are deſtroyed, or wholly deprived of their uſual power, are obſerved to become ſmaller; but this is without foundation, for from certain experiments it is known, that the motions of the fluids in the very ſmall veſſels, depends in a great meaſure upon the influence of their nerves; and that when this is wanting, the fluids either do not circulate at all through the veſſels, or at leaſt in a very languid manner; whence the parts to which they belong collapſe, and are not properly nouriſhed. See Phyſiological Eſſays, edit. 2. p. 22, &c p. 49. and 50. The ſtandard of *nutrition* varies in perſons of different ages, for, during infancy, more is added to the body than is thrown off from it; but to old age, the conſumption is greater than the addition. The firſt of theſe is the growth, the latter the decreaſe, and ſo decay of the body. In infancy and youth the fibres are extenſible; and the force of the circulation proportionably greater than in later life: on the arrival of maturity, the laſt leſſens, and the firſt is totally at an end. See Haller's Phyſiology.

NUTRITUM UNGUENTUM. It was formerly made by mixing certain proportions of vinegar, oil, and litharge; but the London College hath ſubſtituted, as a nearer application, the ungt. ſaturninum.

NUX CATHARTICA. See Cataputia.

NUX INDICA. The cocoa-nut.

NUX MEDICA. The Maldiva nut.

NUX MOSCHATA; alſo called nux myriſtica, nuciſta, pala, chryſobalanus Galeni, unguentaria, nux aromatica, the nutmeg. Weſton, in his Univerſal Botaniſt, names the tree, myriſtica moſchata, and deſcribes it myriſtica arbor nuces moſchatas, and macem gerens. The nut-meg and mace-tree. Linnæus in his Suppl. 265, names the tree myriſtica officinalis.

It is the aromatic kernel of a large nut, produced by a tree, ſaid to reſemble the pear-tree; it grows in the Eaſt Indies, principally on the iſle of Banda, and on the Molucca Iſles. The outer part of the fruit which is the ſize of a peach, is a ſoft fleſhy ſubſtance like that of the walnut, which ſpontaneouſly opens when ripe; under this lies a red membrane, called mace, forming a kind of reticular covering, through the fiſſures of which is ſeen the hard woody ſhell that includes the nutmeg. C. Bauhine ſpeaks of three ſorts; but there are two which are frequently enough met with; one of them is of an oblong figure, called male, the other roundiſh called female; this laſt is the officinal ſpecies, being preferred to the other, on account of its ſtronger and more agreeable flavour, and its being, as is ſaid, leſs ſubject to become carious. The Dutch monopolize this part of trade, as well as the reſt of the ſpices in general, whence we ſeldom have them genuine.

The nutmeg is moderately warm, grateful to the taſte, and unctuous: but when too freely taken, it fits uneaſy on the ſtomach, occaſioning heart-burn and uneaſineſs in the head.

The London College directs a gallon of proof ſpirit, to be drawn by diſtillation, from two ounces of nutmegs, and this is called aqua nucis moſchatæ; but when a few hawthorn flowers are added, it is called aq. nephritica.

By diſtillation with water, nutmegs yield nearly one-tenth their weight of a limpid eſſential oil, which is very grateful, and poſſeſſes the flavour of the ſpice in perfection; it is recommended as antiſpaſmodic and hypnotic. It is ſimilar in quality to the oil of mace, but not quite ſo grateful.

On the ſurface of the remaining liquor in the ſtill, after the aſcent of the eſſential oil, is found floating an unctuous concrete, like tallow, of a white colour, nearly inſipid, not eaſily corruptible, and hence commended as a baſis for odoriferous balſams; the decoction, freed from this ſebaceous matter, and inſpiſſated, leaves a weakly bitter ſub-aſtringent extract.

Rectified ſpirit takes up the whole ſmell and taſte of the *nutmegs*, and receives from them a deep bright yellow colour; the ſpirit drawn off from the filtered tincture is very ſlightly impregnated with their flavour; the greateſt part of the ſpecific ſmell, as well as the aromatic warmth, bitterneſs, and ſubaſtringency of the ſpice, remaining concentrated in the extract.

Both the oil, the ſpirituous tincture, and extracts, agree better with weak ſtomachs than the *nutmegs* itſelf.

Ol. N. M. *per Expr. commonly called Ol. Macis per Expr.*

When *nutmegs* are heated, and ſtrongly preſſed, they give out a fluid yellow oil, which concretes on growing cold, into a ſebaceous conſiſtence. We are informed, that in the Spice Iſlands, the imperfect and damaged nuts are ſeparated for obtaining this expreſſed oil from. In the ſhops we find there ſorts, under the name of oil of mace. The beſt is brought from the Eaſt Indies in ſtone jars; it is ſoftiſh, of a yelloviſh colour, an agreeable fragrant ſmell greatly reſembling that of the nutmeg itſelf; it is of the

colour

colour of mace. The next comes from Holland in ſolid maſſes, generally flat, and of a ſquare figure; it is paler coloured, weaker in its ſmell, and inferior in its quality to that of India. The laſt is the worſt; it ſeems to be a compoſition of ſuet, palm-oil, and ſuch like expreſſed ones, flavoured with a little of the genuine oil of nutmeg. The beſt is the ſebaceous matter of the nutmeg and its eſſential oil; by diſtillation in water, and maceration in rectified ſpirit of wine, the eſſential oil is ſeparated and the ſebaceous matter is left quit inſipid. The chief uſe of theſe are for liniments, &c. to be applied to the ſtomach, or as a part in anodyne and nervous ointments See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Lewis's Mat. Med. Newman's Chem. Works

NUX UNGUENTARIA. See Ben.

NUX VIRGINIANA, called alſo prunifera, nucifera, nuciprunifera, maſtichen odoratum fundens, maſtich of Ligon, and Virginia nut. Its leaves ſhine like thoſe of the bay tree, and differs from other pruniferous trees in its fruit, which is ſmall, turbinated, and contains but a little pulp.

The fruit is of the ſhape and ſize of a filbert, ſmooth, of a brown colour, with an eye near one end, containing a hard ſtone, with a white globular kernel, of a bitteriſh taſte and an aromatic ſmell It is antiſcorbutic, deobſtruent, and warming. See Raii Dendr.

NUX VOMICA, called alſo nux metella, vomic nuts. It is a flat roundiſh ſeed, or kernel, about an inch broad, and a quarter of an inch thick, with a prominence in the middle, on both ſides of a grey colour covered with a kind of woolly matter, internally hard and tough like horn. It is the produce of a large tree growing in the Eaſt Indies, which Plukenet calls cucurbitifera Malabarienſis cœnoplix foliis rotundis fructu orbiculari rubro cujus grana ſunt nuces vomicæ officinarum. The *nux vomica* is the fruit of the ſtrychnos *nux vomica*; vel ſtrychnos Indica, foliis ovatis quinque nerviis, caule inermi, Linn.

They have no place in the preſent practice; to the taſte they are bitter, but have no ſmell. Fallopius ſays, in doſes to 3 ſs they procure ſweat; but Hoffman informs us, that two doſes of ſeven or eight grains each, were fatal to a girl of ten years old. They poiſon dogs, crows, &c. When imprudently ſwallowed by men, they produce great anxiety, convulſions, paralytic ſymptoms, reaching, an increaſed motion of the heart and of the lungs. The poiſonous matter is probably the ſame as that of bitter almonds, which acts chiefly on the nervous ſyſtem. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med. Newmann's Chemical Works.

Dr. Hagſtrom, a Swediſh phyſician, commends the uſefulneſs of the *nux vomica* in the dyſentery; he ſays, that, the dyſentery began to appear in the autumn of 1772, and ſoon became general. He preſcribed the uſual remedies without the wiſhed for ſucceſs, and recollecting the theoretical propoſition of ſome celebrated phyſicians, that the epidemic dyſentery is an hæmorrhage of the inteſtines brought on by animalculæ, he was led to imagine that the *nux vomica*, which is known to be fatal to large animals, might alſo prove equally deſtructive to theſe animalculæ. He began by cleanſing the bowels with rhubarb and cream of tartar; after which, he preſcribed a ſcruple of *nux vomica* in powder to be taken once a day. The good effects exceeded his moſt ſanguine expectations. In many inſtances a very few doſes anſwered the end. See the Lond. Med. Journal. vol. iii. p. 189, &c.

NUX VOMICA SERAPIONIS, called alſo faba ſancti Ignatii, nux pepita igaſur, faba Indica. St. Ignatius's bean. It is the produce of a tree of the ſame kind as that on which the *nux vomica* grows. It is met with in the Eaſt Indies and the Philippine iſlands. The fruit reſembles a gourd, in each of which is from twenty to thirty ſeeds, improperly called beans. They are of a roundiſh figure, irregular, and uneven, the ſize of a middling nutmeg, ſemi-tranſparent, of a horny texture, and of a colour betwixt white and a ſky blue. Theſe ſeeds have a bitter taſte, but no ſmell, except a degree of a muſty ſcent whilſt freſh. The inhabitants of the Philippine iſlands uſe them as a medicine, but they affect the Europeans violently, producing the ſame effect as do the vomic nuts. See Act. Phil. Lond. No. 249. p. 44. Med. Muſ. vol. iii. p. 428—435.

NYCTALOPS, from νὺξ, *night*, and ὤψ, *an eye, night blindneſs*. Sometimes theſe patients are called luſcitioſus, or nuſcitioſus, but improperly; for luſcitioſus is one who ſees but little through ſome defect of the eye, and ſees better in the evening than at noon. But amongſt both the Greek and Latin writers, there is a direct oppoſition in the uſe of the word nyctalops, ſome ſaying it ſignifies thoſe who ſee by night, and others expreſs by it thoſe who cannot ſee during the night. However, at preſent it is underſtood to ſignify that diſorder, in which, as the night approaches, the patient loſes his ſight, he remains blind until the morning, at which time the ſight returning, it continues all the day, and ſo continues to return with the day, and to depart at night.

The difference in the account of this diſorder, as to its appearing in the night, or in the day, is reconciled by conſidering it as of the intermitting kind; the difference then will conſiſt in the different times of its approach, ſo may be called periodical blindneſs. Intermittents appear in a variety of modes, and the ſucceſs of the bark, in ſome inſtances of this ſort of blindneſs, both favour the opinion of its being an intermittent diſeaſe of the eyes. See Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. i. and Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. i. p. 111, &c.

NYMPHÆ. They run down on each ſide of the clitoris, and with the frænum of the perinæum they form what ſome call the foſſa magna, or entrance into the vagina. In midwifery this is called os externum. Sometimes the *nymphæ* are large, and appear cancerous; when this happens, the part may be cut off with ſciſſars, and it will then heal as a common wound. Galen, and other ancient writers, ſometimes call the clitoris, and ſometimes the hymen, by the name of *nymphæ*; but what the moderns call *nymphæ* or criſtæ clitoridis, or alæ minores ſive internæ, are two prominent folds of the inner ſkin of the greater or external alæ, reaching from the præputium of the clitoris, to the two ſides of the great orifice of the uterus: they begin narrow, grow broader, then at their lower end they grow narrow again, and are loſt about the orifice of the vagina, in the labia externa.

NYMPHÆA, called alſo nenuphar, leuconymphæa. The great white water lily. *Nymphæa* alba, Linn. It is called *nymphæa*, becauſe it lives in waters where the nymphs are feigned by the poets to inhabit. There are ſeveral ſpecies, diſtinguiſhed by their white and yellow flowers, &c. but their virtues, which are ſaid to be anodyne and demulcent, are too inſignificant to demand any notice in medical practice. See Raii Hiſt.

NYMPHÆA. The name of a preternatural excreſcence on the nymphæ, alſo of the plant called frog-bit.

NYMPHOIDES, alſo called nymphæa lutea minor, and nymphæa alba minor. It is thus named from its reſemblance to the nymphæa, both in its form and virtues.

NYMPHOMANIA, from νυμφὴ, *nymphæ*, and μανία, *furor*. i. e. furor uterinus. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſorexia. See Furor Uterinus.

NYMPHOMANIA PRURIGINOSA. A variety of the *nymphomania*.

NYMPHOTOMIA. A ſection of the clitoris when too large; for the ancients called the clitoris by the name of nympha.

NYSTAGMOS. A winking, or twinkling with the eyes, ſuch as happens when a perſon is very ſleepy. When a diſeaſe, it is an inſtance of the clonic kind of convulſion.

O.

OB. Selden ſays that *Ob* was uſually tranſlated Python, or magician. This *Ob* is as a ſpirit, or demon, that gave anſwers which ſeemed to come from the pudenda, the head, or the arm-pits, but with a voice ſo low, as not often to be diſtinctly heard.

OBELÆA, from ὀβελὸς, *a dart* or *a ſpit*. Obelæa faturas or ſagittalis. An epithet for the ſagittal ſuture of the ſkull, alſo called the ſtrait future of the head.

OBELCHERA. A cucurbit.

OBELISCOTHECA. Dwarf American ſun-flower. There are two ſpecies, one from Virginia, the other from Carolina. They are of no medical uſe. See Miller's Dict.

OBESITAS. Corpulence, or fatneſs. See POLYSARCIA. It is obſerved that for one fat perſon in France or Spain, there are an hundred in England and Holland. This is ſuppoſed to be from the uſe of new malt liquors, more than from the difference of climes, or degrees of perſpiration. Indolence may cauſe fatneſs in ſome conſtitutions; but, in general, thoſe who are diſpoſed to this habit will be fat in ſpite of every endeavour to the contrary, but that of deſtroying health. Vinegar never prevents fatneſs, but by inducing a worſe diſorder. One of the beſt methods of emptying the cellular membrane of its oil, ſeems to be a gentle mercurial ſalivation, and decoctions of guaicum wood at proper intervals. See a remarkable inſtance of fatneſs in the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. p. 69—84.

OBLATE PURGENTES. They are figured purging cakes, made of flour, ſugar, and purging ingredients.

OBLIQUUS. A name for ſeveral pairs of muſcles; alſo a name of the pronator.

OBLIQUUS ASCENDENS, called alſo obliquus internus, and acclivis. Theſe muſcles of the belly receive their name from the oblique aſcent of their fibres. They lay under the *obliquus* deſcendens. The ſame error which many anatomiſts have taught with reſpect to the *obliquus* deſcendens, they have declared with reſpect to theſe muſcles; they have no communication with the lumbal vertebra; they ariſe fleſhy from the ſpine of the os ilium and ligamentum pubis, and the upper edge of the os ſacrum, according to Dr. Hunter; but ſome others ſay, that there is no part of them comes from the os ſacrum, but paſſing forward and upward from the oſſa pubis and ilii, they form a broad membranous thin tendon, implanted into the whole length of the linea alba, and the cartilages of the 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th ribs. Their tendons divide into two lamellæ, one of which joins the rectus on each ſide, and the other the tranſverſalis. Theſe muſcles are not perforated by the ſpermatic cord. Beſides their uſe in compreſſing of the belly, that part which ariſes fleſhy towards the back part of the edge of the os ilium, and goes to the cartilaginous endings of the ribs, not only depreſſes them, and ſtraitens the thorax in expiration, but alſo the order of the fibres of theſe muſcles interſect thoſe of the oblique deſcending muſcles, and counteract them in the turning the trunk of the body, on the axis of the vertebræ, as on its contrary ſide, its ſeries of fleſhy fibres being parallel to thoſe of the ſaid oblique deſcending on the oppoſite ſide, may act in concurrence with them in diſcharging of their office.

OBLIQUUS DESCENDENS. This pair of muſcles is alſo called declivis & obliquus externus. They are the external muſcles of the belly, and derive their name from the progreſs of their fibres, which run obliquely downwards. They ariſe by productions partly fleſhy, and partly tendinous, from the lower edge of the fifth, ſixth, ſeventh, and moſt of the inferior ribs, which indent themſelves into the fleſhy dentiform proceſſes of the ſerratus anticus major. Their fibres run forward and downward, terminating in the ſpine of the ilium, os pubis, and linea alba. Part of theſe fibres, which run toward the ilium, are loſt in the faſcia of the thigh, and thoſe which run towards the os pubis, are doubled under themſelves. This duplication (being ſuppoſed to be a ligament) goes by the name of ligamentum Poupartii, and through it the ſpermatic veſſels of men, and the round ligaments of the womb in women perforate. The ring through which theſe paſs, is formed by the tendinous fibres parting. From their origin, which are moſtly fleſhy, their oblique deſcending fleſhy parts expand themſelves into a broad membranous tendon, before they go over the rectus to their inſertion in the linea alba and os pubis, from whence ſtill deſcending, they end partly tendinous in the ligamentum pubis, but chiefly fleſhy on the ſuperior and forepart of the circular edge of the os ilium. They do not adhere to the tranſverſe proceſſes of the vertebræ lumbares, but their largeſt, laſt, and moſt fleſhy digitation, leaving the loweſt baſtard rib at its extreme point, in their oblique deſcent going forwards, ſtill recedes gradually from the vertebræ, forming a triangular interſtice, which is taken up by the ſacrolumbus, os ilium, and its lower ſide; in this area the fibres of the ſubjacent muſcles plainly appear. Theſe muſcles give ſtrength to the parietes of the belly, ſuſtain and compreſs the viſcera, propel the fæces, urine, and the fœtus; that part of them which is interjacent, between the linea alba, os pubis, and the ſpine of the os ilium, bearing an analogy in its poſition to the maſtoideus of the head, ſerves for the circumrotation of the trunk, upon the axis of the vertebræ, when we turn the body to the contrary ſide, and the feet remain unmoved.

OBLIQUUS INFERIOR, alſo called obliquus major. One of theſe muſcles riſes on each ſide, from the ſide part of the ſpinal proceſs of the vertebra dentata, then goes upward and outward, and is inſerted into the tranſverſe proceſs of the atlas. They are the principal rotators of the head, and run in a contrary direction to the *obliquus* ſuperior.

OBLIQUUS INFERIOR OCULI, i. e. Obliquus minor oculi.

OBLIQUUS MAJOR OCULI, alſo called obliquus major, and trochlearis. It is called trochlearis from its tendon paſſing through a cartilaginous pulley, that is ſituated in the orbit of the eye to the inſide of the internal angular proceſs of the os frontis near the inner angle. This muſcle riſes tendinous from the bottom of the ſocket near the entrance of the optic nerve, and paſſing towards the upper part of the ſocket near the great angle of the eye, its round tendon runs through a cartilaginous pulley, which is there fixed to a depreſſure in the os frontis, from thence it is reflected, and runs obliquely backward, incloſed in a ligamentous ſheath, and is inſerted tendinous into the ſclerotica, upon the upper part of the globe of the eye, a little more backward than the inſertion of the rectus ſuperior. When it acts ſingly, it rolls the eye about its axis, drawing the globe forward and the pupil downward; when it acts in conjunction with the *obliquus* minor, the eye is drawn outward or forward.

OBLIQUUS MINOR, i. e. Rectus minor.

OBLIQUUS MINOR OCULI. It riſes chiefly fleſhy, juſt within the edge of the lower and anterior part of the ſocket, near the caruncula lachrymalis, and paſſing obliquely backwards under the globe, it is inſerted into the ſclerotica on the external ſide of the eye, near the optic nerve.

OBLIQUUS NASI. Theſe are thin muſcles running along the ſides of the pyramidales naſi; they are fixed to the apophyſis naſalis of the oſſa maxillares, and are inſerted into the alæ narium.

OBLIQUUS PALPEBRARUM. The muſcles of the eye-lids thus named, are all that extent of fleſhy fibres, which by a thin ſtratum ſurrounds the edge of each orbit, and from thence, without any interruption, covers the two *eye-lids*, all the way to the cilia. Theſe fibres are moſtly tranſverſely oval. They adhere to the ſkin of the *eye-lids* and wrinkle them.

OBLIQUUS SUPERIOR. Theſe muſcles are on each ſide, covered by the head of the trachelo-maſtoideus, they each riſe from the tranſverſe proceſs of the atlas, and have their inſertion into the os petroſum and os occipitalis, near the proceſſus maſtoideus; they ſerve to bend the head backwards.

OBLIQUUS SUPERIOR OCULI, i. e. Obliquus major oculi.

OBLIVIO. Forgetfulneſs. Synonymous with amentia.

OBOLUS. A weight of about nine grains.

OBSIDIANA. They are ſpecies of glaſs, ſo called from their reſemblance to a kind of ſtone, which one Obſidius diſcovered in Ethiopia, of a very black colour, though ſometimes they are pellucid, and of a muddy water. Pliny ſays, alſo, that Obſidianum was a ſort of colour with which veſſels were glazed. Hence the name is applied by Libavius to glaſs of antimony.

OBSIDIANUS LAPIS. Canal coal.

OBSTETRICATIO. Midwifry. The firſt mention that is made of this is in Gen. xxxv. 16, 17. And then it appears to have been in the hands of women. Amongſt medical writers, Hippocrates was the firſt who gave any account of it, either as a branch of ſcience, or of art; after Hippocrates, Celſus, Moſchion, Rufus Epheſius, Galen, Oribaſius, Aetius, Paulus Ægineta, Avicenna, Alberſis, and others, have enlarged on this ſubject; but the laſt improvers are Mauriceau, the Chamberlains, Chapman, Daventer, La Motte, Giffard, Heiſter, Smellie, &c.

It may here be obſerved, that the Engliſh and the French are not peculiar nor unprecedented, in calling in the aſſiſtance of men. When women fell in labour, it appears in hiſtory, that the Athenians had a law to forbid ſlaves and women to practice *midwifry*; afterwards, indeed, a law was made, by which free-women were allowed to practiſe it.

Midwifry, at preſent, is taught and practiſed as a diſtinct branch of art; and in order to a proficiency therein, the practitioner is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs a competent knowledge of the following particulars, moſt of which are, more or leſs, noticed in the reſpective parts of this work. They are as follow:

The parts of the pelvis, its dimenſions, the depth of its cavity, its various diſtortions, &c. The parts of women, ſubſervient to generation. The ſtate of the womb and its neck, in the different periods of geſtation. Twins. Monſters. Superfœtations. Extra uterine fœtuſes. Moles. The progreſs of a child's head thorough the different parts of the pelvis in a natural labour. The ſecundines. The various complaints which uſually attend pregnancy. The manner and uſe of touching. The difference betwixt falſe and true labour pains. The different kinds of labour. The various modes of the child's preſenting, with the methods of delivery. The diſorders of child-bed women. The management of the child and its mother during the time of lying-in, &c. on which ſee the articles PELVIS, PARTURITIO, GESTATIO, INVOLUCRA, PRÆSENTATIO, &c.

See Treatiſes of Midwifry by Chapman, Mauriceau, Dionis, La Motte, Smellie, Memis, &c. Caſes of Midwifery, by Giffard and Smellie, Hamilton, &c.

OBSTIPATIO. Coſtiveneſs. Thus Dr. Cullen names this genus of diſeaſe. He places it in the claſs locales, and order epiſcheſes. Its ſpecies are, 1. Obſtipatio debilium; it happens in lax and weakly men who have generally but a weak digeſtion. 2. Obſtipatio rigidorum; it happens to men who have rigid fibres, who often are hypochondriac. 3. Obſtipatio obſtructorum; when there are ſymptoms of the ſpaſmodic colic, the colic of Poictiers, the accidental colic, or the colic from ſtony concretions in the bowels. See CONSTIPATIO.

OBSTIPITAS. The ſame as contractura primaria. This word, with any other annexed, is only one or other variety of contracting; this is the inſtance known by the name of wry-neck.

OBSTRUCTIO. Obſtruction. It is when the fluids can no longer paſs through the veſſels of a particular part; and may happen from the increaſed viſcidity of the fluid; a diminution of the capacity of the veſſels; or a concurrence of both theſe cauſes. Theſe are more or leſs difficultly removed, according to the age, conſtitution, &c. of the patient.

OBTUNDENTIA. Medicines which leſſen the acrimony of the humours.

OBTURATOR EXTERNUS. Some call it marſupialis. This muſcle covers the foramen magnum iſchii, and riſing from the bone before the foramen, runs backwards under the head of the os femoris, covered by the quadratus femoris, and is inſerted into the trochanter major, contiguous to the internus, and is, like it, a rotator.

OBTURATOR INTERNUS, or Marſupialis. This muſcle takes its origin from the inner circumference of the foramen magnum iſchii, and goes out playing round the iſchium as on a pulley, and is inſerted into the trochanter major, contiguous to the pyriformis, and is a rotater of the thigh. The tendon of this muſcle plainly grooves the bone in its paſſage.

OBTURATOR NERVUS. This nerve is a branch of the crural; it paſſes through the foramen ovale, and is loſt in the inner muſcles of the thigh.

OBTURATRIX ARTERIA. It is a branch of the hypogaſtric. It perforates the obturator muſcle, whence its name; and goes out of the pelvis, at the upper part of the ligament of the foramen ovale, having firſt ſent a branch over the ſymphyſis of the os ilium, and os pubis, to the inguinal glands and integuments. It ſends out a branch which communicates with a branch of the ſciatica arteria; and gives out branches to the adjacent muſcles, and ſends many ſmall ones by the neck of the thigh bone.

OBTURATRIX VENA. It is a branch from the hypogaſtric vein, and receives this name, where it enters into the internal obturator muſcle.

OCCIPITALIS ARTERIA. It is the firſt external, or poſterior branch of the external carotid. It paſſes obliquely before the internal jugular vein; and having ſent out twigs to the adjacent muſcles, it runs between the ſtyloid and maſtoid apophyſes, along the maſtoid groove, and goes to the muſcles and integuments, which cover the occipital bone. It communicates with the temporal, vertebral, and cervical arteries.

OCCIPITALIS MUSCULUS. This is mentioned by Columbus, and accurately deſcribed by Fallopius. There are two of them; they are ſhort, broad, thin, and fleſhy; they are ſituated on the occiput, where the maſtoideus and ſplenius muſcles are inſerted; they ſoon become tendinous, join with the pericranium, which firmly adheres to the hairy ſcalp on the ſinciput. When they act they pull the hairy ſcalp backwards.

OCCIPITALIS NERVUS. A branch from the tenth pair of nerves which proceed from within the ſkull; they run on the upper and lateral parts of the head.

OCCIPITALIS POSTERIOR ARTERIA. It is a branch from the vertebral. It ſpreads on the occiput.

OCCIPITALIS VENA. A branch from the poſterior, or upper external jugular; but it ſometimes proceeds from the vertebralis, or axillaris. It ſpreads on the occiput.

OCCIPITIS OS. This bone is of a rhomboidal figure, a tranſverſe ridge running from the maſtoid proceſs of one ſide to that of the other, divides it into two parts. Its external ſurface is convex, except at the cuneiforme proceſs, at the baſe of which, on each ſide of the foramen magnum, are the condyles which connect the head to the ſpine; on the outſide of theſe condyles the bone makes a projection, and there is a notch where the internal jugular vein paſſes. The bone is divided into four cavities in its inſide, by a crucial ſpine, which hath four canals in it; the ſuperior, for the longitudinal ſinus; the

inſe-

inferior frequently hath the occipital ſinus; theſe on each ſide, for the lateral ſinuſes, which are continuations of the longitudinal. There are five foramina proper to this bone; the firſt is the foramen magnum; juſt above the condyle there is a hole on each ſide for the ninth pair of nerves, and generally there are two holes which pierce from behind the condyles to the foſſæ of the lateral ſinuſes. Beſides theſe, there are two common foramina which are one on each ſide, between the proceſſus cuneiformis and os petroſum.

OCCIPITO FRONTALIS. Albinus calls it epicranium. It riſes from the poſterior part of the occiput, goes over the upper-part of the os parietale and os frontis, and is loſt in the eye-brows. It is a very thin muſcle, its office is, to raiſe the eye-brows, and wrinkle the forehead. It is antagoniſt to the corrugator Coiterii.

OCHEUS. The ſcrotum.

OCHRA, called alſo vitriolum abortivum. Yellow ochre. Some is found of a brown colour; and ſome is red. The darkeſt red ſort is called red *oker*, rubrica Græcis, Creta rubra, marking ſtone, rudd and ruddle. They are an argillaceous earth, leſs tenacious when moiſtened than the clays and the boles; impregnated with a ſmall portion of iron, and thence their colour. By burning, their argillaceous nature is diſcovered; and by digeſting in aqua regis their iron is extracted, and then the ochre remains white. Their chief difference from bole is in their being leſs viſcid. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

OCHRA NIGRA. Black-lead.

OCHREA. The fore-part of the tibia.

OCHRUS, alſo called Lathyrus, and ervilia. Boerhaave mentions this plant. It bears cylindrical pods with round ſeeds as large as peas, which are eatable, but not very eaſily digeſted

OCHTHODES, from ὀχθος, importing the tumid lips of ulcers, callous, tumid; or from ὀχθη, *a bank*. It is an epithet for ulcers which are difficult to heal.

OCIMASTRUM, alſo called ocymoides, lichnis ſylveſtris, alba ſimplex. Wild white campion.

It is Boerhaave's fourteenth ſpecies of lychnis. It is found in hedges and borders of fields; it flowers in May. The flower is ſaid to check the fluor albus, and inward bleedings; the herb boiled in poſſet, is ſaid to cure convulſions in children; but its virtues hath not obtained it a place in practice. See Raii Hiſt.

OCOLOXOCHITL, i. e. Tigridis flos.

OCTANA. An erratic intermitting fever, which returns every eighth day.

OCTAVUS HUMERI MUSC. i. e. Teres minor.

OCTAVUS HUMERI PLACENTINI MUSC. i. e. Teres minor.

OCULARES COMMUNES. A name for the nerves, which are alſo called motores oculorum.

OCULARES EXTERNI. Motores oculorum externi.

OCULARIA. Eye-bright.

OCULI CANCRORUM. Crabs-eyes. They are ſtony concretions, of what, at firſt, was but a milky juice, found in the head of the aſtacus fluviatilis, or river craw-fiſh; they are lodged in a bag on each ſide the ſtomach, which alſo is in the head of this fiſh, two of them are lodged in the head of each. Theſe ſtones are roundiſh, flatted on one ſide, in colour white, having ſometimes a reddiſh, and at others, a bluiſh caſt; the blue are the beſt, the white are taken out after the fiſh hath been boiled; they are internally of a leafy texture. The largeſt quantities are the produce of Muſcovy, particularly of the river Don; great quantities are alſo found in other parts of the Ruſſian empire.

They are uſed as an abſorbent of acid humours in the primæ viæ, and are ſuppoſed, when combined with the acid, to be more aperient and reſolvent than moſt of the other abſorbent earths; however this may be, it is certain that the earth of *crabs-eyes*, differs much from the earth of crabs-claws, for the firſt is not convertible into quick-lime. The medical difference of their earths, diſſolved in any acid of the vegetable or animal kingdom, do not appear to be great; the ſolutions of the two are alike in taſte. The earth of *crab's-eyes*, as to its chemical characters, is the ſame as the earth of hartſhorn.

Theſe ſtones are counterfeited with pipe clay, or with chalk, mixed with glutinous materials, or with the ſhells of fiſhes; but theſe compoſitions are eaſily diſtinguiſhed from true *crabs-eyes*, by their texture being uniform, and not leafy; by their ſticking to the tongue, which *crabs-eyes* will not do; by their ſoftening with water, which *crabs-eyes* will not do; by their diſſolving in acids, while *crabs-eyes* ſteeped in vinegar, retain their form; but when the artificial ſort are made with ſhells, the want of the lamellated coats is the beſt method of diſtinguiſhing them. See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Lewis's Mat. Med.

OCULUS. The eye. The external parts are, the eye-brows, the eye-lids, the cilia, the forepart of the globe, the membrana conjunctiva, the cornea lucida, the iris, the pupilla, the caruncuiæ lachrymales, and angles of the eye-lids, &c. The internal parts are the globe of the *eye*, the adnata or albuginea, the ſclerotica, the choroides, the retina, the aqueous humour, the vitreous humour, the muſcles that move the *eye*, and the optic nerve, &c.

Notwithſtanding this enumeration of parts, and their deſcription reſpectively in the courſe of this work; the following ſhort deſcription may have its advantage, by giving a collected view of thoſe parts as forming one whole body.

The globe of the *eye* is compoſed of three tranſparent humours, which, from their ſuppoſed reſemblances, bear the ſeveral denominations of the aqueous, the cryſtalline, and the vitreous. The vitreous humour fills by far the largeſt part of the cavity which contains it; the cryſtalline humour is included in a capſule, and placed anterior to the vitreous; the aqueous humour is betwixt the cryſtalline and the pupil. All theſe humours are contained within the three proper coats called ſclerotica, choroides, and retina.

The coats of the *eye* are three proper ones, and two which only cover the forepart of it, and are exterior to all the proper ones.

The firſt of the proper coats is the ſclerotica, which is alſo the outermoſt of them. This, in the poſterior and far greater part of its circumference, is white and opake; but in the anterior, is tranſparent, and takes the name of cornea.

The choroides is ſituated on the inſide of the ſclerotica, between it and the retina. It is ſtrongly attached to the ſclerotica, round the margin, where the cornea begins; whence it paſſes on, and becomes viſible through the tranſparency of that coat. This part of the choroides is called iris, being of various colours in different perſons; and in its center is a round perforation, to admit the rays of light, called the pupil.

The retina, or internal coat, appears to be an expanſion of the medullary part of the optic nerve, being a white thin membrane, of a very ſoft and tender texture. It lies immediately behind the vitreous humour, round which it is continued to the borders of the cryſtalline, and is generally believed to be the immediate ſeat of the ſenſe of viſion.

The globe of the *eye* reſts in the orbit, upon a large body of adipoſe membrane; and is moved in different directions, by four ſtraight and two oblique muſcles. Five of theſe take their origin from the bottom of the orbit; the inferior oblique alone ariſing from its edge: and they are all continued forward, to be inſerted by a tendinous expanſion into the anterior part of the tunica ſclerotica; which expanſion, having a white colour, has acquired the name of tunica albuginea.

The tunica conjunctiva is a thin tranſparent membrane, which lines the inner ſurface of the eye-lids, and, at the edge of the orbit has a fold, and is continued forward, over the anterior half of the globe of the *eye*. It is exterior to all the other coats of the *eye*, and connected with the tunica albuginea, by means of a cellular ſubſtance; from which it may eaſily be ſeparated in the dead ſubject, by diſſection. According to Winſlow, it is perforated by innumerable and almoſt imperceptible pores.

Its continuation from the eye-lids to the *eyes*, prevents the ill conſequences which might otherwiſe enſue, from the inſinuation of extraneous bodies between them.

The tears are ſecreted by a conglomerate gland, called glandula lachrymalis, which is ſituated in a ſmall depreſſion of the orbital proceſs of the os frontis, near the outer

angle of the orbit; from which they are poured out by ſmall ducts, and continually ſpread over the ſurface of the *eye*, to keep it clear and tranſparent. They paſs from the *eye*, through two minute orifices, at the inner angle, called the puncta lachrymalia, which open into a ſmall bag called ſaccuius lachrymalis; and this bag is continued thence, through a bony channel, and opens immediately into the noſe.

The little red body, at the great or inner angle of the *eye*, is called caruncula lachrymalis: as to its ſtructure or its uſe, not any thing certain is diſcovered. It may be ſaid to direct the tears into the puncta lachrymalia; and, in that office, is much aſſiſted by a reduplication of the tunica conjunctiva, which has been called valvula ſemilunaris. This valve is ſeen by turning the *eye* toward the noſe. It is ſituated cloſe to the caruncle, and is ſhaped like a creſcent, with its points inclined to the puncta lachrymalia.

The ſituation and figure of the eye-lids are too obvious to need deſcription.

The edge of each of the eye-lids is principally formed by a thin cartilage, called tarſus; which is adapted to the ſhape and roundneſs of the *eye*. The lower edge of the ſuperior cartilage, and upper edge of the inferior, meet each other; and are termed the ciliary edges. Theſe cartilages do not terminate in a line, like the ſharp edge of a knife; but rather flat, like the back of it; forming two edges, one external, and the other internal. When the *eyes* are ſhut the external edges meet: but the internal are preſerved at a ſmall diſtance from each other; leaving a gutter or groove, through which the tears are ſuppoſed to paſs from the lachrymal gland to the puncta lachrymalia while we are aſleep.

The cilia, or eye-lathes, ariſe out of the external edge of the termination of this cartilage; and on the internal, at an evident diſtance from them, is a line of ſmall orifices, which are the excretory ducts of ſmall glands that lie on the inner ſurface of the tarſus, and are called glandulæ ciliares, or glandulæ Meibomii. The uſe of theſe glands is to ſecrete a ſebaceous matter, ſimilar to ſoft wax, which conſtantly covers the edges of the lids, and keeps them ſupple.

A new born child ſhall be obſerved, perhaps, never to keep its *eyes* fixed on any one ſubject, but continually changing from one to another, and if you put your hand before them, the children will not wink; hence ſome have thought, that new born infants have no ſight; but this is a miſtake, and the true reaſon why their *eyes* are in perpetual motion is, that they have not yet acquired the habit of examining one thing at once with their *eyes*; their not winking at the approach of the hand ariſes from their want of experience how eaſily their *eyes* may be hurt; but in a few days, they get the habit of winking, ſo that afterwards their *eyes* do it ſpontaneouſly at the approach of danger

See a Deſcription of the Eye, and its adjacent parts, by J. Warner, Surgeon; Remarks on the Ophthalmy, &c. by J. Ware, Surgeon; Winſlow's Anatomy; Cheſelden's Anatomy, &c.

Artificial *eyes* are made of concave plates of gold, ſilver or glaſs, and are ſtained ſo as to reſemble the natural *eye*. They muſt, when fixed in the orbit, be taken out and cleaned every night, and replaced in the morning. If no more of a diſeaſed *eye* is removed, than what is preternaturally projected, or if enough is left, to leave the muſcles unhurt, the artificial eye will have a little motion from the muſcles that remain. If the *eye* does not fit well, it irritates and inflames the other *eye*, in which caſe, lay it aſide, until one can be had that fits better.

On Diſorders of the Eyes, ſee St. Yves; Benedict Duddell; and J Warner, Surgeon; Ware's Remarks on the Ophthalmy, &c

OCULO MUSCULARES. The nerves called motores oculorum.

OCULO MUSCULARES EXTERNI. The nerves called motores oculorum externi.

OCULUS. See COLIQUAMENTUM.

OCULUS BOVINUS. See PROPTOSIS.

OCULUS BOVIS. The great daiſy.

OCULUS BUBULUS. See PROPTOSIS.

OCULUS CATI, alſo called aſteria, and cat's-eye. It is a ſpecies of agate.

OCULUS CHRISTI. Wild clary.

OCULUS ELEPHANTINUS. See PROPTOSIS.

OCULUS GENU. The knee-pan.

OCULUS LACHRYMANS, i. e. Epiphora.

OCULUS MUNDI. It is a ſpecies of opal; generally of a yellowiſh colour. By lying in water it becomes of an amber colour, and alſo tranſparent.

OCYMASTRUM, i. e. Ocimaſtrum. It is a name for the circæa Lutetiana; and of ſeveral ſpecies of lychnis.

OCYMASTRUM VERRUCCARIUM. The inchanter's night-ſhade.

OCYMOIDES, alſo called lychnis ſylveſtris five aquatica purpurea ſimplex. Red wild campion.

It is Boerhaave's twentieth ſpecies of lychnis. It grows in hedges, and flowers in ſummer. The ſeeds are purging, but it is not known in preſent practice. See Raii Hiſt.

OCYMOIDES. It is a name for ſeveral ſpecies of lychnis, of the ocimaſtrum, and of a ſpecies of the myoſotis.

OCYMUM, ωκυς, *ſwiftly*. It is thus called from its ſudden growth. It is alſo called baſilicum, becauſe of its excellent ſmell. It is the *ocymum* baſilicum, Linn. Boerhaave enumerates twenty-four ſpecies. The chief uſe of *ocymum* is for improving the flavour of ſp. vol. arom.

OCYMUM AQUATICUM. A ſort of water thiſtle.

OCYMUM SYLVESTRE, i. e. Acinos.

ODAXISMOS, from οδους, *a tooth*. A biting ſenſation, pain, or itching in the gums. Hippocrates uſes this word principally with reſpect to the gums when the teeth are forcing a paſſage through them.

ODONTAGOGOS, from αγω, *to draw*, and οδους, *a tooth*, and αλγη, *pain*. An inſtrument for drawing the teeth.

ODONTAGRA. It is either an inſtrument for drawing the teeth with, or the gout in the teeth.

ODONTALGIA, from οδους, *a tooth*, and αλγος, *pain*. The tooth-ach. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order phlegmaſiæ. This happens either from external or from internal cauſes. The external are ſuch as rot the teeth, by deſtroying their enamel, and thus procuring an acceſs of air to their bony part. Hot liquors, frequent picking of the teeth with hard inſtruments, as pins, &c. ſoon deſtroy this enamel; and when once the tooth is carious, the only cure is to extract it. The internal cauſes are acrid particles excreted from the blood, in which caſe an emollient gargariſm ſhould be frequently held in the mouth as warm as is convenient; bliſters behind the ears are alſo uſeful, and if the gums ſwell, leeches may be applied, or ſmall ſcarifications made in them with a lancet.

ODONTIASIS, from οδους, *a tooth*. Dentition.

ODONTICA. Remedies for pains in the teeth.

ODONTIRRHOEA. Bleeding from the ſocket of the jaw after tooth drawing.

ODONTIS, & Odontitis. Names for ſeveral ſpecies of lychnis.

ODONTOGLYPHON, from οδους, *a tooth*, and γλυφω, *to ſcrape*. An inſtrument for rubbing or ſcaling the teeth.

ODONTOIDES, from οδους, *a tooth*, and ειδος, *form*. The tooth-like proceſs of the ſecond vertebra of the neck.

ODONTOPHYIA, from οδους, *a tooth*, and φυω, *to grow*. Dentition.

ODONTOTRIMMA, from οδους, *a tooth*, and τριβω, *to wear away*. A dentrifice.

OLFACTUS. The ſenſe of ſmell. See OLFACTUS.

ODORIFERÆ GLANDULÆ. Theſe are about the pudenda, arm-pits, &c. They are of the ſame kind as the ſebaceous glands. Dr. Hunter ſays he never could diſcover the orifices of theſe in the axilla, therefore he ſuppoſes the diſcharge to be from innumerable ſmall pores that are imperceptible.

OE. The ſervice-tree.

ŒCONOMIA, from οικος, *an houſe*, and νομος, *a law*, or *rule*. Hippocrates uſes this word to expreſs the management of a ſick perſon. The animal *œconomy* is the conduct of nature in preſerving animal bodies.

ŒDEMA. See TUMOR.

ŒDEMA, from οιδεω, *tumeo*. It ſignifies properly any tumor

tumor, but is now generally confined to thoſe ſerous tumors that are ſeated in the cellular membrane, and form partial anaſarcous ſwellings. See ANASARCA.

When the glands are diſeaſed, the lymph cannot paſs towards the heart, but goes to the lower extremities merely from gravitation; and for want of a due abſorption the limbs ſwell.

When the veſſels are not too much debilitated, rollers, or laced ſtockings, are ſometimes uſeful.

ŒDEMA ERYSIPELATOIDES. It is that œdematous tumor which is white, pellucid, and accompanied with heat.

Dr. Kirkland, in the firſt volume of his Inquiry, ſpeaks of an inflammatory *œdema* which comes on ſuddenly, and is ſometimes accompanied with an eryſipelas, or more commonly a ſimple inflammation of the ſkin. He deſcribes it as a cold, indolent, doughy humour; and in order to its cure, requiring diſcuſſion. He obſerves, that an *œdema* is always local; it is always confined to one place, or member.

It is ſometimes cauſed by a metaſtaſis of inactive matter from the blood and other juices; ſometimes from nervous affection.

Diſtinguiſh this diſeaſe from the anaſarca.

In an *œdema*, which comes on ſuddenly, and is of ſhort duration, the fluids have not had time to become viſcid in the cellular membrane; they are therefore eaſily ſet at liberty, and the inflammation diſappears as the ſwelling ſubſides.

As an external application, a cerate may be made of the empl. e min. f. cera f. & ol. oliv. As ſoon as the ſwelling begins to ſubſide, apply a bandage, and gradually increaſe its tightneſs as circumſtances will permit. Over night give ſmall doſes of calomel, and next morning a purging draught, in which is diſſolved a proper quantity of the ſoluble tartar. Sudorifics, or diuretics, may be given to haſten the cure; which, when tolerably advanced, will require the bark; this at firſt ſhould be accompanied with the ſal diuret. but when evacuation is no longer required, the bark may be given alone.

ŒDEMA-ŒDEMATODES. It is that ſerous tumor which is ſimply called *œdema*, or, according to ſome, the cold *œdema*.

ŒDEMOSARCA. A ſpecies of tumor mentioned by M. A. Severinus, of a middle nature, betwixt an *œdema* and ſarcoma.

ŒLNIZIUM, i. e. Œlſnitium.

ŒLSNITIUM, called alſo olſenichium, œlnizium, Thyſſelinum Plinii, apium ſylveſtre. Milky parſley. The root of this plant is perennial, large, and full of milky juice, as is the whole plant. The leaves reſemble thoſe of the ferula; the ſeed is oval, flat, large, ſtriated, marginated, and ſometimes caſts it huſks. There is another ſpecies called thyſſelinum paluſtre, and ſeſeli paluſtre. They are both hot and acrid, the roots are aperient and detergent, their milky juice is of the nature of ſcammony. See Raii Hiſt.

ŒNANTHARIA. Sweet-ſcented ointments. Paulus Ægineta ſays they are not thus named becauſe they have *œnanthe* in their compoſition, but becauſe they are ſweet-ſcented and fragrant, or on account of the wine and lilies which are ingredients in it.

ŒNANTHE, from οινη, *a vine*, and ανθος, *a flower*. Vine flower. So the ancients called ſome plant which was in flower at the ſame time as the vine, or whoſe flower had the ſame ſmell as thoſe of the vine, *œnanthe*.

ŒNANTHE CHÆROPHYLLI FOLIIS, Œnanthe petroſelidi folio venenoſa, Œnanthe cicutæ facie Lobelii, Filipendula cicutæ facie. G. Hemlock drop-wort. Dead-tongue. It is the *œnanthe* crocata of Linn. Near Clonmell, in Ireland, it is called tahow.

The root is long, thick, tuberous, extremely ſucculent, and on expoſure to the external air, the juice becomes of a yellow complexion. The ſtalk is ſtriated, round, branched, of a yellowiſh red colour, about three feet high. The leaves are of a pale green, ſome are winged, but more are doubly winged; the little leaves are wedge-ſhaped, ſmooth, ſtreaked, and jagged at the edges. The flowers are very ſmall and white; diſpoſed in umbels, placed among the principal ſtalks, with ſhort ones at the ſubdiviſions: each flower is compoſed of five petals, ſome of them are bent inwards and heart faſhioned; tips, purple or brown; fruit ſtalks angular, ſcored; the general fence not always preſent. The ſeeds are ſtriated on one ſide, and dented on the other.

It is found on the banks of rivers; is perennial; flowers in June or July.

The whole of this plant is poiſonous. It is ſaid that the root is the moſt virulent of all the vegetable poiſons that Great Britain produces. It is one of the claſs of poiſons which produces epileptic ſymptoms, &c. See VENENUM. The general effects of this poiſon are convulſions, locked jaws, giddineſs, ſome inſtances of furious madneſs have occurred, loſs of hair and nails, violent heat in the throat and ſtomach, vertigo, ſickneſs, purging: one or more of theſe ſymptoms ſoon attack after ſwallowing any part of this plant, and the conſequence is often fatal in a few hours.

This herb hath been miſtaken for wild celery, water-parſnep, ſmallage, and for Macedonian parſley. The root hath no ill taſte; hence the more apt to be unſuſpected.

In Pembrokeſhire the root is called five-fingered root; and is much uſed in cataplaſms for whitlows, &c. In Cumberland it is called dead-tongue, and applied in cataplaſms to ſome diſeaſes in horſes. An infuſion of the leaves, or three tea-ſpoonfuls of the juice of the root taken every morning, hath been effectual in curing ſome obſtinate cutaneous diſeaſes, but not without greatly diſturbing the conſtitution.

On ſuſpicion of this poiſonous plant being ſwallowed, give an active emetic as ſpeedily as poſſible, and aid its operation with warm water and oil. If the ſpaſms prevent the patient's ſwallowing, there is no hope.

Withering's Bot. Arrang. Wilmer's Obſ. on poiſonous Vegetables; a caſe of a boy poiſoned by the root of hemlock dropwort, related by Dr. Houlſton, in the Lond. Med. Journal, vol. ii. p. 40, &c.

ŒNANTHE AQUATICA, called alſo filipendula aquatica. Water drop-wort. It grows in meadows, and on the ſides of brooks. It is bitteriſh, and ſlightly aſtringent, hot, dry, and diuretic.

Theſe plants are not in uſe; inſtances are recorded of their poiſonous quality.

ŒNANTHE. Water-hemlock. Alſo a ſpecies of thalictrum.

ŒNAREA. The aſhes prepared of the twigs, &c. of vines.

ŒNELÆUM. A mixture of oil and wine.

ŒNOGALA, from οινος, *wine*, and γαλα, *milk*. A ſort of potion made of wine and milk; but according to ſome, it is wine as warm as new milk.

ŒNOPLIA, alſo called nabea, paliurus, nap, and the great jujube. This fruit is produced in Egypt and Crete; it is aſtringent before it is ripe. When ripe it is agreeable to the palate, and like cherries is ſubject to corrupt in the ſtomach. They are eaten as delicacies in Egypt and Turky.

ŒNUS. Wine.

ŒNUS ANDRIUS. Generous wine, or elſe wine of the iſland of Andros.

ŒNUS ANTHINOS. Flowery wine. Galen ſays it is either *œnus* anthoſmias, or wine impregnated with flowers, in which ſenſe it is an epithet for the cyceon.

ŒNUS ANTHOSMIAS, from ανθος, *a flower*, and οσμη, *a ſmell*. Sweet-ſcented wines.

ŒNUS APODÆDUS. Wine in which the dais or tæda hath been boiled.

ŒNUS APEZESMENUS. A wine heated to a great degree, and preſcribed among other things, as garlic, ſalt, milk, and vinegar.

ŒNUS GALACTODES. Wine with milk, or wine made as warm as new milk.

ŒNUS DEUTERUS. Wines of the ſecond preſſing.

ŒNUS DIACHEOMENUS. Wine diffuſed in larger veſſels, cooled, and ſtrained from the lees, to render it thinner and weaker. Wines thus drawn off are called faceus, and faccata, from the bag through which they are ſtrained.

ŒNUS MALACUS, ſive Malthacus. Soft wine. Sometimes it means weak and thin, oppoſed to ſtrong wine; or mild, in oppoſition to auſtere.

ŒNUS MELICHROOS. Wine in which is honey.
ŒNUS ŒNODES. Strong wine.
ŒNOS SIRÆOS, i. e. Sapa.
ŒNOS STRAPHIDIOS LEUCOS. White wine made from raiſins.
ŒNOS TETHALASMENOS. Wine mixed with ſea water.
ŒNOSTAGMA. Spirit of wine.
ŒNOTHERA, i. e. Lyſimachia.
ŒPATA. The anacardium. Alſo a tall tree in China, the kernels of whoſe fruit are uſed in a diſh which is called carii by the Indians. This fruit much reſembles the anacardium. See Raii Hiſt.
ŒSOPHAGÆÆ ARTERIÆ. Theſe are generally two or three, and ſometimes but one. They riſe anteriorly from the aorta deſcendens, and are diſtributed to the œſophagus. Sometimes the uppermoſt œſophagæ produce a bronchial artery.
ŒSOPHAGÆUS. The ſphincter œſophagi. See ŒSOPHAGUS.
ŒSOPHAGISMUS. Impeded deglutition, or ſpaſm of the œſophagus.
ŒSOPHAGUS, from ἐσω, the future tenſe of φερω, *to carry*, and φαγω, *to eat*, becauſe it carries the meat into the ſtomach. The gullet. It is the contracted continuation of the pharynx. The *œſophagus* beginning at the laſt part of the fauces, has, at its beginning, a large cavity, called by the Greeks pharynx, and by the Latins infundibulum. Its anterior part is connected with the root of the tongue, the os hyoides, and the larynx; and its poſterior part cloſely adheres to the vertebra of the neck. It is moved by various muſcles, which elevate and dilate the pharynx, and by their conſtrictory muſcles which ſhut it. There is one pair of theſe muſcles, which ariſing by three origins from the os hyoides, the cartilago cricoides, and the cartilago thyroides, totally ſurrounds the pharynx, and is called the ſphincter of the *œſophagus*. There are principally three pair of theſe muſcles, viz. the cephalo pharyngæus, ſpheno pharingæus, and ſtylo pharyngæus. At the end of the pharynx the *œſophagus* begins, which firſt of all runs ſtrait between the aſpera arteria, and the vertebræ of the neck and back, but turns to the right about the fifth vertebra of the back, and to the left about the ninth; then proceeding through the middle of the thorax, and the muſcular part of the diaphragm, behind the little lobe of the liver, it is united with the ſuperior orifice of the ſtomach. The *œſophagus* itſelf conſiſts of four coats, the outermoſt coat of which being membranaceous, thin, vaſcular, and cellular, derives its origin from the pleura, and joins the gullet to the adjacent parts. Some reckon the cellular membrane in the number of its coats, but this is not peculiar to it. The coat next to the outer is muſcular, furniſhed with annular or orbicular fibres, and above theſe with longitudinal ones. The third coat is nervous, common to the mouth and fauces, and reaching three fingers breadth within the ſtomach; it is thick ſet with glands, to which, on the oppoſite ſide, are diſtributed ſome veſſels, from which they receive a certain liquor, more pinguious than the ſaliva, and which drops into the cavity of the gullet. The fourth coat, or innermoſt, is covered with a ſlippery mucus, villous, and every where perforated like a ſieve, with many emunctories. The cuticle lines the *œſophagus*, but is too thin to be demonſtrated. The *œſophagus* is furniſhed with numberleſs glands, partly thoſe which being ſmaller than the eggs of ſilkworms, are lodged in the nervous coat, and are eaſily perceived, if upon taking off the nervous coat, the fleſhy coat is expoſed to the ſight, or the gullet is macerated in water; and partly with other glands placed without the *œſophagus*, amongſt which the moſt conſiderable are the dorſal glands about the fifth vertebra of the back, adhering to the gullet, and the thyroid gland ſituated between the thyro-cricoide cartilage and the *œſophagus*. Its upper part receives arteries from the internal carotids, its middle part from the aorta and intercoſtal, and its inferior part from the gaſtric arteries. The ſuperior part receives veins from the jugulars, its middle from the vena ſine pari, and its inferior from the coronary veins of the ſtomach. The nerves proceed from the par vagum. The function of the *œſophagus* is, ſwallowing; obſtructions to which may happen from various cauſes. See DEGLUTITIO.

Spaſms in the *œſophagus* ſometimes prevent deglutition. Hoffman obſerves, that ſpaſms of the *œſophagus* are accompanied with the general ſymptoms of other diſtentions of the upper parts; a coldneſs of the extremities, particularly the feet; tremor of the limbs, ſuppreſſion of the alvine evacuations, regurgitation of flatulencies upwards, ſtrictures, pains, and rumbling of the belly, ſtraitneſs of the præcordia, retchings to vomit, cardialgia, thin watery urine, and a hard and large pulſe. The ſymptoms peculiar to ſpaſms of the pharynx, are, a difficulty, or a total inability of deglutition; a rigid conſtriction and pain of the parts cohering with the pharynx, as the tongue, the larynx, and the whole neck; a ſuffocative uneaſineſs; a ſenſation, as of a ſtake thruſt into the fauces, or of ſomething endeavouring to get out; and a loſs of voice. Theſe complaints return at intervals, and ſometimes terminate in convulſions of the whole nervous ſyſtem. In ſpaſms of the *œſophagus* itſelf, the aliment is ſwallowed freely, but a kind of reſiſtance is perceived to its deſcent, about the upper orifice of the ſtomach: cold liquors are particularly reſiſted, and increaſe the conſtriction, whilſt warm ones often paſs freely into the ſtomach. A pain is felt on the ſpine, between the ſcapulæ; often anxious retchings or vomitings are joined, with naufea, and a diſcharge of limpid mucus from the mouth, diſtinct from the vomitings. A combination of theſe ſymptoms with thoſe above enumerated, denote the whole canal to be affected. Spaſms of the pharynx are diſtinguiſhed from a paralyſis or relaxation of the part, by the difficulty of ſwallowing being in the latter continual, in the former intermitting: in the paralyſis, ſolids are more eaſily ſwallowed than liquids; in ſpaſms the difficulty of ſwallowing ſolids and liquids is equal: ſpaſms of the pharynx are diſtinguiſhed from inflammations, by the latter being accompanied with ſwelling, redneſs, heat in the fauces, thirſt, and fever. Spaſms of the gullet have alſo one ſymptom, the reſiſtance to the deſcent of food, in common with ſome other diſorders, as an obſtruction of the *œſophagus* from ſome ſolid bodies ſticking in it, tumors, excreſcences, ſwellings of the glands joined to the *œſophagus*, about the fifth vertebra of the back. But in theſe caſes, though ſolid foods ſtop, and are thrown up again, liquids, both cold and hot, paſs down with a greater or leſs degree of freedom; whilſt, in ſpaſmodic ſtrictures, cold liquors paſs with remarkably greater difficulty than ſuch as are warm: ſpaſms in the *œſophagus* are alſo accompanied with pains in the ſcapulæ.

Idiopathic ſpaſms of the pharynx are apt, from improper treatment, to become obſtinate and habitual. Thoſe which ariſe from acrid ſubſtances threaten an inflammation; from hyſteric paſſions, an apoplexy. Etmuller obſerves, that a difficulty of ſwallowing from a convulſion, in wounds is dangerous; and Hippocrates, that a ſudden contortion of the neck, obſtructing deglutition, without any ſwelling in fevers, is mortal. Spaſms of the gullet from paſſion at meals, are apt to lay the foundation of cholera, and bilious fevers. The general indications of cure, are, to alleviate the ſpaſms, and remove their cauſes. The firſt is anſwered by antiſpaſmodics and anodynes, mixed with diſcutients, both given internally, and applied externally. The more violent the conſtriction, the more neceſſary it is to begin with externals. Emollient glyſters, with the addition of corroborants, are to be two or three times repeated; and the feet bathed in pretty warm water, to invite the humours downwards; when pediluvia are called in aid, be careful that the feet be not too cold; if they are, they muſt firſt be warmed by frictions, and bottles of hot water. To the part affected apply paregoric nervine liniments, compoſed of vinous ſpirit, ſpt. of ſal ammon. eſſent. croci, eſſ. nucis Moſchat. campbor. liquor. minor. anod. &c. The balſ. vitæ, and the lig. miner. anod may be dropped on ſugar, and kept in the mouth, to be ſlowly ſwallowed. A bladder of warm water may be applied to the throat. If the face is red, the veſſels inflated, with ſtrong pulſation in the arteries of the head, and at the ſame time there are conſtrictions of the fauces, a vein may be opened to prevent an apoplexy. The ſpaſms allayed by means of antiſpaſmodics externally and

internally uſed, proved to ſubdue the cauſe. If acrid ſubſtances, draſtic purgatives, or emetics, have given riſe to the diſeaſe, their acrimony muſt be immediately obtunded by mucilages, oils, milk, fat broths, warm water drank plentifully, ſo as to promote a gentle vomiting. In ſpaſms of the *oeſophagus*, from a violent fit of anger during a meal, there is generally an effuſion of bile into the ſtomach; in this caſe give abſorbents, and mucilaginous ſubſtances, as water-gruel, or barley-water; and afterwards evacuate by means of manna, or rhubarb, or other gentle laxatives; or emetics, as tart. emet. gr. i. vel ij. with one of theſe laxatives. But never give either emetic or purgative immediately after paſſion: in caſe of flatulencies offending, oily and carminative glyſters are to be preferred. In chronical ſpaſms of the gullet, from a general bad habit, or from crudities in the ſtomach and bowels; the firſt muſt be obviated by ſuitable alteratives and abſorbents, the latter by manna, rhubarb, &c. In very obſtinate caſes mineral waters are extolled. In hypochondriacal caſes, where uterine or hæmorrhoidal hæmorrhages are obſtructed, the ſulphureous mineral waters, with bleeding and proper exerciſe, are the principal remedies. Chronical ſpaſms of the *oeſophagus*, from a debility of the nervous ſyſtem, are chiefly to be cured by dietetics; a light ſlender food; balſamic elixirs to ſtrengthen the ſtomach; moderate, but frequent exerciſe, occaſional bleedings, the hot ſulphureous waters both for drinking and bathing in. In ſpaſms of the lower gullet, externals are beſt applied to the ſpine, with which the *oeſophagus* is immediately connected. If the ſpaſms are ſo violent that the patient cannot ſwallow, he muſt be ſupported by nouriſhing glyſters.

See Hoffman's Practice of Phyſic, tranſlated by Lewis, vol. ii. p. 147, &c. Percival's Eſſays, Medical and Experimental, vol. ii. p. 141, &c. Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 90.

ŒSTRUM VENERIS, i. e. Clitoris.

ŒSTROMANIA. The furor uterinus.

ŒSYPE, Œſypos, or Œſypum. The greaſy ſordes of wool

OFFA ALBA HELMONTII. If rectified ſpirit of wine be poured gently into a fully ſaturated volatile alkaline ſpirit, the ſpirit of wine running on the ſide of the glaſs, which muſt ſtand in a cold place, immediately an opake denſe coagulum is formed, which on gently ſhaking falls into a conſiſtent maſs; this maſs ſoon reſolves, by warmth, into a ſolid and a fluid part; the ſolid part is called offa alba. It is ſuppoſed to be a volatile ſoap, compoſed of the volatile ſalt of one ſpirit and the oil of the other; but it is no more than the alkaline ſalt diſlodged by the vinous ſpirit.

OFFICINALIA. Officinals. In pharmacy it is an appellation given to ſuch medicines, whether ſimple or compound, as are required to be conſtantly kept in the apothecary's ſhop.

OFFUSCATIO. The ſame as amauroſis. Aitken.

OLAMPI. The name of a gum which reſembles copal, and is brought from America. Lemery ſays it is ſweet to the taſte, and ſomewhat aſtringent. It is not in uſe with us.

OLDENLANDIA. It is a plant to which father Plumier gave this name, in honour of B. Oldenland, a German botaniſt.

OLEA. The olive tree. It is the olea Europea, Linn. It is an evergreen, with oblong narrow willow-like leaves, and monopetalous whitiſh flowers, cut into four ſections, followed by cluſters of oval black fruit, containing, under a fleſhy pulp, a hard rough ſtone. It is a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, and bears the ordinary winters of our own clime. Boerhaave mentions five ſpecies.

The fruit hath a bitter, auſtere, diſagreeable taſte: pickled it proves leſs ungrateful, and is ſuppoſed to promote an appetite, help digeſtion, and attenuate viſcid phlegm in the firſt paſſages. The Lucca olives are the ſmalleſt and weakeſt, and the Spaniſh are the largeſt and ſtrongeſt taſted. The middling ſize, which are brought from Provence, are generally moſt eſteemed: but the principal conſumption of this fruit is, for the obtaining their oil. When ripe it is ground and preſſed, the purer and finer oil iſſues out firſt, by gentle preſſure; and inferior ſorts, on heating the reſiduum, and preſſing it more ſtrongly. See OLEUM.

OLEAMEN. A thin liniment compoſed of oils.

OLEANDER. The roſebay.

OLEASTER. The wild olive. It differs from the olea, or garden olive, only in culture.

OLEASTER GERMANICUS. A ſpecies of rhamnoides.

OLECRANON, from ωλενη, *cubitus*, and κρανον, *the head*. The elbow. It is the largeſt of the two apophyſes at the upper end of the ulna; it ends in a rough tuberoſity and an obtuſe point. The tuberoſity makes the corner of the elbow; the point is lodged in the poſterior cavity of the lower extremity of the os humeri, when the fore-arm is extended. Alſo the head of the humerus.

OLENE. The cubit.

OLEOSACCHARUM. Eſſential oils, ground with eight or ten times their weight of ſugar, becomes ſoluble in water, and may be diluted to any aſſigned degree; and thus *oleoſaccharums* are formed, and kept in well ſtopped bottles for making extemporaneous diſtilled waters, either ſimple or compound. Mucilages render them miſcible with water into a milky liquor; they diſſolve alſo in a little more than their weight of rectified ſpirit of wine. The extemporaneous waters which are made by means of *oleoſaccharums*, are not ſo grateful as thoſe that are diſtilled, for want of the volatile ſaline parts which remain in diſtillation.

OLEUM. Oil. *Oils* are animal, vegetable, and mineral. Animal *oils* are the fat of animals, which are originally vegetable *oils*. All animal ſubſtances yield this *oil* by diſtillation. Vegetable *oils* are principally procured by expreſſion, diſtillation, and by boiling. The mineral ones are obtained ſpontaneouſly, and by diſtillation.

Among the ſubſtances naturally contained in vegetables, and ſeparable by art, without alteration of their native qualities, are the following:

1. Groſs, or expreſſed *oils*. Theſe abound chiefly in the kernels of fruits, and in certain ſeeds, are commonly extracted by expreſſion, and hence are diſtinguiſhed by the name of expreſſed *oil*. This *oil* is contained in all parts of a vegetable, and may be forced out by the action of fire, but thus their qualities are altered. Expreſſed *oils* are not diſſoluble in water, nor in ſpirit of wine, without firſt being mixed with ſome ſuitable medium. If expoſed to the cold they loſe much of their fluidity, ſome of them congealing into a conſiſtent maſs with a ſmall degree of cold. If they are kept ſome time in a warm air, they become thin and rancid, their ſoftening quality is changed into an acrid one; and in this ſtate, inſtead of allaying irritation, they occaſion it: this rancidity is attracted even in the kernels, &c. in which this oil reſides before its being expreſſed; yet on triturating thoſe ſeeds, &c. with water into an emulſion, this emulſion, inſtead of growing rancid, turns ſour. In ſuch a degree of heat as will occaſion a ſmall evaporation from theſe *oils*, a pungent vapour ariſes, ſeemingly of the acid kind; and when ſuffered to grow cold again, they are found to have acquired a greater degree of conſiſtence than they had before, together with an acrid taſte. In a heat approaching to ignition, in cloſe veſſels, greateſt part of the oil ariſes in an empyreumatic ſtate, a black coal remaining behind.

In order to obtain theſe *oils*, the ſeeds, &c. which contain them, muſt be ground or powdered ſmall, then included in proper bags, and wrapped in hair cloths, then committed to the preſs, by which the oil is forced out. To facilitate the expreſſion, it is uſual to warm either the preſs, or the plates betwixt which the ſeeds, &c. are ſqueezed; or to heat the ſubject which is to be preſſed. But heat occaſions rancidity, ſo ſhould only be admitted when this circumſtance interferes not with the uſe for which the *oil* is deſigned. Many are the different ſeeds, &c. which afford *oil* by this treatment, but the preſent practice attends but to few, viz. the olive, almond, linſeed, and muſtard ſeed. Indeed, there is not much difference betwixt the expreſſed *oil* of one and another, the diſcriminating quality of the ſubjects not reſiding in the *oil* which is thus obtained; the *oil* of muſtard is as ſoft, inſipid, and void of pungency, as that of ſweet almonds, the pungency of the muſtard remaining in the cake left behind after expreſſion; it is true, that there are certain

ſpecific

ſpecific differences betwixt them, but, as medicines, they are ſo nearly alike, that they may generally be indiſcriminately uſed; they are emollient, they ſoften and relax the ſolids, and they obtund acrimony in the humours, and thus may be uſed internally when ſuch diſorders attend as ariſe from rigidity and acrimony, provided the body is not greatly heated thereby, for then the mild *oil* becomes ſo acrid as to be very irritating.

As to the *oils* that are expreſſed from aromatic ſubſtances, they are of a very different nature from theſe. See Essential Oils

Though expreſſed *oils* may be combined with water, by the intervention of gum or mucilage, yet they do not act upon, or unite with the gummy or mucilaginous parts of vegetables; hence the ol. e. mucilaginibus, does not contain any of the mucilage with which its ingredients ſo much abound. Expreſſed *oils* may be tinged by vegetable matters of almoſt all colours; in making the officinal *oils* by decoction, in order to have the colour clear and ſtrong, the beſt method is to ſtrain off the *oil* as ſoon as it hath acquired a ſufficient depth of colour, and then again to boil it until no aqueous vapours exhale. If the water is not all exhaled, the *oil* will have a dingy colour, and ſoon be mouldy; and if the leaves that are boiled in the *oil*, continue after they are criſp, they occaſion a diſagreeable blackneſs.

2. A groſs ſebaceous matter. From the kernels of ſome fruits, as that of the chocolate-nut, inſtead of a fluid *oil*, a ſubſtance is obtained which is of a butyraceous conſiſtence. Theſe are moſt commodiouſly extracted by boiling the ſubject in water; this ſebaceous matter, liquefied by heat, ſeparates and ariſes to the ſurface, and reſumes its proper conſiſtence as the liquor cools. The ſubſtances of this claſs have the ſame general properties with expreſſed *oils*, but are leſs diſpoſed to become rancid in breaking than moſt of the common fluid *oils*. It is ſuppoſed that their thicker conſiſtence is owing to a larger admixture of an acid principle; for in their reſolution by fire, they yield a vapour more ſenſibly acid than the fluid *oils*; and fluid *oils*, by the admixture of concentrated acids, are reduced to a thick and a ſolid maſs.

3. *Eſſential oils*. They are obtained only from thoſe vegetables, or parts of vegetables, that are conſiderably odorous. They are the direct principle in which the odour, and oftentimes the warmth and pungency, and other active powers of the ſubject reſide, whence their names of eſſences and *eſſential oils*. *Eſſential oils* unite with rectified ſpirit of wine, though ſome of them require for this purpoſe a much larger proportion of the ſpirit than others; water alſo, though it does not diſſolve their whole ſubſtance, may be made to imbibe ſome portion of their more ſubtil matter, ſo as to become conſiderably impregnated with their flavour, as happens in diſtillation; by the admixture of ſugar, gum, &c. they are totally diſſolved with water. Digeſted with volatile alkalies, they undergo various changes of colour, and ſome of the leſs odorous acquire conſiderable degrees of fragrancy, whilſt fixed alkalies univerſally impair their odour. In the heat of boiling water theſe *oils* totally exhale, and on this principle they are commonly extracted from ſubjects that contain them; for no other fluid that naturally exiſts in vegetables is exhalable by that degree of heat, except the aqueous moiſture, from which greateſt part of the oil is eaſily ſeparated. Some of theſe *oils* riſe with much leſs heat than others. In their reſolution by a burning heat, they differ little from expreſſed *oils*. When expoſed for ſome time to a warm air, they ſuffer an alteration very different from that which the expreſſed undergo; inſtead of growing thin, rancid, and acrimonious, they gradually become thick, and at length harden into a ſolid, brittle concrete, with a remarkable diminution of their volatility, fragrancy, pungency, and warm ſtimulating quality. In this ſtate they are found to conſiſt of two kinds of matter, a fluid *oil*, volatile in the heat of boiling water, and nearly of the ſame quality as the original *oil*, and of a groſſer ſubſtance, which remains behind, not exhalable without a burning heat, or ſuch a one as changes its nature, and reſolves it into an acid, an empyreumatic *oil*, and a black coal. The admixture of a concentrated acid, inſtantly produces in *eſſential oils* a change nearly ſimilar to that which time affects.

The oils expreſſed from aromatic ſubſtances differ from thoſe which are thus obtained from olives, almonds, &c. Theſe retain for the moſt part an admixture of the aromatic matter of the ſubject; thus aniſeed, mace, and nutmegs, yield, upon expreſſion, an *oil* impregnated with the flavour of the ſpices, and an *oil* expreſſed from aniſeed hath a great ſhare of the peculiar ſmell of the ſeeds. A purgative *oil* is expreſſed from the ſeeds of the ricinus. The rinds of oranges, lemons, and citrons, yield, by a kind of expreſſion, their *eſſential oils*, almoſt as pure, and nearly ſimilar to thoſe which are obtained from them by diſtillation. The *eſſential oils*, in which the fragrance, and aromatic warmth of theſe fruits reſide, are contained in numerous cells, or veſicles, which may be diſtinguiſhed by the naked eye, and are ſpread all over the ſurface of the peel; it is moſt conveniently obtained by rubbing a piece of lump ſugar on the ſurface of the freſh peel; the veſicles are thus burſt, and the ſugar imbibes the *oil*; when the ſurface of the ſugar is ſufficiently moiſtened therewith, ſcrape it into a phial, and keep it cloſe until it is uſed.

Moſt eſſential *oils* are drawn by diſtillation. A quantity of water is added to the ſubject, ſufficient to prevent its burning, and in this water it is macerated a little before the diſtillation; the *oil* comes over with the water, and either floats on its ſurface, or falls to the bottom. The water employed in diſtilling *eſſential oils* imbibes ſome portion of them; it cannot, however, retain above a certain quantity, and therefore ſuch as hath been already uſed, and almoſt ſaturated itſelf, may be advantageouſly employed inſtead of common water in future diſtillations of the ſame ſubject.

Eſſential oils are very often adulterated. If the mixture is with an expreſſed *oil*, the fraud is diſcovered by adding a little rectified ſpirit of wine to a few drops of the ſuſpected *eſſential oil*, and, ſhaking them together, the ſpirit diſſolves all the *eſſential oil*, and leaves the expreſſed untouched; or if it is the heavier *eſſential oils*, the ſuſpected one may be dropped into water, and the *eſſential oil*, after a briſk agitation, falls to the bottom, and the expreſſed *oil* ſwims at the top, or evaporate a little in a ſilver ſpoon, by which the *eſſential oil* will leave the expreſſed behind. If the adulteration is with rectified ſpirit of wine, drop a little of the ſuſpected *oil* into water, or into ſpirit of turpentine; and if a milkineſs appears on the mixture being ſhaken, there is ſpirit of wine in the *oil*. If the *eſſential oil* is mixed with other cheaper *eſſential oils*, dip a rag into the ſuſpected *oil*, and then hold it before the fire; thus the flavour of the genuine *oil* paſſes off, and leaves that of the added one ſufficientldy diſtinct behind. The cheap *eſſential oils* that are added, are uſually thoſe of the turpentine kind, which are alſo diſcovered by dropping the ſuſpected *oil* into ſpirit of wine, for then a milkineſs is produced, but not if the *oil* is genuine.

Eſſential oils, medically conſidered, agree in the general qualities of pungency and heat, though in theſe they differ in their degrees; in particular virtues they differ, as the ſubjects do from which they are obtained. Some of theſe *oils* are uſed to correct reſinous purges; they make them eaſy in the ſtomach at the firſt, but ſo far from abating their irritating quality, they add a freſh ſtimulus. Theſe *oils* are beſt adminiſtered with powders, pills, boluſſes, or electaries.

4. Concrete *eſſential oil*. Some vegetables, ſuch as roſes and the roots of elecampane, inſtead of a fluid *eſſential oil*, yield a ſubſtance poſſeſſing the ſame general properties, but of a thicker and ſebaceous conſiſtence. This ſubſtance appears of as great volatility and ſubtilty as the fluid *oils*; it equally exhales in the heat of boiling water, and concretes upon the ſurface of the collected vapour. The total exhalation of this matter, and its concreting again in its original conſiſtent ſtate, without any ſeparation of it into a fluid and a ſolid part, diſtinguiſhes it from *eſſential oils* that have been thickened or indurated by age or by acids. See Hoffman's Obſ. Phyſ. Chem. lib. i. Neumann's Chem Works. Dict. of Chem. The New Diſpenſatory.

OLFACTORII NERVI. The olfactory nerves. They were formerly called proceſſus mammillares. They are the firſt pair of *nerves* from the brain. They ſeem to approach nearer each other as they paſs towards the criſta galli. They divide into many ſmall filaments, which paſs through

through the foramina of the os ethmoides. On theſe *nerves* no covering from the dura mater can be traced. See Olfactus.

OLFACTUS. The ſenſe of ſmelling. The mucous membrane which lines the noſtrils, hath its ſurface greatly enlarged by its ſpreading into the two frontal ſinuſes, the antra of Highmore, the cells in the ſphenoid bone, and on the ſpongy bones of the noſtrils. The olfactory nerves, without their dura matral coat, pierce the holes in the ethmoid bone, and ſpread themſelves in the mucous membrane of the noſtril. Theſe nerves are widely expanded, and no where are the nerves ſo ſoft, naked, and conſequently ſo eaſily affected and injured as in this; yet an inſipid mucus is conſtantly ſeparated in the membrane of the noſe to defend the nerves. A branch from the fifth pair is alſo ſent to this membrane, by the irritation of which ſneezing is excited when the mucus is not duly diſcharged. The objects of *ſmell* are thoſe parts of ſubſtances which are lodged in their ſpirit, oil, ſalt, or ſoap, if they are ſo divided as to become capable of floating in the atmoſphere; but from experiments it is plain, that the ſpirit lodged in the *oil*, is that which excites the *ſenſe of ſmelling*; for when this ſpirit is ſeparated, the ſubject is inodorous, and to whatever ſubject this ſpirit is communicated, there the odour is alſo. The *ſenſe of ſmell* is only excited when the odorous effluvia contained in the air, and attracted through the noſtrils, are impreſſed on the olfactory nerves. The longer the noſtrils, the more the ſurface thereof, and of the ſpongy bones there are enlarged, the more acute is the *ſenſe of ſmelling*.

OLIBANUM, called alſo thus, thus maſculinum, frankincenſe. It is a gummy reſin brought from Turkey and the Eaſt Indies. Dale ſays he found a ſpecies of cedar in Carolina which afforded a gum ſo like this, that he could not perceive any difference in it. The tree is the juniperus lycia, or juniperus foliis ternis undiquæ imbricatis ovatis obtuſis, Linn. It is uſually in drops or tears, like thoſe of maſtich, but larger, of a pale yellowiſh colour, which by age becomes reddiſh. It hath ſeveral names, according to its different appearances; the ſingle tears are called ſimply olibanum, or thus; when two are joined together, they have been called thus maſculinum; and when two were very large, thus fœminium; ſometimes four or five have adhered together about as big as filberts, and, perhaps, found on the bark of the tree; theſe have been named thus corticoſum; the finer powder which rubs off from tears in carriage is called manna thuris. This drug, however, is not in any of its ſtates what is now called thus, or frankincenſe, in the ſhops.

This gummy reſin hath a moderately ſtrong, not very agreeable ſmell, and a bitteriſh pungent taſte. In chewing it ſticks to the teeth, becomes white, and renders the ſaliva milky. Laid on a red hot iron it readily catches flame, and burns with a ſtrong diffuſive ſmell, which is not unpleaſant. It is ſuppoſed to have been the incenſe uſed by the ancients in their religious ceremonies. On trituration with water, the greateſt part of it diſſolves into a milky liquor, which on ſtanding depoſits a portion of reſinous matter, and being now gently inſpiſſated, leaves a yellow extract, which retains greateſt part of the ſmell, as well as taſte, of the *olibanum*, the odorous matter appearing to be of a leſs volatile kind than that of moſt other gummy reſins. Rectified ſpirit of wine diſſolves leſs than water, but it takes up nearly all the active matter. The doſe is from ℈ i. to ʒ i. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

OLIBANUM. The Greek name for frankincenſe.

OLIDA, i. e. Abruſ.

OLISTHEMA, from ολισθαινω, *to fall out*. A luxation.

OLIVARIA CORPORA. Two eminences on the lower part of the medulla oblongata, near where it commences medulla ſpinalis. Many tables place theſe higher, but unjuſtly.

OLOPHLYCTIDES, i. e. Phlyctænæ.

OLSENICHIUM, i. e. Œlſnitium.

OLUS ALBUM, i. e. Valeriana arvenſis præcox humilior ſemine depreſſo.

OLUS ATRUM, i. e. Smyrnium.

OLUS AUREUM, i. e. Atriplex Hortenſis.

OLUS HISPANICUM, i. e. Spinacia.

OLUS JUDAICUM. See Corchorus.

OLUSATRUM. See Apium and Hipposelinum.

OLYRA. Sprat corn. It grows in Germany. It is inferior to ſpelt wheat.

OMAGRA. The gout in the articulation of the humerus with the ſcapula.

OMASUM, or Omaſus. The third ventricle of a ruminating animal.

OMELYSIS, from ωμος, *crude*. Some ſay it is the meal of barley not parched; others, that is any ſort of meal.

OMENTA. The membranes of the brain.

OMENTI. Inflammatio. The ſame as omentitis.

OMENTITIS. Inflammation of the omentum. It is the ſame as the puerperilis febris; which ſee.

OMENTUM, called epiploon by the Greeks, and by us the cawl. It is alſo called reticulum, from its ſtructure reſembling that of a net. Below the liver, floating over the inteſtines, is the *omentum*, whoſe ſuperior portion is, as it were, divided into two borders, one of which is fixed along the great arch of the colon, and the other along the great curvature of the ſtomach. The union of theſe two borders on the right ſide is fixed to the ligament, or adheſion of the duodenum and colon; that on the left-ſide to the longitudinal ſciſſure of the ſpleen, to the extremity of the pancreas, and to the convex ſide of the great extremity of the ſtomach. The *omentum* is generally larger on the left-ſide than on the right. Its uſe is, by its fat, to lubricate the parts adjacent, to prevent adheſions of the inteſtines, and as a preparatory organ for the bile.

The little *omentum*, called alſo meſo-gaſter. See Mesogastrion.

OMOCOTYLE. The cavity in the extremity of the neck of the ſcapula, in which the head of the humerus is articulated.

OMOHYOIDÆUS MUSCULUS, i. e. Coraco-hyoidæus muſc.

OMOPLATÆ, from ωμος, *the ſhoulder*, and πλατυς, *broad*. The ſcapulæ.

OMOPLATO-HYOIDÆUS, i. e. Coraco-hyoidæus muſc.

OMOS. The ſhoulder. Moſchion calls part of the uterus thus, which is beyond the neck, where it grows broad.

OMOTRIBES. Oil expreſſed from unripe olives.

OMPHACINUM. Oil from unripe olives.

OMPHACIUM. The juice of unripe grapes.

OMPHACITIS. A ſmall kind of gall, an excreſcence of oak.

OMPHACOMELI. A ſort of oxymel made of the juice of unripe grapes and honey.

OMPHALOCARPOS. The name for the aparine.

OMPHALOCELE, from ομφαλος, *the navel*, and κηλη, *a rupture*, Hernia umbilicalis.

OMPHALODES, from ομφαλος, *a navel*. This plant is thus named, becauſe the calyx is excavated in the middle, like the human *navel*. It much reſembles borage, but is not ſo ſucculent. Boerhaave enumerates three ſpecies, but they are not noted for any medical uſe.

OMPHALOS. The navel, alſo a rupture there.

OMPHAX. Unripe grapes, or their juice.

ONAGRA. The name of a plant, three ſpecies of which are noticed by Boerhaave; but no medical virtues are attributed to them. The rheumatiſm in the elbow is alſo thus called.

ONEIRODYNIA, Diſturbed or troubled ſleep. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes, and order veſaniæ. He defines it be violent, or diſturbed action of the imagination during ſleep. He obſerves two ſpecies. 1. *Oneirodynia* activa; as when people riſe in their ſleep, and walk here and there, &c. See Somnambulo. 2. *Oneirodynia* gravans; as when a ſenſe of weight is felt on the breaſt. See Incubus.

ONEIROGMOS, from ονειρωσσω, *ſomno in ſomno profundere*. Venereal dreams. Thus Cœlius Aurelianus calls this diſorder, and he deſcribes it as diſturbing the patient with wild deluſive dreams, and frequently emitting their *ſemen* whilſt aſleep. He ſays it is the reſult of impreſſions on the fancy, which affect the patient during ſleep, and ariſing from extraordinary deſire of, or great abſtinence from venery. See Cœl. Aurel. Morb. Chron. lib. v. c. 7.

ONEIROGONOS. So the Greeks call an occaſional emiſſion of the ſemen in ſleep, when it only happens rarely.

ONISCI. Wood-lice.

ONISCUS. A genus of inſects of the claſs aptera; and of this genus the wood-lice are a ſpecies.

ONITIS. A ſpecies of origanum.

ONOBRICHIS, from *ονος, an aſs*, and *βρυχω, to bray*; becauſe the ſmell of this plant makes *aſſes bray*, or becauſe when an *aſs* eats the pods of this plant he is ſaid *to bray*. Botaniſts vary in deſcribing this plant, one calling one plant, and another a different one, by this name.

ONOBRYCHIS, called alſo polygalon Geſneri, caput gallinaceum, holy-hay, cock's head vetch, ſainfoin.

It grows on hills, in highways, and corn-fields, but always in dry chalky ſoil expoſed to the ſun. It is cultivated for feeding of cattle. It is ſaid to generate much milk in cows.

There is another ſpecies called campanula erecta. Beſides theſe, Boerhaave mentions other three.

ONOBRYCHIS. It is a name for ſeveral ſorts of hedyſarum.

ONOCHELIS, Onochiles, or Onoclea. A ſpecies of anchuſa.

ONOPTERIS MAS. A ſpecies of adianthum.

ONOSMA. Stone bugloſs.

ONOCHYTES. The onyx ſtone.

ONONIS. Reſt-harrow. The ſpecies formerly uſed was the *ononis* ſpinoſa, Linn.

ONYCHITIS. A ſort of cadmia, which is veined like an onyx-ſtone.

ONYCHIA. A whitlow at the ſide of the finger nail.

ONYX, alſo called ſolen, aulos, domax, dactylus. It reſembles the blatta-byzantia, but is obtained from any other ſpecies of turbinated ſhell-fiſh.

The Greeks gave this name to the diſeaſe of the eye, which is alſo called unguis.

It is the name of a precious ſtone alſo called camehnia, and onychites. It hath been called *onyx*, from the reſemblance of ſome ſpecimens, both in colour and ſhape, to the human nail. The characters of the *onyx* agate, are, that it is compoſed of agate matter, of two different colours, which run in lines, having the ſame direction; both colours ſometimes being tranſparent; both ſometimes opaque; and ſometimes the one tranſparent, and the other opaque. Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy.

OOEIDES. An epithet for the aqueous humour of the eye.

OPACARPATHON. The juice of a poiſonous herb called carpaſus.

OPALUS, called alſo pederos, opal. A ſtone which reſembles the mother of pearl, but it is harder, and of a better luſtre. Its natural ground colour is whitiſh, but it gives all the other colours in reflection. The beſt are brought from the Eaſt. It is a ſpecies of agate.

OPERCULI CONCHYLII. See BLATTA BYZANTIA.

OPERCULUM COCHILEÆ CŒLATÆ, i. e. Umbilicus marinus.

OPHIASIS. See ALOPECIA.

OPHIOGLOSSOIDES NIGER. A ſort of fungus of no medical efficacy.

OPHIOGLOSSUM, from *οφις, a ſerpent*, and *γλωσσα, a tongue*, becauſe the fruit of the plant reſembles a tongue. Adder's tongue. It is the *ophioglooſſum* vulgatum, Linn. This plant hath only one leaf, with a ſlender ſtalk ariſing from the bottom of it, dented about the edges, and ſuppoſed to reſemble the tongue of a ſerpent. It grows in meadows. The leaf is thick, of a freſh green colour, and juicy. The ſeed is in a green ſpike.

OPHIOSCORDON, or Ophioſcorodon: alſo called victorialis; allium montanum latifolium maculatum; allium alpinum; ſpotted ramſons; broad leaved mountain garlic. It is a ſpecies of garlic. It is kept in the gardens of the curious, but grows wild in moſt countries. Its virtues are ſimilar to the common garlic. See Raii Hiſt.

OPHIOSTAPHYLON. White bryony.

OPHITES, called alſo ſerpentinus, ophite, or ſpleen-ſtone. It is a hard ſort of marble, of a deep green colour, interſperſed with ſpots of a fainter green. There are three ſpecies, diſtinguiſhed by their being differently marked. Mr. Edwards, in his Elements of Foſſilogy, mentions ophites and nephritic ſtones, of the genus called marmaroproſeron.

OPHRIS, and Ophris major, i. e. Biſolium.

OPHRYS. The loweſt part of the forehead, where the eye-brows grow; and the hair of the eye-brows.

OPHRYS UNIFOLIA, i. e. Monophyllon.

OPHTHALMIA, from *οφθαλμος, an eye*. An inflammation of the membranes which inveſt the eyes; particularly the conjunctiva.

Monſ. de St. Yves diſtinguiſhes this diſorder into fourteen or fifteen different kinds, according to their different cauſes, or other circumſtances, as follow:

1. An inflammation of the tunica conjunctiva, which is attended with a violent heat, and a flux of tears; ſometimes without great heat, or an extraordinary flux of tears, the inflammation extends all over the eye, and affects the adjacent parts. In many inſtances there are pricking pains, a beating of the arteries, ſwelling, great heat, violent redneſs, ſcalding tears, at times a painful ſenſation is felt, ſuch as is occaſioned by ſand falling into the eye. This ſpecies is the moſt frequent, for it attends almoſt every diſorder to which the eye is ſubject, and, in ſhort, conſtitutes moſt of the other ſpecies of *ophthalmies*. The cauſe may be either external or internal; whatever irritates the eye, is the immediate cauſe. In the Med. Muſ. vol. i. p. 370, &c. are two inſtances of inflamed eyes from a louſe having got into the great angle of the eye in one caſe; and a ſmall inſect of ſome kind not mentioned having inſinuated itſelf into the cornea, in the other caſe.

2. The dry *ophthalmia*. In this caſe the tunica conjunctiva is inflamed; but there are neither tears nor pus. Neither ſwelling, pain, or other remarkable ſymptoms attend. This ſpecies, which St. Yves calls the dry *ophthalmia*, is the ſlighteſt kind; it is by ſome called phlogoſis; the ancients call it taraxis, which ſee. The dry *ophthalmy* of Cullen is the xerophthalmia, which ſee.

3. An humid *ophthalmia*. It is cauſed by a redundant acrid lachrymal lymph, which occaſions a ſwelling in the inner part of the eye-lids, and ſometimes ulcerates the cornea; ſhooting pains are felt in the eye, and the light cannot be borne. When it attends children, their lips are ſometimes ſwelled, and their noſes, and ſcabs ſpread on their faces.

4. An *ophthalmia* from a defluxion on the brain. In this ſpecies an itching is felt in the eye, a thick glutinous matter oozes out, and conglutinates the eye-lids in the night.

5. An *ophthalmia* attended with a dry film. This reſembles the dry *ophthalmia*; but in this caſe the eye-lids are ſmeared with dry films like gritty flour, which occaſions much pain in the eye.

6. The *ophthalmia* in the globe of the eye towards the acanthi. This kind is when the patient's eyes are red only towards the angles, whilſt the other parts are unaffected. But when the caruncula lachrymalis becomes inflamed, the veſſels which paſs under it, ſwell even to the tranſparent part of the cornea. This kind often changes to the diſorder called unguis.

7. The *ophthalmia* with pimples on the globe of the eye. In this ſpecies there is a ſwelling of the ſmall bundle of veins which are ſent from the inner ſurface of the eye-lids, and terminate where the conjunctiva is joined with the tranſparent part of the cornea; a pimple as large as a lentil appears there, which ſuppurates.

8. The *ophthalmia* with little abſceſſes on the cornea and conjunctiva. In this ſort the whole conjunctiva becomes red; ſmall abſceſſes are formed on the tranſparent cornea, and on the conjunctiva.

9. The eryſepelatous *ophthalmia*. It reddens the conjunctiva, ſwells the eye-lids, cauſes violent pains and heat both in the eyes and head. The adjacent parts, as the temple and forehead, and the noſe, are covered with ſcales and ſcabs, that leave, when they fall off, marks which remain during life, and which reſemble thoſe from the ſmall-pox.

10. The *ophthalmia*, called chemoſis, which ſee. In

this ſpecies, all the conjunctiva is ſwelled to the thickneſs of a finger's breath; this makes the tranſparent part of the cornea appear as it were ſunk into a cavity. Violent pain attends, a pulſation alſo, and often times a fever. All the tranſparent part of the cornea often comes away by ſuppuration, which deſtroys the anterior chamber of the eye. The cicatrix ſubſequent to the ſuppuration hinders the cryſtalline and vitreous humours from falling out, and generally hinders the decay of the whole globe, but ſometimes they both happen. This diſorder happens either from external or internal cauſes.

11. The venereal *ophthalmy*. The ſymptoms are nearly the ſame as attend the chemoſis, but with this difference; the conjunctiva is ſwelled, appears hard and fleſhy. It begins with a quantity of whitiſh matter, with a yellowiſh caſt, oozing through the eye. This diſorder ſometimes appears a few days after the beginning of a venereal gonorrhœa; the matter not running off by its uſual paſſage, is diſcharged through the eye; and this matter ſtains linen, as that of a gonorrhœa in the urethra does.

12. The *ophthalmia* of the choroides. In this ſpecies, the choroides and uvea are inflamed, and the conjunctiva is only ſlightly affected; it is attended with a flux of tears; the light, if admitted, occaſions great pain; pain is complained of in the temples, and the top of the head.

13. The *ophthalmia* from blows on the eye.

14. The *ophthalmia* from a rupture of the veſſels in the conjunctiva; the eye grows red, though the patient does not complain of pain; nor is the light uneaſy. The blood iſſuing from the ruptured veſſels, is diffuſed between the laminæ of the membrane.

15. The *ophthalmia* from the ſcrofula. In the eye, the ſcrofula produces an inflammation which ſometimes ends in an anchylops or ægilops: in the eye-lids it produces an epiphora, or lippitude: in the canthus of the eye a fiſtula lachrymalis is formed; and it ſometimes happens that tumors of the ſcrofulous kind thruſt out the globe of the eye. When the eye is inflamed from this cauſe, it appears of a dull red, or leaden colour; there are often white ſpecks on or near the pupil, which generally diſcharge great quantities of acrid ſerum, which ſcald the cheeks; ſmall running ulcers often are ſeated in the greater canthus, which diſcharge a whitiſh thick matter, and which glues the eye-lids in a morning; the eye-lids are ſwelled, and the veins about them appear diſtended; pain is more or leſs complained of.

16. An *ophthalmia* which follows from the ſmall-pox.

The *ophthalmia* ſubſequent to blows on the head, by which the meninges are hurt, is a ſign of death. When in the beginning of the ſmall-pox this diſorder is attendant, the conſequence is generally fatal. When attended with long and violent head-achs, blindneſs is to be feared. When *ophthalmia* is an original diſeaſe, when the temples ach, the forehead itches, and the body ſweats at nights, there is danger even of life. The humid ſpecies, the eryſipelatous and venereal kinds, that of the choroides, and the chemoſis, all greatly tend to deſtroy the ſight. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order phlegmaſiæ. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies. 1. The *ophthalmia* membranarum; that is, when the coats of the eye are the ſeat of the inflammation. 2. *Ophthalmia* tarſi, when the inflammation is in the ſebaceous glands in the edges of the eye-lids. The firſt he conſiders as varying according to the degree of inflammation, and according to which of the tunics are principally affected. The ſecond includes but two varieties. He further diſtinguiſhes betwixt the idiopathic and the ſymptomatic: in the firſt are included the above named ſpecies; in the laſt, he forms the varieties from the diſeaſe that cauſes the inflammation, being in the eye itſelf, or in the general habit, or ſome other part of the body ſeparate from the eye. Here, the different diſtinctions in the *ophthalmia* are ſeen at one view: and as much perplexity attends the inquirer in this particular, if unpoſſeſſed of this valuable work, his arrangement is here inſerted as follows.

Of the firſt ſpecies, and which vary according to their degree of external inflammation, are the

Ophthalmia Taraxis	Ophthalmia Eryſipelatoſa
Humida	Puſtuloſa
Chemoſis	Phlyctænodes.

Of the ſame ſpecies, but which vary according to which coat of the eye is affected, are the

Ophthalmia Choroideæ
Tenebricoſa.

Of the ſecond ſpecies which are ſeated in the tarſus, alſo affecting the eye-lids, are the

Ophthalmia Trachoma
Sicca.

Of the varieties that are ſymptomatic; thoſe that take their riſe from ſome other diſeaſe of the eye or the eye-lid, are the

Ophthalmia Angularis	Ophthalmia a Lagophthalmo
Tuberculoſa	ab Ectomate
Trichiaſis	ab Ungue
Cancroſa	a Corneæ fiſtula
a Synechia	Uveæ.

Thoſe varieties that are ſymptomatic, and take their riſe from diſeaſes in another part of the body, or of the whole habit, are the

Ophthalmia Metaſtatica	Ophthalmia Syphilitica
Scrophuloſa	Febricoſa.

For the moſt part this diſorder is in the tunica conjunctiva; but ſometimes the interior coats are affected: indeed the inner ones are ſometimes the ſeat of the inflammation.

Any of the cauſes of external inflammation, may produce the ſame in the external coat of the eye; and the ſame cauſes which produce this diſorder in other internal part, may alſo produce it in the inner membranes of this organ. Accidents from without, as cold air, duſt, too much expoſure to vivid colours, blows, wounds, &c. and as internal cauſes, the meaſles, and ſmall-pox, ſcrophula, &c. are all occaſionally the cauſes of this complaint.

In the cure of the above ſpecies of inflammation in the eye, the diſtinctions may very well be loſt in moſt of them. When a flux of humours attends, it uſually abates by whatever relieves the inflammation, and in general to conſider and treat theſe diſorders under the ſimple idea of inflammations will be the moſt proper and eaſy; as to particular circumſtances, they may be attended to, and treated according to their reſpective natures, as directed here and in other articles, or as the preſcribers particular experience may direct. It is happily obſerved by Dr. Kirkland in the firſt volume of his Inquiry, p. 480, that, "like all other inflammations, it gives way to thoſe remedies which remove the irritating cauſe, and leſſen the ſenſibility of the parts."

All heating, ſpirituous, and aromatic food muſt be avoided; a cooling liquid diet will be neceſſary; a freedom from all forcible exerciſe muſt be enjoined; and the eye may be ſhaded from the light, and all glaring objects by means of a ſtiff paper, lined with black ſilk.

Bleed according to the ſtrength and quickneſs of the pulſe; beſides taking blood from the arm, leeches may be applied to the external angles of the eyes. Opening the temporal artery is very generally adviſed; Mr. Ware obſerves, that the two following difficulties attend it. 1ſt, It frequently will not yield a quantity of blood ſufficient to anſwer the intended purpoſe. 2d, The troubleſome and dangerous hæmorrhages which have ſometimes burſt from the orifice, at the diſtance of many hours from the operation. He farther obſerves, that conſiderable advantage hath followed a complete tranſverſe diviſion of this artery; whereby the patient not only received benefit from the ſudden derivation of a large quantity of blood, but one principal ſource from which the blood circulated to the inflamed part, was cut off. The external jugular vein has alſo ſometimes been opened in this complaint; but as it does not come from the eye itſelf, it does not yield a very direct derivation. As to leeches, when they are applied to or near the eye-lids, they have ſometimes occaſioned them to ſwell to a large ſize, and have increaſed for a time the irritation of the eye; to prevent which, when they are applied

near

near the eye, confine them as near as poſſible, in the hollow of the temple, about an inch and an half from the outer orbit. Dr. Kirkland thinks that any other bleedings than that from the arm, are not attended with ſuperior advantage; as to leeches, he ſays they leave an inflammation behind, and occaſion a greater irritability in the neighbouring parts. As ſoon as blood is taken away, let a cooling purge be given; and ſmall doſes of the ſal Glaub. may be repeated every day after, ſo as to procure a few ſtools, until the violence of the ſymptoms give way. Particularly be careful to avoid ſtrong purges. A bliſter, when applied to relieve inflammation in the eyes, is moſt effectual when laid upon the fore part of the head, and kept open a few days; apply the plaſter from the crown to the forehead, having firſt ſhaved the part. Dr. Kirkland is of opinion that bliſters, like leeches, are prejudicial by increaſing irritability where they are applied, and to ſome extent around them. The feet and legs may be placed in moderately warm water every night. A ſeton is beſt fixed under the lower jaw, in the ſide where the affected eye is, or if both eyes are bad, it may be placed under the chin; when it is fixed in the ſide of the jaw, let it be betwixt the external jugular vein, and the larynx.

As an external remedy, the vegeto-mineral water of Goulard is almoſt the only one needful; begin with it very mild, and increaſe its ſtrength ſo as to avoid irritation. Whether inflammations are phlegmonous, ſcrofulous, cancerous, or eryſipelatous, from bruiſes, &c. this water is of ſingular efficacy. White vitriol is the uſual remedy in theſe caſes; it cools, dries, and reſtringes; it is very uſeful when there is a defluxion, or an inflammation in the eyes, but the diſorder ſhould be giving way before its uſe is begun with; bleeding, purging, and every proper evacuation, ſhould alſo have preceded; from ℈i. to ʒi. may be diſſolved in two ounces of water, beginning with the weaker and gradually proceeding to the ſtronger; if it is too weak, the redundant tears will waſh it away before it produces any effect. Blue vitriol is uſeful when the humours are thick, and formed into ſordes; and when they begin to form ſmall membranes in the tunica albuginea, which frequently happens after the ſmall-pox and the meaſles; in ſuch caſes, a grain or more may be added to an ounce of water: but it ſhould be omitted in all inſtances of inflammation attended with ſaline, hot, acrid defluxions, with redneſs and itching, becauſe it increaſes theſe ſymptoms. When the inflammation is deep, violent, and dangerous, the eye being almoſt deprived of ſight and ſenſibility, happy effects have been found from the uſe of tepid camphorated ſpirit of wine mixed with the Peruvian balſam. Weak ſolutions of camphor abate theſe inflammations, but a free uſe of it increaſes them. Dr. Kirkland recommends a ſmall quantity of ſal Glauberi, in fine powder, to be blown into the inflamed eye: he obſerves, that at firſt the inflammation ſeems to be increaſed by it, but ſoon a diſcharge of lymph follows, and the next day the inflammation is much abated or gone. Opium is ſaid by ſome not to eaſe pain in the eye; but that this ſymptom is relieved by the external uſe of aloes; however, it is clear from experience, that ſmall quantities of opium, mixed with any cooling liniment, ſpeedily abates inflammation in this organ. Mr. Ware ſtrongly recommends a few drops of the tinct. Theb. Ph. Lond. to be dropped into the eye, once every day; and ſupports his aſſertions in its favour, with narratives of facts, which admit of no doubt. Dr. Kirkland obſerves, with reſpect to it, that, "with due perſeverance, it ſufficiently anſwers our intention, where it can poſſibly do ſervice, without occaſioning pain. It may be uſed with advantage where the ſenſibility in the beginning is often exquiſite, and where few other remedies can be applied without giving offence." When a corroding acrimony is obſerved in the humour that is diſcharged, the eye may now and then be waſhed with a thin ſolution of gum arabic; or the mucilage of quince ſeed. If the eye remains very weak, after the inflammation abates, the beſt applications are, the alum curd, which may be ſpread thin on a rag, and applied over the eyes every night; and a ſolution of alum in the proportion of a dram to half a pint of water, to which may be added the white of one egg; and to finiſh the cure, the patient may bathe in the ſea, or cold water may be poured upon his head every morning for ſome time.

When films attend, or are followed by defluxions on the eyes, or when the tranſparency of the cornea is diminiſhed, borax proves an admirable means of relief, and may be uſed as follows. ℞ Boracis opt. ʒſs. ſacch. alb. ʒi. aq. roſar. ℥ii. m. f. collyr. Let a little of this be frequently dropped into the affected eye. When pimples on the eye attend an inflammation, the ſolution of white vitriol uſually ſucceeds; when matter is formed in theſe pimples, pierce them with the point of a lancet, and then waſh them with the juſt named ſolution, or, ℞ Ungt. alb. ʒv. ſacch. ſaturn. ʒi. quibus ſuper porphyrite ſimul tritis inſtillentur bal. traumat. ʒii. hujus paululum, linteo exceptum, oculo dolenti omni nocte imponatur. When a blow is the cauſe, and a blackneſs remains about the eye-lids, ℞ Conſ. roſar. rub. ℥iii. tinct. theb. ʒii. m. vel ℞ Acet. diſtill. ℥ii. ſp. ſal. ammon. ʒiſs. m. In Gooch's Caſes and Remarks, page 44, &c. is an inſtance of relief, when the tunica albuginea was inflamed ſo as to reſemble, if not conſtitute the chemoſis. A gouty *ophthalmia* requires that the gout, if poſſible, be brought into the extremities, and then the diſorder in the eye immediately vaniſhes; if the inflammation is violent, bleed, purge with aloetics, and waſh the eye with a mixture of tepid water two parts, and brandy one part. When a tranſlation of rheumatic matter from the hip, or elſewhere, is the cauſe, bliſters may be applied to, or near the part whence the rheumatiſm receded; a ſeton may be fixed under the lower jaw, and the bark with guaiacum may be given. In the ſcrofulous inflammation of this organ, the bark is the ſovereign remedy: if in this caſe, the glands under the ears are affected, apply a cauſtic on one of them, and then another, if there are more than one, and the conſequent diſcharge will ſoon remove the inflammation; proper alteratives as required may accompany the bark; and the head ſhould be waſhed every morning with cold water. Nitre, given to a ſcruple three times a day, hath been found to be remarkably efficacious in this as well as with the common *ophthalmias*. The venereal *ophthalmia* admits not of vitriolic collyriums; it calls for the ſpeedieſt aid, which ſhould conſiſt of bleeding in the foot; an inward uſe of mercurials; the warm bath night and morning, purges repeated every day from the firſt day of bathing, until the inflammation abates, if other circumſtances do not forbid; compreſſes ſqueezed out of brandy and water may be conſtantly kept on the eye.

See Monſ. de St. Yves on Diſorders of the Eye; Heiſter's Surgery; Eſſay on the Ophthalmia, &c. by William Rowley, ſurgeon; Gooch's Caſes and Remarks, page 44, &c. Boulton's Surgery, chap. vii. in the Appendix; Lewis's Tranſlation of Hoffman's Practice of Medicine vol. i. page 308; Ware's Remarks on the Ophthalmy, &c. Bell's Surgery; Kirkland's Inquiry, vol. i. page 473; Warner on the Eye, and its Diſeaſes.

OPHTHALMIA MUCOSA. The mucous ophthalmy. It is a variety of *ophthalmy* of the membranes of the eye, though not in Dr. Cullen's Noſological Arrangement. Mr. Ware calls it the purulent eye, but owns that the term is not to be ſtrictly underſtood; he ſays, "the diſcharge from the eye is not real pus, but only *mucus* increaſed in quantity, and altered in colour." See his Remarks on the Ophthalmy, &c. p. 111.

This diſorder rarely happens, except to new born children; in whom Mr. Ware obſerves, that it firſt diſcovers itſelf by a redneſs in the eye-lids, which quickly ſwell to a ſize ſo large as to prevent their being ſeparated, without the outmoſt difficulty; after which a conſtant diſcharge of thick yellow matter ſoon ſucceeds; which, if the lids can be ſeparated, will appear to ſpread over the eye, ſo as entirely to cover it. In common, both eyes are affected nearly in the ſame manner; and in bad caſes, whenever the child cries, the inſide of the lid is turned outwards; which is alſo the caſe, whenever an attempt is made to ſeparate them with the fingers: this is ſometimes the conſtant ſtate of the lids, and though they are reſtored by the fingers to their proper ſituation, yet on being left to themſelves, they immediately return to their former everted ſtate.

Occaſionally this complaint is accompanied with eruptions on the head and other parts of the body; and ſometimes is attended with ſymptoms of a ſcrofulous habit.

The

The ſwelling of the eye-lids, neceſſarily occaſions a tightneſs, or conſtriction of their ciliary edges, by means of which, the matter which is formed on the inſide of them, is prevented from wholly running off; and its continuing between the lids and the globe, ſerves ſtill farther to increaſe the inflammations, and is alſo the frequent cauſe of ulcers and ſpecks, which very often partially, and ſometimes totally, cover the pupil. Theſe effects may, in a great meaſure, be produced by the acrimony of the matter; but even allowing, that the retained fluid is perfectly bland and mild, its continual lodgment on the eye is ſufficient, by maceration only, to deſtroy the tranſparency of the cornea, and when it has been joined with the preſſure of the ſwollen eye-lids, it has been known to cauſe the cornea to burſt, the humours to be partially or wholly diſcharged, and the eye, of courſe, to ſink in the orbit. To this accurate deſcription of Mr. Ware's, it may be added, that uſually, if left to nature, the quantity of *mucus* gradually increaſes until about a tea-ſpoon full of it may be ſqueezed from each eye every day; ſoon after this, if no extraordinary ſymptoms attend, the *mucous* decreaſes, and without art a cure is effected.

This kind of inflammation may ariſe from any of the cauſes that produce external phlegmonous inflammations. Mr. Ware obſerves, that the tunica conjunctiva is defended from the acrimony of the tears by a ſoft thin *mucous* fluid, which is ſuppoſed to exhale from innumerable ſmall perforations diſperſed all over its ſurface. This fluid, as it naturally exiſts, is very ſmall in quantity; on which account, as it is pellucid, it is undiſcernible by the naked eye; nevertheleſs it is liable by an irritation or inflammation of the parts which furniſh it, not only to be increaſed greatly in quantity, but to be ſo altered and changed in quality, as very much to reſemble pus itſelf, both in conſiſtence and colour. This inflammation is not often connected with any other diſorder, and is moſt frequently ſuppoſed to ariſe from the child's being imprudently expoſed to the cold air.

When early aſſiſtance hath been given, its conſequences was generally ſucceſsful; but when neglected, a partial blindneſs at leaſt, and too often a total one, hath been the conſequence. Like all inflammations of the eye, it is apt to terminate in an opacity of the cornea.

In order to the cure, it is recommended by ſome to waſh the *mucus* out of the eye, whilſt in a tender inflamed ſtate, with a collyrium of equal parts of the common emulſion and julep of camphor. Others with a ſyringe waſh out the *mucus*, but prefer mild fluids, ſuch as warm barley water; and until the ſwelling of the eye-lids ſubſide, they apply to them cooling ointments and emollient cataplaſms; at the ſame time, they repeat gentle purgatives as often as the patient's ſtrength, &c. ſeems to require. Leeches are applied to the temples, and a bliſter between the ſhoulders is kept open as long as a tendency to a diſcharge of *mucus* in the eye appears. When the turgidneſs of the eye-lids abates, and the inflammation of the conjunctiva diſappears, the decoct. cort. Peruv. is given inwardly, and collyriums directed that are of an aſtringent kind, and uſed three or four times a day. Though bliſters are generally applied, ſome have from an extenſive practice concluded, that their conſtant omiſſion would be no diſadvantage to the patient. Mr. Ware propoſes on the firſt attack to begin with reſiſting the diſcharge of *mucus*, by ſtrengthening the external coat of the eye. To this end he directs the eye to be cleared of the morbid *mucus*, by injecting into it by a ſyringe, a gentle aſtringent collyrium; in particular he prefers the aq. camph. Bat. diluted with common water, in the proportion of a dram, leſs or more, to two ounces. This practice he uſes in all the ſtages of the diſeaſe. As the matter increaſes, the collyrium may be uſed more frequently, and gradually increaſed in its ſtrength: in a ſlight caſe it may be uſed two or three times a day, but in the more malignant ones it may be repeated every hour, and the ſtypticity of the collyrium may be increaſed in proportion; as the diſorder gives way, the ſtrength of the medicine, and the frequency of uſing it, may both be decreaſed. To abate the ſwelling of the eye-lids, Mr. Ware prefers a cataplaſm of the coagulum aluminoſ. & ungt. flor. ſamb. an. p. æq. this ſhould be applied cold. When the eye-lids adhere ſtrongly, they will be beſt ſeparated by waſhing their edges with freſh butter diſſolved in warm milk. If the inſide of the eye-lids turn outward, only when the child cries, and returns as ſoon as it ceaſes ſo to do, nothing more need be done than what is already recommended; but if this ſymptom is conſtant, it will require a more frequent repetition of the injection, and to employ a perſon immediately after the uſe of it, to return the lids, and to keep a compreſs dipped in the diluted aq. camph. conſtantly upon them with his finger, in order that the habit may be removed, and the eye-lids may recover their proper tone and ſtrength. When the inſide of the eye-lid is much inflamed, the tinct. theb. may be dropped on them with advantage every day; and when the quantity of *mucus* is ſo diminiſhed as that the tincture may come in contact with the eye, it may be applied there alſo once a day. If there is reaſon to ſuſpect any particular humour in the habit, give ſuch alteratives as their nature may appear to require.

Mr. Ware gives an inſtances of a caſe in which blood inſtead of *mucus* was diſcharged, and which gave way to the ſame treatment as is here recommended; on account of which, with many other important particulars, his publication deſerves the attention of every practitioner.

See Ware's Remarks on the Ophthalmy, &c. A Treatiſe on the Eye and its Diſorders, by Joſeph Warner, edit. 2.

OPHTHALMICI EXTERNI, i. e. Motores oculorum externi.

OPHTHALMICI WILLISII. The ophthalmic branch of the fifth pair of nerves. See TRIGEMINI.

OPATHALMITES. i. e. Ophthalmia.

OPHTHALMOPONIA. An intenſe pain in the eye, whence the light is intolerable.

OPHTHALMOXYSIS. A bruſhing of the eye.

OPHTHALMORRHAGIA. Bleeding from the eye or the eye-lid.

OPHTHALMOXYSTRUM. A bruſh for the eye; it was formerly made of the beards from barley or rye. It was ſo drawn acroſs the inſide of the eye-lids, as to make them bleed.

OPHYLLON. Great tooth-wort.

OPIATA. Properly medicines in which are opium; but ſoft electaries are alſo ſo called.

OPION. Opium.

OPISTHOTONOS, from *οπισθεν, backward*, and *τονος*, from *τεινω, to ſtretch*. It is a ſpecies of ſpaſm, in which the whole trunk is rigid and drawn backwards in a curve, with the head bent towards the ſhoulders. See TETANUS.

OPIUM. Probably from *οπος, juice*. This name ſeems to be by way of eminence, as by cortex is underſtood the cortex Peruv. Galen is the firſt among the Greeks who uſes the word for expreſſing this drug with. *Opium* is the milky juice which exudes from the heads of poppies when inciſions are made in them; this juice is gradually dried in the ſun, to a proper conſiſtence. The ſpecies of poppy, is the papaver ſomniferum, or papaver calycibus capſuliſque glabris foliis amplexicaulibus inciſis, Linn. It is brought from Turkey, Egypt, the Eaſt Indies, and other parts of Aſia. Neumann ſays, that the *opium* we receive from all the juſt named places, is obtained by the preſſing the juice from the heads of the poppies.

Opium is brought into Europe in flat cakes, or irregular maſſes, from four to ſixteen ounces in weight; covered with leaves to prevent their ſticking together. It is a gummy reſinous ſubſtance, ſoftiſh, and tenacious, eſpecially when warm or much handled; of a dark reddiſh brown colour in the maſs, and yellow when reduced to powder. It hath a faint diſagreeable, ſoporiferous ſmell, and a bitter taſte. If chewed a little it affects the tongue with a ſenſe of heat, which ſpreads to the palate, and then in a leſs degree to the lips, and provokes a diſcharge of ſaliva. It heats the noſe, and ſo irritates it as to excite a ſneezing.

Chooſe that in which when ſliced, no viſible impurities are lodged; when broken, appears brightiſh, of a dark red blackiſh colour; that is dry, not unctuous, but moderately ponderous and compact; that is inflammable, of an acrid bitter taſte, a faint ſmell reſembling that of unripe poppy heads, and without any empyreumatic flavour; and that communicates to water, not yellow, but a reddiſh tincture.

Hippocrates ſeems not to have been a ſtranger to its

narcotic quality. The ancients rarely uſed it. Sylvius de la Boe firſt brought it into vogue. Sydenham firſt uſed it in the ſmall pox; but now it obtains very extenſively in practice.

Bellonius obſerves, that it is ſo adulterated, that ſometimes a pound does but contain above four ounces that is pure genuine *opium*; but ſuch faulty ſorts are not brought amongſt us. Sand is added to increaſe its weight, and many foreign bodies are found mixed with it; but that the juices of other plants are added does not appear clear.

The particular matter in which its virtues depend hath not yet been produced in a ſeparate ſtate, nor is it known: but whatever it is, it may by art be acuated, concentrated, obtunded, and deſtroyed. The principles ſeparable from *opium*, are, a reſin, which Neumann ſays is of two kinds, viz. a hard and a ſoft one. Mr. Awſiter ſeems to call this ſoft reſin, its thick eſſential oil; they both agree in that this ſoft reſin, or thick oil, chiefly contains the active matter of *opium*, that is its narcotic quality, though the other parts are ſtill mildly anodyne after the ſeparation of the ſoft reſin. Beſides this reſin there is a gummy part, a ſaline one, which Dr. Alſton ſays is of the nature of ſal ammoniac, and an earth. In diſtillation with rectified ſpirit little or nothing riſes from the *opium*, but with water its particular ſmell is brought over. The moſt active parts of *opium* are ſo fixed, that it keeps many years without any ſenſible loſs; a dram of *opium* was kept in the heat of boiling water during five hours, and it ſcarce loſt a grain and an half thereby. It diſſolved but partially in rectified ſpirit of wine, or in water; but proof ſpirit, wine, or vinegar, diſſolves all that is good, the impurities only being left. Dr. Alſton ſays, that twelve parts of *opium* contain five parts of gum, four of reſin, and three of earthy, with other indiſſoluble impurities. The gum is a mild anodyne, but free from the narcotic and other diſagreeable qualities of the crude *opium*. The reſin is almoſt taſteleſs, but hath a very muſty ſmell. *Opium* is mixed with other ſubſtances into a maſs of pills: the London College give the following two forms; the firſt is a compoſition for expediting the ſolution of *opium*, the ſecond for retarding it.

Pilulæ Saponaceæ. Soap Pills.

Take the ſoap of almonds, four ounces; ſtrained *opium* half an ounce; eſſence of lemon, a dram; ſoften the *opium* with wine, and beat it with the reſt until it is perfectly mixed.

The eſſence of lemon is added to cover the flavour of the ſoap. This pill is in the ſtead of Mathews's pill; in ten grains of it is about one of *opium*.

Pilulæ e Styrace. Storax Pills.

Take of ſtrained ſtorax, two ounces; of ſaffron, one ounce; of ſtrained opium, five drams. Beat them diligently together, till they are perfectly mixed.

There is a grain of *opium* in about ſix grains of this compoſition.

Opium is purified by diſſolving it in an equal weight of water, and whilſt it is hot, preſſing it through a cloth, and then evaporating it to a due conſiſtence.

The following tincture is directed by the London College.

Tinct. Thebaica. Thebaic Tincture.

Take of *opium*, ſtrained, two ounces; cinnamon and cloves, of each ʒ i. of white wine, a pint. Infuſe without heat for a week; and then ſtrain off the wine through paper.

This was formerly called liquid laudanum.

The medical properties of this drug are both numerous and valuable; even ſo that ſome have denominated it manus Dei. Its operation is generally accompanied with a ſlow but ſtrong and full pulſe, a ſlight redneſs, heat, and itching in the ſkin; it is followed by a weak and languid pulſe, low ſpirits, ſome difficulty of breathing, or a ſenſe of tightneſs about the breaſt, a ſlight giddineſs of the head, dryneſs of the mouth and fauces, ſome degree of naufea, heat and pain in the ſtomach; but theſe ſymptoms are to be underſtood of a full doſe when no particular diſeaſe requires it; for very large doſes are taken in violent diſorders, and no diſagreeable effects are obſerved to follow.

In proper doſes, and repeated at due intervals, it is narcotic, anodyne, antiſpaſmodic; it abates inflammation both internally and externally; it moderates the heat in fevers, and aſſiſts other medicines in producing a more ſpeedy effect; it diſcuſſes ſtagnating fluids, whether externally applied, or internally adminiſtered; it removes obſtructions ariſing from ſpaſms; abates preternatural irritability, and removes convulſions which ariſe therefrom; it promotes the diſcharges through the ſkin, but retards all other evacuations; abates all kinds of pains, and totally removes ſome; as a carminative it exceeds all of the aromatic tribe, for its efficacy extends through the whole inteſtinal canal.

One grain of pure *opium* is generally a full doſe; three grains can hardly ever be taken by an healthy man who is not accuſtomed to it; but by habit an ounce in a day may be taken. Garcias ſays he knew a perſon who took ten drams a day. In Turkey, at this day, ſober people take a dram, and drunken ones take five or ſix. When violent pains, or other ſymptoms require it, Sydenham obſerves, the doſe and its repetition may be proportioned to the urgency of the ſymptoms. Frequent experience manifeſts the propriety of large doſes; in ſpaſmodic complaints twenty-two grains of pure *opium*, beſides three hundred drops of laudanum, have been given in the ſpace of thirty-ſix hours; and afterwards no remarkable inconveniences were obſerved.

When imprudent doſes have been taken through miſtake, or with an ill deſign, there follows immoderate mirth, or elſe ſtupidity, giddineſs, a redneſs of the face, ſwelling of the lips, troubleſome dreams, ſtarting, convulſions, cold ſweats, a conſiderable dilatation of the pupil, imperfect ſpeech, ſlow full pulſe, quick breathing, naufea, itching in the ſkin, vomiting, madneſs, hiccup, fainting, &c. Immediately on the happening of ſuch an accident, give a vomit of white vitriol, and repeat it four, five, or ſix times; if the conſtitution is vigorous, bleed, and after this frequently a ſpoonful of ſharp vinegar; beſides theſe, ſinapiſms may be applied to the feet, bliſters to the arms, clyſters of tobacco ſmoak may be given, frictions may be uſed, as the caſe ſeems to require. Vinegar is the antidote, yet cordials ſhould ſometimes accompany it. When *opium* is given in a ſolid form, the pure *opium*, or the pills abovementioned, will be the beſt; when a liquid form is required, ſolutions in wine, or proof ſpirit, are to be preferred.

Alkaline ſalts diminiſh the ſoporific effect of *opium*; the fixed alkaline ſalts render it diuretic; the volatile carries it through the ſkin; and acids almoſt entirely deſtroy its powers. See Kæmpfer's Amænitates Exoticæ; Wedelius's Opiologia; Lewis's Mat. Med. Mead on Poiſons; Newmann's Chem. Works; Dr. Alſton's Diſſ. on Opium in the Edinb. Med. Eſſays, vol. v. Med. Muſ. vol. i. page 473, &c. Jones's Myſtery of Opium.

OPOBALSAMUM. Balſam of Gilead.

OPOCALPASON, or Opocarpaſon. The juice of a tree called calpaſi. This juice reſembles myrrh; but is poiſonous,

OPODELDOC. The name of a plaſter ſaid to be invented by Mindererus; it is often mentioned by Paracelſus. At preſent the medicine known by this name is the linim. ſaponac.

OPODEOCELE. A rupture through the foramen iſchii, and into the labia pudenda.

OPOPONAX. The plant from whence the gum thus called is produced, is known by the names of opoponaeum, panax heracleum, panax coſtinum, paſtinaca oluſatri folio. Hercules's all-heal, and *opoponax* wort. It is the paſtinaca *opoponax*. Linn.

The medicine kept under the name of *opoponax*, is a gummy reſinous juice, obtained from the roots of the *opoponax* wort, which grows wild in warm countries, and bears the cold of our own. This gum is brought from Turkey and the Eaſt-Indies, ſometimes in little round drops, but generally in irregular lumps, of a reddiſh yellow colour on the outſide, with ſpecks of white internally of a paler colour, and often variegated with large white pieces; they have a diſagreeable ſmell, and a bitter acrid naſeous taſte; they diſſolve in water, and in ſpirit. As a medicine, this gummy reſin is ſometimes uſed as an attenuant, and deobſtruent; in large doſes it is laxative: doſes

from

from ℈ i. to ʒi. are given with the ſame intentions as the galbanum and ammoniacum are uſed. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

OPPILATIO, from *oppilo*, of *pilo*, *to condenſe*. Oppilation is a cloſe kind of obſtruction; for, according to Rhodius, it ſignifies, not only to ſhut out, but alſo to fill.

OPPRESSIO. The catalepſy.

OPULUS. The gelder-roſe. Boerhaave mentions two ſpecies, but no medical virtues. A ſpecies of acer is thus called.

OPTICUS NERVUS, from *οπτομαι*, *to ſee*. The optic nerve. This nerve with its fellow are the ſecond pair which proceed from the brain, where they are united, but ſoon become two diſtinct cords, each paſſing through the foramen opticum of the ſphenoid bone, to their reſpective orbits. They unite on the anterior part of the glandula pituitaria, but ſoon ſeparate again, and paſs to the poſterior of the eye, into which they are inſerted obliquely towards the noſe. The optic nerves are each ſurrounded by the four recti muſcles of each eye.

OPUNTIA. It is a ſhrub or tree, whoſe flowers expand like a caſe, having each a great number of ſtamina in the centre, growing upon the tops of the ovary. The ovary afterwards becomes a fleſhy umbilicated fruit, with a ſoft pulp, incloſing many ſeeds of an angular ſhape. Boerhaave mentions eleven ſpecies. They are chiefly noted for the cochineal which are gathered from off them.

OPUNTIOIDES. It is a marine plant, ſhaped like the opuntia. It is brittle and hard; Boerhaave takes notice of two ſpecies, and reckons them among vermifuge medicines.

ORBICULARE OS. The name of a ſmall round bone in the internal ear. It reſts on the ſtapes, and the incus reſts on it.

ORBICULARES PALPEBRARUM. (Muſc.) The orbicular muſcles of the eye-lids. They lie under the ſkin about the eye-lids; they riſe from the ſide of the noſe; thoſe fibres which run on the eye-lids are elliptical, and terminate at each canthus. Theſe *muſcles* ſhut the eye-lids.

ORBICULARIS. A name of the ſphincter ani. Alſo of the fungus called crepitus lupi.

ORBICULARIS CLAUSOR. The orbicular muſcle of the eye-lid.

ORBICULARIS LABIORUM, i. e. Sphincter labiorum.

ORBITA. The orbit of the eye, or circular cavity in which the eye is placed.

ORBITALIÆ ARTERIÆ. The arteries of the orbits of the eyes. They are branches of the inferior maxillary arteries. See MAXILLARIA ARTERIA.

ORBITARE EXTERNUM INFERIUS. (FORAMEN.) See MAXILLARIA SUPERIORA OSSA.

ORBITARIA PROCESSUS. See MAXILLARIA SUPERIORA OSSA.

ORBITARIA PROCESSUS. See MAXILL. SUPE- OSSA. See Os FRONTIS, and Os SPHENOIDES.

ORBITARII NERVI, i. e. Motores oculorum externi.

ORBITER EXTERNUS FORAMEN. It is in the os maxillare, below the orbit. Through it the nerves and veſſels which come from the teeth paſs to the cheek.

ORBITER INTERNUS FORAMEN. It is a little above the os planum; through it goes a branch of the fifth pair of nerves to the noſe.

ORCHEA. Galen ſays it is the ſcrotum.

ORCHIS. A teſticle.

ORCHIS. The name of a plant with a teſticulated root; of which Boerhaave enumerates fourteen ſpecies; and Dale adds five more.

The chief of theſe is the following ſpecies;

ORCHIS, alſo called ſatyrium mas; cynoſorchis; teſticulus archis; ſerapias; male ſatyrion; dogs ſtones; fools ſtones. It is the *orchis* maſcula, or *orchis* foliis ſeſſilibus maculatis, bulbis indiviſis nectarii labio quadrilobo crenulato, cornu obtuſo petalis dorſalibus reflexis, flore purpureo, Linn. Male fool ſtones.

This plant hath ſix or ſeven long, narrow, ſmooth leaves, variegated with dark coloured ſpots or ſtreaks, iſſuing from the root, and one or two embracing the ſtalk, which is ſingle, roundiſh, and ſtriated. On its top appears a long looſe ſpike of irregular, naked, purpliſh, red flowers, conſiſting each of ſix petala, one of which is large, cut into three ſections, hanging downward; the other ſmaller, forming a kind of hood above it, with a tail behind. The root conſiſts of two roundiſh, whitiſh, tubercles about the ſize of nutmegs; one plump and juicy, the other ſungous and ſomewhat ſhrivelled, with a few large fibres at the top. It is perennial, grows wild in ſhady grounds and moiſt meadows, and flowers in May or ſooner.

The plump roots or bulbs are the only parts uſed in medicine; they have a faint ſmell, and ſweetiſh viſcid taſte. Their properties are ſimilar in general to thoſe of the rad. althæa. The dried roots are brought from Turkey, &c. under the names of ſalep, and ſaleb, but thoſe of our own growth are as good. Thoſe that are brought from Turkey are in oval pieces, of a yellowiſh white colour, clear, and pellucid, very hard and horny, of little or no ſmell, taſting like gum tragacanth. Our *orchis* roots, when robbed of their ſkin by boiling in water, and then dried in the air, gains exactly the ſame appearance. Reduced to powder, and diſſolved by boiling in water, a mucilage is formed, which is of a very nouriſhing quality; more ſo than any other known vegetable. Sometimes it occaſions coſtiveneſs, but this is remedied by a little of any vegetable acid mixed with it, or a little ſea-ſalt. Half an ounce of the powder is ſufficient for a gallon of thick mucilage. The powder ſhould be ſprinkled with a little boiling water, then ſtirred well into it, and afterwards mixed with the water in which it is to be boiled. If this powder is kept dry it never ſpoils, ſo would be an excellent part of ſeamen's diet, particularly when they are in warm countries. A dram and a half of ſalt in a pint of potable ſalep, is not diſagreeable, whence, when freſh water fails at ſea, this powder would be an excellent expedient for leſſening that inconvenience. As a diet, it far exceeds rice in every point of view, and for children particularly it is peculiarly proper. As a medicine, the ſalep is mucilaginous, demulcent, obtunds the acrimony of the ſea ſcurvy; in diarrhœas and dyſenteries it is of ſingular efficacy by lubricating the bowels, and correcting putrefaction. In ſymptomatic fevers, from the abſorption of pus, a plentiful uſe of ſalep is very demulcent. In the ſtrangury and dyſury it is of ſervice by its mucilage. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Percival's Eſſays. Med. and Exper. Georgical Eſſays, vol. iv.

ORCHIS BIFOLIA, i. e. Bifolium.

ORCHOS. The extremities of the eye-lids; where the eye-laſhes grow.

ORCHOTOMIA, from *ορχις*, *teſticle*, and *τεμνω*, *to cut*. Caſtration.

OREILLONS, i. e. Mumps.

OREOSELINUM. The galbanum plant. Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies, but the two following are thoſe which afford the gum galbanum.

Oreoſelinum Africanum galbaniferum fruteſcens anaſi folio.

Oreoſelinum aniſoides arboreſcens liguſtici foliis & facie flore luteo Capitis Bonæ Spæi.

OREOSELINUM, alſo called petroſelinum montanum; apium montanum nigrum; *oreoſelinum* apii folio minus. Mountain parſley.

Of this and the two following ſpecies, the roots are ſlenderer than thoſe of the daucus, and not lacteſcent; the leaves are like thoſe of the apium or cicuta; the ſeeds are oval, flat, large, ſtriated, marginated, and ſometimes caſt off their huſks.

The *mountain parſley* grows on the mountainous parts of Germany and other countries. It heats and is diuretic.

OREOSELINUM PRATENSE CICUTÆ FOLIO, alſo called daucus Alſaticus; angelica pratenſis apii folio.

OREOSELINUM APII FOLIO MAJUS, alſo called libanotis nigra; gentiana nigra; daucus montanus cervaria nigra; daucus ſelinoides major; laſerpitium minus paludapii folio ſemine criſtato; mountain dauke; or black herb frankincenſe.

It grows on mountains in Italy, and flowers in July. The ſeeds are opening, inciding, diuretic, and emmenagogue.

ORESTION. In Dioſcorides it is the helenium. See Raii Hiſt.

ORGASMUS, from ὀργαω, *to deſire vehemently, to be turgid*, or properly *to be in heat*, as ſome female animals are at particular ſeaſons of the year. An orgaſm; that is, a violent turgeſcence, and motion of the humours. As Linnæus expreſſes it, a ſubſultus of the arteries.

ORIBASIUS. He was a profeſſor of phyſic in Alexandria; he flouriſhed about the end of the third century, and he writ ſome of his works by order of Julian the Apoſtate. After him as eminent was Ætius.

ORICIA. A ſort of turpentine-tree, ſo called from Oricus, a city of Epirus, near which it grows.

ORIENTALIA FOLIA. The leaves of ſena.

ORIGANO COGNATA. A ſpecies of marjoram.

ORIGANUM. Wild marjoram. *Origanum* vulgare, Linn. Boerhaave enumerates eleven ſpecies, but the two following are the chief that are in uſe.

ORIGANUM ANGLICUM, called alſo orig. vulgare ſpontaneum; majorana ſylveſtris; agrioriganum; ouitis major; origanum; common wild marjoram. *Origanum* vulgare, Linn.

It is a plant with firm round ſtalks, and oval acuminated leaves, that are uncut, and ſomewhat hairy. It is ſet in pairs on ſhort pedicles; on the tops grow ſcaly heads of pale red labiated flowers, whoſe upper lips are entire, and the lower cut into three ſegments, ſet in form of a convex umbel, intermixed with roundiſh purpliſh leaves; each flower is followed by four minute ſeeds incloſed in the cup. It is perennial, grows wild on dry chalky hills, and gravelly grounds in ſeveral parts of England, and flowers in June.

The leaves and flowery tops have an agreeable aromatic ſmell, and a pungent taſte, warmer than that of the garden-marjoram, and much reſembling thyme, with which they agree in medicinal virtue, as alſo with marjoram: infuſions of them are drank as tea in weakneſs of the ſtomach, diſorders of the breaſt, to promote perſpiration and the fluid ſecretions in general: they are uſed in nervine and anti-rheumatic baths; the dry leaves powdered are a good errhine. For internal uſe, an infuſion of half an ounce of the leaves in a pint of water is the beſt preparation. In diſtillation with water they yield a moderate quantity of a very acrid penetrating eſſential oil, ſmelling ſtrongly of the *origanum*, but leſs agreeable than the herb; this oil is called oil of thyme, and is often put into hollow teeth to allay the pain of them. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

ORIGANUM CRETICUM, called alſo origanum onites; origany; or candy wild marjoram. The flowery tops were formerly brought from Crete, and are indeed ſomewhat ſtronger than ours; but inſtead of them thoſe of our own growth are now always uſed.

ORIGANUM CRETICUM. Dittany of Crete.

ORIGANUM. A name for a ſpecies of baſil.

ORLEANA, called alſo arbor Mexicana; orellana; the arnotto-tree. See ACHIOTL.

The arnotto tree is the bixa orellana of Linnæus. Dr. Brown, in his Hiſtory of Jamaica, gives the following account of it:

Bixa foliis cordatis cum acumine floribus racemoſis terminalibus. The roucou or arnotto tree. This curious ſhrub is frequently met with in the cooler vales in Jamaica; it riſes commonly to the height of eight or nine feet or more; it thrives beſt in a cool rich ſoil, and ſhoots moſt luxuriantly near ſprings and rivulets. All the ſeeds of this plant are covered with a kind of wax, which is carefully gathered in many parts of America, and is what generally goes by the name of terra orellana, roucou, and arnotto. This commodity is manufactured in the following manner, viz. when the ſeed veſſels are full grown, and in a perfect ſtate of maturity, they are picked off and opened, and the ſeeds gathered and put into convenient jars. When they have a quantity of theſe, proportioned to their veſſels and deſign, they throw in as much hot water as may be ſufficient to dilute and ſuſpend the wax or pulp, with eaſe, which is gradually waſhed away from the ſeeds, both with the hand and the ſpatula. When all the wax is waſhed off, and the ſeeds appear quite naked, they are taken out, and the waſh left to ſettle: but when the wax is thoroughly ſubſided, the clear incumbent waters are decanted off, and the ſediment put into ſhallow veſſels to be dried gradually in the ſhade. When this maſs acquires a due conſiſtence, it is made into balls or cakes, and left to dry in ſome open airy place, until it grows firm and hard, and then it is fit for uſe, or the market. The wax is a cool agreeable rich cordial, and hath been long in uſe amongſt the Indians and Spaniards in America, who ſtill mix it with their chocolate, both to heighten the flavour, and raiſe the colour. It is ſaid to be a ſucceſsful remedy againſt the bloody-flux. It is uſed as a pigment. It is often mixed with other ingredients both by painters and dyers. The roots have much the ſame properties as the wax, but the roots are ſomewhat more diuretic.

This American ſhrub is retained in hot houſes in Great Britain. It is propagated by ſeeds from America; ſown in pots in ſpring, and plunged in a bark bed; the plants are to be tranſplanted into ſeparate pots, and always retained in the ſtoves.

Father Labat ſays, that the Indians prepare an arnotto of a bright ſhining red colour, almoſt equal to carmine.

The arnotto is difficultly diſſolved in water, which it tinges of a pale, browniſh, yellow colour. It readily diſſolves in ſpirit of wine, rectified, to which it gives an orange red colour, and is uſed in varniſhes to give an orange hue to the ſimple yellows. Alkaline ſalt renders it ſoluble in boiling water, without altering its colour.

ORNITHOGALUM. Boerhaave enumerates eleven ſpecies; but only the following hath any medical properties attributed to it, viz. the ornithogalum umbellatum medium anguſtiſolium; called alſo ornithogalare. The ſtar of Bethlehem. It is cultivated in gardens; it flowers in May; the root is bulbous or tuberous, and is ſometimes, though very rarely, uſed, as are alſo the ſeeds. See Raii Hiſt.

ORNITHOGALUM, i. e. Scilla.

ORNITHOGLOSSUM. Bird's tongue. So the ſeeds of the common aſh-tree are called from their ſhape.

ORNITHOPODIUM. Bird's-foot. There is another ſpecies called telephium; ſcorpioides; ſcorpion-wort. They grow on ſandy and gravelly places; they flower in ſummer. Their ſeeds deſtroy the ſtone in the kidneys; but are very rarely uſed. Boerhaave mentions four more ſpecies, but they are not noted as medicinal. See Raii Hiſt.

ORNUS. The aſh-tree which affords manna. It is alſo a name for the ſorbus aucuparia.

OROBANCHE, alſo called ſquamaria; anblatum; dentaria major; aphyllon; Mathiolus's great tooth-wort. It grows in lanes and ſhady places, and flowers in April or May. There is another ſpecies called rapum geniſtæ, broom rape. It grows to the roots of broom, whence its name, and amongſt corn; it flowers in June. See Raii Hiſt.

OROBANCHE. A name for the hypociſtis.

OROBUS, alſo called aſtragalus; aſtragaloides; aſtragalo; chamæbalano; wood-peaſe; heath-peaſe. It grows in woody places; flowers in April; ripens its ſeeds in May; the tubera of the root taſtes like liquorice, and in Scotland is uſed as liquorice is with us. They call the plant karemyle. See Raii Hiſt.

OROBUS. See ERVUM.

ORPHEUS. He was not very eminent as a phyſician. He writ on the virtues of plants. See CHIRON.

ORPIMENT. It is a cryptometalline foſſil; a ſpecies of arſenic floſs, of a bright yellow colour, and a ſcaly ſtructure. Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy.

ORTHOCOLON, from ὀρθος, *ſtrait*, and κωλον, *a limb*. It is a ſpecies of ſtiff joint, and is when it cannot be bended, but remains ſtrait. See ANCHYLOSIS.

ORTHOPNŒA. This diſeaſe, when neither a ſpecies of aſthma nor of dyſpnœa (the inſtances of which is inſerted immediately below), is only a ſymptom of ſome other diſeaſe. It is a ſighing ſuffocating reſpiration, and the patient muſt be erect to breathe. See ASTHMA and DYSPNOEA.

ORTHOPNŒA SPASMODICA, i. e. Aſthma ſpontaneum.

ORTHOPNŒA HYSTERICA, i. e. Aſthma ſpontaneum.

ORTHOPNŒA a LIPOMATE, i. e. Dyſpnœa ſicca.

ORTHOPNŒA ab HYDROPNEUMONIA, i. e. Dyſpnœa aquoſa.

ORTHOPNŒA PINGUEDINOSA, i. e. Dyſpnœa pinguedinoſa.

ORTHOPNŒA TRAUMATICA, i. e. Dyſpnœa thoracica.

ORTHOPNŒA a VAPORIBUS, i. e. Dyſpnœa extrinſeca.

ORTHOPNŒA a DEGLUTITIS, i. e. Dyſpnœa extrinſeca.

ORTHOPNŒA a FUNGIS, i. e. Dyſpnœa extrinſeca.

ORTHOPNŒA ab ANTIPATHIA, i. e. Dyſpnœa extrinſeca.

ORTHOPNŒA a BRONCHOCELE, i. e. Dyſpnœa extrinſeca.

ORVALA. A name for ſeveral ſpecies of ſclarea.

ORVIETANUM. Orvietan. A celebrated antidote, ſo called from Orvieto, a city of Italy, where it was firſt uſed; though ſome ſay its inventor was one H. F. Orvietanus, and that it is named after him. It is an electary, made up of many ingredients mixed with honey.

ORYZA. Rice. It hath its grains diſpoſed into a panicle, which are almoſt of an oval figure, and covered with a thick huſk, like barley. Among the common kinds of grain, rice is the mildeſt and moſt nutritious. It is leſs viſcous than wheat, but it is alſo leſs nouriſhing. It is uſed as a diet in diarrhœas, but the ſalep is to be preferred. Rice delights in a moiſt ſoil, and grows even in water. In China they ferment the rice, and diſtil from it the liquor called arrack.

ORYZA GERMANICA. A ſpecies of barley.

OS. A bone. *Bones* conſiſt of a mucilage, and an earthy matter. Acids diſſolve this earthy matter, leaving the *bone* of its original ſhape, but ſoft. The earthy matter forming *bone*, is depoſited by the exhaling arteries. The number of *bones* are 304.

The *bones* are compoſed of fibres, diſpoſed in laminæ, which laminæ laid over each other, compoſe the ſubſtance of the *bone*. In the fœtus ſtate, the *bones* ſeem a network of threads, but when oſſification is farther advanced, theſe threads are not ſo apparent; the interſtices being filled up with others. The bones are compoſed of a hard, ſolid, of a cellular, and of a reticular part. The cellular part is formed by the inner laminæ of the ſolid part, departing towards the axis of the *bone*. The reticular part lies in the cavity of the *bone*, and by degrees, as it approaches the extremities, unites, ſeeming partly to form the cellular part. There are no nails to join the laminæ as ſome have deſcribed; they are rather connected by tranſverſe fibres. The cavity of the *bones* ſerves not only to contain the marrow, but by the increaſe of the diameter, the ſtrength of the *bone* is augmented. The *bones* have numerous blood-veſſels, but eſpecially in the ſpongy and reticular parts, though the ſolid part is not without them; theſe veſſels run according to the direction of the fibres of the *bone*; thus, in the long *bones* they run longitudinally. In the round *bones*, as in the os bregmatis, they run radiated, becoming leſs and leſs viſible as they approach to the centre of the *bone*, becauſe there the laminæ are the thickeſt. The bones are full of pores for the admiſſion of veſſels; in the middle theſe pores are more large and conſpicuous, in the extremities they are ſmaller. In every cylindrical *bone* there is a hole about its middle for the admiſſion of an artery and its vein, which paſſes ſlanting through the ſubſtance of the *bone*, and branches through the internal perioſteum, or membrana medullæ, which lies betwixt the medulla and the internal ſurface of the *bone*, and even branch externally again through the *bone*. Theſe branches frequently anaſtomoſe, whence the *bone* may be nouriſhed from within outwards, as well as from without inwards. This internal perioſteum is liable to the diſorders of other vaſcular ſubſtances, as inflammation, obſtruction, ſuppuration, &c. with their conſequences: but where theſe happen, the ſtructure of the *bone* is frequently quite deſtroyed, as in the ſpina ventoſa. It is ſuppoſed that *bones* are furniſhed with nerves, and yet they moſtly ſeem inſenſible; though the granulations from them are extremely ſenſible. It is probable that there are veſſels ſui generis, whoſe office is to carry *bony* matter, and occaſionally to abſorb it; as a proof of this, the mollities oſſium, from a ſcorbutic, or a venereal cauſe, ſeems rather a defect of this *bony* matter, than of marrow. The membrana medullæ, not only lines the ſurface of the *bone* internally, but alſo divides the marrow into veſicles or membranous bags, which are furniſhed with very fine minute veſſels. The middle part of the larger bones, is much leſs in diameter than the extremity, to give a greater firmneſs to the joint, and to allow a greater ſpace for the fleſhy belly of the muſcles. The middle part of the bones is not ſmaller than the extremities merely by preſſure, as we may obſerve in the fœtus ſtate; it is their original conformation, though preſſure ſeems to have ſome effect in this caſe, as we may obſerve in a weakly conſtitution, and in women of a ſedentary life. The *bones* are entirely ſmooth, though in a robuſt habit there are cavities and furrows on their ſurface formed by the action of the muſcles. The *bones* are cæteris paribus weaker in their middle part, from their diameter being leſs; whence in this part they are more expoſed to fractures; but to compenſate this, there are more lamellæ in the middle than in the extremities, and they are more compactly joined; there is a cavity alſo there which contains the marrow, and thus the ſtrength in this part is greater than otherwiſe it would be. Many *bones* have protruberances riſing out of them, which are called proceſſes; and in many there are cavities; if theſe are deep, with large brims, they are called cotylæ; if ſuperficial, glenæ or glenoid; which general claſſes are divided into ſeveral ſpecies, of which, pits are ſmall roundiſh channels, ſunk perpendicularly into the bone; furrows are long narrow canals, formed in the ſurface; niches are ſmall breaches in the *bone*; ſinuoſities are broad but ſuperficial depreſſions without brims; foſſæ are large deep cavities, which are not equally ſurrounded by high brims; ſinuſes are large cavities within the *bones* with ſmall openings; foramina, or holes, are canals that pierce through the ſubſtance of the *bones*. The uſe of theſe cavities are to allow room for heads of bones to play in; to defend and lodge ſofter parts; and to afford a paſſage for veſſels, muſcles, &c. The *bones* are deſtroyed in the living ſubjects, by the acceſs of air, or by blood lodging upon them. The claſſes into which the *bones* are divided are uſually as follow. 1ſt, The cylindrical; theſe are compact in the middle, and ſpongy in their extremities. 2dly, Spherical; theſe are entirely ſpongy, except a thin plate on the external ſurface. 3dly, The flat; they are compact on the outſide and inſide, but between the plates are ſpongy. 4thly, The irregular, which when thick, are like the round, and when thin are like the flat ones.

Mr. Sheldon obſerves, that *bones* are compoſed of fibres connected by cellular ſubſtance; there are two portions in *bone*, one the living vaſcular or organized part; the other dead calcareous earth, which, though a dead matter treaſured up in a living ſubſtance, yet does not ſtimulate or irritate. If *bone* is ſoaked in ſpirit of ſalt and water, it will leave nothing but veſſels and membranes; it appears to be an inorganic concrete, but it is very much organized. The ſource of blood to the *bone*, is from the internal and external perioſteum, whoſe veſſels copiouſly anaſtomoſe with each other in the ſubſtance of the *bone*. In the flat *bones* the veſſels anaſtomoſe in the diploe or meditullium. The arteries, veins, nerves, and abſorbents, are all in like manner. All the ſpongy bones, as the ſternum, vertebræ, ſacrum, &c. are covered with a ſtrong ligamentous ſubſtance. The earth of *bones* is conſidered by the chymiſts as the pureſt: they call it virgin earth. The whole ſenſibility of the *bone* does not reſide in the perioſteum: *bone* becomes moſt exquiſitely ſenſible, in the diſeaſed inflamed ſtate, owing to the veſſels ſwelling, and the ſubſtance round them being inelaſtic.

See Havers on the Bones; Monro's Oſteology; Thompſon on the Bones; Cheſelden and Albinus's Oſteography; Neſbitt's and Kerckringius's Oſteogeny; Monſieur Courtial's Obſ. Anat. ſur les Os. On the Diſeaſes of the Bones, ſee Petit.

OS. The mouth. Its internal parts are the lips, the angles of the mouth, the border or edge of each lip; the foſſula which runs from the ſeptum narium to the edge of the upper lip, and the tranſverſe fold which ſeparates the under lip from the chin. The internal parts are the plate, the ſeptum palati, the uvula, the amygdalæ, the gums, the frœna of the lips, and the tongue with its apex, root, ſides, and frœnum.

OSCEDO. Yawning.

OSCHEOCELE, i. e. Hydrocele. Vogel calls the rupture that deſcends into the ſcrotum by this name.

OSCHEOPHYMA. The ſame as hydrocele.

OSCITANS. The yawning fever.

OS EXTERNUM. In midwifery, the entrance into the vagina is thus called, in oppoſition to the mouth of the womb which is called the os internum.

OS INTERNUM. In midwifery, the orifice into, or mouth of the womb, is thus called in oppoſition to the entrance into the vagina, which is called the os externum. If the *os internum* is long and hard, when pains like labour come on, a clyſter and an anodyne may be given, for the pains are not labour pains. The os tincæ (ſo the *os internum* is alſo called) is ſometimes open, a month or two before the time for labour; but it ſhould be remembered that its thickneſs and ſoftneſs undergoes not ſuch alterations, but remains the ſame whether open or ſhut, until labour comes on. The *os internum* does not always point in one direction during pregnancy, nor in the beginning of labour; which ever way it points, when it can be reached, if it is not in the proper direction, the midwife ſhould gently draw it towards the vagina; at the ſame time, with the other hand, let the belly be gently preſſed, to aſſiſt the endeavours uſed. If the *os internum* is rigid, ſcooping is bad. When the *os internum* is opened by the membranes, it is ſoft, and then if contracted again from the diſcharge of the waters, it is eaſily dilated. The *os internum* ſometimes is hardened and thickened by age, or by frequent labours, and then the birth, though natural, is ſomewhat retarded. The manner of dilating the os externum and *internum* is thus; having the hand well greaſed, begin to dilate the external parts gradually, introducing the fingers one after the other, and moving them in a rotatory manner; when the hand is in the vagina, begin gradually to dilate the *os internum*, reſting at intervals, both for your own eaſe and that of the woman, who ſuffers much from this practice; proceed with the more care and patience, in proportion to the rigidity of the parts. When the hand can be introduced into the uterus, let it enter with its back to the uterus, and the palm towards the membranes.

OS LEONIS. A ſpecies of antirrhinum.

OS TINCÆ, i. e. Os Internum.

OSCHEALIS HERNIA; or, Oſcheocele. A ſcrotal rupture.

OSCHEON. The ſcrotum. Galen gives this name to the os uteri.

OSCITATIO. Yawning. Boerhaave ſays, "the effects of *yawning* (he ſpeaks of it in the healthy) is to move, accelerate, and equally diſtribute all the humours through all the veſſels of the body, conſequently to qualify the muſcles and organs of ſenſation for their various functions." Juſt after ſleep, a perſon is moſt inclined to *yawn*, and ſtretch his limbs, becauſe a greater quantity going off by the pores at this time than at any other, whenever a perſon awakes, the increaſed contraction that then happens, cloſes much of the perſpirable matter in the cutaneous paſſages, which will continually give ſuch irritations as excite *yawning* and ſtretching; and ſuch motions, by ſhaking the membranes of the whole body, and ſhifting the contacts of their fibres, and the incloſed matter, by degrees throws it off. Hence we ſee the reaſon why healthful ſtrong people are moſt inclined to ſuch motions; they perſpire moſt in time of ſleep, and, therefore have more of the perſpirable matter to lodge in the pores, and hence great irritations thereunto. The advantages of ſome little exerciſe juſt after waking in a morning are conſiderable, as it throws of all the perſpirable matter that is ready for its exit out of the body.

When *yawning* is troubleſome, Hippocrates ſays, that long deep reſpiration, or drawing in the air at long intervals, cures it.

OSCULATORIUS MUSCULUS, i. e. Sphincter labiorum.

OSMUNDA. It is a plant which bears no flowers, but bears its fruit in cluſters. See FILIX and LUNARIA.

OSSA e CORDE CERVI. The bone of a ſtag's heart. It is flat, oblong, and without ſmell or taſte. It is formed by the oſſification of the arteries.

OSSERVAZIONI, i. e. Mumps.

OSSICULUM. In botany, it is the ſhell, or hard ſtony covering of ſeeds.

OSSIFICATIO. Oſſification. Dr. Niſbet ſays, that in the blood, or a fluid ſecreted from it, there is an *oſſifying* juice, conſiſting of particles, that are not apparent; that whenever nature deſigns an *oſſification* between membranes, or within a cartilage, ſhe occaſions a more than uſual afflux of this fluid, which ſo diſtends the veſſels that were before inviſible, as to make them capable of receiving the red globules of blood, which are always to be ſeen near the place where *oſſification* is begun. In this blood, gritty bony particles are to be felt by the point of a knife, which have been formed by the attraction and cohеſion of the particles of the *oſſifying* juice obſtructed, along with the other groſſer fluids in the beginning of the veſſels prepared to receive the refluent juices. The blood being capable of forming fine membranes, the membranous parts of a bone, which act as a gluten to keep theſe particles and fibres together, if there be any ſuch that do not ariſe from the coats of its veſſels, are produced by a cohеſion round the cretaceous particles of a part of the fluid, in which they were generated and contained. Thus the membranes of cartilages ſerve as a bed between, or within which the bony particles are depoſited, or ſhoot; but without any intermixture of the particles of the bone and cartilage, or continuation of the fibres of the one ſubſtance to thoſe of the other, as is evident in cartilages containing bones kept long enough in water, and then ſlit; for the bone will, as ſoon as the large veſſels that enter its ſubſtance are divided, ſlip as eaſily from it as an acorn does out of its cup; and there is a ſmoothneſs and a poliſh of the parts of both cartilage and bone, which ſhew there is no conjunction of the fibres of the two ſubſtances. While the bones are increaſing within cartilages, the cartilages are extended and ſpread out, by which, with the preſſure which they ſuffer, and the great influx of various fluids, and the nutritious matter being hindered from flowing freely into them, they decreaſe continually, and, at laſt, may truly be ſaid to be entirely deſtroyed.

Dr. Hunter, in his Lectures, ſupports Dr. Neſbit's opinion, by curious anatomical preparations, which oppoſe Kerckringius and others, who ſay that bones are cartilages in their original ſtate.

Mr. Cruikſhank obſerves reſpecting *oſſification*, that Dr. Hunter uſed to ſend round, at lectures, a preparation of the patella, in which he demonſtrated, that the *oſſification* of that bone began by the arteries *oſſifying* in the centre of the cartilage, which, in young ſubjects, ſupplies the place of bony patella. Mr. Cruikſhank adds, that he hath proſecuted that ſubject, from the firſt appearance of an *oſſifying* artery, to the perfect formation of the patella. He ſuppoſed that the ſame thing took place in all other bones, and accordingly made preparations to demonſtrate it in every bone of the body; and can ſhow that *oſſification* is not only begun, but carried on by the *oſſifying* of the arteries.

Oſſifications frequently happen in the aorta, lungs, pericardium, and other parts.

Oſſification advances in infants in proportion to the vis vitæ: thus women judge of a child's ſtrength by the dimenſions of its fontanel.

In flat bones *oſſification* begins in the centre, and ſhoots towards the circumference. In long bones it begins in the middle, ſhooting towards the extremities.

See Kerckringius, Coiterus, Eyſſonius, Ruyſch, Neſbit, Albinus, and Monro.

OSTAGRA, from ὀστεον, *a bone*, and ἀγρα, *a laying hold of*. A forceps to take out bones with.

OSTEOCOLLA, called alſo oſteites, oſſifraga, oſteolithos, holoſteus, ſtelochites, glue-bone ſtone, bone-binder. It is the petrified root of a tree, as of the poplar, pine, &c. It is found in ſandy places in ſeveral parts of Germany; the ſand in which it is met with hath a large mixture of fine, white calcareous earth, which ſticks to the fingers, looks like meal, and when waſhed by the rains into any cavity, hath the appearance of an emulſion. Of this ſand and calcareous earth, ſo inſinuated into the roots of the trees as to make them have a ſtony appearance, is the *oſteocolla* formed. In foſſiliogy it is placed amongſt the calcareous ſtones. It hath been famed for its virtue of promoting a coalition of fractured bones. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works; Philoſ. Tranſact.

OSTEOCOPI, from ὀστεον, *a bone*, and κοπος, *uneaſineſs*. Pain in the bones cauſed by the acrimony of the humours in the ſpina ventroſa; theſe pains are in the internal perioſteum of the bone; they reſemble that of great wearineſs.

OSTEOGENEIA, from ὀστεον, *a bone*, and γενεια, *generation*. Oſteogeny. It treats of the geneſis or production of a bone under its ſeveral original ſtates.

OSTEOGENICA. Medicines which promote the generation of a callus.

OSTEOGRAPHIA. Oſteography, from *οστεον, a bone*, and *γραφω, to deſcribe*. It deſcribes a ſkeleton, and all the bones which compoſe the ſeveral parts thereof; or it is the doctrine which deſcribes the bones.

OSTEOSARCOSIS. It is relieved by the catapl. antiparalyt.

OSTIARUS. The pylorus.

OSTIOLA. Small doors. So Mundinus calls the valves in the veſſels of the heart.

OSTIOLOGIA, from *οστεον, a bone*, and *λογος, a diſcourſe on oſteology*. A deſcription of the bones. The doctrine relative to the bones. It includes oſteogeny, oſteography, and ſynoſteography.

OSTRACITES, alſo called oſtrea labris non crenatis, oſtracite. Hobgoblin's-claw. It is a ſtony ſubſtance, of the ſhape of an oyſter-ſhell petrified by ſparry matter. It is uſed inſtead of the pumice ſtone to take off hairs.

OSTRACITES. A name of the oſteocolla.

OSTRACITIS. A ſpecies of cadmia, which is thin, and generally earthy and black. It is alſo a name of the botryites.

OSTREA. The oyſter. It is an excellent diet if eaten raw, for thoſe who digeſt ſlowly, and whoſe ſtomachs abound with acidities. The ſhells are excellent abſorbents, and are generally uſed to correct acidity in the primæ viæ. Before they are taken into the ſtomach they ſhould be calcined in the ſun; or if burnt in the fire, they become a better kind of lime than the ſtone-lime for calculous complaints; and after being ſeveral times uſed for making the lime water with, they may be uſed as abſorbents. The hollow ſhells contain moſt of the fine white earth. The rough matter of the ſhell contains much ſea ſalt. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

OSTRITIUM, or Oſtrutium. Maſter-wort.

OSTRYA, or Oſtrys, called alſo tragus, carpenus, betulus. The horn-bean. It is a tree which is found in woods and hedges. It is not noted for any medical uſe. See Raii Hiſt.

OSYRIS, called alſo caſſia poetica, caſſia Latinorum, caſſia lignea Monſpelienſium. Poets roſemary.

The whole ſhrub is aſtringent. It grows in the ſouthern parts of Europe.

OSYRIS. A name for toad-flax, and for the ſummer cypreſs.

OTALGIA, from *ους, an ear*, and *αλγος, pain*. A pain in the ear. This diſorder affects the concha, and the whole meatus auditorius. It is attended with inflammation, tumors, punction, eroſion, tenſion, pulſation, and a ſenſe of weight. Dr. Cullen places it as a variety of phlogoſis phlegmone.

Extraneous bodies falling into the meatus auditorius, or what ever excites pain in other parts, may cauſe it here.

The quality of the wax may be faulty, and be a cauſe; but the moſt frequent cauſes are heat and cold, ſometimes an acrid ſerum is ſecreted in the glands of the ear.

When the wax, or other humours are ſaline, they excite a pricking pain; when the ſalts in theſe humours are corroſive, they excite a gnawing pain; when the wax ferments whilſt it is yet in the glands, it cauſes a tenſive pain; when the glands are very turgid, there is a ſenſe of weight; and when there is a tumor, a pulſation is perceived, eſpecially if it tends to ſuppurate.

If the pain is violent it ſeldom fails to bring on a fever, which is early attended with great reſtleſſneſs, and a delirium, fainting, and often convulſions are the conſequence; for the membrane that lines the ear is exquiſitely ſenſible, and fully ſtored with nerves, beſides membranes which adhere to bones have a more than ordinary ſenſibility.

In the beginning, whilſt the pain is not very conſiderable, a little warm olive oil dropped into the ear will often relieve. If cold is the cauſe, keep the head warm. If there is inflammation and tumor, which will be known by the throbbing pain, a ſuppuration may be encouraged by cataplaſms applied warm on the outer ear; but if the ſtate of ſuppuration is not manifeſtly near, endeavour by bleeding, purging, and diſcutients applied to the ear, to remove the inflammation and pain; if external heat was the cauſe, bleed, and give daily a moderate doſe of Glauber's ſalt as a purge until the pain abates, or until there is reaſon to ſuſpect a ſuppuration; an opiate may be given at night when the pain is violent. When acrid defluxions are the cauſe, inject a warm infuſion of poppy-heads in water. When living inſects have crept into the ear, blow the ſmoak of tobacco therein, and then pour in warm oil. If purulent matter diſcharges itſelf inject tepid water, mixed with a little ſoap, or honey of roſes. Beſides the above-mentioned, bliſters behind the ears, bladders of warm water laid on the affected ear, and the pediluvium, are occaſionally uſeful.

See James's Med. Dict. Lobb on painful Diſtempers; Brooks's, and the London Practice of Phyſic.

OTENCHYTES, from *ωτος*, the genitive of *ους, an ear*, and *εγχεω, to pour in*. A ſyringe for the ears.

OTHONNA. A ſpecies of celandine; ſome ſay it is the juice of celandine.

OTITIS. Inflammation in the internal ear.

OTOPLATOS. A ſtinking diſcharge behind the ears.

OTOPUOSIS. A purulent diſcharge from the ear.

OTORRHŒA. A diſcharge of blood or of bloody matter from the ear.

OURLES, i. e. Mumps.

OVA ZEPHYRIA. Eggs which are not impregnated by the tread of the cock.

OVALE FORAMEN. See Cor.

OVARIA. The Ovaries. They were formerly called the female teſticles; but ſince anatomiſts have thought that they perceived cluſters of eggs in them, they have named them *ovaria*. Dr. Hunter thinks they are properly teſticles ſecreting female ſeed, which is taken up and conveyed by the Fallopian tube to the uterus. The *ovaries* are two ſmall bodies ſituated behind each Fallopian tube; they are of a different ſize and figure ſometimes in the ſame body. At the age of puberty they are of a proper ſize, and continue plump and full until the menſes are about to depart. They receive veſſels from the ſpermatics, which run on to the uterus, and anaſtomoſe with the hypogaſtrics. The nerves are from the intercoſtals, lumbal, and ſacral. Beſides the liquor which reſembles the white of egg, they contain two or three vaſcular bodies called corpora lutea, and which by ſome are called the eggs.

The *ovaries* are ſubject to great diſtention from water, which conſtitutes what is called a dropſy therein, of which ſee a ſingular Caſe in Gooch's Obſ. and Remarks.

OVATUS, or Oviformis humor. The aqueous humour of the eye.

OVI-ALBOR, or Ovi-candidum. The white of egg.

OVUM. An egg. The ſhells of eggs are prepared by boiling them in water, to ſeparate the membrane which lines their inner ſurface, and then powdering them by levigation. They bind the belly the leaſt of all the teſtaceous abſorbents. Eggs are nutritious, but if hard boiled are difficultly digeſted. The yolk is uſed as a medium for uniting balſams with water, but the white is preferable, as it is leſs diſguſtful to many ſtomachs. Weak ſtomachs digeſt the white more eaſily than the yolk. Betwixt the ſerum of the blood and the white of egg there is great analogy. See Neumann's Chem. Works.

OVUM PHILOSOPHORUM. A glaſs whoſe belly is of an oval figure, by which a liquor may be diſtilled by circulation.

OXALIS, i. e. Acetoſa.

OXALME. A mixture of vinegar and ſalt.

OXELÆUM. A mixture of vinegar and oil.

OXYACANTHA. The barberry, alſo a name of ſome ſpecies of thorns.

OXYCEDRUS. A name for the cedrus folio cupreſſi, which is alſo called cedrus Lycia. The berry-bearing or cypreſs leaved cedar.

OXYCOCCUS, called alſo vaccinia paluſtria, vitis Idæa paluſtris. Moor berries. This plant grows in marſhy and putrid ſoils, and flowers in June. The fruit is cooling and aſtringent. See Dale, and Raii Hiſt.

OXYCRATUM. Oxycrate. It is vinegar mixed with ſuch a portion of water as is required, and rendered ſtill milder by the addition of a little honey.

OXYCROCEUM EMPLASTRUM, from *οξος, vinegar*, and *κροκος, ſaffron*. It is a plaſter, in the compoſition of which there is ſaffron and vinegar.

OXYGALA. Sour milk.

OXYGARUM. A compoſition of garum and vinegar.

OXYLAPATHUM. Sharp pointed dock, alſo the common ſorrel.

OXYMEL, from ὀξὺς, *vinegar*, and μὶλι, honey. Honey and vinegar, boiled together ſo as to form a ſyrup, is called ſimple oxymel. Oxymels of different denominations are made by macerating ſome medicinal ingredients in vinegar, and then boiling them up with honey.

OXYMYRRHINE, or Oxymyrſine. See Ruscus.

OXYPHLEGMASIA. An acute inflammation.

OXYPHŒNICIA, or Oxyphœnicon. Tamarinds.

OXYPHYLLON. According to Oribaſius it is the cnicus; but he ſeems to intend by it a different plant from that which we call by that name.

OXYPHONIA. The ſame as paraphonia clangens. It is a howling kind of noiſe.

OXYREGMIA, from ὀξὺς, *acid*, and ῥηγνυω, *to break wind*. An acid eructation.

OXYRRHODINON. A compoſition of vigdneanar oil of roſes.

OXYS. Wood ſorrel.

OXYSACCHARUM. A compoſition of vinegar and ſugar.

OXYSAL DIAPHORETICUM. It is a preparation of Angelus Sala. It is a fixt ſalt loaded with more acid than is neceſſary to ſaturate it. The ſalt of juniper is of this kind.

OXYSCHŒNOS. A name for the juncus acutus capitulis ſorghi.

OXYTOCA, from ὀξὺς, *quick*, and τικτω, *to bring forth*. Medicines which promote delivery.

OXYTRIPHYLLUM. Wood ſorrel, alſo the pile treſoil.

OZÆNA, from ὀζω, *a ſtench*. A fetid ulcer in the noſe is thus named,

P.

P In preſcription it ſometimes ſignifies a pugil, and ſometimes parts.

PACAL. A tree in Peru, the aſhes of which are mixed with ſoap for the cure of leprous diſorders; the mixture is uſed as an ointment. See Raii Hiſt.

PACHYS. Thick. The name of a diſorder which is not only unknown to us, but which has never been deſcribed by any phyſician ſince Hippocrates. It is ſuppoſed that the Cnidian phyſicians are the authors of the deſcription; Hippocrates condemns them for multiplying the ſpecies of diſeaſes without neceſſity; in this they make four ſpecies, and the ſymptoms are very incompatible too. The curious may ſee the deſcription in James's Med. Dict. or in Le Clerc's Hiſt. Med. lib. iii. c. 11.

PACO-CAATINGA. A coniferous ſpecies of Braſilian canna. The ſtalk of this plant, if chewed, occaſions a ſpitting; if the ſaliva is ſwallowed when this ſtalk is chewed, it cures a gonorrhœa in a few days; it is alſo a ſort of lithontriptic. Ray takes notice of three ſpecies. See his Hiſt. Plant.

PACOEIRA. The muſa or plantain tree.

PACO-SEROCA. A ſpecies of Braſilian canna. See Raii Hiſt.

PACOURII. A very large tree in the iſland of Maragnan, belonging to Braſil. See Raii Hiſt.

PADRI. A ſiliquous tree in Malabar. The juice of the leaves is a cure for the mania; the juice of the bark, mixed with the fruit of the pera, reſtrains the menſes. See Raii Hiſt.

PADUS, called alſo ceraſus avium nigra, ceraſus racemoſa. The wild cluſter cherry, the bird's cherry.

It grows on rocky mountainous places, and the fruit is uſed to hang about the necks of children, as a cure for the epilepſy. See Dale, and Raii Hiſt.

PADUS. A name for the lauro ceraſus.

PÆDANCHONE, from παις, *a child*, and αγχω, *to ſtrangulate*. A ſpecies of quinſy common among children.

PÆDARTHROCACE, from παις, *a boy*, αρθρον, *a joint*, and κακον *an evil*. The joint evil. Intimating that this diſorder frequently appears about the *joints* of children, and oftener in them than in adults, becauſe the bones of children are more ſoft and ſpongious, and ſo more eaſily corroded by peccant humours, and diſtended into tumors, ſometimes of a very ſurpriſing deformity. Severinus calls the ſpina ventoſa by this name, as alſo doth Dr. Cullen; he alſo makes another diſtinction between the ſpina ventoſa and the *pædarthrocace*, for the tumors of the firſt kind are frequently attended with pain, redneſs, and all the appearances of inflammation; but the *pædarthrocace* has little or no pain in the beginning, as is obſerved in ricketty children; but theſe names are uſed very promiſcuouſly; by ſome it is uſed to expreſs a ſort of anaſarca. See M. A. Severinus's Treatiſe De Recondita Abſceſſuum Natura.

PÆDOPHLEBOTOMIA. The bleeding of children.

PÆNOE. A large tree in Malabar. The root, bark, fruit, and all the parts yield a reſin, which is burnt inſtead of incenſe in their ſacrifices. The kernels of the fruit, made into an emulſion with warm water, ſtrengthen the ſtomach, relieve from nauſeas, allay pain in the belly, and cure the cholera. See Raii Hiſt.

PÆONIA, from *Pæon*, the phyſician who with this plant cured Pluto when he was wounded by Hercules. Boerhaave enumerates twelve ſpecies, of which the following are ſometimes, though very rarely uſed.

PÆONIA MAS. Male pæony. The *pæonia* officinalis, Linn.

PÆONIA FŒMINA. Female pæony. The *pæonia* officinalis, Linn.

Theſe plants are ſo common in gardens as to need no deſcription. The male ſort hath dark green leaves, pale red ſingle flowers, long thick roots, with red ſtreaks in the ſtalks and pedicles; the female hath longer, pale, and narrower leaves, deep red, double flowers, and irregular roots, compoſed of ſeveral tuberous pieces, hanging by tough filaments from one head. They are perennial, and flower in May. The male is preferred, but ſo little is the difference, that the female is moſt frequently uſed. The roots, flowers, and ſeeds, are anodyne, but their efficacy is very inconſiderable. The flowers impart their colour to water and to ſpirit. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

PAGANICA. A ball uſed by the Latins to exerciſe with. It was ſo called becauſe uſed only in villages.

PAIANELI A tall pod-bearing tree in Malabar. There are two ſpecies, the different parts of which are uſed by the natives againſt ſeveral diſorders. See Raii Hiſt.

PAIDATROPHIA. The atrophy in children.

PAIDION. So Hippocrates calls the child in the womb when perfected there. See Cuema.

PAIDOPOIETIC. Of the fœtus.

PAIOMIRIOBA. A name for the ſenna orientalis fruticoſa.

PAI-PAROCA. A bacciferous ſhrub in Malabar. An apozem prepared of the leaves, fruit, and roots in water, is uſeful againſt the gout. See Raii Hiſt.

PALA. Nutmeg, alſo a tall pod-bearing tree in Malabar. The natives uſe it in various diſorders. See Raii Hiſt.

PALÆTYRUS. Old cheeſe.

PALATI OSSA. Bones of the palate. They are two irregular ſquare bones, ſituated in the roof of the mouth, which join each other backwards, and the maxillary bones forward; backward there is a lunated edge, whence the velum pendulum palati hangs. The pterygoid proceſs of this bone paſſes between the os maxillare ſuperius, and the pterygoid proceſs of the os ſphenoides: it is of a triangular ſhape, broad at its baſis, and ſmall above. The naſal proceſs is very thin, it riſes upwards, and covers a large part of the aperture of the maxillary ſinus. At the ſuperior part of the naſal proceſs, the os palati divides into two proceſſes called the orbitar. The anterior is the larger, and its fore part is contiguous to the back part of the maxillary ſinus; its poſterior ſurface is cellular, and is contiguous to the ethmoid cells. It is placed likewiſe on the opening of the ſphenoidal ſinus, ſo as to leave a ſmall hole above.

PALATINA PROCESSUS. See MAXILLARIA SUPERIORA OSSA.

PALATINÆ GLANDULÆ. They are conglomerated glands, ſituated in the ſeptum and arch of the palate, near the tonſils.

PALATINUS. It is a branch of the upper maxillary branch of the fifth pair of nerves; it runs before the pterygoid apophyſes of the os ſphenoides in the canal formed by the os maxillare and os palati, and through the foramen palatinum poſterius, it ſpreads in the glandular coat of the palate, and parts adjacent.

PALATINUS DUCTUS, i. e. Tuba Euſtachiana.

PALATO PHARYNGÆUS. See CONSTRICTOR ISTHMI FAUCIUM, and PERISTAPHILO PHARYNGÆI.

PALATOSALPINGÆUS. Alſo called muſculus tubæ novus Valſalvæ. Innes deſcribes it under the name of circumflexus palati. It ariſes broad and tendinous from the edge of all the lunated part of the os palati, ſeveral of its fibres being ſpread upon the membrane that covers the foramen narium; then growing into a ſmall thin tendon, it is affected about the hook-like proceſs of the inner ala of the proceſſus pterygoides; but ſoon turning into a narrow thin fleſhy belly, it runs cloſe along the inſide of the muſculus pterygoidæus internus, and is inſerted carnous into all the fleſhy membranous and cartilaginous part of the tuba Euſtachiana. Valſalva diſcovered it, and firſt obſerved that its uſe is to dilate and keep this channel open.

PALATUM. The palate. It is that arch of the mouth which is ſurrounded before by the teeth and gums, and extending backward the whole breadth of the upper part of the mouth, as far as the great opening of the pharynx. This arch is partly hard and immoveable, and partly ſoft and moveable. The ſolid part is formed by the two oſſa maxillaria, and the two oſſa palati. The ſoft part lies behind the other. The membrane that lines the palate is full of ſmall glands. It ſometimes happens when a child is born with the hare-lip, the fleſhy and the long parts of the palate are defective, from a fiſſure, or a diviſion through into the noſtrils; the uvula alſo is ſometimes divided as into two. In this caſe, the child cannot ſuck, but muſt be fed by the ſpoon.

PALATUM MOLLE. Behind the bony palate lies the ſoft palate, from the middle of which the uvula hangs down.

PALEA DE MECHA, i. e. Juncus odoratus.

PALIMPISSA, from παλιν, *ſignifying repetition*, and πισσα, *pitch*. Dioſcorides ſays that dry pitch is thus named, becauſe it is prepared of pitch twice boiled.

PALIURUS. Chriſt's thorn, or wild jujube. It is a ſpecies of thorn met with in the ſouthern part of Europe. The leaves and roots are moderately aſtringent; but on account of the length of its ſpines, it is the beſt of all other buſhes for making hedges.

PALLIUM PURPUREUM. A purple cloak. So Baſil Valentine calls a certain powder, prepared of an amalgama of gold and mercury put into a retort, where the mercury being ſeparated, what remains is calcined with ſulphur, and turned a purple colour.

PALMA. The palm-tree. Boerhaave's characters of this tree are, that its fruit, under an eatable pulp, hath an hard ſtrong nucleus, like the ſtone of a plum. But to this may be added, that the *palm-tree* riſes up with one ſingle and individual trunk. The ſpecies are numerous; Boerhaave mentions nine, Dale adds ſix, and Ray increaſes the number by twenty more. Some of the moſt noted are the

PALMA MINOR, alſo called palma humilis dactylifera, &c. *palma* humilis Hiſpanica ſpinoſa & non ſpinoſa, palmites, chamærhiphes. The dwarf palm. Its fruit is aſtringent.

PALMA JAPONICA, alſo called ſagou, palma Indica, arbor farinifera, zagu, todda panna, monta panna. The libby-tree, Indian bread, or ſago-tree. It is the cycas circinalis, or cycas Indica, frondibus pinnatis circinatibus, foliolis linearibus planis, Linn. The pith of theſe trees being well beat in a mortar with water, forms an emulſion, the fæcula of which when dried is ſago.

The fruit of this tree is ſomewhat aſtringent, though not ſo when eaten with ſugar.

The ſago is very nouriſhing, and is uſed by the Indians when rice is ſcarce; it is demulcent, it never ferments in the ſtomach, whence it is properly preferred by many to wheat flour for the food of infants; its being eaſily digeſted, and its demulcent quality, renders it uſeful for the diet of hectic patients.

PALMA COCCIFERA, alſo called palma Indica coccigera anguloſa, coccus, *palma* Indica nucifera, *palma* nucifera arbor, nux Indica, inaja-guacuiba, tenga, polgaha. The coco, or cocker-nut tree.

From this tree the Indians extract a liquor called ſuri, and diſtil the liquor called arrac from it; alſo a ſpecies of ſugar called jagra. The milk in the ſhell of the nut is grateful and cooling. The exterior covering of the nuts are at firſt eatable, and are gratefully acid, and gently reſtringent. By boiling, an oil like that from almonds is obtained from the kernel of the nut.

PALMA OLEOSA. See PALMÆ OLEUM.

PALMA NOBILIS, alſo called regulis Jamaicenſis & Barbadenſis, palmiſte, palmeto royal. The cabbage-tree. It is a tall ſtrait tree, between two hundred and fifty and three hundred feet high. On the top is a white, tender, ſavoury, medullary ſubſtance, which, if eaten raw, is to the taſte like a wallnut, but boiled and pickled with the white leaves which ſurround it, it is one of the greateſt delicacies in the Leeward iſlands. This fruit is called the cabbage of the palm-tree. On the top of the trunk grows the involucrum of the flower and fruits called ſpatha, the fruits are round, and the ſize of an egg. See Raii Hiſt.

In Jamaica the wild cabbage-tree bark (which is alſo called worm bark of Jamaica,) is much uſed for the deſtruction of worms in human ſubjects. The following is the account which is given by Mr. Anderſon, a medical practitioner there for ſome years. He mentions two ſorts of this bark, the one much paler than the other. The paler ſort he obſerves is more rugged in its operation, occaſioning nauſea, and great uneaſineſs in the belly. The darker coloured bark, he ſays, reſembles much the caſſia lignea in colour, though it is of a much coarſer texture. But this laſt is the kind commonly uſed in the Weſt Indies: it may be uſed with ſafety in any caſe where an anthelminthic is neceſſary. The hazardous ſymptoms aſcribed to it, have moſt probably followed either an over doſe or the uſe of the paler ſort inſtead of the darker. To ſecure againſt an over doſe, it is beſt to begin with a tea-ſpoonfull of the decoction, and gradually increaſe it as often as it is repeated. The decoction is thus prepared, and adminiſtered: take of the bruiſed bark two ounces and a half; of water two quarts; let it be boiled over a gentle fire to a pint and a half. Strain off the decoction, and keep it for uſe, in a bottle well corked. Of this decoction a table-ſpoonfull is uſually given the firſt morning for a doſe to a grown perſon; one and a half the ſecond, continuing to increaſe it gradually to four or five table-ſpoonfulls, and giving it for eight or nine mornings ſucceſſively. After this, I commonly give a doſe of jalap, with a few grain of calomel, which ſeldom fails to bring away the worms, ſome dead ſome alive. If at any time I have found the decoction produce more than one or two looſe ſtools, I have added to each doſe a few drops of liq. laud. And in general I have given with each doſe, fifteen or twenty drops of the ſpirit of lavender on a lump of ſugar. Edinb. Med. Commentaries, vol. 4. p. 85, &c.

PALMA ADY. See ABANGA.

PALMA AMERICANA AYRI. The ebony tree.

PALMA AMERICANA SPINOSA. The ebony tree.

PALMA BRASILIENSIS SEXEA AIRI. The ebony tree.

PALMA CHRISTI. See CATAPUTIA.

PALMA CHRISTI MAS. Male fatyrion royal.

PALMA COCCIFERA FIGURA OVALI. The Maldivia nut.

PALMA PINUS. A tall tree which reſembles both the palm and the pine tree.

Palma is the name of many other trees and plants.

PALMA. The palm of the hand.

PALMÆ OLEUM It is the produce of the palma foliorum pediculis ſpinoſis fructu pruniformi luteo oleoſo. Sloan Jam. Dr. Brown in his Nat. Hiſt. of Jamaica takes notice of the *palma* ſpinoſa minor fructu pruniformi, &c. Slo. cat. 178. called in Jamaica the mackaw tree. He obſerves that the rind of the fruit is thick and yields a fattiſh ſubſtance, not unlike, or inferior to the real palm oil. He alſo mentions the *palma* tota ſpinoſa major, &c. Slo. cat. 177. and H. ii. 119. called the great mackaw tree, the fruit of which differs but little from that of the little mackaw tree, the huſks of the fruit is alſo full of oil. He adds in his account of the great mackaw tree, that the negroes ſay it is the tree which yields the true palm oil. In the pharmacopœia of the Edinb. coll. This ſpecies of tree is deſcribed as being the *palma* foliorum pediculis ſpinoſis, fructu pruniformi luteo oleoſo. Sloane Jamaic. and Adanſon Seneg. Mr. Curtis, in his Catalogue of Medicinal, &c. Plants in the London Botanical Garden, calls the tree *palma* oleoſa, Linn. The tree is tall and unbranched, with long reed-like leaves elegantly diſpoſed on the top. Several ſpecies of it are met with in the warmer countries. The fruit is preſſed, or firſt bruiſed, and then boiled in water, by either of theſe methods the oil is obtained, which is of the conſiſtence of butter, and is eaten as ſuch by the inhabitants in Guinea, and in the Cape Verde iſlands. It is of a ſtrong, but not diſagreeable ſmell, and hath but very little taſte. The colour, whilſt good, is of a deep yellow inclined to red, but by long keeping it becomes pale, and is then to be rejected. This oil is uſed when mixed with ſome warm penetrating ingredients, to rub on parts affected with old pains, and in ſome nervous diſorders.

PALMARIS BREVIS. Joannes Baptiſta Cannanus communicated this muſcle to Fallopius, and it was firſt publiſhed by Valverda, in his Anatomy written in Spaniſh. It riſes from the faſcia of the annular ligament, it runs acroſs the ball of the little finger, and is loſt in the ſkin to pull it inwards. Brown calls it caro muſculoſa quadrata.

PALMARIS CUTANEUS, i. e. Palmaris brevis.

PALMARIS LONGUS. This muſcle lies on the inſide of the extenſor carpi radialis, and riſing tendinous from the inner condyl of the os humeri, it runs under the annular ligament, makes a radiated expanſion on the palm, and is attached to the heads of the metacarpal bones, and the firſt joint of the fingers. It is alſo called ulnaris gracilis.

PALMATA. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of orchis.

PALMEIRA BRAVA. Ray ranks it as a palm-tree.

PALMOS. A palpitation of the heart, from πάλλω, *to beat*.

PALMULA. A date. Alſo a name for the broad and flat end of a rib.

PALPEBRÆ. The eye-lids. They are connected to the circumference of the ſocket by the tunica conjunctiva, ſee ADNATA. They are compoſed of the common teguments, a cartilage called tarſus, and an external membrane. They have two angles or corners, one the ſmall or external, the other the large or internal; theſe angles are called canthuſes. The form of each *eye-lid* is that of a ſegment of a circle, and in regard to the eye, is ſuch, that when both *eye-lids* are ſhut, they make an uniform arch, adapted to the convexity of the eye, and in contact with it; but in regard to one another when ſhut, their edges are ſo contrived, that they leave a ſort of groove, or channel between them, which is narrow toward the outer angle, and wider toward the inner, and ſerves to conduct the tears as they come from the upper part of the eye to what are called the lachrymal points. The margin, or baſis of each *eye-lid*, being a cartilage of a conſiderable thickneſs, is divided into the outer and inner edges; it is the outer edge only of each lid that is ſuppoſed to join when the *eye-lids* are ſhut, the inner edge being formed oblique or ſlanting, makes the groove, or channel, above mentioned, for the paſſage of the tears to the lachrymal points. This margin is the tarſus, and that in the upper *eye-lids* is the broadeſt. The cutis is very thin on the *eye-lids*. The outer edge of each eye-lid is furniſhed with a row of hairs called cilia. On the internal edge of each lid in the tarſus, is a row of ſmall holes, which are the excretory ducts of the ciliary glands. From the upper edge of the upper tarſus, and the inferior of the lower, is contained a membranous expanſion to the neighbouring edges of the orbit; each of thoſe membranes, together with its reſpective tarſus, has the form of the *eye-lid* to which it belongs, and is called ligamentum tarſi. The ligaments of the *eye-lids* are reckoned to be three; from the inner angle, to the naſal proceſs of the os maxillare ſuperius we ſee one, which is the tendon of the orbicularis; at the external angle we ſee another ligament, more diffuſed on the bony brim, blended with the cellular membrane; a third goes all round, proceeding out of the brim of the orbit from the perioſteum. The inſide of the *eye-lids* are lined by the ADNATA, which ſee. The muſcles which ſubſerve the motions of the *eye-lids*, are the orbicularis, and levator *palpebræ* ſuperioris. The *eye-lids*, and their muſcles are furniſhed with branches from the angular, temporal, and frontal arteries, and theſe communicate with thoſe ſent to the internal membrane of the *eye-lids*. The levator *palpebræ* receives a branch from the internal maxillary artery. The veins correſpond very nearly with the arteries, and carry their blood into external jugulars, by means of the veins in the temples and face. The nerves proceed from the opthalmic branch of the fifth pair, from the ſuperior maxillary branch of the fifth pair and from the portio dura of the ſeventh pair; the levator *palpebræ* ſuperioris receives a branch from the third pair. The *eye-lids* defend the eyes from the light during ſleep; they preſerve the eye from becoming dry by their frequent motion, which ſpreads the tears over the external ſurface of the globe. See LACRYMALES GLANDULÆ, LACRYMALIA PUNCTA, and LACRYMALIS SACCULUS.

PALPITATIO. So the Latins call the palpitation of the heart. The Greeks called it palmos, a vibration or trembling of the heart. Some confouud the *palpitatio* cordis with the cardialgia and cardiaca paſſio. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes, and order ſpaſmi. The only one ſpecies he calls *palpitatio* cardiaca.

There is a morbid painful *palpitation* of the heart, which is chronical. There is a kind of this diſorder which happens to perſons otherwiſe healthy, and is occaſioned by ſtrong paſſions, ſurprize, ſtrong exerciſe, &c. Actuarius ſays there are two ſorts, one from plenitude or heat in the blood, and that this is the moſt frequent; the other is from vapours. In the firſt he ſays, there is an unequal pulſe; in the latter, the pulſe is unaffected.

Thoſe are the moſt ſubject to this diſorder who are of a firm habit, of a ſanguine, melancholy temperament, of delicate minds, and ſubject to frights; alſo the young, who abound in blood and juices, and thoſe whoſe evacuations of blood whether natural or artificial, are neglected or ſuppreſſed.

A *palpitation* of the heart may ariſe, either from a quick influx of the nervous fluid into the external ſurface of the heart about its baſis, or from a defect thereof into ſome of the nerves in this viſcus. The formal cauſe is always ſo violent a contraction and convulſion of the heart, that it is moved out of its natural ſtate: but the material or proximate cauſe is a certain ſtagnation of the blood, eſpecially in the right ventricle of the heart, and a too great congeſtion of it to the ſame part; on account of which there happens, an impetuous influx of the nervous kind into the cardiac nerves and fibres of the heart, and a preternatural contraction of them. The mediate cauſes are either in the heart, about it, or in parts remote from it. Among the firſt, the moſt frequent and conſiderable are polypous concretions, which are always fibrous and membranous, generated principally in the ventricles and auricles of the heart, then reaching into the veins, and thence frequently forced into the arteries; ſome fault in the fluids; a defect in the uſual evacuations of blood; tight ſtays are not an unfrequent cauſe of this diſorder in young women; coſtiveneſs; a difficult paſſage of the blood through the abdominal viſcera; a ſubtle acrid mat-

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ter in the blood; as when the itch, &c. is repelled; a defect of blood; great diſturbance in the mind; intenſe thought produces it in many hypocondriac patients, and particular odours have the ſame effect in hyſteric women; flatulent aliment; Hippocrates aſſerts, that all *palpitations* of the heart are accompanied with flatulencies, ſtrictures of the belly, thighs, and legs; too tight cloaths; hectic heats; aneuriſms, &c.

During this diſorder it often happens, that the arteries are every where affected with a violent pulſation, eſpecially thoſe above the clavicles; the diſeaſe frequently intermits eſpecially during the body's being at reſt; but after the occurrence of any of the cauſes it returns, the pulſations are ſo great that ſometimes its motions may be perceived on the outſide of the cloaths; it is ſometimes more violent, and ſometimes leſs ſo; ſometimes continues a longer, and at others a leſs time; ſometimes it attacks during ſleep, and awakes ſuddenly; ſometimes it only happens in the day, and is worſt after eating; ſometimes anxiety, or uneaſineſs in the præcordia, precedes; in the paroxyſm of *palpitation*, the breathing is difficult; though the pulſe is intermitting, it does not correſpond with the motion of the heart, but is languid and diminiſhed; in a violent paroxyſm, a great uneaſineſs is perceived in the region of the præcordia, and a conſiderable languor of the body, with a tremor of the joints remain after the *palpitation* is over. When polypous concretions in the heart are the cauſe, the following ſigns uſually attend: the *palpitation* is immediately increaſed after violent exerciſe, going up ſtairs, or the lighteſt commotions of the blood; great anxiety about the præcordia, with a weak, unequal, and ſometimes intermitting pulſe; the patient breathes with ſo much difficulty that ſometimes there is danger of ſuffocation; fainting frequently comes on, and ſometimes is fatal; the pulſe is ſometimes ſtrong, at others more feeble. When the polypous continues fixed, no *palpitation* happens; but when it is removed, it fluctuates in the ventricles of the heart, and partially or fully ſtopping the paſſages of the blood through ſome or other of the veſſels, a *palpitation*, or ſpeedy death is the conſequence. When a redundance of blood cauſes a *palpitation*, the ſigns are, the countenance is florid, the veſſels turgid with blood, and the pulſe is large: in a fit of very ſtrong *palpitation*, the diſtance between the pulſations is greater, and the longer the intervals, the more violent they are.

A *palpitation* of the heart ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from that which is perceived in women, about the laſt months of pregnancy, in the epigaſtric region, and which is only a pulſation of the cœliac arteries, in conſequence of too much blood being hurried through them.

One remarkable ſymptom attending a violent *palpitation* of the heart, is a pain which is acute and pungent, and ſeated immediately above the right orifice of the ſtomach. The third pair of cervical nerves paſs out between the third and fourth vertebræ, ſoon communicates with the ſecond, and ſending down a large branch, which being joined by another from the fourth, forms the phrenic nerve that runs along the pericardium to be loſt in the diaphragm; in this courſe the right phrenic is obliged to make a ſmall turn round that part of the pericardium which covers the apex of the heart; hence it is, that ſuch as have ſtrong *palpitations* have this kind of pain.

A *palpitation* of the heart, when it frequently returns, continues long, or is violent, is always to be feared, as it often ends in a fatal ſwooning, or a ſuffocation. An unequal pulſe, or a difficulty of breathing attending, are dangerous circumſtances. When the diſorder is idiopathic, there is very little dependence on any means made uſe of for relief; but when it is ſymptomatic, its cure is effected by the removal of the original diſorder. When it proceeds from terror, and returns often, it produces polypuſes, which again may prove a cauſe of the worſt kind. *Palpitations* attending various diſeaſes, increaſe the number of diſagreeable prognoſtics.

The indications of cure are, to allay the preternatural commotions of the nervous parts and fibres of the heart and veſſels; to hinder the ſtagnation of the blood about the heart and lungs, by deriving its afflux to theſe parts elſewhere, and rendering the circulation more free. And, thirdly, out of the paroxyſm, to remove the cauſes which excite the diſorder.

To prevent the returns of the diſorder, avoid every known occaſional cauſe, and carefully adhere to regularity reſpecting the non-naturals. If there are any ſymptoms of a polypus, all violent motions are to be avoided, leſt the polypus ſhould be looſened. All tight ligatures ſhould be made eaſy, and the cloaths ſhould be equally ſo; the patient ſhould never continue long in the cold; and when the fit approaches, a clyſter ſhould be inſtantly adminiſtered, and the extremities rubbed; as to the paſſions of the mind, endeavour to keep them free from every degree of exceſs.

During the paroxyſm, enquire for the cauſe. Bleeding is the principal remedy, except the cauſe be weak nerves, or lax habit, in which laſt caſe give the bark, with nervous and ferrugineous medicines. If the cauſe be in an ebullition, or ferment in the fluids, nitre, tart. emet. as a perſpirative. Hoffmann's mineral anodyne liquor &c. in a glaſs of water. If flatulence produces the fit, or when the patient is coſtive, ſkin dry, the feet cold, beſides the above medicines, give oily and carminative clyſters, rub the feet with warm cloths, and then put them into warm water. If hæmorrhages have preceded, to the above add analeptics and cordials; the eſſence of amber is particularly proper; bladders of warm water may be applied to the ſtomach. If an aſthma attends, bliſter, and give the volatile tincture of valerian at proper intervals. If gouty ſpaſms are the cauſe, bleed, bliſter, give volatiles, and put the feet into warm water.

Out of the fit, the whole intention of cure conſiſts in removing, or at leaſt diminiſhing the cauſe; thus, if there is a plethora, reduce it by proper evacuations; if a deficiency of good blood, endeavour to improve and increaſe it; if the *palpitation* is ſymptomatic, remove the original diſorder; if a bilious acrimony gives riſe to it, lemon juice, or other agreeable vegetable acids, will be proper; if the pulſe begins to be affected, bleed; opiates are often very uſeful; pedilaves ſhould not be uſed until the feet begin to grow warm by rubbing them, nor until the fit is going off.

See Actuarius, Hollerius, Sennertus, Lommius and Hoffmann.

PALUDAPIUM. Smallage.

PAMPINIFORME CORPUS, i. e. Spermatica corda.

PAMPINIFORMES. See Ductus Thoracicus.

PAMPINIFORMIA CORPORA, from pampinus, *a vine leaf*, and forma, *ſhape*, i. e. Spermatica Corda. The ſpermatic veſſels form a plexus, which from its ſimilitude to the tendrils of a vine, is called *pampiniformis*.

PANACEA, from παν, the neuter, of πας, *all*, and ακος, *a remedy*, παν, *all*, and ακος, whence is derived, πανακεια, i. e. remedium univerſale, *an univerſal medicine*, or it, comes from παν, *all*, and from the verb ακεομαι, *to heal*, quaſi omnia ſanans.

PANACEA DUPLICATA, i. e. Arcanum duplicatum.

There are many panaceas, as of antimony, mercury, &c. in moſt of the former diſpenſatories.

PANACEA VEGETABILIS. A name given to ſaffron.

PANACES HERACLEUM. A ſpecies of ſphondylium.

PANACES MOSCHATUM. i. e Herbatum Canadenſe.

PANACI HERACLEO, i. e. Tabaria.

PANARIS. The whitloe. See Paronychia.

PANARITIA. A whitloe with fever.

PANARITIUM. A whitloe.

PANATA, or Panatella. Panada.

PANAVA. The cataputia.

PANAX. See Pastinaca.

PANAX ASCLEPIUM. Eſculapius's all-heal.

PANAX ASCLEPIUM. Candy all-heal.

PANAX CHIRONEUM. Dwarf ciſtus.

PANAX COLONI, called alſo ſtachys paluſtris fœtida, galeopſis anguſtifolia fœtida, ſideritis anglica ſtrumoſa radice, galeopſis paluſtris betonicæ folio flore variegato, marrubium aquaticum acutum. Clown's woundwort, or all-heal. Boerhaave ranks it as a ſpecies of galeopſis, Cœſalpinus calls it tertiola, and commends it againſt the tertian ague.

PANAX COSTINUM. Opoponax-wort.

PANAX HERACLEUM. Opoponax-wort.

PANAX PASTINACEA. Opoponax-wort.

PANCASEOLUS, i. e. Bulbocaſtanum.

PANCHYMAGOGUM, from *παν, all. χυμος, humour*, and *αγω, to bring away*. The name of ſome cathartic extracts, which are ſaid to purge away all kinds of humours.

PANCRATIUM. A name for the ſcilla vulgaris radice rubra. It was alſo the name of an exerciſe which was uſed by the antients, and conſiſted of a mixture of wreſtling and boxing.

PANCREAS, from *παν, all*, and *κρεας, fleſh*. The ſweet-bread. See THYMUS. It is ſituated tranſverſely under the ſtomach, in the duplicature of the poſterior portion of the meſocolon, and reaches from the duodenum to the ſpleen. Its ſhape reſembles a dog's-tongue. It hath two edges, one anterior, the other poſterior; and two ſides, one ſuperior, and the other inferior. Its head lies in the firſt curvature of the duodenum, thence it runs acroſs the ſpine to the ſpleen behind and below the ſtomach. There is a natural cavity into the epiploon, between the lower ſide of the ſtomach, and the upper ſide of the meſocolon. It is here that the arteries, veins, and nerves enter, and the cyſtic and hepatic ducts come out to form the ductus communis cholidochus, which goes into the duodenum near the pancreatic duct. The veſſels of the *pancreas* come from thoſe of the ſpleen, which run along it. That head next the duodenum hath veſſels from the meſenterica and gaſtrica dextra. The ſubſtance of this viſcus is that of a conglomerate gland; in the whole length of it is a duct called ductus Wirtſungii, from its diſcoverer, but generally it is ſpoken of by the name of ductus pancreaticus: its beginning is towards the ſpleen, as it goes on it receives branches, grows larger, and proceeds into the duodenum, in the ſame canal as the biliary duct; the pancreatic duct is very thin, and without valves; it does not always go out jointly with the biliary duct, but it is ſeldom that we meet with it otherwiſe. Malpighi makes the *pancreas* a cluſter of veſiculæ; Ruyſch brings it out to be vaſcular, as injections prove it to be. The nerves come from the plexus hepaticus, plexus ſplenicus, plexus meſentericus, &c. The *pancratic* juice reſembles the ſaliva, but is leſs viſcid, and contains a larger proportion of the ſalts of the blood; it is probably a menſtruum for the ſolution of our aliment, but that it acts as a ferment, as ſome have aſſerted, is doubtful. All the *pancreatic* juice is ſent into the duodenum, and is ſecreted moſt when the ſtomach is fulleſt.

PANCREAS MINUS. Where the great extremity of the *pancreas* is connected to the duodenum, it ſends out an elongation, with a diſtinct duct in it, which open into the duodenum.

PANCREATICA. Inflammation of the pancreas.

PANCREATICÆ ARTERIÆ. The ſplenic artery runs from the cœliac artery, under the ſtomach and pancreas, to the ſpleen; it adheres to the lower poſterior part of the pancreas, to which it gives ſeveral branches called *pancreaticæ arteriæ*.

PANCREATICÆ VENÆ. They are ſeveral ſmall branches from the ſplenica, which run to the pancreas along its lower ſide. There are other ſmall pancreatic veins which do not ariſe from the ſplenica.

PANCRENE. The pancreas.

PANDALITIUM, i. e. Paronychia.

PANDEMIUS. Epidemical.

PANDICULATIO, Pandiculation, or Stretching. See OSCITATIO. It is that reſtleſs ſtretching and uneaſineſs that accompany the cold fit of an intermitting fever.

PANEM-PALKA. A ſpurious ſpecies of nut-meg tree.

PANICULA. A panicle. A ſtalk diffuſed into ſeveral pedicles, ſuſtaining the flowers or fruits. Of this kind are the oat, millet, &c. Panicula is alſo a diminutive of panus, a ſpecies of tubercle. It is a name for a ſort of crude bile.

PANICULA Minore, i. e. Panicum.

PANICUM. A plant ſo called from its panicle. Common panic. The ſpike conſiſts of innumerable thick ſeeds diſpoſed in leſſer ſpikes, ſo as to appear like a cluſter. It is cultivated in Germany. The ſeeds have been uſed as food, but are not regarded in medicine. There are ſeveral ſpecies. See Raii Hiſt.

PANIS, i. e. Phygethlon.

PANIS. Bread. From *παν, all in all.* Good *bread* ſhould be compoſed of flour well kneaded with the lighteſt water, ſeaſoned with a little ſalt, fermented with the fineſt yeaſt, and ſufficiently baked. Unfermented *bread* is viſcid and glutinous; fermentation deſtroys this viſcidity, and renders it more eaſily digeſtible, but at the ſame time inclines the ſubſtances fermented to acidity, whence unfermented *bread* only can be proper where viſcidity abounds in the ſtomach. That *bread* which is the lighteſt, and moſt eaſily diſſolved in water, is the moſt wholeſome, digeſted with the greated facility, and ſooneſt converted to laudable nutrition: the additions of lime, chalk, and alum, oppoſe diſſolution. The beſt *bread* for general uſe is made with good wheat, all ground down together (bran and all); to which one-ſixteenth part of barley-meal may be added. Bran conſiſts of the huſks of the grain, and a little of the farinaceous matter, and is ſuppoſed to have a laxative and detergent quality. *Bread* made with the whole of the grain, viz. the bran and flour was called by the ancients, autopyros.

PANIS ATER, and Panis Cibarius. Bread made of flour with all its bran.

PANIS CUCULI, i. e. Acetoſella.

PANIS PORCINUS, i. e. Cyclamen.

PANNICULUS. A piece of cloth.

PANNICULUS ADIPOSUS, i. e. Cellulosa membrana.

PANNICULUS CARNOSUS. Drake deſcribes this in the human ſubject; but Winſlow, Hunter, &c. deny its exiſtence, and ſay it is only in brutes. Some ſay its only in the face.

PANNUS. Woollen cloth. The name of a diſorder in the eye, called alſo unguis; and of a diſorder in the ſkin, as a ſpot or mark, from a veneral or other cauſe.

PANOPHOBIA. A kind of melancholy attended with groundleſs fear. See MELANCOLIA.

PANOCHIÆ. Bubos in the groin.

PANTHEÆ. Penſile beds.

PANTICES. The inteſtines.

PANULA, or Panus. A ſort of crude bile.

PANUS, i. e. Phygethlon.

PAO AGULA. So the Portugueſe call the agallochum.

PAPAGA & PAPAGALLI. Names for the ſeeds of baſtard-ſaffron. They are ſo called from the magpies eating them.

PAPAS. Potatoes.

PAPAVER, from *pappa*, that is pap; becauſe formerly nurſes mixed this plant with the children's pap-meat, as a remedy againſt the pains of the colic.

PAPAVER ALBUM, called alſo papaver hortenſe ſemine albo, ches boul. White garden poppy. *Papaver* ſomniferum album, or *papaver* calycibus capſuliſque glabris foliis amplexicaulibus inciſis, Linn.

This ſpecies is called white, becauſe its flower ſeeds are white.

PAPAVER NIGRUM, called alſo papaver hortenſis nigro ſemine. Black garden poppy.

This ſpecies is thus named becauſe its ſeeds are black.

Theſe plants are found wild in ſome parts of Europe, and ſeveral varieties, as to their flowers, are produced by culture in our gardens. The head, ſtalks, and leaves have an unpleaſant ſmell, and a bitteriſh biting taſte, of the ſame kind with thoſe of opium. This ſmell and taſte are lodged in a milky juice, which abounds chiefly in the cortical part of the heads, which may be collected in conſiderable quantities by ſlightly wounding them when almoſt ripe, and when the juice is run out, preſſing out what did not run, and which, on being expoſed for a little time to a warm air, thickens into a tenacious dark coloured maſs, ſimilar to the opium brought from Turkey, &c. it is weaker as a medicine, one grain of foreign opium is often equal to two of ours, yet is ſtronger in ſmell and taſte. The juices obtained from the white or the black poppy differ no other than in quantity afforded by each; the white affording the largeſt quantity. The ſeeds contain an inſipid oil, uſed for the ſame purpoſes as the olive oil; it is obtained by expreſſion, and is void of the narcotic quality of the poppy head.

As the white *poppy* affords the largeſt quantity of active powers, it is always cultivated when the intention is for medicinal uſes. See PAPAVER ALBUM, above. A decoction of the heads in water ſtrongly preſſed out, depurated by ſettling, then clarified with the white of an egg, and inſpiſſated, yields an extract amounting to 1-5th or 1-6th the weight of the heads. This extract is ſaid not to produce a nauſea or giddneſs, which generally follows the uſe of foreign opium. Its doſe is about double that of the opium from abroad; it checks a diarrhœa as well as any other opium, but does not ſo powerfully check expectoration.

A ſyrup is made from the white *poppy* heads. Themiſon firſt takes notice of it; he made it with the juice and decoction of theſe heads, and uſed honey for giving it the ſyrup conſiſtence. The London College directs the following:

Syrupus e Meconia ſive Diacodion.

Take of the heads of dried white *poppies*, without their ſeeds, three pounds and a half; of water, ſix gallons. Slice the heads, and boil them in the water, often ſtirring them, that they may not burn, till about a third only of the liquor is left, which will be almoſt all imbibed by the *poppy* heads: then take all from the fire, and preſs the liquor ſtrongly out from the heads: in the next place boil the liquor by itſelf to about two quarts, and ſtrain whilſt hot, firſt through a ſieve, and then through a thin flannel: ſet it by for a night, that the fæces may ſubſide; next morning pour off the clear liquor, and boil it with ſix pounds of double-refined ſugar, till the whole comes to the weight of nine pounds, or a little more, that it may become a ſyrup of a juſt conſiſtence.

This ſyrup is given to children in doſes of two drams, to adults an ounce and a half. In general an ounce of this ſyrup is equal to one grain of opium; but it is ſubject to great variation in point of ſtrength from the different degrees of maturity, and the ſoil and ſeaſons in which they are produced, the *poppy* heads varying according to theſe in the quantity they contain of the narcotic property.

PAPAVER RUBRUM, called alſo papaver rhœas, papaver erraticum. Corn roſe, wild poppy. It is the papaver rhœas, Linn. This plant hath deep red flowers, dark-coloured ſeeds, hairy leaves and ſtalks. It is common in corn-fields, and is ſometimes, like the others, made to vary its flowers by culture. The heads contain the ſame kind of narcotic juice with thoſe of the preceding, but in ſo ſmall a quantity that they are wholly neglected. The leaves of the flowers, on expreſſion, yield a deep red juice, and impart the ſame to watery liquors, and a bright though pale red to rectified ſpirit. A ſyrup is made by pouring ℔ iv. ſ. of boiling water on ℔ iv. of freſh gathered flowers; when all the flowers are emerged in the water, let them ſtand together all night: pour off the liquor in the morning, and with a ſufficient quantity of ſugar make it into ſyrup.

PAPAVER CORNICULATUM. Sea poppy, or yellow horned poppy. It is a name for ſeveral ſpecies of glaucium.

PAPAVER HERACLEUM, i. e. Cyanus ſegetum flore cœruleo.

PAPAVER SPINOSUM, called alſo argemone Mexicana. Purging thiſtle. Its juice is called glaucium, and is uſed as a cooling external medicine.

PAPAVER SPUMEUM, i. e. Lychnis ſylveſtris, or behen album.

Boerhaave enumerates thirty-four ſpecies. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

PAPAYA. A kind of tree, two ſpecies of which are deſcribed by Ray.

PAPAYA MAS, called alſomamœra mas. The male papa tree.

PAPAYA, called alſo papaya Peruvianis, papayamazum, platanus, mamœra fœmina. Female papa tree.

The fruit reſembles a melon; it is eaten raw or prepared with ſugar, and is ſaid to ſtrengthen the ſtomach.

PAPILIONACEA. Papilionaceous. Flowers are thus called from their reſemblance to the wings of a butterfly when expanded; they always conſiſt of theſe four parts, viz. the vexillum or ſtandard, the alæ or two wings, and the carina or keel. The keel is ſometimes entire, and ſometimes it conſiſts of two petals or ſegments adhering together. Of this tribe are peas, beans, kidney beans, vetches, and other leguminous plants. See Miller's Dict.

PAPILLA. The nipple, alſo called mamma and mamilla. Thus the little eminences on the breaſt, are called. In children of both ſexes, and in males of all ages, they are commonly no more than cutaneous tubercles. In females arrived at the age of puberty, the *nipple* begins to increaſe, in pregnant women and thoſe who give ſuck it is large, in old age it decreaſes and becomes flabby. The body of the *nipple* contains the terminations of the tubuli lactiferi, where they are tortuous, and act as valves; but as they are diſtenſible, as the *nipple* is handled they become ſtraight, and thus the milk hath a free paſſage.

PAPILLA. So Peyer calls the inteſtinal glands.

PAPILLÆ MEDULLARES. Small eminences on the medulla oblongata, called by Winſlow tubercula mamillaria.

PAPILLÆ PYRAMIDALES. On the ſurface of the ſkin theſe are obſerved. They are longer in ſome parts, as in the fingers, where they are called villi, and appear in rows, each having two ranks contiguous. They are the organs of touch, being the terminations of the cutaneous nerves, each of which are incloſed in two or three covers.

PAPILLARE OS, i. e. Os ſphenoides.

PAPILLARIS HERBA. Nipple wort.

PAPILLARES PROCESSUS. The extremities of the olfactory nerves inſerted into the mucous membrane of the noſe are thus named.

PAPPA. Paſteboard.

PAPPOS. The downy hairs upon the chin.

PAPPUS. Potatoes, alſo the down of the ſeeds of plants: hence plants, whoſe ſeeds, when ripe, are furniſhed with down, are called pappoſe or pappeſcent.

PAPULA. A pimple or ulcerous tubercle. Dr. Cullen places it as a variety of phlogoſis phlegmone. It ſuppurates with difficulty.

PAPYRUS. The paper-tree, called alſo papyrus Nilotica Alpina, Ægyptiaca, Cyperus Niloticus vel Syriacus. This tree afforded to the Egyptians food, furniture for beds, and other utenſils in houſes, ſails for ſhips, ſhoes for prieſts, and paper.

PAR. When applied to days it ſignifies even, when uſed in preſcriptions it ſignifies a pair or two. Some medicines are called fine pari, without an equal.

PAR CUCULLARE. So Caſſerius calls the muſcu'us crico-arytænoides.

PAR LINGUALE. The ninth pair of nerves from the head.

PAR MENTALE, i. e. Muſculus levatores labii inferiores.

PAR VAGUM. The eighth pair of nerves from the head, which are alſo called nervi vagi, nervi ſympathetici medii. This pair is made up of ſeveral ſmall chords which come from almoſt the whole length of the medulla oblongata, and being joined with the acceſſorius Williſii, which is a ſmall rope running up laterally from the medulla ſpinalis, paſſes through the foramen to join this eighth pair, which goes out by that common hole between the temporal and occipital bones, where likewiſe the internal jugular vein goes out of the cranium. The *par vagum* goes down the neck, by the ſide of the carotid arteries, and behind the internal jugular, and is accompanied by the intercoſtal nerve to the laſt cervical vertebræ, thence paſſes down into the thorax, gives branches to the pharynx, larynx, &c. and join many nerves. As they enter the thorax they go acroſs the ſubclavian arteries, and as the right trunk paſſes before the ſubclavian, it ſends off a twig, which bends backwards under the artery, and runs up the ſide of the aſpera arteria; this is called the recurrent nerve. Afterwards the *par vagum* runs down behind the lungs, to which they give a plexus, and then form two ropes, one anterior the other poſterior, which are called nervi ſtomachici, which paſs along with the œſophagus through the aperture in the diaphragm, and are diſperſed on the ſtomach, &c.

PARA. A Greek prepoſition which, when prefixed to the

the name of a diſorder denotes its ſlightneſs, as paraplexia, a ſlight apoplexy, &c.

PARACELSUS. His excellence conſiſted in being a practitioner in a very dark age, and in having obtained ſome knowledge of the uſe of mercury and opium. Indeed, he made ſome improvement in ſurgery, and began to throw off the idle notions of former times. About ninety years after him ſprang up Van Helmont. See Helmont.

PARACENTESIS, from παρακεντεω, *to make a perforation*. This operation is commonly called tapping, and is uſed for diſcharging water through the integuments of the belly from the cavity thereof. The place appointed for the perforation is about four fingers breadth from the navel, or rather in the middle betwixt the navel and the upper part of the os ilium. The left ſide is uſually preferred, on account of not injuring the liver. Mr. Sharp obſerves that, if the navel protuberates, and that not the inteſtines or omentum, but water is only lodged there, a ſmall puncture made there with a lancet will diſcharge the water, without endangering a rupture of the part.

In the young and robuſt, or if the conſtitution is not too much enfeebled, this operation may be performed; but when there is a fever, a ſcirrhus in any of the viſcera, an internal abſceſs, a conſumption, &c. refrain from this operation.

If the extravaſated fluid remains in the ſame ſtate for ſeveral years, particularly if the health in other reſpects is good, the evacuation is a radical cure, provided that the health is otherwiſe unaffected; but whilſt the bulk of the water increaſes, there is not that confidence of a radical cure.

Upon a ſudden evacuation of the waters in a hydrops pectoris, or in an aſcites, a violent deliquium enſues, becauſe the preſſure of the water is taken off from the arteries, whence they dilate, and the blood ruſhes into them from the upper parts of the body too ſuddenly.

In order to the eaſy and ſafe performance of this operation, it is proper to have in readineſs, 1. A roller of flannel, or a flannel that may be laced about the belly, after the evacuation of the water; whether a roller or the laced flannel are uſed, begin with faſtening them tight about the lower part of the belly, and continuing the ſame upwards, that the bowels may be duly preſſed againſt the diaphragm. 2. A piece of flannel, which, when doubled four-fold, will be about a foot ſquare. 3. A quart or thereabout of proof ſpirit, in which to dip the roller and flannel cloth before applying them to the belly. 4. A piece of ſticking plaſter about two inches ſquare, in the middle of which will be laid three pledgets of lint, one larger than the other, the leaſt being about the ſize of a ſix-pence. 5. The trochar with its canula, the point of which is dipped in oil; and a probe with which to thruſt back the inteſtines if they obſtruct the mouth of the canula when the water is nearly evacuated. 6. Two or three large baſons, to receive the water, and a pail to empty them into. 7. Four perſons beſides the operator, one on each ſide, to keep a proper preſſure on the patient's ſides, obſerving to preſs from behind rather forward, and continuing this preſſure during the time that the water is paſſing off, and alſo until the roller or the laced flannel are ſecurely applied. One aſſiſtant will be employed in taking the baſins away when full, and providing the operator with empty ones; and the fourth aſſiſtant will be ready to ſupply the patient with a little wine or other cordial if he faints.

When the water is drawn off, lay the pledgets upon the wound, and ſecure them with the plaſter; over them lay the flannel cloth, and then begin with the bandage or laced flannel, as already mentioned. See Heiſter's Surgery; Le Dran's Operations; Sharp's Operations.

PARACMASTICI. See Acmasticos.

PARACOE, from παρακουω, *difficult hearing*. Dullneſs of hearing.

PARACOPE. In Hippocrates it is a ſlight delirium.

PARACYNANCHE, from παρα, *de*, and κυων, *a dog*, and αγχω, *to ſtrangle*. A ſpecies of quinſy; it being a diſtemper to which dogs are ſubject.

PARACUSIS. Depraved or faulty hearing. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſæſtheſiæ. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies. 1. *Paracuſis* imperfecta; in which ſounds are difficultly diſtinguiſhed. See Surditas. 2. *Paracuſis* imaginaria; as when the ſound perceived is not from without, but is excited within the ear. See Tinitus Aurium.

PARADISAICA ARBOR, i. e. Arbor vitæ.

PARADISI GRANA. Grains of Paradiſe. They have erroneouſly been ſuppoſed to be the ſeeds of the larger cardamoms, whence they are called by ſome cardamum maximum; by others, malagueta, malaguetta, melegeta, melleguetta, maniguetta, and cardamum piperatum. They are brought from Guinea and the Eaſt-Indies. They are angular, of a reddiſh brown colour without, and white within; ſmaller than pepper, in appearance ſomewhat reſembling cardamom ſeeds. They grow in pods, ſhaped like unripe figs, and about the ſize of one. This pod is divided internally into three cells, in each of which is contained two rows of ſeeds. They have the flavour of cardamoms, and the pungency of pepper: their pungency does not reſide like that of cardamoms in their eſſential oil, but in their reſin. The diſtilled oil poſſeſſes their ſmell, but is mild; the remaining decoction inſpiſſated to an extract retains all the pungency. In ſome parts, theſe grains are uſed inſtead of pepper. Dr. Trew thinks, that the ol. cajeput is extracted from them. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

PARAGLOSSA. A prolapſus of the tongue. A ſwelled tongue.

PARAGUA, i. e. Caſſine.

PARAKYNANCHE, from παρα, *de*, κυων, *a dog*, and αγχω, *to ſtrangle*. A ſpecies of angina.

PARALLELA. A ſort of ſcurf or leproſy, affecting only the palms of the hands; it happens ſometimes in the venereal diſeaſe.

PARALOPHIA, from παρα, *near*, and λοφια, *the eminence of the back*. Keil ſays it is the lower and lateral part of the neck.

PARALYSIS, from παραλυω, *to diſſolve* or *weaken*. A palſy; often it ſignifies a palſy of a particular part. Celſus and Cœlius Aurelianus ſay that the moſt antient writers give the name of attonitus morbus to that ſpecies which follows an apoplexy. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes, and order comata. He diſtinguiſhes four ſpecies. 1. *Paralyſis* partialis; when ſome particular muſcles are affected. 2. *Paralyſis* hemiplegica; when one whole ſide is affected. 3. *Paralyſis* paraplegica; when one half of the body is affected, taking it tranſverſly, as both legs and thighs. 4. *Paralyſis* venenata; when too powerful ſedatives are applied externally, or taken internally.

The apoplexy, hemiplexy, and *palſy*, are ſo nearly connected, that they may be conſidered in one view. In the beginning, the *palſy*, which is cauſed by an exceſs of good blood, is acute; but it ſoon becomes chronical; the other *palſies* are all, and at all times, chronical.

A *palſy* is when there is an abolition of voluntary motion, or of feeling, or both. When all the parts below the head are affected, from any part of the body tranſverſly downwards, it is called paraplegia; if one whole ſide, or one ſide of the head and face, it is an hemiplegia, and when confined to a particular limb, it is a *paralyſis*, or a particular *palſy*; when both ſides are ſeized, and reaſon is loſt, it is then an apoplexy.

When the muſcles of the face are paralytic, the ſource of the diſorder is in the brain; but if theſe be free, the nerves only of the ſpine, or medulla oblongata, are affected. Dr. Cullen defines the *palſy* to be a loſs or diminution of the power of voluntary motion, but affecting certain parts of the body only; and it is often accompanied with ſleepineſs.

Dr. Shebbeare conſiders this diſorder as the effect either of too much vital heat or too little, and that as the ſame effect follows from oppoſite cauſes, ſo the ſame diſorder will require different remedies, according to the varieties of its origin. Occaſionally the *palſy* may proceed from an apoplexy, an epilepſy, violent pains, ſuppreſſion of uſual evacuations, a tranſlation of the morbific matter of acute diſeaſes, whatever diſtends, diſturbs, compreſſes, or contracts the nerves, ſtrong ligatures, luxations, fractures, wounds, gangrenes, inflammatory or other tumors in the coats of the nerves, extreme heat, violent cold, mineral effluvia, a too frequent uſe of hot water, &c. Dr. Cullen obſerves,

obſerves, that the power of voluntary motion may be owing either to a morbid affection of the muſcles, or organs of motion, by which they are rendered unfit for motion, or to an interruption of the influx of the nervous power into them, which is always neceſſary to the motion of thoſe that are under the power of the will. The diſeaſe, from the firſt of theſe cauſes, as conſiſting in an organic and local affection, is to be referred entirely to the claſs of local diſeaſes. As the *palſy*, that diſeaſe only, is to be conſidered, which depends upon the interrupted influx of the nervous power; and to this alone the appellation of *palſy* ſhould be given.

From anatomy we ſee that the nerves deſtined for the vital functions ariſe from the cerebellum, thoſe ſubſervient to the ſenſes from the baſe of the brain, and thoſe ſubſervient to the voluntary motions and the touch, principally from the ſpinal marrow; we may then readily infer, that in all apoplexies the cauſe compreſſing the nerves is within the brain; in a *palſy*, within the ſpinal marrow. The *palſy*, or loſs of motion thus named, Dr. Cullen obſerves, may be diſtinguiſhed into two kinds; one, depending upon an affection of the origin of the nerves in the brain, and the other depending upon an affection of the nerves in ſome part of their courſe between the brain and the organ of motion. He further adds, that whatever is neceſſary to be obſerved of the firſt, will readily apply to the latter, both in pathology and practice.

A *palſy* ſometimes attacks ſuddenly without any previous ſymptoms by which it might be expected; but ſometimes an hemiplexy ſucceeds an apoplectic fit, and begins with a refrigeration of the ſide to be affected, and a preceding vertigo, and gradually terminates in an abolition of ſenſation and motion; the ſound ſide is often racked with ſpaſmodic and convulſive motions; the mouth is frequently diſtorted like that of a dog, and as the diſorder proceeds, the functions of the mind, and eſpecially the memory, begins to be weakened. A particular *palſy* is ſometimes preceded by a ſenſation of weight in the part about to ſuffer, a ſlow motion, accompanied with ſtupor, paleneſs, and torpor; the part affected is lax, flaccid, ſoft to the touch, and cold, like as it is affected in an atrophy or an œdematous tumor. When the pharynx is affected with a *palſy*, the patient cannot ſwallow. A *palſy* in the eye-lids is attended with a diſcharge of tears. A *palſy* of the ſphincter ani is diſcovered by the deſcent of the rectum, and the involuntary diſcharge of the fæces. A *palſy* in the bladder is known by the involuntary emiſſion of urine. In moſt other caſes the eye diſcovers the nature of the diſorder; or, when it conſiſts of a loſs of ſenſe, the patient's complaint determines it. The parts affected ſometimes appear puffy, at others they are ſhrunk and ſhrivelled; in theſe reſpects, as well as in thoſe of ſenſe being loſt in ſome inſtances, and motion in others, Dr. Shebbeare ingeniouſly accounts for them as follows: He ſuppoſes theſe diſorders to have an exceſs of vital heat for their cauſe; in this caſe, as the body receives its heat from the earth in greater or leſs abundance, according to the quantity of red globes in the blood; and as this heat is conveyed by means of the nerves, as required for the reſpective motions, whether voluntary or involuntary; various circumſtances may occaſion a too ſudden and abundant heat to be conveyed to any part, or through the whole frame, in any inſtant of time; whence, by the return of the ſame from the brain, to and through the reſpective parts, the cellular membrane is ſo dilated as that many cells are ruptured into one, and in proportion as this accident is extenſive, ſo will the defect of motion be; or the exceſſive motion, as well as quantity of fire, may lacerate the parts of the brain, in which thoſe nerves take their riſe, and then paſſing down by thoſe nerves that are deſtined to motion, the action of the part or parts are at an end; or paſſing by thoſe deſtined for ſenſation, ſenſibility is leſſened or deſtroyed; and in this latter caſe, by the laceration of the cellular membrane, the nerves are ſeparated from contact with the ſkin, ſo that it is not as uſual confined, but riſes ſo far as to produce the appearance of unuſual fullneſs. Dr. Cullen obſerves, that in the *palſy*, the loſs of motion is often accompanied with a loſs of ſenſe; but, as this is not conſtantly the caſe, and as, therefore, the loſs of ſenſe is not an eſſential ſymptom of *palſy*, he does not take it into his definition. He further obſerves that, ſo far as it is in any caſe a part of the *paralytic* affection, it muſt depend upon the ſame cauſes, and will be cured by the ſame remedies.

The prognoſtics are generally to be cautiouſly pronounced, at leaſt when delivered with reſpect to a recovery. A ſpaſmodic apoplexy and ſanguineous hemiplegy are often removed, but they are apt to return and end in a fatal hæmorrhage in the brain: the other ſpecies of *palſies*, and a ſerous hemiplegy do not ſuddenly prove mortal; but the cure is more difficult and intricate, the more the ſenſes are injured, and theſe diſorders frequently continue during life. When infants become *paralytic*, they are ſometimes relieved at or about the years of puberty, but ſuch favourable changes rarely are obſerved in adults. A *palſy* in the belly and lower limbs is generally mortal, and often accompanied with a gangrene of the affected parts. If convulſions and great heat are perceived in the parts oppoſite to thoſe that are paralytic, the danger is great. When a *palſy* follows an apoplexy, or comes on in old age, it is rarely cured. If the ſeat is in the membranes of the medulla ſpinalis, the theca vertebrarum, &c. the caſe is out of the reach of art, death is unavoidable, but will only gradually approach. If the part affected is yet painful, capable of ſenſation, not too cold, nor extenuated, there are ſome hopes of a recovery, which is ſtill more to be expected, if there is a ſenſation of formication and puncture in it.

The indications are the ſame as in the apoplexy, (ſee HEMIPLEGIA,) and are

1. To remove the proximate and remote cauſes, which contribute to interrupt the influx of the nervous fluid into the nerves.

2. To ſtrengthen the parts affected, and the whole nervous ſyſtem.

When a ſanguine plethora is attendant, the principal cauſe is the exceſs of vital heat; bleed to reduce the heat, which muſt be brought and preſerved as near as may be to the ſtandard of health. And as, in this caſe, a laceration of the cellular membrane is the cauſe of motion being defective, as well as of the ſenſe of feeling being diminiſhed, a tight ſtocking, &c. according to the part affected, ſhould be applied, if poſſible, to aſſiſt the re-union of the parts that are torn aſunder. In this ſpecies of *palſy* the Bath waters, and all heating medicines, are quite contrary to the curative indication: inſtead of them, cooling medicines, ſubtepid baths, and lenient purges, ſhould be uſed. But though this method may be proper in a recent caſe; yet, if it is of long ſtanding, and the blood is impoveriſhed, though the cauſe was too much vital heat, the cure now will be the ſame when a defect of heat gave riſe to the diſorder.

When there is too little heat in the conſtitution, bleeding, and a cooling method, is evidently injurious: here the Bath water is uſeful both for bathing and inward uſe. The ſhrunk muſcle is reſtored and motion recovered, in curable caſes, by means of electricity. In this ſpecies of *palſy*, the cellular membrane not receiving its due degree of heat for keeping its cells diſtended, they gradually cling together, and thus deſtroy the power of action: warm bathing conduces much to the recovery of theſe patients. In the fit apply bottles or bladders filled with hot water to the feet; let the body be well rubbed with rectified ſpirit of wine: if the lungs have ceaſed to play, breathe warm breath forcibly into them, and as ſoon as the patient can ſwallow, give him cordial medicines. After recovery from the fit, attend to what affections may have agitated the patient, and then proceed with warm, nervous, corroborant medicines, not neglecting bliſters, and ſuch other evacuants as the kind of plethora may require.

In both the above ſpecies of *palſy*, a ſtimulating clyſter may be given with all convenient ſpeed; for thus the head will be in ſome meaſure relieved; the beſt ſtimulant is the ſal gem, or in want of it common ſalt.

Bliſters are not ſo well applied on the nape of the neck as on remoter parts; for in ſome inſtances they have produced convulſive twitchings when placed on the neck or back. In general *palſies*, bliſters are uſeful by their ſtimulus; but they are moſt ſo when only particular parts are affected, and then the propereſt place of application is where the nerves of the reſpective part have their origin;

or example, when a *palſy* ſeizes the upper extremities, bliſters ſhould be applied to the vertebræ of the neck, and obliquely towards the ſhoulders; if the lower extremities are affected, the region of the ſacrum is the propereſt part for bliſters. When in a *palſy* there is a plethoric ſtate of the ſyſtem, bliſters do not ſeem to be a ſafe means to be applied; but in all inſtances connected with, or that ſeem to depend upon a relaxed ſet of fibres, a moiſt atmoſphere, or the preſence of too much ſerum in the ſyſtem, bliſters are then the principal remedies to be depended on. They are alſo of ſervice in ſuch ſpecies of *palſy* as are produced by poiſons of different kinds, eſpecially thoſe of a metallic nature; but in theſe caſes, the uſe of ſtrong emetics and purgatives muſt always be premiſed.

After bleeding in the ſanguine ſpecies, ſpaſms of the internal parts, and a febrile ebullition, often remains; in which caſes nitre, Clutton's febrifuge ſpirit, &c. will be proper.

Diuretics of the warm and ſtimulating kind are proper in the ſerous kind of *palſy*; muſtard, horſe-radiſh, and ſuch like, prove highly beneficial.

If other diſorders attend, a due regard muſt be had to their removal.

Baths of rain water, or any other that is light, and in which aromatic ingredients are boiled or infuſed, may be uſed when circumſtances do not admit of the patient's going to Bath.

As to liniments, the linim. ſapon. perhaps equals any other in its efficacy and uſefulneſs.

When mineral exhalations have been the cauſe, the cure is difficult: lead particularly deſtroys ſenſation, whence often in *palſies*, purging medicines are required in very increaſed doſes.

A *palſy* from the colic requires perſpiratives inwardly, and warm applications outwardly. In this caſe, the Bath water is a ſpecific.

When a *palſy* follows an epilepſy, after proper evacuations, apply bliſters, and give aſſa fœtida with ſalt of amber.

A *palſy* in the belly is, in ſome meaſure, relieved by a fomentation of hot wine, in which aromatics have been boiled, and by drinking a little of the ſame when the pulſe will admit of it. When the tongue is affected, rub it with muſtard, or muſtard and brandy.

Dr. Cullen obſerves, that in the apoplexy, ſo in the *palſy*, the cauſes are, a compreſſion, preventing the flow of the nervous power from the brain into the organs of motion; or, the application of narcotic powers, which render the nervous power unfit to flow in the uſual and proper manner. Compreſſion may be from tumour, over diſtenſion, or effuſion. The ſame means that are uſeful in preventing apoplexy, are uſeful for the ſame end in caſes of *palſy*. The ſame may be ſaid reſpecting the cure; in the beginning. *palſy* proceeds as in the apoplexy. What is ſaid when the cauſe is from compreſſion, may be repeated reſpecting the application of narcotic powers being the cauſe. When the *palſy* hath continued for ſome time, be the cauſe what it may, ſome little deviations from the treatment of apoplexy may be proper. As to the uſe of ſtimulants, both in the apoplexy and *palſy*, ariſing from compreſſion, it is true, that they may, and often do, ſo excite the energy of the brain, as to overcome the compreſſion on the nerves; but then they ſo act on the ſanguiferous ſyſtem, and if this happens in a conſiderable degree, they may be productive of the cauſe which they were given to oppoſe: a circumſtance that calls for careful attention. As to externals, they have occaſionally been uſeful in ſlight caſes, but much cannot be expected from them. Heat, cold, and electricity, are the moſt powerful external applications for relieving general affections. Heat is employed in warm bathing, and thus is a powerful ſtimulant; but as it both ſtimulates the ſolids, and rarefies the fluids, it will be unſafe when compreſſion may be produced by the congeſtion in the brain, which may follow the uſe of warm bathing. Warm bathing is moſt proper, when the cauſe was the application of narcotic powers. Cold is a uſeful ſtimulant, if the power of reaction in the body is equal to the action of the cold upon it: if otherwiſe, cold is extremely hurtful to the paralytic. Electricity acts very powerfully on the nervous ſyſtem; but as it ſtimulates the ſanguiferous, as well as the nervous ſyſtem, it requires caution, for its uſe hath ſometimes been more injurious than beneficial. The efficacy of electricity is more from its repetition than from its force: it is alſo better adapted to relieve when the cauſe was from narcotic applications to the nerves. Exerciſe, ſuch as circumſtances will admit, are beneficial. Internally, the volatile alkaline ſalts and ſpirits, if given in repeated and ſmall doſes, inſtead of large ones, are uſeful and ſafe. In many inſtances of ſerous *palſies*, thoſe vegetables of the claſs of tetradynamia, are ſeveral of them very uſeful. Some reſinous ſubſtances, as guaiacum, &c. alſo ſome of the fœtid antiſpaſmodic medicines have been employed, but without that advantage that is often attributed to them.

See Archigenes, Ætius, Celſus, Cœlius Aurelianus, Arætæus, Bellonius, Trallian, Hoffmann, and Boerhaave; Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic; Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii. p. 160, &c. p. 257, &c. For many uſeful elegant forms of medicine; ſee Brooks's and the London Practice of Phyſic; ſee Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. iii.

PARALYSIS, alſo called primula veris, Linn. Verbaſculum pratenſe odoratum, primula veris odorata, flore luteo ſimplici, primula veris major, paigles. Common cowſlips. This plant is ſufficiently known to need no deſcription. It is valued for its flowers, which have an agreeable ſmell, and are uſed to give flavour to a fermented liquor, known by the name of cowſlip wine. The flowers are gently anodyne and antiſpaſmodic.

Boerhaave enumerates twenty ſpecies of the primula veris, and of theſe are the two following:

Primula Veris Minor. The primroſe. It grows in hedges and woods; its flowers are weaker than thoſe of the cowſlip; the leaves and roots partake in ſome degree of the nature of aſarum, and are powerful errhines and emetics.

Primula Veris, called alſo herba petri, primula inodore lutea verbaſculum pratenſes. Orſlips, or great cowſlips. The flowers are diuretic.

None of theſe are now uſed in medicine.

PARANOIÆ. Delirium; alienation of mind; defective judgment.

PARAPHIMOSIS, from παρα, *de*, and φιμοω, *to tie with a bridle*. Φιμος ſignifies properly *a ſtricture*, ſuch as the neck of a purſe. It is when the prepuce is drawn back behind the glans penis, and cannot be drawn over it. See Lues Venerea. Dr. Cullen places it as a variety of the phlogoſis phlegmone.

PARAPHONIA. Depraved voice. Dr Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſcineſiæ. He defines it to be a depravity of the ſound of the voice, and diſtinguiſhes ſix ſpecies. 1. *Paraphonia* puberum; it is that change of voice ſo remarkable in boys about foureen years of age, which from acute and agreeable, becomes grave and very diſagreeable. 2. *Paraphonia* rauca; when the voice becomes hoarſe and rough. See Raucedo. 3. *Paraphonia* reſonans; when from obſtruction in the noſtrils, the voice is rough, and the ſound ſeems to come whiſtling through them. 4. *Paraphonia* palatina; when from a defect of the lip, the palate, or uvula, the voice is rough, obſcure, and confuſed. See Asaphia. 5. *Paraphonia* clangens; when the ſound is ſhrill or ſqualling, or like that of geeſe. See Clangor. 6. *Paraphonia* comatoſa; when the voice is ſent out during inſpiration, and ſomewhat reſembles the ſnorting of people aſleep.

PARAPHRENESIS. A delirium; alſo the paraphrenitis.

PARAPHRENITIS. An inflammation of the diaphragm. Its cauſes are the ſame as thoſe of the pleuriſy.

The pain is very violent and deep ſeated in the lower part of the breaſt, or under the ſhort ribs, or ſtriking between them and the back; the fever is very acute, and the delirium is conſtant; the belly is drawn up, and kept as much at reſt as poſſible; the reſpiration is exceſſively quick, erect, ſmall, ſuffocating, and difficult, and performed principally by the muſcles of the breaſt; the patient is frequently affected with ſickneſs and hiccough, and often with involuntary laughter, convulſions, and madneſs; the pulſe is uſually very frequent and ſmall, often irregular; there is great anxiety; the ſymptoms of irritation

come on, and death frequently enſues: if this does not happen, the progreſs, termination, and manner of treatment are much the ſame as in the pleuriſy. The pain is greatly augmented during inſpiration, coughing, ſneezing, repletion of the ſtomach, nauſea, vomiting, and a compreſſion of the belly in diſcharging the fæces and urine. The riſus ſardonicus, convulſions, madneſs, and gangrene, often terminate the diſeaſe. Sometimes a purulent aſcites is a conſequence.

The cure is generally the ſame as in the pleuriſy. Emollient clyſters are peculiarly uſeful. See Boerhaave's Aphoriſms; Fordyce's Elem. part. ii.

PARAPHROSYNE. It is ſynonymous with mania. It is a tranſitory inſanity without a fever. A delirium. A ſymptomatic madneſs.

PARAPLEGIA, from παρα, ſignifying ſomething *injurious*, and πλησσω, *to ſtrike*. A paraplegy, or a palſy of all the parts below the neck, thus it is now underſtood; but in Hippocrates it ſeems to ſignify a palſy in any particular part, in conſequence of an apoplexy or epilepſy. Dr. Cullen makes it that ſpecies of palſy which divides the body horizontally, or tranſverſely, all allow ſuch a part being paralytic; the palſied part beginning below the neck.

PARAPLEXIA. The ſame as paraplegia. A partial apoplexy. Hippocrates calls a palſy from an apoplexy by this name, alſo by the name of paraplegia; which ſee.

PARAPOPLEXIA. A ſlight apoplexy.

PARATHREMA. A ſlight luxation. A tumor from protruſion; as an hernia.

PARASITICAL PLANTS. They are ſuch as are produced out of the trunk or branches of other plants, from whence they receive their nouriſhment, and will not grow upon the ground, as the miſleto, &c.

PARASPHAGIS. The part of the neck contiguous to the clavicles.

PARASTATA. It ſignifies any thing ſituated near another.

PARASTATÆ, from παριστημι, *to ſtand near*. In Hippocrates it ſignifies the epididymis. Herophilus and Galen called theſe the varicoſe *paraſtatæ*, to diſtinguiſh them from the glanduloſe *paraſtatæ*, now called proſtatæ. Rufus Epheſius called the tubæ Fallopianæ by the name of *paraſtatæ* varicoſæ.

PARASTREMMA, from παραστρεφω, *to diſtort* or *pervert*. A perverſion, or a convulſive diſtortion of the mouth, or any part of the face.

PARASYNANCHE. A ſpecies of quinſy.

PARATHENAR MAJOR. This muſcle in each foot is fixed backward by a fleſhy body, to the outer part of the lower ſide of the os calcis, from the ſmall poſterior external tuberoſity, all the way to the anterior tuberoſity; there it joins the metatarſus, and at the baſis of the fifth metatarſal bone, ſeparates from it again, and forms a tendon, which is inſerted in the outſide of the firſt phalanx of the little toe, near its baſis, and near the inſertion of the parathenar minor. It ſeparates the little toe from the reſt.

PARATHENAR MINOR. This muſcle in each foot is fixed along the poſterior half of the outer and lower ſide of the fifth bone of the metatarſus. It terminates under the head of the bone in a tendon, which is inſerted in the lower part of the baſis of the firſt phalanx of the little toe. Some call theſe muſcles, tranſverſales pedis.

PAREGORICUS, from παρηγορεω, *to conſole* or *mitigate*. An epithet for medicines which relieve pain.

PAREIRA BRAVA, alſo called pareyra, ambutua, butua, caapeba, convolvulus colubrinus. Wild vine. It is the ciſſampelos *pareira*, Linn.

It is the root of an American climbing plant. It is brought from Braſil, generally in crooked pieces of different ſizes, from that of a man's finger, up to that of a child's-arm; the outſide is browniſh, and variouſly wrinkled; the internal ſubſtance is of a pale, dull, yelloviſh hue, and interwoven, as it were, with woody fibres, ſo that on a tranſverſe ſection there appears a number of concentric circles, croſſed with ſtriæ, running from the centre to the circumference. There is a white ſpecies; the bark of the root of it is white, and the ſubſtance within appears like the root of liquorice.

This root is in high eſteem as an attenuant and diuretic, in ſuppreſſions of urine, in nephritic and calculous complaints, in ulcers of the kidnies and bladders where the urine is mucous and purulent, and can ſcarce be voided without pain; in aſthmatic caſes, when thick phlegm hath been very troubleſome, an infuſion of this root hath brought on expectoration. It gives out its virtue to water or to ſpirit. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

PARENCEPHALIS, from παρα, *near*, εγκεφαλος, *the brain*. The cerebellum.

PARENCHYMA, from παρεγχυω, *to pour into*. Eraſiſtratus is ſaid to have introduced this term to ſignify all that ſubſtance which is contained in the interſtices betwixt the blood-veſſels of the viſcera, which he imagined to be extravaſated and concreted blood. According to ſome, any of the viſcera through which the blood is ſtrained.

PARENCHYMATICI. Viſceral inflammations.

PARESIS. Aretæus ſays it is a palſy of the bladder, when the urine is either ſuppreſſed or diſcharged involuntarily. It is now generally underſtood to be an imperfect paralyſis.

PARIETARIA OSSA, from *paries*, *walls*; they defend the brain like walls. So the bones of the ſinciput are called.

PARIETARIA, alſo called helxine, muralis, perdicium, vitriaria, urceolaris. Common pellitory of the wall. It is the *parietaria* officinalis, or *parietaria* foliis lanceolato ovatis pedunculis dichotomis calycibus diphyllis, Linn. This plant is called *parietaria*, from *paries*, *walls*; muralis, from *murus*, *a wall*; helxine, from ελκω, *to draw* or *attract*, becauſe its rough leaves ſtick cloſe to what touches them; perdicium, from *perdix*, *a partridge*, becauſe partridges love to feed on it; vitriaria, and urceolaris, becauſe by its mucouſneſs it is of ſervice for ſcouring pots and glaſſes. This plant hath tender reddiſh ſtalks, rough, uncut, oblong leaves, pointed at both ends, and imperfect rough flowers growing in cluſters along the ſtalks, followed each by a ſmall ſhining ſeed. It is perennial, common on old walls, and amongſt rubbiſh. It flowers in May.

The leaves have been uſed externally for cooling; and internally as diuretic and emollient; but their efficacy hath not preſerved them a place in the preſent practice. See Raii Hiſt.

PARIN CHAKKA. Baſtard China.

PARISTHMIA, from παρα, *near*, and ισθμος, a part of the throat ſo called. The tonſils, or diſorders of the tonſils.

PARISTHMIOTOMUS. An inſtrument with which the tonſils were formerly ſcarified.

PARKINSONIA. Father Plumier diſcovered this plant in America, and named it thus in honour of Mr. John Parkinſon, an Engliſh botaniſt. See Miller's Dict.

PARNASSIA, called alſo hepatica alba; gramen Parnaſſi ciſtus humilis; pyrola rotundi folia. Graſs of Parnaſſus, or white liver-wort. The leaves are roundiſh, and diſpoſed in a circle; it grows in flowery marſhy places, and flowers in Auguſt. The whole plant is ſaid to be cooling and diuretic; but it is not in uſe at preſent. See Raii Hiſt.

PARONYCHIA. A whitelow, or whiteflaw, from παρα, *near*, and ονυξ, *a nail*. It is alſo called a felon. Le Dran calls it panaris. It is an abſceſs at the end of the fingers. It differs not from an abſceſs in any other part. According as it is ſituated more or leſs deep, it is differently denominated, or divided into ſpecies by ſome writers. Dr. Cullen places it as a variety of the phlogoſis phlegmone.

It begins with a ſlow heavy pain, attended with a ſlight pulſation without ſwelling, redneſs, or heat; but ſoon the pain, heat, and throbbing are intolerable; the part grows large and red, the adjoining fingers and the whole hand ſwells up; in ſome caſes, a kind of red and inflated ſuſe or ſtreak may be obſerved, which beginning at the affected part, is continued almoſt to the elbow; nor is it unuſual for the patient to complain of a very ſharp pain under the ſhoulder; and ſometimes the whole arm is exceſſively inflamed and ſwelled; the patient cannot ſleep, the fever, &c. increaſing, and ſometimes delirium or convulſions follow.

When it is ſeated in the ſkin or fat, in the back or the

fore part of the finger, or under or near the nail, the pain is ſevere, but ends well. When the perioſteum is inflamed or corroded, the pain is tormenting. When the nervous coats of the flexor tendons of the fingers or nerves near them are ſeized, the worſt ſymptoms attend. The ſecond ſpecies proves very troubleſome, and ſometimes ends in a caries of the ſubjacent bone. The third ſpecies is very tedious in the cure, and uſually the phalanx on which it is, is deſtroyed.

If the firſt kind ſuppurates, it muſt be opened and treated as abſceſſes in general; but the beſt method of treating the other two ſpecies, is, on the firſt, or at fartheſt, the ſecond day, to cut the part, where the pain is ſeated, quite to the bone; if this operation is longer deferred, a ſuppuration will come on; in which caſe, ſuppuration ſhould be ſpeedily promoted, and as early a diſcharge given to the matter as poſſible. As the pain is ſo conſiderable as to occaſion a fever, and ſometimes convulſions, the tinct. theb. may be added to the ſuppurating applications, and alſo given in a draught at bed-time.

See Le Dran's Operations, and Heiſter's Surgery.

PARONYCHIA, called alſo ſedum, ſaxifraga, rue, whitlow-graſs. It is ſaid to be emollient; but it is of too little efficacy to maintain a place in practice.

PARONYCHIA. A name for ſome ſpecies of adianthum and herniaria.

PAROPIÆ. The external angles of the eyes.

PAROPTESIS, from *ὀπτάω, to roaſt.* A provocation of ſweat, by making a patient approach a fire, or by placing him in a bagnio.

PARORASIS. An imbecility of ſight.

PARORCHIDIUM. A detention of the teſticles, as when they have not yet deſcended into the ſcrotum. The teſticles are ſometimes detained in the body; this caſe is called crypſorchis; or concealed teſticles. Sometimes the teſticles (one or both) are detained in the groin; uſually about the time of the child's birth they deſcend into the ſcrotum, in ſome inſtances a little before birth, in others ſoon after. But this is very uncertain with reſpect to different perſons; alſo in the ſame perſon the two teſticles will conſiderably vary as to the time of their deſcent. Sometimes one, at others both, are detained in the belly, or ſtick in paſſing through the groin. Theſe accidents happen and continue a longer or leſſer time after the birth; and in ſome inſtances never paſs down into the ſcortum. Mr. Pott takes notice of this caſe, and gives ſeveral inſtances of it in the quarto edition of his works; where he ſays, that he knows not of any particular inconvenience ariſing from the detention of a teſticle within the cavity of the belly; but the logdment of it in the groin, renders it liable to be hurt by accidental preſſure, &c. When it is ſo hurt, it may be miſtaken for a different diſeaſe, and thereby occaſion its being very improperly treated. To which conſiderations he adds, that there is no kind of diſeaſe to which the teſticle is liable in its natural ſituation, but what may alſo affect it, in any or all its unnatural ones. In the firſt caſe related by Mr. Pott, a teſticle being detained in the groin of a young healthy ſeaman, who hurt the part by hitting it againſt a piece of timber; the humour there became extremely painful, and was miſtaken for a bubonocele, from which it might have been more readily diſtinguiſhed by the following circumſtances, had not the extreme tenderneſs of the injured teſticle abſolutely prevented any examination there by the touch; and the very hard ſwelling of the ſcrotum, which prevented any certainty of a teſticle being there or not. But Mr. Pott here ſays, that the tumor in the groin did not, like the bubonocele, point obliquely from the ilium towards the pubes, but lay as it were acroſs the groin: alſo, as neceſſarily muſt happen, that when the ſcrotum became ſoft, no teſticle could be felt in it. Two ſtriking circumſtances by which to diſtinguiſh the detained teſticle from the bubonocele, and alſo to determine the nature of the caſe. In the earlier part of this young man's life, this detained teſticle had been miſtaken for a rupture, and a truſs had been applied to it. The ſecond caſe, the teſticle was detained in the groin; this patient had alſo been adviſed to wear a truſs on the ſuppoſition that the caſe was a rupture; but he could not wear it, becauſe of the pain it occaſioned. At length getting a clap, this detained teſticle inflamed, forming an hernia humoralis, which was miſtaken for a bubo. In this caſe, the humour was moveable, and the ſcrotum on that ſide had no teſticle in it: two circumſtances ſufficient for diſtinction and determination. Both the above caſes were cured as inflammations of the teſticles are, when their ſituation is in the ſcrotum.

PAROTIDÆA. The mumps.

PAROTIS, from *παρὰ, near,* and *οὖς, the ear,* or from *παρὰ,* and *ὠτός,* the genitive of *οὖς, the ear.* The parotid gland. It is ſeated, on each ſide, in a cavity below and before the ear, between the maxillary proceſs, the zygomatic proceſs, and the angle of the lower jaw; and the duct paſſes over the buccinator to pierce the membrane of the mouth, near the third dens molaris of the upper jaw. It is a conglomerate gland, and hath veſſels from the temporal artery. It hath an appendicle at the tendinous beginning of the maſſeter muſcle. It is one of the ſalival glands.

PAROTIS. An inflammation, or an abſceſs of the parotid gland. Dr. Cullen makes it ſynonymous with bubo.

PAROXYSMUS, from *παροξύνω, to irritate or render ſharp.* A paroxyſm; acceſs, or fit of a diſeaſe.

PARTEM (Pulv. ad.) See BORAX.

PARTHENIASTRUM. Baſtard feverfew.

Miller takes notice of two ſpecies, one of which grows in Jamaica, where it is called wild wormwood, and is uſed as a vulnerary. The other is found in the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies.

PARTHENIUM. A name for the tanacetum and matricaria.

PARTURIO, from *partus, a birth.* Labour, or the bringing forth of a child.

Women are generally delivered of their burden about the end of the ninth month, or very early in the tenth: inſtances have occurred of nature's deviating, and of healthy children, which became vigorous men, being brought forth at different periods, from ſeven to eleven months, after conception.

The cauſe and mechaniſm of labour is as follows: ſome days before the labour commences, the belly ſeems leſs; by its contents ſinking lower down; ſoon after this certain efforts are made by nature, which, from their exciting pain, are uſually called pains; in the beginning, theſe pains are ſlight, and the intervals conſiderable; after ſome of theſe efforts, the uterus begins to contract, and a mucus diſcharges from the vagina; after this, the pains become more ſevere, return more quick, and continue longer; the pulſe is now affected, the ſkin is hotter, the face reddens, and a general agitation follows; the mucus is tinged with blood; the os tincæ opens, its edges grow thin, the membranes protrude with the waters, dilate and widen the orifice; the child, at the inſtant of pain, is raiſed by the compreſſed waters from the os internum, towards the fundus, whilſt the uterus itſelf advances and deſcends by degrees into the inferior baſon. When the pain ceaſes each time, the womb riſes, but not ſo high as before; the tumor formed by the membranes diſappear; the os tincæ is relaxed, and the diameter diminiſhed; the child falls, by its gravity, upon the lower part of the womb; and may be eaſily diſtinguiſhed through the relaxed membranes, as alſo what part of its body preſents to the paſſage. Towards the end of labour, the ſucceſſion of pains are rapid, and the efforts violent: in the beginning the pains uſually begin in the ſmall of the back, and terminate about the pudenda; but now they begin in the regio umbilicalis, and die away toward the fundament, where, in moſt inſtances, they leave a ſenſibility of weight. The tumor formed by the waters diſtending the membranes below the mouth of the womb, dilates the parts, until at length it burſts, and diſcharges the waters. If the child's head preſents fairly, it ſtops the diſcharge of the remaining waters. Sometimes the ſame effort which burſts the membranes, expels the infant, and terminates labour; at others, the interval is long before the delivery of the child. The head of the child having paſſed the os internum, enters the vagina, which widens in proportion as it ſhortens; the perinæum is vaſtly ſtretched, and the frenulum ſometimes torn in the paſ-

ſage;

ſage; the nymphæ are obliterated, and the labia pudendi are turned inward, and confounded in the general diſtenſion. At length the head forces the os externum, and the body readily follows, with the reſt of the waters, mixed with blood. At this laſt period, the woman trembles and is convulſed, but is ſoon relieved by the expulſion of the child; after which there is a calm, until returning efforts are exerted for the excluſion of the placenta. Hence it appears, that parturition demands the concurrence of ſeveral agents. The cauſe and determination of labour is the firſt, and this is in the womb itſelf; the womb contracts, and compreſſes whatever it contains, in ſuch a manner, as forces it to eſcape by the part which makes the leaſt reſiſtance, which is conſequently by the vagina. The womb is muſcular, and reticulated; ſome of its fibres run uniformly parallel upon the inner ſurface of the womb, from the fundus to the neck; others diagonally croſſing upon theſe, and others again horizontally interlaced, and ſo cloſely wove towards the fundus, as to have been miſtaken for a muſcle deſtined for the ſeparation of the placenta. The uterus, in ſhort, is capable of dilatation and contraction, is analogous to the bladder, and acts in the ſame manner; the diaphragm and the abdominal muſcles co-operating to exclude the urine. The irritation which the womb ſuffers at the end of pregnancy, is what determines its action, and is the true cauſe of labours, as will thus appear. Before conception, the cavity of the womb is triangular and flattiſh; the ſides of the triangle are curved, with their convexity inward; this renders the angles very pointed, and leaves the uterus more thick in the middle, and at the fundus, where eminences are formed; the neck of the womb alſo is thick, and equals one third of its length, which, together with the above eminences, may be juſtly conſidered as the magazine or ſtore, in which nature hath ſhut up, and cloſely ſtowed the folded fibres, coiled and doubled, as it were, in reſerve, to expand with the gradual developement of this organ: as in the buds of trees are lodged the leaves and flowers, which to expand and blow, need only the juices of the circulating ſap. In the firſt months the retained menſes humect, and penetrate the tiſſue of the uterus, ſwell and diſtend the fibres, to the end of the fifth month, when, and rarely ſooner, the cervix begins to ſhorten, and diminiſhes daily. The expanſion once begun, continues with the growth of the fœtus, until the whole ſtock of fibres are unbent and exhauſted. At this period, the volume of the fœtus ſtill augmenting, the womb ſtretches beyond its limited dimenſions, becomes irritated, ſuſceptible of pain, and hence labour proceeds. The prelude to labour conſiſts of gentle efforts of ſhort duration; the womb eſſays her force, as it were, exactly filled, and meets with equal reſiſtance on every ſide, except towards the orifice, where the ſenſation of the firſt pain begins. The contraction of the womb acting on the orifice, diſtends its fibres, and cauſes pain; when the orifice is ſufficiently dilated to let the head paſs, the pain ceaſes, but it is renewed when the head enters the vagina, and ſtretches the fibres of theſe parts. Hence the degrees of pains may be accounted for, by the more or leſs extenſion of the orifice, &c. As the neck of the womb hath neither an equal length, nor equal thinkneſs in different women, and as the developement of its fibre may be retarded, or accelerated, by various circumſtances; in ſhort, as the operation goes on in proportion with the increaſe of the child, which may be faſter or ſlower, as well in the womb, as after its *birth*, it is obvious that ſome children may be protruded before the ordinary time of nine months, or their *birth* be protracted until after this term. However ſmall the dilatation of the os internum may be, it will occaſion a ſeparation of the chorion from the uterus, and break the communicating veſſels, ſo that the lymph, &c. that circulated between them, will tranſude, and become the ſource of that mucous diſcharge by the vagina in the beginning of labour: and this ſeparation, affected by gradation, will explain why the placenta retains its adherence until the laſt. If the membranes are ſtrong, their progreſſive ſeparation continues until it arrives at the borders of the placenta, where the ſubſtance, adheſion, and reſiſtance being greater, the bag generally burſts.

In a natural labour, the progreſs of the child's head through different parts, is as follows. The head of the child, if it hath not ſuffered much by preſſure, is near an inch narrower from ear to ear, than it is from the forehead to the vertex. The vertex is the part which preſents in a natural *birth*. The bones that are preſſed together at the preſentation, are the two parietal, and the occipital; ſometimes the frontal bones will be the ſuffering parts. When the vortex firſt preſents, one ear is to the pubis, the other to the ſacrum, ſo that the forehead muſt be to one ſide of the pelvis, and the hind head to the other; thus the wideſt part of the head is here in the wideſt part of the pelvis; ſo that being ſqueezed by labour pains, the vertex deſcends into the lower part of the iſchia, where the pelvis becomes narrower at the ſides, and here is the advantage of the ſacrum being concave; for the forehead now turns round into it, and the vertex toward the pubis, which ſtill takes the advantage of the width of the pelvis; it is then puſhed forwards, turning on as a fulcrum, until the forehead riſes gradually from under the perinæum.

With reſpect to preternatural preſentations, ſee PRÆSENTATIO.

Labours are uſually divided into natural, laborious, and preternatural.

Natural labours are, when the head preſents, and is delivered by common pains, requiring no other aſſiſtance than what is needful in ſaving the perinæum from being lacerated. Laborious labours, called alſo lingering, nonnatural, and difficult. They are when the head preſents, but labour pains being inſufficient, ſome ſafe contrivance becomes neceſſary to bring the head forward; and theſe are of two kinds; firſt, when delivery is effected without deſtroying the child; and ſecondly, when, in order to delivery, the head of the child muſt be opened, that its ſize may be leſſened, and the mother's life ſaved. Preternatural labours are when the legs or breech are delivered firſt, the body and head laſt.

Pains which come on about the time of labour, and ſuch as reſemble labour pains, are not always real labour pains, and therefore ſhould be diſtinguiſhed. Falſe pains, as they are uſually called, which are not the effect of labour, are cauſed by coſtiveneſs, a purging, or a plethora. If the os tincæ is ſhut during the pains, they are falſe, and if the woman is coſtive, give her a clyſter; if a purging attends, gentle opiates will relieve; and if ſhe is plethoric, bleed her. True labour pains are promoted by opium much more than by ſtimulating cordials. Giffard ſays, that clyſters to provoke too languid throws, an opiate to put away falſe pains, and a cordial after delivery (if the woman was low) were all the medicines he uſed. Falſe and true pains ſometimes attend at the ſame time; in this caſe an opiate ſhould be given.

Until the woman is likely to be ſoon delivered, ſhe may be up or in bed; but in order to delivery, the moſt convenient poſture for herſelf and her aſſiſtant is when laid on her left ſide upon a bed, with the knees drawn up towards the belly. Short breathed people may be laid high with their heads, or delivered in a ſitting poſture, with their knees raiſed towards their bellies.

The aſſiſting powers in a natural labour are all the body concurs to help. See Dr. Lowder's MS. Lecture xv. 4. 1ſt, 5th. But particularly we may conſider the diaphragm, abdominal muſcles, feet reſting againſt ſomething to keep the abdominal muſcles tenſe, holding ſomething by which to pull with the hands, that the muſcles of reſpiration may be tightened; a ſtrong inſpiration at the beginning of each pain, and a retention of the breath during its violence, and as the pain abates, a leiſurely paſſing out of the breath. The practice of crying out, and of drawing up the breath as the pain goes off, retracts the fœtus, and leſſens its force in diſtending the parts.

When the child's head preſſes againſt the perinæum, it ſhould be ſupported by gently preſſing with the hollow of the hand during the pain, to prevent its tearing.

Laborious labours may be cauſed by previous weakneſs, unſkilful management, convulſions, paſſions of the mind, rigidity of the os internum, eſpecially when an inflammation is brought on by dilating it with the fingers, and the head being got through, it contracts about the neck;

neck; narrowneſs of the pelvis, largeneſs of the head, a diſtorted pelvis, &c. Lingering labours will ſometimes exhauſt the woman's ſtrength, when the head is in a right poſition, notwithſtanding all our care. The head being long confined in the pelvis, is equally dangerous to the mother and the child; for by its preſſure againſt the ſoft parts it may ſtop the circulation, and bring on inflammation and gangrene, which would prove certain death to the mother, and to the child, by its affecting the brain; when danger of theſe kinds attend, the forceps are to be uſed.

Preternatural labours are more or leſs difficult, according to the poſition of the child and the contraction of the uterus; therefore are divided into three claſſes. 1. When the lower parts of the child, as the feet, knees, or breech, preſent. 2. When it is known that the preſentation is wrong, and we have the advantage of turning the child immediately on breaking the membranes, by means of the waters. 3. When the child preſents wrong, and the uterus is cloſely contracted, the advantage of the waters being loſt.

When it is known that the breaſt, belly, ſhoulders, or any part but the head, feet, knees or buttocks preſent, when the membranes have ſomewhat protruded, break them, and immediately introducing the hand, bring the feet into the paſſage, and ſo deliver, as when the feet preſent. See PRÆSENTATIO.

PARTURITIO. Laborious labour.

PARTUS. The birth.

PARULIS, from παρα, *near*, and ουλον, *a gum*. An inflammation. Boil, or abiceſs in the gums. Dr. Cullen places it as a variety of phlogoſis phlegmone.

PARVOS MEATOS. The cellular membrane of the ancients.

PASMA, i. e. Catapaſma.

PASSA. In Paracelſus it is a whitloe.

PASSERINA. Sparrow's toad flax. Some reckon it a ſpecies of linum, and others of lithoſpermon.

PASSIO. A paſſion, affection, or diſeaſe: hence paſſio hypochondriaca, &c.

PASSULÆ. Raiſins.

PASSUM. Raiſin wine.

PASTA REGIA. A lozenge.

PASTILLUS. A troch or paſtil.

PASTINACA. Parſnep. The root is thick, fleſhy, and juicy; the leaves are large and broad, and ſtrengthened by a thick rib; the ſeed is oval, large, thin, marginated, and caſts its huſk. Boerhaave enumerates eight ſpecies.

PASTINACA SYLVESTRIS, alſo called claphoboſcum, banica, and wild parſnep.

It hath dark green, indented leaves, and ſlender woody roots; it is common about the ſides of fields, flowers in June and July, and ripens its ſeeds in September. On eating the roots a heat is complained of in the mouth which is ſoon followed by thirſt; then the pupil gradually dilates, and the ſight is loſt; a delirium comes on; but on a diſcharge by vomit, theſe ſymptoms ſoon abate; the dilatation of the pupil is the laſt that diſappears. Among the garden ſort a faulty one is ſometimes met with, but wild parſneps are harder when boiled than the garden ſort, at leaſt than the good ones, and thus the bad may eaſily be known.

PASTINACA SATIVA, called alſo paſtinaca hortenſis. Garden parſnep. The leaves are paler coloured than the wild ſort; they are ſmooth and indented; the roots are ſweetiſh and nutritious; they yield with rectified ſpirit of wine a ſweetiſh extract, and in diſtillation with water they yield a ſmall portion of eſſential oil with the flavour of the root; the ſeeds are aromatic, but thoſe of the wild ſpecies are more ſo. Theſe roots are chiefly uſed as a part of diet.

PASTINACA OLUSATRA, called alſo panax heracleum majus, panax paſtinaceæ folio, ſphondylio vel paſtinacæ Germanicæ affinis panax, panax Herculeum, Hercules's all-heal, or wound wort. It hath uncut leaves, and heart-ſhaped, but with one of the ſides lower than the other; the middle ribs bearing the ſeveral ſetts of leaves, which ſtand in pairs along a larger rib. It is a native of the warm climes, and bears the cold of our's. The gum opoponax of the ſhops is the concreted juice of this plant. The ſeeds are much warmer than the wild or the garden parſnep. The roots and the ſtalks ſmell like opoponax. Boerhaave ſays, that on wounding the ſtalk of one of theſe plants, he obtained a juice, which, being inſpiſſated, agreed in all reſpects with the gum called opoponax.

PASTINACA, called alſo ſpondylium, branca urſina Germanica. Cow parſnep. It grows in meadows and the borders of fields; it flowers in July. It is chiefly noted as being a food moſt agreeable to rabbits.

PASTINACA. A name for a ſpecies of ſium, daucus, tordylium, and cuminum.

PATELLA. A dimin. of patina. The knee-pan, called alſo rotula, mola, genu, ſcutiforme os, cartilaginoſum, diſciforme, oculus genu, and cap of the knee. It a flattened bone, ſituated at the anterior part of the joint of the knee, with its broad part upwards, and the pointed part downwards. Its anterior ſurface is ſmooth; its poſterior ſurface is alſo ſmooth, and covered with a cartilage: it is divided internally by a longitudinal ridge, and tranſverſely likewiſe, ſo that there are four cavities, the two lower of which move upon the femur in the extenſion, the two upper in the flexion of the leg. The tendons of the extenſors are inſerted into the upper part of the patella, and a ligament runs from the lower part, to be connected to the tibia. The patella ſuffers the leg to have ſome degree of rotation, which if it had been a fixed proceſs like the olecranum, it would not: it likewiſe is leſs incident to fractures than if it had been one ſolid bone with the tibia. At the time of birth it is cartilaginous.

PATELLA DOCUMASTICA. A cupel or teſt.

PATETÆ UVÆ, or Patetheiſæ. Grapes that dry on the vines.

PATHECA. See JACE.

PATHEMA. An affection or diſorder. See AFFECTIO.

PATHETICI. Diſeaſes in which the appetites and paſſions are principally affected by exceſs or defect. Dr. Cullen places it as ſynonymous with his dyſorexiæ.

PATHETICUS, from παθος, *paſſion*. Becauſe they direct the eye to intimate the *paſſions* of the mind. An epithet of the fourth pair of nerves, ſo called becauſe they direct the eyes to intimate the *paſſions* of the mind. They are alſo called trochleares, and obliqui ſuperiores. They are the ſmalleſt pair in the body, and appear below the edge of the tranſverſe proceſſes; they paſs by the ſide of the ſella turcica, and go through the foramen lacerum orbitale ſuperius, to the ſuperior oblique muſcle.

PATHOGNOMONICUS, from παθος, *a diſeaſe*, and γινωσκω, *to know*. An epithet for a ſymptom or a courſe of ſymptoms that are inſeparable from a diſtemper, and are found in that only, and in no other. Quod convenit omni, ſoli, & ſemper.

PATHOLOGIA, from παθος, *a diſeaſe*, and λεγω, *to ſpeak* or *commemorate*. That part of medicine which explains the nature of diſeaſes, their cauſes, and ſymptoms. In order to underſtand a *diſeaſe*, we ſhould conſider the morbific cauſes, parts affected, ſymptoms, criſis, diagnoſis, and prognoſis: hence pathology is divided into all theſe parts.

PATRUM CORTEX, vel Pulvis, i. e. Cortex Peruvianus.

PATIENTIÆ MUSCULUS, i. e. Levator ſcapulæ; called alſo angularis.

PATOR NARIUM. The ſinus, cavity, or chaſm of the noſe.

PATRIMONIUM. A name for the genitals.

PATURSA. The venereal diſeaſe.

PAULADADUM, i. e. Terra militæ, alſo called terra ſigillata Sancti Pauli.

PAULINA [CONFECTIO]. The confection called paulina. This is a warm opiate. The London College gives a preſcription for it in their Diſpenſatory. It is the paulina of Ariſtarchus, which is the ſame with the confectio Archigenis.

PAVANA, i. e. Moluccenſe lignum.

PAVIA. See HIPPOCASTANUM.

PAVOR. Fear; but ſometimes it ſignifies the itch.

PAYES HERBA. A ſpecies of plantain in Peru. See Raii Hiſt.

PECHEDION. The perineum.

PECHYAGRA. The gout in the elbow.

PECHYS. The elbow.

PECHYTYRBE. An epithet for the ſcurvy.

PECTEN. The pubes, or ſhare-bone. In zoology it is a ſhell fiſh called a ſcallop.

PECTEN VENERIS. Shepherd's needle, or Venus's comb.

PECTINATIO. Combing. It is a ſpecies of friction.

PECTINÆUS vel PECTINALIS Muſc. From *pecten*, i. e. Os pubis. It riſes from the upper part of the os pubis, on the outſide of Poupart's ligament, runs downwards, backwards, and outwards, and is inſerted into the linea aſpera below the little trochanter. Brown ſays it is called pectinæus, becauſe it riſes from the os pectinis (i. e. pubis); it is alſo called lividus, from its colour.

PECTORALIS. Pectoral. An epithet for medicines which are appropriated to diſorders of the breaſts and lungs.

PECTORALIS MAJOR. This muſcle riſes in a radiated manner from the anterior and inferior part of the clavicle, then from the ſternum, and at the lower part from the third, fourth, and fifth ribs, from the cartilage, and partly from the bony portion of the ſixth rib; then paſſes towards the arm, with its upper edge contiguous to the deltoid, betwixt which two the cephalic vein has its courſe; near its inſertion the pectoralis doubles in, on its lower edge, and forms a poſterior and anterior lamella; then it runs to be inſerted into the anterior part of the biceps groove. This muſcle is partly a rotator of the arm, but its great uſe is to bring the arm forward, cloſe to the body.

PECTORALIS MINOR. Some call it ſerratus anticus minor: it lies beneath the pectoralis major. It riſes by three digitations from the third, fourth, and fifth ribs, then paſſes obliquely upwards and outwards, and joins with the ſhort head of the biceps, to be inſerted into the carotid proceſs of the ſcapula. Some make this a muſcle of the ſcapula, others of reſpiration, according as they make or one the other termination the fixed point.

PECTORALIS INTERNUS, i. e. Triangularis ſterni.

PECTORIS OS, i. e. Sternum.

PECTUS. The breaſt; alſo the metatarſus.

PECTUSCULUM. The metatarſus.

PEDECELLI, i. e. Phthiriaſis.

PEDIBUS BOVINUM (Oleum). Neat's foot oil. Is is prepared by boiling the joints of horned cattle in large veſſels.

PEDICULI INGUINALES. Crab-lice.

PEDICULARIA. Staves acre.

PEDICULARIS. A ſpecies of eye-bright; alſo the herb yellow rattle.

PEDICULATIO. The louſy evil.

PEDICULUS. A louſe; alſo a pedicle, or that part of a ſtalk which immediately ſuſtains a leaf, a flower, or a fruit, and is generally called a foot ſtalk.

PEDICUS, i. e. Extenſor digitorum brevis.

PEDILUVIUM. A bath for the feet. The feet are very ſenſible, and a bath of warm water removes their ſpaſm, and, by conſent, ſpaſms and pains in the belly. If the feet are cold, the belly is coſtive; pain, ſuch as the colic, affects it; the ſkin is rough, perſpiration defective, and the ſalutary evacuations from the uterus and hæmorrhoides checked; hence the pedilave is extenſively uſeful. Baths for the feet ſhould be uſed at bed-time, and thus a general perſpiration is produced. If uſed a few days before the menſtrual diſcharge, they promote them.

PEDION. The ſole of the foot.

PEDORA. The ſordes of the eyes, ears, and feet.

PEDUNCULUS. The ſame as pediculus, in both its ſignifications.

PEGANON. Rue.

PEGE. A fountain. The internal angles of the eyes are called pegæ.

PELADA. A ſhedding of the hair from a venereal cauſe.

PELECANUS. A pelecan. The name of an inſtrument for drawing the teeth; alſo a glaſs veſſel formerly uſed in chemiſtry for the digeſtion and circulation of liquors poured in at their narrow necks, which were afterwards hermetically ſealed: at preſent two matraſſes are uſed inſtead of a pelecan, the neck of one being entered into the neck of the other.

PELECINUS. The characters are, in all reſpects, like the aſtragalus, except that the pod is flat, long, bicapſular bivalve, and full of kidney-ſhaped ſeeds. It is alſo caled ſecuridaca peregrina.

PELIOMA. An ecchymoſis when livid coloured.

PELLICULA MEMBRANA. See Angina Membrana. It is alſo in general any thin membrane.

PELLIS. A ſkin of a beaſt. It is alſo called corium and tergus.

PELMA. The ſole of the foot, or a ſock adapted to the ſole of the foot.

PELTATIS CARTILAGO, from *pelta, a buckler*. The ſcutiform cartilage of the larynx.

PELVIS. A name for the inferior part of the cavity of the belly. It is bounded forward by the os pubis, backward by the os ſacrum above, and coccygis below, laterally by the illia above, and iſchia below.

In midwifery, the knowledge of the ſtructure, and peculiarities of the *pelvis*, is an important circumſtance. The brim of a well ſhaped *pelvis* repreſents an irregular oval, or ſomething that approaches to a triangle; if it is conſidered as an oval, its greateſt axis is from ſide to ſide; if we conſider it as a triangle, the poſterior part is far longer, and the oſſa pubis conſtitutes the other two ſides of the triangle; the lower circumference is formed behind by the ſacrum and os coccygis, on each ſide by the iſchium, and ſacro ſciatic ligaments, and before by the lower part of the pubis; when the body is reclined, or half-ſitting, as is were, the brim of the *pelvis* is horizontal, and a line would paſs from the navel through the middle of the cavity; but when a woman is in labour, or near her time, this imaginary line muſt take place higher, and accordingly we find, that the firſt of the external parts, which the head of the child preſſes againſt is behind the anus, and from thence it gradually advances up the perineum, until it comes to the lower part of the ſymphyſis of the oſſa pubis. The chief uſes we are to make of this ſuppoſed line, are, firſt, by it we place the woman in a good poſition during labour; for then ſhe can act more ſtrongly with her abdominal muſcles, and the child's head will fall directly into the middle of the *pelvis*; ſecondly, it will be a direction for us to introduce the forceps upon the child's head, and the hand into the uterus.

In conſidering the *pelvis*, we ſhould obſerve its width, the depth and form of its cavity, and the extent of its brim from the fore to the back part, which, in a well-formed *pelvis*, is an inch leſs than it is from ſide to ſide, four inches and a half from the fore to the back part, and five inches and a half from ſide to ſide.

The lower circumference of the *pelvis* is nearly equal, but when we allow for the os coccygis being moveable, it makes a quarter of an inch more in its longer direction from the os coccygis to the os pubis, than from iſchium to iſchium. The depth of the *pelvis*, from the upper-edge of the ſacrum, where it articulates with the vertebræ lumbarum, to the lower part of the coccygis, is about five inches in a ſtrait line. When the os coccygis is preſſed back, it is then ſix inches; from the brim of the *pelvis*, to the lower part of the ſymphiſis of the os pubis, is only two inches: whereas, from the under part of the iſchium, it is four inches. The brim is concave internally all round.

A ſtrait *pelvis* will cauſe a difficult labour; its ſtraitneſs is known as follows: introduce your finger up the vagina, and if you can feel the os ſacrum, the *pelvis* is ſtrait, or touch the oſſa pubis with your fore-finger, and ſtrive to touch the vertebræ of the loins with your middle finger; if you can reach them, it is narrow; if not, it will do.

PELVIS. It is the name for a cavity in the kidnies.

PELVIS AURIUM. The cochlea of the ear.

PELVIS CEREBRI. The infundibulum in the brain.

PEMPHIGO, i. e. Pemphigus.

PEMPHIGODES, or Pemphingodes. Fevers diſtinguiſhed by flatulencies, and inflations, in which we feel a ſort of aerial effluvia paſſing through the ſkin of the patient in the manner of an exhalation, and ſtriking upon the touch. Galen's Com. on 6 Epid. ſect. i. aph. xvii. Others ſay it is a fever, by the intenſeneſs of whoſe heat

puſtules are excited in the mouth, called aphonæ, or thruſh. Fœſius ſays, that ſome will have it to be a ſynochus, in which, by the heat, the blood veſſels are inflated, whence ſome call it an inflative fever.

PEMPHIGUS. The veſicular fever. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order exanthematæ. He defines it to be a contagious typhus. It is a rare diſeaſe in this country. On the firſt, ſecond, or third day of the diſeaſe, little veſicles, the ſize of oats, appear on different parts of the body; they continue a few days, and at laſt exude a thin ichor. See Acta Helvetica, vol. ii. p. 260.

PEMPTÆUS. An ague, the paroxyſm of which returns every fifth day.

PENICILLUS. A tent or pledgit.

PENIDIUM SACCHARUM. It is what the confectioners ſell under the name of barley-ſugar.

PENIS, from *pendo vel pendendo, to hang*, becauſe it hangs without the belly. It is compoſed of three parts, viz. the two corpora cavernoſa, and the corpus ſpongioſum urethræ. Its ſkin, which is thin, and without fat, hath a reduplication, which makes a hood to the glans, called preputium; the ſmall ligament, by which it is tied to the under-ſide of the glans, is called frænum; the uſe of the prepuce is to keep the glans ſoft and moiſt, and to preſerve its ſenſibility. The penis hath a ſmall ligament, which ariſes from its back, a little from its root, and which ties it to the upper part of the os pubis. It receives two branches of veins from the hypogaſtric veſſels, and its arteries from the hypogaſtric and pudicæ; the two veins unite towards its root, and make one trunk which runs on the back of the penis. It hath two nerves from the ſacrum, and ſeveral lymphatics, which empty themſelves into the inguinal glands. It hath three pair of muſcles, viz. the erectores, acceleratores, and tranſverſales. Cowper obſerves, that the cuticula on the glans penis is villous or downy, and that the cutis is thinner here, and, on the ſcrotum, than any where elſe. Regnerus de Graaf accurately deſcribes the penis. Ruyſch deſcribes the glans penis better than de Graaf. See alſo Cowper's Obſervations on the Penis.

PENNA. A feather. It alſo ſignifies a ſubmarine plant which grows on rocks, and reſembles a bird's-wing, which is alſo called mentula alata. If a feather is ſwallowed, it ſhould, if poſſible, be extracted. In the third vol. of the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. p. 7, &c. is an account of a ſucceſsful attempt to recover a quill from the ſtomach, by means of a whalebone with a ſponge at each end, to each of which was a thread looſely connected, and by which the quill was entangled, and ſo brought up.

PENO-ABSOU. A tree in America, whoſe bark is very fragrant, and whoſe fruit, which is the ſize of an orange, contains from ſix to ten nuts, from which an oil is expreſſed. The fruit is poiſonous, but the oil is uſed to cure the wounds received by poiſoned arrows.

PENTADACTYLON. A name for the palma Chriſti.

PENTANEURON, i. e. Plantago anguſtifolia major.

PENTAPHARMACUM. A medicine conſiſting of five ingredients.

PENTAPHYLLOIDES. Barren ſtrawberry.

PENTAPHYLLUM. Cinquefoil. i. e. Potentilla reptans, Linn. A name alſo for ſeveral ſpecies of quinquefolium, and pentaphylloides, alſo a ſpecies of ſinapiſtrum, and of hermodactyls.

PENTAPLEURUM, i. e. Plantago anguſtifolia major.

PENTOROBUS. Peony.

PEPASTICA. Digeſtive medicines.

PEPITA NUX. Ignatius's bean.

PEPLION, or Peplos. They were purging medicines for evacuating bile and phlegm. Sometimes it is ſpoken of under the names of mecon, meconis, and meconium; alſo wild andrachne, chamæſyce, papaver ſpumeum, ſymphytum, and tithymalus.

PEPO. Common Pompion. Boerhaave enumerates fifteen ſpecies. They are not eaſily digeſted. By preſſure an oil is obtained from their pulp, which ſoftens the ſkin. See Raii Hiſt.

PEPTICOS. Digeſtive, or that promotes digeſtion.

PEQUETI RECEPTACULUM. Pecquet's receptacle, or reſervoir, i. e. receptaculum chyli.

PERAGU. A ſhrub in Malabar, whoſe juice kills worms, and its roots cure the tinetery, colic, &c. See Raii Hiſt.

PERCEPIER, alſo called chærophyllo, alchimilla montana minimæa, polygonum ſelinoides. Parſley breakſtone, or parſley piert. It is a low plant; it lies chiefly on the ground; its branches are hairy, full of ſmall leaves, ſet alternately at the points. It grows in dry places, and fallow fields, and alſo among corn. It is ſaid to be diuretic, but it is of too little efficacy to deſerve much notice. Raii Hiſt.

PERDETUM. In Paracelſus it is the root of ſkirret.

PERDICIUM, i. e. Parietaria.

PEREGRINUM LIGNUM, i. e. Nephriticum lignum.

PERESKIA. A plant with a roſe-ſhaped flower, which is met with in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. In the Engliſh American ſettlements it is called a gooſeberry. The Dutch call it a blad apple. See Miller's Dict.

PERETERION, from *περαω, tranſfodio, to dig through.* The perforating part of the trepan.

PERFECTI MAGISTERII. Oil of bricks.

PERFOLIATA, called alſo bupleurum, thoroughwax. It is a plant with a ſmall fibrous ſticky root, from which ſprings ſmooth, and often reddiſh ſtalks. The leaves are oval-ſhaped, of a blue green colour; the flowers are of a yellow colour. It grows amongſt corn, is ſaid to be vulnerary, but is of little note in practice. See Raii Hiſt.

PERFOLIATA. Boor Cole.

PERFORANS MANUS, i. e. Flexor tertii internodii digitorum manus.

PERFORANS PEDIS, i. e. Flexor longus pedis.

PERFORATA. St. John's-wort.

PERFORATIO, Sometimes it ſignifies a ſeton.

PERFORATUS MANUS, i. e. Flexor internodii ſecundi digitorum manus.

PERFORATUS PEDIS, i. e. Flexor ſublimis pedis.

PERFORATUS CASSERII, i. e. Coraco-brachiæus muſculus.

PERFRICTIO. Shivering, or coldneſs. See HORROR.

PERIAMMA, i. e. Periapta.

PERIADYSMIA. Pain in the ſtomach.

PERIANTHIUM. It is the outermoſt part of a flower, which ſurrounds it before it is blown, and forms a kind of ſupport for it afterwards. Dr. Grew calls it the empalement, ſome improperly call it the calyx or cup, for the calyx is properly the hollow cup formed by the empalement, out of which the other parts of the flower grow. Some flowers, whoſe petals, or flower leaves, have a firm and ſtrong baſis, ſufficient to ſupport themſelves, therefore ſtand in need of an empalement, as the tulip, &c. which have none; theſe, however, have a calyx.

PERIAPTA. People on whom amulets were fixed for the removal of a diſeaſe. Blanchard ſays, it is a medicine which being tied about the neck, is believed to expel diſeaſes, eſpecially the plague.

PERIBLEPSIS, from *περιβλεπω, to ſtare about.* That kind of ſtaring look which is obſerved in delirious perſons.

PERIBOLE, from *περιβαλλω, to ſurround.* Sometimes it ſignifies the dreſs of a perſon; at other a tranſlation of the morbific humours to the ſurface of the body.

PERICARDIA ARTERIA. The artery of the pericardium. This ariſes from the anterior middle part of the common trunk of the ſubclavian, or the carotid; it runs down upon the pericardium all the way to the diaphragm, to which it ſends ſome branches.

PERICARDIA VENA. The vein of the pericardium. It ſometimes ſprings from the trunk of the ſuperior cava, at others from the origin of the right ſubclavian. The left vena pericardia comes ſometimes from the left ſubclavian before the mammaria, ſometimes from the mammaria or diaphragmatica ſuperior on the ſame ſide.

PERICARDITIS. Inflammation of the pericardium. Dr. Cullen places this diſeaſe in the genus carditis, which ſee.

PERI-

PERICARDIUM, from περι, *about*, and καρδια, *the heart*. The firſt membrane of the *pericardium* is formed by the pleura, which is connected to the *pericardium* by a cellular membrane, but this is only an occaſional covering, leaving the *pericardium*, where it adheres to the diaphragm. The ſubſtance of the *pericardium* is a ſtrong tough membrane, compoſed of two lamellæ, the external of which is by much the ſtronger; the internal is a complete bag, without perforation, being effected over the *heart* itſelf. This internal coat contains the fluid called liquor pericardii, which was ſuppoſed to be ſecreted by glands lodged there, but is certainly ſecerned by the ſmall continuations of the arteries. In ſound habits this liquor is found in a ſmall quantity; in unſound habits we find a larger quantity: its appearance is like ſerum, a little tinged with blood. The redneſs is owing to the tranſudation of the blood in the muſcular cavities of the *heart*; and the longer the body is kept, the redder the liquor grows. The uſe of the *pericardium* is to afford the liquor, and to confine the *heart*; and as it is connected by a great ſurface of the diaphragm, perhaps it keeps the *heart* unmoved by the motions of the diaphragm in inſpiration: but there is very little in this, as the middle of the diaphragm hath very little motion in inſpiration and expiration. The *pericardium* is much larger than the *heart*; it is not fixed to the baſis of the *heart*, but round the large veins above the auricles before they ſend off the ramifications, and round the large arteries before their diviſions.

PERICARDIO-DIAPHRAGMATICÆ VENÆ, i. e. Diaphragmaticæ ſuperiores.

PERICARPIUM, from περι, *about*, and καρπος, *the wriſt*. A topical medicine, applied to the *wriſts*.

PERICARPIUM, from περι, *about*, and καρπος, *fruit*. It is whatever ſurrounds the *fruit* of vegetables, whether membrane, huſk, or pulp. Some reſtrain it to the ſoft and moiſt pulp which covers the ſeeds, as in apples, &c.

PERICHONDRIUM. The *perichondrium* is ſaid to be only a continuation of the perioſteum. This Dr. Hunter ſays may be true of that ſort of cartilage which ſupplies the place of bone in an adult, as the trachea; or in ſuch as ſupplies the place of bone in infants, as epiphyſes; but on the cartilages that are expanded over the extremities of articulating joints, the *perichondrium* is the inner layer of the capſular ligament, reflected over the cartilage extremely fine. This is not diſcoverable in adults, but in young ſubjects, where the parts are ſeparable, it is eaſily diſcernable.

PERICHRISIS. A liniment.

PERICHRISTA. Any medicine with which the eyelids are anointed in an ophthalmia.

PERICLASIS, from περι, *about*, and κλαω, *to break*. A fracture with a great wound, wherein the bone is laid bare.

PERICLYMENUM. A name for ſeveral ſorts of caprifolium.

PERICLYMENUM PARVUM, i. e. Ipecacuanha.

PERICRANIUM, from περι, *about*, and κρανιον, *the head*. The membrane which immediately inveſts the bones of the ſkull, or under the hairy ſcalp. It is made up of two lamina, cloſely united; the external lamina parts from the internal at the ſemicircular plane ſurrounding the temples, and becomes a very ſtrong aponeurotic, or ligamentary expanſion, which covers the temporal muſcle, and is afterwards fixed in the external angular apophyſis of the os frontis, in the poſterior edge of the ſuperior apophyſis of the os malæ, and in the ſuperior edge of the zygomatic arch, as far as the root of the maſtoid apophyſis. At this place the aponeurotic coif ſeems to form the external lamina of the *pericranium*, and they both communicate with particular aponeurotic expanſions of the maſtoid, maſſeter, zygomatic, and other neighbouring muſcles.

PERIDESMICA (ISCHURRIA). A ſuppreſſion of urine from ſtricture in the urethra.

PERIDROMOS. The extreme circumference of the hairs of the head.

PERIESTECOS, from περιιστημι, *to ſurround*, or *guard*. An epithet for diſeaſes, ſigns, or ſymptoms, importing their being ſalutary, and that they prognoſticate the recovery of the patient.

PERIGRAPHE. An inaccurate deſcription or delineation. In Veſalius, *perigraphæ* are certain white lines and impreſſions, obſervable in the muſculus rectus of the abdomen.

PERIN. A teſticle. Some explain it the perinæum, others ſay it is the anus.

PERINÆOCELE. A rupture in the perinæum.

PERINÆUM, from περαω, *to flow round*. Becauſe that part is generally moiſt. It is the ſpace between the anus and the parts of generation; it is divided into two equal lateral portions by a diſtinct line, which is longer in males than in females.

In midwifery it is obſerved, that when the os externum is ſo much dilated by the head of the fœtus, as to allow the delivery of the ſame, it is generally ſtretched to the length of three, and ſometimes of four inches; whence at this time delivery ſhould not be precipitated, leaſt a laceration in this part ſhould be the conſequence. Inſtead of ſtretching back the *perinæum* with the finger, as is the practice of ſome, it ſhould be ſupported with the palm of the hand, and the head of the child, at the ſame time, moderately oppoſed in its force againſt it, until a ſufficient dilatation will render delivery ſafe. Inflammations, and lacerations of the *perinæum*, if they occaſion vomiting, they are fatal in a few days. If a laceration happens, keep the woman long in bed, and adviſe her to keep her knees cloſe, as conſtantly as poſſible; her bowels ſhould be kept ſoluble.

The puncture of the *perinæum*, is an operation which was uſed to be performed when the bladder was under ſuch a ſuppreſſion of urine as could not be relieved by any gentler method. The operation was performed by puſhing a trochar from the place where the external wound in the old way of cutting for the ſtone was made, into the cavity of the bladder, and ſo procuring the iſſue of the water through the canula. At preſent, inſtead of this method, the water is evacuated by puſhing the trochar into the bladder, from a little above the os pubis. This method of diſcharging the urine hath ſucceeded, but when the ſuppreſſion is of any conſiderable ſtanding, the operation is dangerous. See Le Dran's Operations; Sharp's Operations; and Sharp's Critical Enquiry.

PERINÆALIS (ISCHURIA). A ſuppreſſion of urine from a tumor in the perinæum.

PERIN-KARA. A wild olive-tree of vaſt growth in Malabar. See Raii Hiſt.

PERIN-NIROURI. A bacciferous ſhrub in Malabar. See Raii Hiſt.

PERIN-PANEL. A bacciferous Indian ſhrub, the leaves of which are uſed in ſuffumigations againſt hyſteric ſymptoms. See Raii Hiſt.

PERINYCTIDES. Puſtules, or pimples, which break out in the night.

PERIOSTEUM, from περι, *about*, and οστεον, *the bone*. It is that membrane which covers the bone. It is divided by authors into two layers; the internal layer (or *perioſteum* itſelf) lies cloſe to the bone, and appears furrowed, as the bone is: this is one of the fineſt, thinneſt membranes imaginable, and appears upon a ſucceſsful injection to be extremely vaſcular; the reaſon of which is, that the veſſels which run to the bone play a while upon the ſurface of this membrane, before they enter into the ſubſtance of the bone. The external layer is of a white gliſtening appearance. It is merely adventitious, being compoſed of the fibrous expanſions of membranes, ligaments, and tendons, wherefore it runs in various directions, according as theſe tendons, &c. are variouſly inſerted. The *perioſteum* is not elaſtic; Dr. Hunter thinks it is not very ſenſible, and adviſes in amputations not to ſcrape it, but only to paſs the knife about it, a little above the place where you intend to ſaw. The *perioſteum* is wanting on thoſe parts of a bone where ſtrong tendons enter, as in the trochanter. The uſes of the *perioſteum* are, to prevent the bad effect of friction on the bones, to protect the veſſels running into the bones; to connect epiphyſes; and to give origin to muſcles.

PERIPHIMOSIS, i. e. Paraphimoſis.

PERIPLEUMONIA, i. e. peripneumonia; periploca, i. e. Virginian ſilk.

PERIPLOCA. Italian and French ſcammony, called alſo ſcammonia Monſpeliaca rotundioribus, apocynum latifolium. Its concreted juice purges in ſomewhat larger doſes than the ſcammony of the ſhops. Boerhaave takes notice of four other ſpecies, but they are not purging.

PERIPNEUMONIA. A peripneumony, from περι, *about*, and πνευμων, *the lungs*. Dr. Cullen places it as a ſpecies of pneumonia, or inflammation of the contents of the

the thorax. Ruyſch ſays, it is an inflammation of the bronchial artery only. Hoffman ſays, that the ſeat is the bronchial and pulmonic arteries, and their lateral lymphatic veſſels.

Three kinds of *peripneumonies* are diſtinguiſhed, as follows: the true, or inflammation in the *lungs*; the ſpurious, or when a pituitous matter obſtructs the veſſels of the *lungs*; the catarrhous, or when a thin acrid defluxion on the *lungs* is the cauſe.

The true *peripneumony* is produced by cold applied to the ſkin, or mouth, or ſtomach; by an inflammatory diatheſis; an over diſtention of the *lungs*; or by any of the general cauſes of inflammation. Such cauſes as particularly affect the *lungs*, are a faulty air, cauſtic matter in the atmoſphere, or other faulty exhalations, violent exerciſe of the *lungs*, by running, wreſtling, &c. violent diſturbances of the mind, a quinſy, accompanied with an orthopnœa, a violent pleuriſy, or an exceſſive paraphrenitis. The diſorder excited, various effects will be produced, according to the diverſity of the part affected; for a bronchial inflammation by compreſſion and contagion inflames the contiguous extremities of the pulmonary artery. When the extremities of the pulmonary artery are inflamed, the blood becomes ſtagnant, the veſſel is extended, the thineſt part of the fluids is expreſſed, as it were, by tranſudation, and the thicker parts are accumulated: and all the blood, as yet capable of circulation, is collected between the right ventricle of the heart, and the extremities of the pulmonary arteries: hence the *lungs* become oppreſſed, incapable of expanding, and are livid, the left ventricle of the heart is deprived of blood, a great weakneſs is brought on, with a variety of other ſymptoms, as follow:

This fever is of the inflammatory kind, and begins with an obtuſe pain in the breaſt, which is rather tenſive and oppreſſive than acute; ſometimes this pain is felt in one, and ſometimes in both ſides; ſometimes it extends along the reins, at others it ſhoots to the back and to the ſcapulæ; the breathing is difficult, and affected with a kind of ſnoring; a cough uſually attends; it is ſometimes dry, at others the matter diſcharged is bloody, or chiefly blood; this cough is more acute than that which attends in the pleuriſy, the air from the *lungs* being particularly hot; the mouth, tongue, and ſkin, are very dry; there is a ſenſe of fulneſs in the thorax, anxiety about the præcordia, with reſtleſſneſs and toſſing in bed continually; this reſtleſſneſs never fails to attend, and that even in the beginning; ſleep becomes a ſtranger; the pulſe is commonly hard, always quick, but ſeldom ſtrong, or regularly full; it is ſometimes ſoft, ſlender, and intermitting; before bleeding it is hardly to be perceived in ſome caſes, but after bleeding it is ſtronger; the urine is often turbid; the difficuly of breathing, and the ſenſe of fulneſs increaſe; and a quantity of thick mucus being ſecreted, occaſions a ſound as the air paſſes through the branches of the trachea: if the ſymptoms are violent at the firſt, the patient is not able to lie down; when he does, it is only on his back, for he can hardly breathe if not erect, and the paſſage of the blood through the *lungs* is obſtructed, ſo that he fears ſuffocation; the veins of the neck ſwell, the pulſe becomes every way irregular; one arm is often affected as if with a palſy; the face ſwells, is of a dark colour, eſpecially about the cheeks and the eye-lids; and if the weather is ſultry, livid ſpots appear on the neck and breaſt, the tongue ſwells, and is of a dark red colour; the eyes are dull; a ſtupor, and a low delirium ſucceed, in which the patient raves, and ſeems neither aſleep nor awake; ſometimes there is a degree of paleneſs, and an air of aſtoniſhment at the beginning of the diſeaſe, the eyes ſtaring wildly, and this portends much danger. The beſt expectoration reſembles what is ſpit up with a cold, but rather more yellow and ſtreaked with blood, but becoming leſs ſo; inexpreſſible anguiſh is felt, and at laſt the patient is ſuffocated. If the ſymptoms do not ariſe to ſo great a height, and at the ſame time no means of reſolution have been applied before the fourth day, as if theſe means are not ſufficiently powerful, or if they are not continued until the diſeaſe is totally carried off, a ſuppuration takes place, and is indicated by ſlight and frequent ſhiverings; the pain at the ſame time going off gradually, the ſenſe of fulneſs, and the cough, with the other ſymptoms diminiſhing, and the patient being only able to lie on that ſide which was moſt affected.

This diſorder ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from a pleuriſy; from a difficulty of breathing in fevers; from the ſpurious peripneumony; inflammation in the mediaſtinum, or in the intercoſtal muſcles; from the catarrh, the aſthma, and other difficulties of breathing which happen in chronical diſeaſes.

A white ſediment in the urine, or a red ſediment changing to a white, promiſe a ſafe and ſpeedy recovery. If the *peripneumony* takes place after a cold fit of a fever, and the fever continues along with the inflammation, which hath been relieved either naturally or artificially, a criſis in the ſecond week ſometimes carries off both diſeaſes. If in the young and robuſt, a bloody ſpit appears on the fourth day, it is a good ſign; and if on the ſeventh day the ſame patient ſweats ſpontaneouſly, the diſeaſe is ended. If in phlegmatic and languid conſtitutions, when the diſorder hath a deep ſeat in the *lungs*, there is a termination of the diſeaſe on the eleventh or fourteenth day, partly by expectoration, and partly by ſweat, the pulſe becoming ſofter, the ſleep calmer, and the ſtrength being increaſed, the diſeaſe ends well. If the diſorder continues to the twenty-firſt day, an abſceſs will be the conſequence. It is moſt dangerous in flat-breaſted, and in aſthmatic perſons. Frequent ſtools, and urine without any ſediment, are bad ſigns. If the pulſe is ſmall, ſoft, and irregular, the danger is great. If the diſeaſe ruſhes on at once with a violent attack, if the horror, coldneſs, and ſhivering, laſts many hours, and are followed with nearly a ſcorching heat; if the brain is affected at the firſt onſet; if there is a ſmall purging with a teneſmus; if the patient abhors the bed; if either exceſſive ſweating, or exceſſive dryneſs of the ſkin attend; if the natural countenance is greatly changed, great danger attends. Suppuration generally proves fatal.

Avoid the extremes of heat and of cold where the patient lays. All the drink and medicines ſhould be milk warm.

Dr. Fordyce, in the ſecond part of his Elements, ſpeaks of a natural cure. He ſays, that this may happen by a ſecretion of mucus from the *lungs*, which at firſt is ſpit up thin, and with uneaſineſs, becoming gradually thicker, and of a yelloviſh or greeniſh caſt; it is often mixed with blood, relieving, and gradually diminiſhing the ſymptoms, ſo as to carry off the diſeaſe before the fourteenth day. Or, this diſorder may depart by an hæmorrhage, or by an inflammation ariſing in ſome other part of the body, as the noſe, &c.

The artificial cure, the ſame author obſerves, is effected by ſimple reſolution, or by evacuation from the mucous glands. The firſt method is to be purſued in the robuſt, the ſecond in the more infirm. Thus, in all caſes, on due bleeding, or expectoration, the cure chiefly depends.

When the cure is attempted by reſolution, the firſt ſtep will be to bleed freely. This operation muſt be uſed in point of frequency, according to the ſtrength of the pulſe, or its fulneſs and firm hardneſs. A large orifice ſhould be made by which to diſcharge the blood. The ſooner blood is taken away, the more beneficial its evacuation proves. When from the violence of the inflammation, the pulſe is ſmall, very frequent, and irregular, it often riſes, and becomes regular after the operation; and from the diſeaſe increaſing, or recurring, it is frequently neceſſary to repeat this evacuation two or three times. As ſoon as the preceding cold fit is over, take from a large orifice from ℥ xii. to ℥ xvi. of blood; this large bleeding gives more relief than twice the quantity taken at three times, and except ſymptoms promiſe well after the firſt bleeding, take from ℥ viii. to ℥ xii. more in four hours after; and, as required, repeat it in ſomewhat leſs quantities in ſix or eight hours after. If florid frothy blood is ſpit up, bleed as far as the patient's ſtrength will admit; but if the blood which is taken from a vein appears pale, and jelly-like, without the true buff; or if a ſpitting is already come on, bleeding will be injurious. The air in the room ſhould be kept moderately warm. The vin. antim. and ſal diuret. ſhould be given in the uſual doſes when given in inflammatory fevers; and if they are repeated every hour, or at leaſt every two hours, their efficacy will be more ſuited to the intention of giving them. Emollient clyſters,

in which nitre is diſſolved, ſhould be frequently injected. Nitre may be mixed in every draught of the patient's drink, or it may be rendered agreeably acid by the addition of Clutton's febrifuge ſpirit. Bliſter the back and ſides, eſpecially after bleeding, appears not a ſafe method to purſue: if in the courſe of the diſorder expectoration ſtops too ſuddenly, and is not immediately followed by ſome other evacuation, bliſter both the legs. A decoction of the rad. ſerpent. ſeneka, given in proper doſes, and at due intervals, is of ſingular advantage.

If expectoration is attempted as the means of relief, bleeding is rarely admitted of. If the expectorated matter be yelloviſh, or ſtreaked with blood, by keeping it up, the moſt deſirable ends will be anſwered. The gum ammoniacum is uſually preſcribed in this caſe, but the tart. emet. or the vin. antim. given in ſuch doſes as will keep up a nauſea, are of more extenſive efficacy. But expectorating medicines, as ſuch, muſt not be given before the matter to be diſcharged becomes fit for excretion, for otherwiſe a greater flow of humours will be invited to the lungs. Vapours from warm water, may be frequently received into the lungs with the breath. From the beginning give the decoct. rad. ſenekæ, beſides which but few other medicines will be required. If the diſeaſe ſeems to be of a mixed kind, or if the lungs are not ſo much inflamed, as they are loaded with a viſcid or pituitous matter, apply bliſters between the ſhoulders, and on the ſides. When the mucus that is ſpit up is very thin, opiates may be uſed in ſmall doſes, to moderate the pain; and, to eaſe the cough, let mucilages be frequently ſwallowed. A ſharp ſudden cold air, too hot an air, but medicines, exceſſive ſweating, imprudent purging, and diſturbed paſſions of the mind, may any of them check expectoration, in which caſe proceed as already directed. This diſorder, though generally carried off by expectoration, is ſometimes removed by urine, which on the ſeventh, ninth, or eleventh day, or ſometimes in the intermediate days begins to let fall a plentiful ſediment of a pale red colour, and ſometimes real pus; theſe diſcharges are ſucceeded by ſalutary ſweats, but are preceded by anguiſh, palpitations, an irregular pulſe, &c. If the pulſe flags, give a few grains of the ſal. c. c. with the conſ. cardiac. If when blood is taken away from a vein. it appears of a looſe or broken texture, immediately deſiſt from any diſcharge of it, and begin with the uſe of cooling antiputreſcents, as the acet. camphorat. the juice of oranges or lemons in the patient's drink, or let his drink be acidulated with Clutton's febrifuge ſpirit, joined with ſome proper cordial, &c.

A *peripneumony* is very apt to return on a little irregularity of diet. It terminates variouſly, as by a reſolution, a ſuppuration, a ſcirrhus, a copious ſpitting, a bilious flux, or by a copious thick urine, in which is either a ſediment of a pale red colour, or of a purulent quality. When the patient dies, he is carried off by a ſuffocation, from the difficulty of coughing up the matter which is lodged in the lungs.

PERIPNEUMONIA NOTHA. The ſpurious, or baſtard peripneumony. This diſorder may appear at any time in the year, but for the moſt part it approaches early in the ſpring, particularly after a very ſharp winter. This kind of *peripneumony* is chiefly diſtinguiſhed from a dry aſthma, by the degree of fever, and ſigns of inflammation which are manifeſt in it; in moſt ſymptoms, the ſpurious *peripneumony* alſo reſembles the true, but the heat, pain, and thirſt are not ſo conſiderable in the firſt as in the laſt.

Thoſe advanced in years, and thoſe of any age who have a groſs habit of body, and are addicted to ſpirituous liquors, alſo thoſe who are ſubject to catarrhs are moſt ſubject to this kind of diſorder.

It is often cauſed by cold north and north-eaſt winds. Bodies that are loaded in the winter with groſs and ſluggiſh humours, which at the approach of ſpring are rarefied, the lungs, becoming turgid therewith, a bad cough is produced, and then the *peripneumony* is ſoon introduced. A redundant viſcid ſerum, or even a putrid tendency in the juices may induce this diſeaſe. The drying up of an old ulcer or an iſſue, may, in ſome circumſtances, be a cauſe. A weakened ſtate of the lungs, as when an œdema forms itſelf there, may alſo occaſionally be productive of this diſeaſe.

Boerhaave obſerves, that the baſtard *peripneumony* ſteals upon the patient unawares with a ſlight wearineſs, weakneſs, a general proſtration of the faculties of the mind, thick and ſhort breathing, and an oppreſſion of the breaſt. The commotions it excites are ſo ſmall, that the heat and fever are ſcarce ſufficient to make the patient ſenſible of his diſorder, afterwards ſlight ſhiverings, which come on by fits, and the attacks of a gentle fever appear, whence difficulty of breathing, and weakneſs ſuddenly increaſing, bring on death, of which there was ſcarce any ſign by the pulſe or urine. Sydenham was one of the firſt who diſtinguiſhed this diſorder from a catarrh, and he gives the following account of its manner of invaſion, and its progreſs. The patient is hot and cold alternately, giddy, complains of an acute pain in the head, when the cough is moſt troubleſome; he vomits up all liquids, ſometimes with, and at others without coughing; the urine is turbid and intenſely red; the blood taken away reſembles pleuritic blood; the patient breathes quick and with difficulty; if he is adviſed to cough his head achs as if it would burſt; a pain is felt in the whole breaſt; a wheezing is obſerved by the attendants whenever the patient coughs. To what Sydenham hath ſaid it may be added, that the patient's cheeks and eyes often appear red and inflamed, the pulſe is ſmall, a low fever attends, and the urine is generally pale coloured.

If the ſtrength does not return after the diſeaſe is removed; if the pulſe is ſtill quick, though ſoft; if the breathing is difficult and oppreſſed; if there is at times a cold ſhivering, with flushing in the cheeks, the lips are dry, and the appetite defective, a phthiſis may be expected ſoon.

The indications of cure will be to expel the pituitous colluvies. 2dly. To ſtrengthen the habit in general, and the lungs in particular.

Attenuating ſtimulating expectorants, ſtomach purges, emetics, bliſters, both by their ſtimulus and diſcharge, and iſſues in the inſide and bottom of the knee, are all thought uſeful. For common drink, muſtard whey, or a decoction of madder-root, will be very convenient; bleeding, except in a ſmall quantity, when comatous ſymptoms appear, is not to be practiſed, but bliſters applied to the back, ſides, and arms, with gentle puking at proper intervals, and ſuitable expectorants may be much depended on. The decoct. rad. ſenek. is alſo uſeful in this diſorder.

If the cough is violent, opiates will be very uſeful, and may be given as ſoon as expectoration is become tolerably free; a mixture of the pil. e ſtyraci & pil. Rufi may be ſafely given in doſes, as circumſtances may require. To keep the bowels lax is a neceſſary point in order to relief, and the opiate may be given to any quantity, not to interfere wholly with the uſual efficacy of the purgative which it accompanies.

As expectoration is a principal means of relief, to the ſaline draughts made with the ſp. Minder. add as much of vin. antim. as will excite and keep up a nauſea, thus every uſeful ſecretion and excretion will be promoted.

When the breathing is eaſy, and expectoration free, begin to ſtrengthen the habit by means of the bark, to each ounce of which a dram, or more, of the balſam of Tolu may be added; mild chalybeates may alſo be uſed.

This diſorder terminates by a ſpitting, a bilious flux of the belly, or by plenty of thick urine, with a thick ſediment.

On inflammations of the lungs, ſee Trallian, Cœlius Aurelianus, and Aretæus; and on both the kinds of *peripneumony*, ſee Hoffmann, Boerhaave, Sydenham, Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic; Fordyce's Elements, part ii. Brooks's Practice of Phyſic.

PERIPYEMA. A collection of matter ſurrounding any part.

PERIRRHOEA, from περιῤῥέω, *to flow from every part.* A copious flux of the humours, or morbific matter, from all parts of the body, to the proper emunctories, in order to their diſcharge, or rather the diſcharge itſelf.

PERIRRHEXIS. A ſpitting of blood from a rupture of the veins in the lungs.

PERISCYPHISMUS. It is an incision made acroſs the forehead, or from one temple to another, over the upper part of the os frontis, over the coronary ſuture. It

was formerly uſed when a conſiderable inflammation, or defluxion in the eyes attended. The lips of this wound are to be kept aſunder with lint, or when the diſorder abates, raſp the denudated bone, and proceed to healing. See P. Ægineta, lib. vi. c. 7.

PERISTALTICUS, from περιστελλω, *to compreſs*, or *contract*. The motion by which the inteſtines protrude the fæces, is called the periſtaltic motion. It is a worm-like motion.

PERISTOMA. The villous coat of the inteſtines.

PERISTAPHILO-PHARYNGÆI. Two ſmall muſcles inſerted between the uvula and lower extremity of the internal ala of the apophyſis pterigoidæus; they run obliquely backward on the ſides of the pharynx. They are difficult to find in very lean ſubjects, and ſeem to be what M. Santorini calls hypero-pharyngæi, or palato-pharyngæi.

PERISTAPHYLINUS EXTERNUS, i. e. Sphenoſalpingo-ſtaphylini.

PERISTAPHYLINI INTERNI, i. e. Petro-ſalpingo-ſtaphylini.

PERISYSTOLE. The interval of reſt betwixt the ſyſtole and diaſtole of the heart.

PERITERION. The perforating part of the trepan.

PERITONÆORIXIS. A burſting of the peritonæum, and conſequent hernia.

PERITONÆUM, from περιτεινω, *to extend round*. Dr. Douglas is the firſt who hath given us any true idea of this membrane which lines the belly, and inveſts all the viſcera contained therein. It is of a cloſe texture, and yet very pliable; it is capable of great extenſion, after which it can recover itſelf, and be contracted to its ordinary ſize, as appears in pregnancy, &c. It is connected to all the circumambient parts by a cellular membrane; it is this cellular membrane (which is generally called the external lamella of the *peritonæum*) which forms what we call the proceſſes of the *peritonæum*. The *peritonæum*, nevertheleſs, hath productions of its own; but they are different from thoſe of the cellular membrane, for they run from without inwards, and give an external covering to the contained parts.

PERITONITIS. Inflammation of the peritonæum, including the meſentery and omentum. Dr. Cullen defines it to be a fever, with pain in the belly, which is increaſed when the body is erect; but without other proper ſigns of abdominal inflammations, &c. places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order phlegmaſiæ; and diſtinguiſhes three ſpecies. 1. *Peritonitis* propria; that is, when the peritonæum, ſtrictly ſo called, is inflamed. 2. *Peritonitis* omentalis. See PUERPERILIS FEBRIS. 3. *Peritonitis* meſenterica. See INFLAMMATION of the MESENTERY.

PERNIO, from πτερνα, *heel*. A kibe or chilblain. This diſorder attacks the hands, feet, heels, ears, noſe, and lips, all ages are ſubject to it; but children of a ſanguine habit, and a delicate complexion are the moſt ſo. Dr. Cullen places this diſorder as a variety of phlogoſis erythema.

When the parts ſubject to this complaint are ſuddenly expoſed to cold, or from being cold are too ſpeedily heated, they are ſomewhat inflated, afterwards come on heat, redneſs, pain, and itching. Theſe ſymptoms increaſing, ſmall bliſters are formed, which ſoon burſt, leaving a ſlight excoriation, which ſpeedily ulcerates; this ulcer ſoon becomes deep and obſtinate, diſcharging a ſharp ill-conditioned matter; in the laſt, and worſt degree, a gangrene is formed.

Beſides a fulneſs of the humours, and a tenderneſs in the ſkin, which are the moſt frequent cauſes diſpoſing to *chilblains*, the wearing of woollen gloves, or thoſe of furr and muffs, are too oft the productive cauſes; like the warm bath they render the ſkin more ſenſible, and increaſe the afflux of blood thereto.

The principal methods of prevention and relief are as follow: the ſkin is rendered leſs tender, and more firm; change of weather are guarded againſt; the vicious quality of the temperament is corrected; and according to the different degrees of the complaint when preſent, the ſubſequent applications are made uſe of.

When winter approaches, let the parts uſually affected be frequently put into cold water, avoiding every occaſion of ſubjecting them to warm. Iſſues, or frequent gentle purges, will drain off a redundancy of humours. As to a faulty quality in the blood, of whatever kind it may be, proper alteratives are not to be neglected; but when the diſorder is preſent, whilſt in its loweſt degree, dip the part into water that is cold, and as near to freezing as may be, and there continue it during a minute or two; or if the cold chills or benumbs the part very much, dip it in, and take it out two or three times, at ſhort intervals; after this it may be gently dried; the ſame proceſs being repeated, at leaſt every morning and evening, until all uneaſineſs is removed. The moſt troubleſome itching is removed by dipping the part in cold water, or by applying ſnow to it, though in ſome few inſtances the ſnow rather increaſes than diminiſhes the diſorder. When the patient cannot bear the cold, when a cough attends, or other circumſtances which forbid the application of cold to the extremities, the beſt ſubſtitute is, to wear dog-ſkin ſocks, or gloves, day and night, until the inflammation is removed. Linnæus recommends the diluted ſp. of ſea-ſalt for bathing the part affected with. In greater degrees, as when the part may be ſaid to be froſt bitten, the treatment will be as directed in the article CONGELATUS; in this caſe dog-ſkin gloves or ſocks, ſhould be worn. Vapours ſometimes agree better than baths, in which caſe the vapours from vinegar are the beſt; but as their vapour ſoftens the ſkin, it ſhould afterwards be often waſhed with a mixture, water two parts, and camphorated ſpirit of wine one part. If the parts are ulcerated, gentle purges may be uſed, the ſwelled parts expoſed to the ſteams of vinegar, and digeſtive ointments applied to the ſore. When a gangrene comes on, treat it as when the ſame happens from any other cauſe, attendance being given to the circumſtances of the conſtitution.

See Heiſter's Surgery; M. A. Severinus's Diſſ. de *Pernionibus*, in lib. de Abſceſſibus; Tiſſot's Advice to the People.

PERONÆA ARTERIA. The peroneal artery. It is the ſmaller diviſion of the poſterior tibialis; it paſſes down behind the fibula, between the ſoleus and the flexor pollicis, paſſes over the interoſſeous ligament, and about the upper and back part of the os calcis it forms an arch with the tibialis poſterior.

PERONÆUS MUSCULUS, from *perone*, the fibula. It riſes from the outer part of the fibula, it lies in a groove in the malleolus externus, and is inſerted in the baſis of the laſt metatarſal bone. i. e. that of the little toe.

PERONÆUS LONGUS. It riſes from the head of the fibula, its tendon is turned back under the tarſus, paſſing over the os cuboides (at which place it hath a ſeſamoid bone) and runs acroſs the ſole of the foot to be inſerted into the baſis of the firſt metatarſal bone, being an abductor.

PERONÆUS SECUNDUS. It riſes about the middle of the outward part of the fibula, and as it runs under the malleolus externus, it becomes tendinous, and is inſerted with the tendon of the peronæus brevis into the metatarſal bone of the little toe.

PERONÆA VENA. It it one of the diviſions of the poplitea; it runs nearly the ſame courſe with the artery of the ſame name.

PERONE. The fibula.

PERONEUS BREVIS, i. e. Extenſor digitorum longus.

PERSICA. The peach tree. Perſica from Perſia, whence they were firſt tranſplanted. It hath been called Rhodacinea, or Rhodacina, becauſe it was planted in Rhodes.

PERSICA NUX. The walnut.

PERSICARIA, called alſo hydropiper, culrage, lake-weed, water-pepper, and biting arſmart. It is the polygonum hydropiper, Linn. It is an annual plant, with oblong uncut leaves, pointed at both ends, and with imperfect flowers ſet in ſpikes on the tops of the ſtalks; the cup is thick and fleſhy, divided into five oval ſegments, which cloſing form a cover to an angular gloſſy ſeed. The leaves have a burning taſte, and ſeem nearly allied to the arum: their acrimony is diſſipated by diſtillation, and is deſtroyed in the proceſs: they are antiſeptic, diuretic, and aperient. It is called perſicaria becauſe the leaves reſemble peach leaves, and hydropiper becauſe it grows in water, and taſtes

like

like pepper. It is not uſed in the preſent practice. See Raii Hiſt.

PERSICARIA, alſo called maculata, perſicaria maculata, dead or ſpotted arſmart. Perſicaria mitis. It is the polygonum perſicaria, Linn. It is ſo called from moſt of the leaves having a blackiſh ſpot in the middle: it grows alſo in wet grounds. It is ſaid to be antiſeptic, but is not in uſe as a medicine. See Raii Hiſt.

PERSICARIA SILIQUOSA, alſo called balſamina lutea, noli me tangere, herba impatiens, mercurialis ſylveſtris, quick in hand, touch-me-not. This ſpecies is a forcible diuretic, but is rarely uſed. See Raii Hiſt.

PERSICON. The walnut.

PERSICUM BALS. i. e. Balſ. traumat.

PERSICUS IGNIS. A carbuncle. Avicenna ſays that *Perſicus ignis* is that ſpecies of carbuncle which is attended with puſtules and veſications.

PERSISTENS FEBRIS. A regular intermitting fever, the paroxyſms of which return at conſtant and ſtated hours.

PERSOLATA, or Perſonata. See BARDANA.

PERSPIRATIO. Perſpiration. Without a free *perſpiration* no animal nor plant can continue in a healthy ſtate. The matter of *perſpiration* is ſeparated through the ſkin, and alſo from the lungs; it is ſimply ſerum. This diſcharge is uſually leſs in women than in men; if in either women or men, the perſpiratory veſſels are obſtructed, the circulation of the blood meets with great reſiſtance.

Perſpiration is of two kinds, viz. that which is continually tranſuding and is called inſenſible; the other is the ſenſible, called ſweat. It hath been ſuppoſed that different veſſels threw off theſe diſcharges, but that is not the truth; the ſame veſſels which throw out the inſenſible, upon being more ſtrongly acted on, throw out the ſenſible *perſpiration*.

All animals have an abſorptive power, ſimilar to that of a ſponge, which is evident from the ſpeedy penetration of ſea-ſalt and ſalt petre into the moſt interior parts of the largeſt pieces of butcher's meat; it is moſt probable that the pores, &c. through which the ſalt paſſes, are thoſe through which the *perſpiration* is carried on in living animals. The pores are ſometimes ſo enlarged as to tranſmit particles of red blood, as happens in the muriatic ſcurvy; and ſometimes are ſo contracted that the neceſſary evacuation can no longer be continued, whence a variety of diſorders proceeds. The fat under the ſkin is ſuppoſed to prevent a too free exhalation of the ſerum from the body, and want of fat in the lungs, to be a reaſon why ſo free a diſcharge is made therefrom. The coats of all the veſſels are perforated by the pores through which the matter of *perſpiration* paſſes; hence, when morbid humours are attenuated they paſs through the ſkin, and are exhaled with the matter of *perſpiration*, or they may, and often are, abſorbed into the blood, and then excreted with the urine, &c.

PERTURBATIO ALVI. A diarrhœa.

PERTUSSIS. A hooping-cough, alſo called tuſſis ferina, the rheumatic cough, and convulſive cough. Dr. Butter ſays it is an epidemic, contagious, ſpaſmodic diſeaſe. It ſeems to be analogous to an intermittent fever in the periodic return of the fits; they both prevail in the ſame ſeaſons, ariſe from the ſame cauſe, and are cured by the ſame remedies. See Huxham de Aere, &c. Morb. Epid. p. 76, 77. Farther, the autumnal *hooping-cough* and intermittents are analogous, in that they renew their attacks in the returning ſpring, though ſeemingly cured, long before. The *hooping cough* reſembles the ſmall-pox, in not uſually returning, in being infectious to the prediſpoſed, and in that it muſt have its courſe.

It is originally ſymptomatic; is often a ſymptom in the aſthma. Sydenham ſays that the cough is excited by vapours which are thrown into the lungs from the blood. Dr. Butter ſays its ſeat is in the inteſtines; that neither the ſtomach nor the lungs are concerned in it; that the primary affection is a morbid irritability of the mucous glands; and that an infectious miaſma is the occaſional cauſe. Again, whilſt ſome aſſert that the diſorder is a convulſive one, occaſioned by irritating matter lodged about the bronchia trachea, and fauces; others ſay, and indeed with greater ſeeming probability, that it is a convulſion in the diaphragm, excited by ſharp humours in the primæ viæ, and which cauſe a ſpaſmodic ſtricture in the glottis. Walſchmeid ſays, it proceeds from a diſorder of the ſtomach. Dolæus ſays it is cauſed by tough viſcid matter lodged in the coats of the ſtomach. Hoffman attributes it to thin and acrid juices in the ducts deſtined to reſpiration, as the aſpera arteria, &c.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes, and order ſpaſmi.

This diſorder begins with a hoarſeneſs, but uſually with a dry cough, which continues about two weeks, and then becomes convulſive, and ſome phlegm is diſcharged; its increaſe and ſtate takes up about four weeks more, and in ſix weeks after it generally goes off, though ſometimes it continues eighteen or twenty weeks: ſometimes the phlegm is ropy, at others it is mixed with ſharp ſerum, but always is thrown up with difficulty: at the height the phlegm is more concocted, and as the cough declines the expectorated matter is whitiſh. After recovery a relapſe may eaſily happen from taking cold; but theſe relapſes are ſlight and ſhort. Some have only the antecedent ſhort dry cough: theſe get well in two or three weeks, but if phlegm begins to appear, the patient is not ſo ſoon quit of this diſorder. When the cough is in any degree violent, the blood is ſo obſtructed in the face as to occaſion blackneſs there, and, according as the veſſels of the noſe are more or leſs able to reſiſt, ſo an hæmorrhage from thence is more or leſs copious and frequent.

The *hooping-cough* is moſt fatal to children under two years of age. Older children uſually ſwallow the phlegm and then puke it. After three years of age it ſeldom proves fatal; though, in ſome inſtances wherein great weakneſs attends, and the bark hath been neglected, a conſumption follows, and the patient is carried off.

As opinions vary with reſpect to the ſeat, &c. of this complaint, ſo the methods of relief that are propoſed are alſo various; but, in general, gentle antimonial emetics adminiſtered about half an hour before the return of each fit, when the periods can be gueſſed at, are the principal aſſiſtants that hitherto have been obſerved. Particular ſymptoms are relieved by bleeding, bliſters, gentle laxatives, &c. In the beginning, if the face is very black during the fit, or if blood is diſcharged with the cough, bleed. If the breathing is difficult the lac. ammon. will be proper. To moderate the violence of the cough give, now and then the ſyr. e mecon. in ſmall doſes, or rather mix opiates with purgatives, and give them in ſuch doſes as whilſt the violence of the cough is moderated, the bowels may alſo be kept ſolative. Dr. Butter extols the uſe of hemlock as a cure. He directs to begin with a ſmall doſe, and gradually to increaſe until the ſymptoms of relief appear, and then continue that doſe as long as it produces good effects: when this medicine begins to loſe its effects, then augment the quantity gradually until its advantages are again manifeſt. For a child from ſix months to two years old he adviſes to begin with gr. j. which when diffuſed in an ounce and a half of water, may be given in the courſe of one day. From two years to four years of age two grains may be mixed in two ounces of water to be taken in the day. From four years upward to twenty the firſt daily doſe may be increaſed half a grain for each year. If a liquid form is diſliked, a pill or a bolus my be given. And Dr. Morris declares the moſt ſucceſsful efforts from caſtor one part, and the bark two parts; the doſe from ℈ i. to ʒ ſs. and repeated every four hours. If there is much fever, the bark is not convenient, expectorants ſometimes ſhould accompany this remedy, and often its efficacy is only advantageous in the decline of the diſeaſe: the fever is no objection to the cicuta. When there is little or no fever, cantharides have been uſed with advantage. Dr. Letſom, in his Medical Memoirs, from his own, as well as others experience, relates as follows in favour of the following preparation. "From the efficacy of this compoſion, the action of vomiting is leſs neceſſary to be frequently excited, as the diſeaſe uſually terminates in a few days after the exhibition of this remedy; hence (he adds) I have rarely had occaſion to give the antimonial powder more than two or three times." The compoſition is as follows, and was communicated to the Doctor by his friend Mr. Sutcliff, a ſurgeon and apothecary in Yorkſhire. ℞ Tr. cort. Peruv. ſi. ℥ i. ſs. elix. paregoric. ℥ ſs. Tr. cantharides. ʒ j. m. This is to be given in ſmall doſes three or four times a day, and to be gradually increaſed

until

until a ſlight ſtrangury is excited; and then the doſe muſt either be diminiſhed or repeated at longer intervals. It is then obſerved that, the ſtrangury uſually comes on above the third day, and the *hooping-cough* ſeldom continues above ſix days after giving of this medicine.

Dr. Cullen conſiders this diſeaſe under two periods: the firſt is when the contagion which cauſed it is recent, and continues to act; the ſecond is when the contagion ceaſes to act and the diſeaſe continues by the power of habit. The indication of cure under the firſt period is, to obviate the violent effects of the diſeaſe and its fatal tendency. To this end, in plethoric habits, or where the blood is difficultly tranſmitted through the lungs, bleeding will be neceſſary; but its repetition muſt be admitted with caution. The belly muſt be kept lax. If there is any inflammatory tendency in the lungs, bliſters ſhould be applied to the thorax, and repeated if required. Emetics ſhould be duly repeated, they interrupt the return of the ſpaſmodic affections; and by determining to the ſurface of the body, take off the determination to the lungs. The indication of cure under the ſecond period is effected by antiſpaſmodics or tonics. Of theſe, a variety have been propoſed, and occaſionally with ſucceſs, as caſtor, muſk, hemlock, cupmoſs, opium, Peruvian bark, &c. When neither fever nor difficulty of breathing forbid, opium is powerful in abating, but is not efficacious in removing the cough. In this laſt ſtage of the diſeaſe, the bark or ſome proper preparation of it, will be ſingularly uſeful.

The late Dr. Rutherford of Edinburgh, obſerves that when convulſions attend, the application of bliſters will be neceſſary, but as to their ſituation in this caſe, he prefers the ſide of the neck behind the ears, becauſe in that part there is the neareſt communication with the nerves of the glottis.

See Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham, Huxham de Aer. & Morb. Epid. p. 76, 77. Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii. p. 281—286, 319—325. a Treatiſe on the Kinkcough, by W. Butter, M. D. Dr. Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. iii.

PERUVIANUM BALSAMUM. Peruvian balſam or balſam of Peru: it is alſo called Mexican balſam. Piſo deſcribes the trees which afford it, under the name of cabureiba. Peruifera, vel myroxylon peruiferum, Linn. There are three kinds of this balſam, viz. the white; it is of a pale yellowiſh colour (though called white); it is the native *balſam*, preſerved as it iſſues out from the tree: this is the beſt ſort, but is very rarely met with. The dry *balſam*; this is the white ſort inſpiſſated by the ſun's heat in gourd ſhells, in which it is ſometimes brought to Europe; it is of reddiſh colour, and a very agreeable ſmell; it is ſeldom to be met with. The common or black *Peruvian balſam*; this is artificially extracted from the bark, branches, and leaves of the tree, by cutting them in pieces and boiling them in water; it is of the conſiſtence of honey, of a dark black colour in the maſs; but, when ſpread thin, it is of a clear reddiſh or yellowiſh brown, of an agreeable ſtrong ſmell, ſomewhat approaching to that of a mixture of benjamin and ſtorax, and of a bitteriſh pungent taſte, eaſily inflammable, not in the leaſt miſcible with water, nor rendered white nor turbid on being agitated therewith. It is brought from Peru and Mexico.

Diſtilled in a retort with an open fire, it yields a butter like that of benzoine, and ſometimes a conſiderable quantity of concrete ſaline flowers ſimilar to thoſe from the ſame reſin. If this balſam is rubbed with ſugar, the white of an egg, or with the mucilage of gum arabic, it is rendered miſcible with water, but is longeſt ſuſpended with the laſt.

It is uſed for the cure of wounds in nervous and tendinous parts; it ſtrengthens the ſtomach, is uſeful in aſthmas, and as an antiſpaſmodic, though not ſo immediately uſeful or ſo powerful at preſent as opium, yet it is far more laſting in its efficacy.

See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works

PERUVIANUS GRISEUS, vel Spurius, i. e. Thuris cortex.

PERVIGILIUM. A want of ſleep, or rather intenſe watching. A ſymptom very common in fevers, and always a bad preſage.

PERVINCA. See VINCA PERVINCA.

PES. The foot. It is divided into the tarſus, metatarſus, and toes. The tarſus conſiſts of ſeven bones, viz. the aſtragalus; it is the ſuperior, and its upper head is received into the cavity of the tibia. The os calcis. The os naviculare. The os cuboides, which is the external of the four anterior. The os cuneiforme externum. The cuneiforme medium. And the cuneiforme internum. They follow in reckoning upwards. Theſe bones being convex above, and concave below, make the tread more ſecure, and from their number the ſhock is broke in jumping. A caries happening in theſe bones is dangerous, on account of their ſpongy ſubſtance, their ſize, and number.

When children's feet are diſtorted at their birth, or turned into a bad poſition, bring them as near as poſſible to a natural one, then with a roller dipped in flour and the white of an egg, roll them from near the knee to the toes, let them be held in a good poſition until the roller is dry, and change the bandage every fortnight.

PESSARIUM. A peſſary. Among other external remedies uſed by Hippocrates *peſſaries* were one; they were a kind of ſuppoſitories which they introduced into the exterior neck of the matrix: they were prepared of wool, lint, or linen, mixed with powders, oils, wax, &c. and made round like a finger. *Peſſaries* were in much uſe amongſt the ancients, and were formed of different ingredients, according as the different diſeaſes, &c. of the womb required them. See P. Æginet. lib. vii. c. 24. At preſent their uſe is chiefly confined to the ſupport of the falling vagina or uterus. They are uſeful to women who labour under an incontinence of urine. Sponges of ſuch a ſize as, when expanded, fill up the cavity of the vagina, are very good *peſſaries*; they may be dipped in any liquor that will aſſiſt in the intention of uſing them. They ſupport the uterus; at the ſame time, by putting a ſtring through them, the end of which is to be left hanging out of the os externum, the woman can take them away and apply them herſelf.

Commodious *peſſaries* are deſcribed in Heiſter's Surgery, in the article Procedentia Uteri; Dr. Simſon invented one, and deſcribed it in the Edinb. Med. Eſſays, vol. iii. p. 313.

Dr. Leake, in the fifth edition of his Medical Inſtructions, aſſerts that the uſe of *peſſaries*, by the pain and irritation they occaſion, are apt to produce the whites. He obſerves, that in caſes of bearing down and deſcent of the womb, to direct the curative method to the ſeat of the diſorder, is in every reſpect preferable to the application of thoſe painful and indelicate inſtruments, ſo often made uſe of with bad effect; for inſtead of ſtrengthening the weak part, they lay additional ſtreſs upon it, and conſequently are highly improper. It is evident that *peſſaries* only prevent the deſcent of the womb, by obſtructing the paſſage; therefore, ſo long as part is kept in a ſtate of continual diſtenſion, it never can be braced up or ſtrengthened by the power of art or nature. If the *peſſary* is introduced too ſmall, it will ſoon be forced away by the firſt fit of coughing, or ſtraining, &c. And if it is too large it will bring on the fluor albus in a high degree; beſide, it generally becomes ſo painful as not to be endured, and being a pernicious application, ought to be rejected from practice. It never can anſwer any good purpoſe; but, on the contrary, will always increaſe the diſeaſe, by overſtraining and weakening that part which was too weak before. As a further diſſuaſive from the uſe of theſe inſtruments, the Doctor gives the two follow caſes.

Firſt, A woman advanced in years, had worn a *peſſary* for ſome time; ſhe complained of great heat and inflammation at the lower region of the belly, attended with violent colic pains, and frequent but ineffectual endeavours to avoid her urine; ſhe had much fever, and at laſt became delirious, from want of ſleep and violence of pain, which threatened a mortification in the bowels. The *peſſary* was made of cork, was very large, and cloſely confined by means of the inflammation of the part, conſiderable force was required to extract it, which occaſioned much pain and diſcharge of blood; however, by proper care ſhe recovered and remained well.

Second, A *peſſary* was extracted from the fundament of a woman, after making its way through the vagina into the rectum, by a mortification of the parts.

PESTI-

PESTILENTIALIS. The plague.

PESTIS. The plague. Many writers have obſerved that the *plague* viſits England once in thirty or forty years; but happily for us this does not happen.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs phyrexiæ, and order exanthemata.

The *plague* is the worſt degree of putrid fever, is moſt violent, rapid, and ſuddenly fatal. In the beginning it is ſometimes attended with inflammatory ſymptoms when it happens in cold climes; but it ſpeedily becomes moſt putrid. It is called peſtilential when the patient falls into ſudden weakneſs, and is affected with the worſt ſymptoms, and in the greateſt degrees at once. It is called *plague* when the worſt ſymptoms attend, but the loſs of ſtrength is not quite ſo ſudden; and all the other ſpecies are called putrid fevers; they are all of the ſame general nature, but denominated from their moſt remarkable ſymptoms, or other attending circumſtances.

Whatever be the nature of the peſtilential miaſmata, the effects are, immediately to diminiſh, and, according to the degree of its power, to extinguiſh the vital heat. It breaks the fibres of the blood, and diſſolves its texture, whence the purple ſpots.

The *plague* approaches with a chilline's and ſhivering, ſoon after, a violent vomiting, a painful oppreſſion of the breaſt, and a burning fever; all which continue till death changes the ſcene, or till the eruption of a bubo or a parotis diſcharges the morbific matter, and cures the patient. If the morbific matter is not thus thrown out upon the ſurface of the body, it proves mortal. Sometimes, though rarely, the diſeaſe is mortal before the ſigns of fever approach; the broad purple ſpots, which denote immediate death, coming out even whilſt the perſon is abroad about his buſineſs: theſe ſpots go in and out before death's approach. Sometimes ſwellings appear, without having been preceded by a fever, or any other conſiderable ſymptom. The breath and ſweat are very offenſive. The pathognomonic ſymptoms are, the buboes and carbuncles which appear in various parts of the body.

The *plague* and the eryſipelas ſo reſemble one another, that in time of *plague* they are not always duly diſtinguiſhed at the firſt.

The air does not ſeem capable of carrying infection far. Heat and moiſture aggravates, but cold deſtroys the infectious nature of the *plague*; ſo that in theſe northern climates the infection muſt be received at firſt from ſome perſon, or from ſome ſubject in which it is lodged. The peſtilential ſeminium readily adheres to ſpongy and porous bodies, and thus may be conveyed to a great diſtance, without any loſs of its pernicious quality.

From the general nature of the *plague*, bleeding ſeems to be an improper method for relief; yet it is ſtrongly adviſed by many practitioners of note, and amongſt the reſt Sydenham is one. Great circumſpection is doubtleſs neceſſary with reſpect to this operation; however, if ſymptoms of inflammation run high, by leſſening the quantity of blood, the propulſion of the virulent matter to the glands may perhaps be promoted; and this more particularly if the courſe of the blood to the external parts be afterwards aſſiſted by mild ſudorifics. One, two, or at moſt three days, will effect all that is propoſed by taking away blood, ſo that great difficulty will attend the determination, for depriving the patient of what he will ſo ſoon ſtand in the greateſt need of.

Mixtures with acids are peculiarly beneficial, and mild cordials ſhould accompany them. The juice of oranges may be ſqueezed in all the patient's drink, ſweet ſpirit of nitre, Clutton's ſeb. ſpt. are very powerful remedies. Perſpiration may alſo be promoted by means of antimonials; as ſoon as the pulſe will admit, the bark ſhould be given.

The air in the patient's room ſhould be as cool as is moſt agreeable to the ſenſations of the patient: his linen ſhould be often changed: his excrements immediately buried.

The earlier the tumors appear on the ſurface of the body the better; for thus all other ſymptoms are removed. Theſe tumors are BUBOES and CARBUNCLES, which ſee.

When the *plague* is fatal, ſome die of a fainting the firſt or ſecond day; others, in whom the poiſon is not thrown off upon the external ſurface, or, if thrown off, returning back, it brings on a mortification of the nervous coats of the noble parts, as the œſophagus, pleura, ſtomach, inteſtines, &c. whence the corpſe ſwell, and have an intolerable ſtench. Sometimes, when the tumors are too numerous, the patient dies of a ſymptomatic fever, from the inflammation, pain, and heat.

See Mindererus on the *Plague*, Johannes Langius, lib. i. epiſt. 18. Hoffmann, Lobb on the *Plague*, Fordyce's Elements, part ii.

PETALA. Petals. The tender fine-coloured leaves, which are generally the moſt conſpicuous parts of the flowers, are thus named, to diſtinguiſh them from the leaves of the plants. Flowers, with one leaf are called monopetalous flowers; with two, bipetalous; with three, tripetalous; with four, tetrapetalous; with five, pentapetalous with ſix, hexapetalous; with more than ſix, polypetalous.

PETALODES. An epithet for the ſediment of urine, importing that it is ſcaly or reſembling leaves. It is ſometimes obſerved when there is an ulcer in the bladder.

In botany petalodes is an epithet for thoſe plants which are furniſhed with flower-leaves or petala.

PETASITES, from πεταω, *to extend*, or from πετασος, *a hat* or *bonnet*; becauſe the leaves are large, have a hollow in the middle, and then extend horizontally round the hollow. It is alſo called tuſſilago major, galerita, peſtilent-wort, butter-bur. It is the tuſſilago petaſites, Linn. It is a perennial plant, found wild by the ſides of ditches and in meadows, producing, early in the ſpring, a thick naked roundiſh ſtalk, with a ſpike of ſmall naked purpliſh floſculous flowers on the top; the flowers and ſtalks ſoon wither, and are ſucceeded about May with very large roundiſh and heart-ſhaped leaves, ſtanding on long pedicles, ſomewhat hollowed in the middle, ſo as to reſemble a bonnet; the root is long, thick, of a dark brown or black colour on the outſide, and white within.

The roots are aperient, alexipharmic, and promiſe to be of conſiderable activity; they have a ſtrong ſmell and a bitteriſh acrid taſte, of the aromatic kind, but not agreeable, very durable and diffuſive, ſcarcely to be concealed by a large admixture of other ſubſtances. Their virtue is in a reſinous matter, diſtinguiſhed by the eye in the dried root, and which is readily extracted by ſpirit of wine. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

PETECHIÆ. Red or purple ſpots on the ſkin, which frequently appear in the ſmall-pox, &c. The Italians gave them this name from the word *petechio*, becauſe they reſemble the bites of fleas. The French call them purpuratæ; the Spaniards call them taberdillo; the Germans lenticulares.

PETECHIA. Dr. Schotte obſerves, that this word is not Latin but Italian, ſignifying a ſmall-pox of a purple colour. It originally ſignified ſuch appearances in the ſkin as elevated it, but cuſtom hath now eſtabliſhed its uſe to expreſs thoſe ſpots which are leſs or more diffuſed in the ſkin without ever raiſing its ſurface. Uſually they are reddiſh, purple, or blackiſh ſpots in the ſkin, like ſmall points, but ſoon ſpread and gradually grow broader. Theſe *petechiæ* go by various other names, ſome call them punctula, others lenticulæ, others call the diſeaſe in which they are one of the ſymptoms, morbus pulicaris. They cannot, with any propriety, be called lenticulæ, for in Celſus the lenticulæ were pimples or blotches, riſing above the ſkin: he compares the ſcales of the worſt ſort of impetigo with thoſe of the lenticulæ, lib. v. cap. 28. The term pulicaris, from their reſemblance to flea-bites, is not very applicable; for a flea-bite is not at all like a *petechia*; the flea-bite cauſes in moſt people, when recently inflicted, a little whitiſh tumor, encircled with red, which riſes above the ſkin; it hath a puncture in the middle, which only is perceptible when cloſely examined; this tumor ſubſides by degrees, and diſappears: the ſecond or third day a ſmall yellow or browniſh ſpot appears in its place, and this is not unlike a *petechia*.

PETECHIALIS FEBRIS. The petechial fever. In moſt writers it is treated of as a diſtinct ſpecies, but it is only the low or the putrid fever attended with purple ſpots. The purple ſpots are a ſymptom only, and are very common in putrid diſorders, whether of the acute or chronical kind. See PUTRID FEVER. See Hoffman, Pringle, and Huxham on *Petechial Fevers*.

PETICULAS, i. e. Petechialis febris.

PETIVERIA. Guinea hen-weed. Father Plumier called it Petiveria in honour of Mr. James Petiver, who was a curious botaniſt. It is common in the Weſt Indies, but is not noted for its medicinal qualities, though it gives the milk of cows a garlick ſmell if they eat it.

PETOLÆ. Crab-lice.

PETRA. In foſſilogy, an order of ſtones of a cloſe and ſolid ſtructure; and without the characters of the other orders of ſtones. Some of the genera of this order are, the pebble and jaſper.

PETRACORIUS LAPIS. The Perigord ſtone. It is a foſſile ferrugineous ſubſtance, black, hard, and heavy. It is dug up in the mountains of Dauphiny, and uſed in painting earthen veſſels and enamelling.

PETROLEUM. It is ſo called becauſe it is an oil which diſtils from rocks. It is the only liquid bitumen that is known: Neumann reckons the naphtha to be another liquid bitumen, and ſays that in conſiſtence next to the naphtha is the *petroleum*, which is groſſer and thicker than the naphtha, of a yelloviſh, reddiſh, or browniſh colour, but very light, ſo as to ſwim on ſpirit of wine; he alſo ſays that the *petroleum* in the ſhops is all fictitious. Mr. Edwards in his Elements of Foſſilogy, ranks it as a genus in the claſs of inflammables. He deſcribes it as being an inflammable, which when pure, is in a fluid form; very inflammable, and burning like oil; and generally of ſo little ſpecific gravity, as to ſwim almoſt in all fluids.

PETROLEUM FLAVUM, called naphtha Italica, Italian oil of petre, or rock oil, or yellow oil of petre It is of a clear yellow colour, leſs fluid than the white ſort, in ſmell leſs penetrating, leſs agreeable, and more nearly allied to that of the oil of amber. It is found in the duchy of Modena, but does not very materially differ from the white ſort.

PETROLEUM ALBUM. White petroleum. It is nearly colourleſs almoſt as fluid and limpid as water, of a ſtrong penetrating ſmell, not diſagreeble, ſomewhat reſembling that of the rectified oil of amber. It is found only in the duchy of Modena.

PETROLEUM VULGARE, called alſo oleum petræ, petroleum rubrum, petroleum gabianum, oleum gabianum, common rock oil, red petroleum. It is of a blackiſh red colour, of a thicker conſiſtence, and a leſs penetrating, and more diſagreeable ſmell than either the white or the yellow ſorts. It is found in Italy, and about the village Gabian in Languedoc.

PETROLEUM BARBADENSE, called alſo piſſelæum Indicum, bitumen Barbadenſe. Barbadoes tar. It is of a reddiſh black colour, and a thick conſiſtence, approaching to that of treacle or common tar; it is found in the American iſlands, particularly in Barbadoes, but we rarely have it genuine. It is a ſpecies of *petroleum*.

Theſe different kinds are met with, iſſuing from the cliſts of rocks, or are obtained by diſtillation from bituminous ſubſtances, but we rarely meet with any of them genuine Fine *petroleum* catches fire at the approach of a flame, even without the contact of one with the other, and it burns entirely away; concentrated acids make great conflict on being mixed with *petroleum*, but thus its conſiſtence is thickened, and its fragrance increaſed; it does not readily mix with the ſpirit of wine, but is readily united with the eſſential oil of vegetables.

The finer *petrola* are more agreeable than oil of amber, and more mild than oil of turpentine, they have been uſed in nervous complaints, and as diuretics, but chiefly in external applications againſt the rheumatiſm, palſy, chilblains, &c. In theſe intentions, the Britiſh oil, and ſuch other productions of our own, are equally efficacious. The Americans uſe the Barbadoes tar internally as a ſudorific, and externally as a diſcutient and antiparalytic. On diſtillation the Barbadoes tar yields an empyreumatic oil, which when placed betwixt the eye and the light, appears of an orange colour, but in other poſitions of a blue one; but by long keeping it appears yellow in all ſituations.

See Dict. of Chem. Neumann's Chem. Works, and Lewis's Mat Med.

PETRO PHARYNGÆI. Theſe muſcles riſe from the lower part of the extremity of the apophyſis petroſa, and run backwards, to be inſerted into the linea alba of the pharynx.

PETROSA APOPHYSIS. The rock or harder portion of the temple bones; in children it is eaſily ſeparable from the other parts, viz. the maſtoid, and ſquamous.

PETRO SALPINGO-STAPHYLINI. Each of theſe muſcles are fixed by one extremity, partly to the inner ſide of the bony portion of the Euſtachian tube, or to that next the apophyſis petroſa, partly along the cartilaginous portion of the ſame tube; thence it paſſes a little way under the ſoft membranous part, and then turns towards the ſeptum palati. See Winſlow's Anatomy.

PETROSELINUM. Parſley. See Apium.

PETROSILEX. In foſſilogy: it is a genus of ſtone, in the order petra; it characters are; petra, of a ſolid compact texture, in ſtructure reſembling flint, but coarſer, and not at all tranſparent; gloſſy, and not inveſted with an outward cruſt. Edward's Elements of Foſſilogy. It is alſo called chertz, ſemipellucidus, lapis corneus, and by the Germans hornſtein. Large quantities are found in beds of lime-ſtone, as flints are found in beds of chalk, with this difference, that flints conſiſt of looſe nodules, and chertz often forms large maſſes of the rock. Theſe ſtones are vitreſcible: are uſed as grinding ſtones for grinding calcined flints, and other hard ſubſtances, but have too ſmooth and cloſe a texture for the grinding of corn.

PETUM. Tobacco. The Indians call it petun.

PETUNTSE. The Chineſe name of a ſtone uſed in making the Oriental porcelain. It is whitiſh, fuſible by the fire, gives a phoſphoric light when rubbed, and poſſeſſes the properties of ſtones called fluors. See Dict. of Chem. and Dr. Lewis's note in Neumann's Chem. Works.

PEUCE The pine-tree.

PEUCEDANUM, from *peuce, a pine-tree*, which it reſembles in its leaves. It is alſo called fœniculum porcinum, cauda porcina, pinaſtellum, ſulphur-wort, and hog's-fennel. It is the *peucedanum* officinale, Linn.

Boerhaave mentions three ſpecies. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

PEYERI GLANDULÆ. Peyer's glands, i. e. Brunneiri glandulæ.

PEZA. The ſole of the foot or the ankle. According to ſome, it is all under the tibia.

PEZIZA. A ſpecies of fungus; ſometimes it is without pedicles, and ſometimes with them, having its edges divided ſo as to form a remarkable cavity between them. It is of an uniform ſubſtance like the fungoides, and neither diſtinguiſhed by lamellæ, nor pores

PHACE, or Phacos. A lentil.

PHACOIDES. Of the form of a lentil. An epithet for the cryſtalline humour of the eye.

PHACOSIS. A black ſpot in the eye reſembling a lentil.

PHAGEDÆNA, from φαγω, *to eat, feed upon.* It is an ulcer that corrodes, and ſo ſpreads. Sometimes it ſignifies a particular ſpecies of ulcer, as the herpes phagedæna. Some deſcribe it as only deſtroying the ſkin. It is alſo uſed to expreſs the canine appetite.

PHALACRA. In Hippocrates they are blunt and ſmooth ſurgical inſtruments, as a probe, or any other, with a button at the end.

PHALACROTIS. A decay of the hair.

PHALANGIUM. It is a plant, of which kind Boerhaave enumerates ſix ſpecies, but not in repute as a medicine.

PHALANGIUM. A name for ſeveral ſorts of ephemerum.

PHALANGIUM ALLOBROGICUM, i. e. Liliaſtrum Alpinum minus.

PHALANGOSIS. According to ſome it is when there are two more rows of hairs in the eye-lids. A diſeaſe of the eye-lid turns inwards, ſo that the hairs ſtimulate the eye, ſo ſays P. Æginet, lib. vi. c. 8. The eye-lid is tumefied or relaxed, ſo as to appear unſeemly or to offend the ſight; it proceeds either from a paralytic diſorder or the muſculus elevator palpebræ, or from the relaxation of the ſkin above; ſometimes an œdematous tumor is formed in the eye-lid, but it ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from that *phalangoſis*, which, when it proceeds from relaxation, requires an exciſion of the relaxed ſkin, though the

the diſorder ſometimes returns notwithſtanding the operation. See Hippocrat. lib. de Vict. Rat. in Oeul. & Celſus, lib. vii. c. 7. See Ptosis.

PHALANX. The bones of the fingers are called phalanges.

PHALARIS, alſo called Gramen Spicatum. Canarygraſs. Boerhaave takes notice of eight ſpecies. It grows amongſt corn, and is found in many places beſides the Canaries. The ſeeds are diuretic. See Raii Hiſt.

PHANTASMA. The ſame as pſeudoblepſis.

PHARMACEIA. Purgation of the belly by the exhibition of a cathartic.

PHARMACEUTICA. Pharmaceutics. That part of medicine which gives the deſcription of remedies, and teaches the method of rightly exhibiting them.

PHARMACEUTICE. φαρμακευτικη, *medicine*, (i. e. the art of healing) was carried on down to the time of Herophilus and Eraſiſtratus, in an union of all its branches; and then, Celſus informs us, medicine was divided into three parts; one cured by diet, another by medicaments, a third by manual operation. The firſt was named in Greek διαιτητικη, the ſecond φαρμακευτικη the third χειρουργικη; each deriving its appellation from the principal method taken to effect a cure; therefore, as that method which cures chiefly by diet, ſometimes admits medicaments, ſo that which chiefly oppoſes the diſeaſe by medicaments, ought alſo to attend to diet. Celſus's General Preface, and Preface to his Fifth Book. From whence it is evident, that it was a ſeparation in the different branches of medicine, and not in preſcribing diet and medicines, which was intended: for though they had different appellations, each ſect had the whole management in thoſe diſorders which fell properly under their cure. Accordingly, if we take a view of the ſeveral chapters in which each of theſe ſubjects are treated, we ſhall diſcover that one ſet of practitioners under took the cure of internal, and the other of external diſorders; and whether they were of that claſs which cure principally by diet, or principally by medicaments; yet each party took in every neceſſary for his purpoſe, both from diet and medicines. The firſt four books evince, that the dietetic branch were to have the entire management of all diſorders, which confined themſelves to the inward parts of the body, and originated internally. Aretæus and Celius Aurelianus, confined themſelves to this line. The fifth and ſixth books ſhew, that the pharmaceutiſts had the whole direction of diet and medicines in all the external diſorders, where the principal part was not conducted by the hand, whether ariſing from an external or an internal cauſe, being the ſect which are ſaid to have preſcribed medicines; and ſurgeons cured the wounds they had made, both by diet and medicine. Thoſe who cured internal, and thoſe who cured external diſorders, without manual operation, had the appellation of ietros among the Greeks, and medici among the Latins; nor was it intended that they ſhould interleſe with each other in their different departments. See Kirkland's Inquiry, vol. i. p. 64, &c.

PHARMACOCHYMIA. That part of the chemical art which teaches the preparation of chemical medicines, by way of diſtinction from the ſpagirical part, which treats of the tranſmutation of metals.

PHARMACOPŒIA, from φαρμακον, *a medicine*, ποιεω, *to make*. A *Pharmacopœia*, or Diſpenſatory. *Pharmacopœias* are compilations of medicines approved of by medical practitioners. About the middle, or the latter end of the fifteenth century, Nicolaus Præpoſitus of Tours wrote a general *Dispenſatory*, and it was the firſt. The compoſitions in it were principally taken from Meſue, and from Nicolaus de Salerno. The firſt *Pharmacopœia* which was ſet forth by public authority was that of Valerius Cordus, under the ſanction of the ſenate of Norimberg, anno 1542.

PHARYNGÆUM SAL. It is of uſe in quinſies, and thence ſo called. It is thus prepared: ℞ Crem. tart. ſal nitri ää ℥ i. alum. uſt. ℥ ſs. diſſolve in diſtilled vinegar, and coagulate the ſolution. This ſalt is diſſolved in water for gargariſms.

PHARYNGETHRON. The pharynx or fauces.

PHARYNGO-STAPHYLINI. They are two ſmall muſcles fixed to the lateral part of the muſculi thiro-pharyngæ, as if they were portions detached from theſe muſcles; thence they run up obliquely forward, along the two poſterior half arches of the ſeptum, and terminate in the ſeptum above the uvula, where they meet together; the thickneſs of the poſterior half arches is made up by theſe muſcles. See Winſlow's Anatomy.

PHARYNX. Thus the Greeks name what the Latins call *infundibulum*. It is a muſcular bag, fixed behind to the baſis of the ſkull, laterally to the bottom of the face, and below that to the larynx. See Œsophagus. The muſcles of this part are ſufficiently deſcribed by their names, they are the crico-pharyngæus, from the cricoid cartilage to the *pharynx*; thyro-pharyngæus, from the thyroid cartilage to the *pharynx*; hyo-pharyngæus, from the os hyoides to the *pharynx*; ſtylo-pharyngæus, from the ſtyloid proceſs to the *pharynx*; pterygo-pharyngæus, from the pterygoid proceſs to the *pharynx*; mylo-pharyngæus, from the dentes molares to the *pharynx*; ſalpingo-pharyngæus, from the Euſtachian tube to the *pharynx*; cephalo-pharyngæus, from the baſis of the ſkull to the *pharynx*; ſyndeſmo-pharyngæus, from the white ligament to the *pharynx*; chondro-pharyngæus, from the cartilaginous appendage of the os hyoides; gloſo-pharyngæus, from the root or upper part of the tongue laterally. Some have reckoned the muſcles of the *pharynx* to be but two or three, whilſt others have multiplied them to thirteen or fourteen on each ſide. Albinus divides them into ſix pair, viz. Stylo-pharyngæus, which is the ſame as deſcribed by Douglas under that name; conſtrictor Inferior, i. e. the crico-pharyngæus, and thyro-pharyngæus of Douglas; the conſtrictor medius, i. e. the hyo-pharyngæus, the chondro-pharyngæus, and cephalo-pharyngæus of Douglas; the conſtrictor ſuperior, i. e. the gloſſo-pharyngæus, mylo-pharyngæus, and pterigo-pharyngæus of Douglas; the palato-pharyngæus, i. e. thyreo ſtaphilinus of Douglas; and the ſalpingo-pharyngæus of Douglas. In their various actions they enlarge and compreſs the gullet, ſo as to forward the aliment into the ſtomach.

The ſpace is all the vacuity behind the velum pendulum palati.

The *pharynx* is made up partly of ſeveral diſtinct fleſhy portions, which are looked upon as ſo many diſtinct muſcles, ſo diſpoſed as to form a large cavity, and partly of a membrane which lines the inner ſurface of this whole cavity, and is a continuation of that of the nares and palate. This membrane is wholly glandular, and it is thicker on the ſuperior and middle portions of the *pharynx*, and on the bottom, or lower portion. Immediately above the firſt vertebræ, it forms ſeveral longitudinal rugæ, very thick, deep, and ſhort, and we generally find therein a collection of mucus, in dead bodies. In the great cavity there are no rugæ, the membrane there adhering, as well as in the upper part, very cloſely to the muſcles. At the lower part where it is the thinneſt, it covers the poſterior part of the larynx, and is very looſe, and formed into irregular folds.

In the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii. p. 85, &c. is a caſe, in which from a dilation of the *pharynx*, a difficulty of ſwallowing was occaſioned.

PHASEOLUS. The kidney-bean. It hath a long pod, full of kidney ſhaped or oval ſeeds; the plant, as to its outward appearance, is flexible, ſcandent, and moſtly trifoliated, or hath its leaves growing by threes. Botaniſts enumerate thirty ſpecies, or more.

PHASEOLUS. The kidney-bean tree. See Abrus.

PHASEOLUS, alſo called ſmilax hortenſis, *phaſeolus* major. French beans, or common kidney-beans. They are cultivated in gardens, they flower in July, the pods are uſed as aliment, they are opening, digeſtive, and provoke urine.

PHASEOLUS ZURRATENSIS, called alſo phaſeolus pruritus excitans, phaſeolus Braſilianus, cadjuct, cowhage, cow-itch, and ſtinking beans. The dolichos urens, vel dolichos pruriens, vel dolichos volubilis, leguminibus racemoſis hirtis, valvulis ſubcarinatis, pedunculis ternis, Linn. This is a ſpecies of the kidney-bean, it is brought from both the Indies. The hairy part upon the pods, if ſcraped off, and mixed with ſyrup to the conſiſtence of a ſoft electuary, may be given to children in doſes of a teaſpoonful, and two to adults, for deſtroying the long round worms. If ten or twelve pods are ſteeped in a quart of

beer, and ʒ iv. of the infuſion are taken every morning, it acts as a diuretic, and gives great relief in dropſies. See Raii Hiſt.

PHASEOLUS. See Indicum, Cajan, and Faba.

PHAUSINGES. Red circles in the legs, excited by fire. It ſometimes is uſed to ſignify other kinds of ſpots, as well as red ones cauſed by the fire.

PHELLANDRIUM AQUATICUM, Linn. Water-hemlock, fine-leaved. It is generally called *water-hemlock*, and thus is often confounded with the cicuta viroſa. See Cicuta Aquatica. Withering. in his Bot. Arrang. vol. i. p. 176, deſcribes the *phellandrium aquaticum* as follows: the rundle with many ſpokes; rundlets, the ſame; general fence, none; the empalement, a partial fence of ſeven leaves, ſharp, as long as the rundlet; cup, of five teeth, permanant; the bloſſoms general, nearly uniform; florets, all fertile, individually unequal; petals, five, tapering, heart-ſhaped, bent inwards; chives; threads; five, hair-like, longer than the petals; tips roundiſh; pointal; ſeed-bud beneath; ſhafts two, awl-ſhaped, upright, permanent; ſummits, blunt; ſeed-veſſels, none; fruit egg-ſhaped, ſmooth, crowned with the cup and the pointals, diviſible into two parts; ſeeds, two, egg ſhaped, and ſmooth. N. B. The florets in the center are ſmaller than the others. The branchings of the leaves are ſtraddling, the ſtem is very thick, hollow, ſcored, and the petals are white.

It is the *phellandrium aquaticum*, Linn. *Phellandrium*, vel cicutaria aquatica quorundum. Ray's Syn. 255. Cicutaria paluſtris. Gerard. 1063. Cicutaria paluſtris tenuifolia. B. p. 161. Skeleton waterwort; Withering's Bot. Arrang. which laſt author ſays, the ſeeds are recommended in intermittent fevers; the leaves are ſometimes added to diſcutient cataplaſms: the plant is generally eſteemed a fatal poiſon to horſes, occaſioning them to become paralytic; but this effect is owing to an inſect, (curculio paraplecticus) which generally inhabits within the ſtems: the uſual antidote is mio's dung.

PHELLODRYS. The laurel oak. It grows in Dalmatia and Greece. The leaves, bark, and acorns, agree in virtues with the common oak. See Raii Hiſt.

PHENGITES. A luminous ſtone, capable of acquiring light, and imparting it again.

PHIALA. A glaſs veſſel, with a big belly, and long neck. It is often uſed for chemical coagulations and ſolutions.

PHILADYNAMOS. An epithet of water, expreſſing the property of it, by which it diminiſhes the ſtrength.

PHILANTHROPOS. The name of a compound anti-nephritic medicine.

PHILANTHROPUS, i. e. Aparine.

PHILLYREA. Mock privet. See Ligustrum.

PHILONIUM. An opiate, ſo called from its inventor Philo. Galen ſays, that the antidote of Philo is one of the oldeſt of its kind; but the Mithridate is much older. The *philonium* Romanum is originally a preſcript of N. Myrepſus.

PHILTRON, from φιλεω, *to kiſs*. A love potion, or a medicine to excite love. It alſo ſignifies the cavity, or depreſſure on the upper-lip, which is ſituated immediately under the ſeptum of the noſe.

PHIMOSIS. It is when the prepuce cannot be drawn over the glans penis, ſo as to uncover it. Dr. Cullen places it as a variety of the phlogoſis phlegmone. See Lues Venerea.

PHLASMA. A contuſion or colliſion.

PHLEBOPALIE. The pulſation of an artery.

PHLEBORRHAGIA, from φλεψ, *a vein*, and ῥηγνυμι, *to break*. A rupture of a *vein*.

PHLEBOTOMIA, from φλεψ, *a vein*, and τεμνω, *to cut*. Phlebotomy. It is the ſame as venæ ſectio. The *cutting*, or opening a *vein*.

Bleeding, or the taking away blood, is only proper when there is too much craſſamentum in the veſſels, or when it is to avoid a worſe inconvenience than that of leſſening the already too little quantity of blood. In general, the pulſe is the beſt guide, both as to when to bleed, and the quantity to be taken away. When the pulſe is full, ſtrong, or tenſe, bleeding will always be proper, provided that a plethora be the cauſe, and not refraction; indeed, in old people, the pulſe ſeems hard from the rigidity of the coats of the arteries.

Bleeding is not only uſeful when actual inflammation attends, but alſo in ſanguine habits which tend to be plethoric. In the ſmall-pox, if the heat demands, and the pulſe will allow of bleeding, the operation may be performed at any period of the diſorder. In intermitting fevers, when the heat is great, and there is pain in the bowels, or if a delirium comes on, bleed in the interval of the fit, or on the acceſs of the hot fit. In the meaſles, blood for the moſt part ſhould be taken away, both in the beginning, and at the decline of the diſorder. In the bilious colic, blood is taken away in the beginning, to prevent an inflammation in the part where the pain is urgent. In the gout, when the fever runs high, bleeding is found uſeful; and if the patient is plethoric, or comatous, repeat the operation. In pregnancy, bleeding is generally required in the firſt three months, and its repetition in the laſt three. In the hæmorrhoids, where there is a fulneſs of the blood-veſſels, empty them by this operation. When the lochia are ſuppreſſed, bleeding is rarely to be omitted. In a concuſſion of the brain from a blow or a fall, bleeding is more frequently uſeful than the trepan. In apoplexies from a ſanguine plethora, bleeding is the principal means of relief. When bleeding is and is not convenient, would require a particular treatiſe to relate; but its proper uſe, or ill effects, are generally noted in theſe ſheets, in treating of each diſeaſe reſpectively. On the ſubject of *bloodletting*, ſee Galen de Sang. Miſſion. Borallus de *Venæſect.* M. A. Severinus on Bleeding, an Eſſay concerning *Blood-letting*, by R. Butler, M. D.

The firſt inſtance of bleeding on record, is that of Podalirius's; Hippocrates did not often direct this operation; Areteæus, Celſus, and Galen, uſed it more freely than Hippocrates; but at different periods, and by different profeſſors, it was encouraged, or nearly prohibited. Indeed until the circulation of the blood was demonſtrated, the principles for this practice did not ſeem ſo clear as they are at preſent; and even now, there is great diverſity of opinions reſpecting bleeding in many particulars.

PHLEBOTOMUS. A lancet, or a fleam for bleeding with.

PHLEGMA. Phlegm. Galen ſays, every humour that is cold comes under this denomination. In Hippocrates this word often ſignifies an inflammation.

In chemiſtry the word *phlegm* ſignifies the moſt watery part obtained from bodies by diſtillation or otherwiſe.

PHLEGMASIA. An inflammation.

PHLEGMATIA. A beginning anaſarca.

PHLEGMATITIA. The ſame as anaſarca.

PHLEGMATORRHAGIA. The name of a diſorder, in which a flux of thin phlegm was diſcharged from the noſtrils. See Salmuthus, obſ. 37.

PHLEGMONE, from φλεγω, *to burn*. A phlegmon or inflammation. See Inflammatio.

PHLEGMONE ARTICULI. See Arthropuosis.

PHLEPS. A vein. But among the ancients, it was both an artery, and a *vein*.

PHLOGISTICI. Inflammations, and fevers, with a hard pulſe and topical pain.

PHLOGOSIS. An inflammation, or an heat in any part without tumour; a flushing. See Inflammatio.

PHLOMIS. Yellow ſage.

PHLYCTÆNÆ, from φλυζω, *to be hot*, or *to boil*. Linnæus and Vogel uſe this term, as ſynonymous with hydatis; generally what is underſtood by it, are little watery puſtules, on any part of the body. Small eruptions of the ſkin, ariſing from an hot acrid and humour. Alſo puſtules which appear on the tunica cornea of the eye, of which there are two ſorts, viz. the unguis or puſtules, properly ſo called, and *phlyctænæ*. The puſtules are deep, and are filled with purulent matter; when they ariſe in the conjunctiva, they are reddiſh at the firſt, and afterwards white; but when on the tranſparent cornea, they are duſky at the firſt, and, in time, turn white. The *phlyctænæ* are ſmall veſicles, full of a tranſparent humour; they are ſeated on the cornea, and ſometimes on the conjunctiva; their ſeat is uſually under the external coat of the cornea, and hath been cured by taking off ſome of the cornea, and ſo removing the ſtagnating matter. A preceding inflammation is the cauſe of both puſtules and *phlyctænæ*. The only danger is, leſt they become ill-

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conditioned ulcers. Whether they are puſtules or phlyctænæ, dreſs them three or four times a-day with ſix or eight grains of ſac. ſat. in aq. roſ. ℥ iii. and when they give way, waſh them with equal parts of brandy and water; but if they neither diſperſe nor break ſpeedily, open with a lancet, and, when opened, dreſs with the aq. ſapharina.

PHLYXACION, or PHLYZACION. A puſtule, or veſication on the ſkin, excited by fire or heat. Sometimes it is the ſame as phlyctænæ.

PHŒNICIUS MORBUS. The elephantiaſis.

PHOS. Light. Alſo the black circle about the pupil of the eye.

PHOSPHORUS, from φως, *light*, and φερω, *to bring*. It is the name of a collyrium in Galen. It is alſo the name of ſome chemical preparations which ſhine in the dark. The *phoſphorus* igneus differs from other naturally ſhining bodies in this, that it is nothing but a kind of concealed fire, which diſcovers itſelf by light and ſmoak, but if it is rubbed, it breaks out into a flame. This diſcovery appeared about the year 1677; but was preceded by Baldwin's *phoſphorus*, which is an artificial Bolognian ſtone. After this diſcovery of Baldwin's, one Brand, a chemiſt in Hamburgh, made a *phoſphorus* of urine, which was firſt called *phoſphorus* igneus, then pyropus, then *phoſphorus*. The matter which fixes and increaſes the *phoſphorus* is alum, which of itſelf is prepared of urine, and yields the ſame acid which *phoſphorus* yields on burning; for upon analyſis, *phoſphorus* appears to be a compoſition of ſtrong acid, and an inflammable matter, exactly in the manner of common brimſtone, and may properly be called animal ſulphur. If *phoſphorus* is burnt under a bell, a ſp. ſulph. per camp. is produced. See Dict. of Chem. Neumann's Chem. Works.

PHOSPHORUS BONONIENSIS, i. e. Bononienſis lapis.

PHOSPHORUS KERCHERI, i. e. Bononienſis lapis.

PHOSPHORUS LIQUIDA. Liquid phoſphorus. Powder one grain of the *phoſphorus* of urine, and ten grains of camphor; then mix them well together by trituration. Theſe diſſolved in the ol. caryoph. make a liquid *phoſphorus*, with which any part may be rubbed without danger of inflammation.

PHOXOS. The ſugar loaf ſhaped head.

PHRAGMOS, from φραττω, *to incloſe as with an hedge*. An anatomical term for the double ſeries of teeth.

PHRASIUM VIRIDE, i. e. Flos æris.

PHRENES. A name by which Hippocrates, and the ancients, called the diaphragma.

PHRENESIS, or Phrenetiaſis, i. e. Phrenitis.

PHRENICÆ ARTERIÆ, i. e. Diaphragmaticæ arteriæ.

PHRENICÆ VENÆ, i. e. Diaphragmaticæ venæ.

PHRENISMUS, i. e. Phrenitis.

PHRENITICI NERVI. The nerves which run in the diaphragm.

PHRENITIS, from φρην, *the mind*. Phrenetic. The antients imagined that patients became phrenetic in conſequence of an inflammation of the diaphragm, and for this reaſon called the diaphragm by the name of *phrenes*, as though it were aſſiſtant to the intelligent parts.

PHRENITIS, from φρην, *the mind*. A phrenſy, or an inflammation in the brain, or its membrane, with a continual fierce delirium, and an acute coutinual fever. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order phlegmaſiæ.

It is idiopathic, as when the head is primarily affected; and ſymptomatic, as when the morbid affection is tranſlated to the head from ſome other part; thus, in a pleuriſy, the pain is ſometimes removed from the ſide to the head, whence the phrenſy that generally proves mortal. The idiopathic and ſymptomatic alſo differ thus; the former is inſeparably accompanied with an acute fever, the latter is followed by the fever.

The idiopathic rarely happens in temperate climes; the ſymptomatic is ſometimes met with, and moſt frequently appears about the criſis of other fevers, is attended with a rigor, a tremor of the joints, tenſion of the precordia, coldneſs of the extremities, thin urine, which is diſcharged either in too ſparing or too large a quantity; but becauſe of the weakneſs previouſly induced by the preceding diſeaſe, it proves almoſt always mortal.

Thoſe in the vigour of life, the paſſionate, the ſtudious, and thoſe with a weak nervous ſyſtem, are ſubject to this diſorder.

The cauſes are, a too great afflux of blood, from an increaſed action of the veſſels in the ſyſtem: the more remote cauſes are, exceſſive drinking, anger, an expoſure of the head to the ſun, an inflammatory diatheſis happening at the beginning of a fever, long watching, attention of the mind, any thing that forces the blood up into the head, a ſuppreſſion of natural periodical evacuations, &c.

According to Alex. Trallian, the ſigns of an approaching *phrenitis* are as follow: "Intenſe continual watchings, or if the patient ſleeps, his ſleep is interrupted and troubled, he ſtarts, and is affected with terrible dreams; he ſoon forgets what is ſaid to him; if at any time he returns an anſwer to a queſtion, he appears more fierce and angry than he ſeemed to be juſt before; the pulſe is ſmall and hard, and a pain is conſtantly felt in the occiput; as the diſorder increaſes, the eyes become more fixed and red, tears at the ſame time flowing from both of them." The ſigns of a preſent *phrenitis* are, according to Cœlius Aurelianus: An acute fever; a pulſe hardly perceptible on the ſurface of the body, or if it is, it is low and tenſe; the patient's face is inflated or full; blood drops from his noſtrils; continual watching, or diſturbed ſleep attend; he is ſeized with a kind of turbulent madneſs, a preternatural ſolicitude of mind, and a privation of reaſon; he frequently changes his poſture in bed, and his head is in a continual commotion; he is ſometimes chearful without any apparent cauſe; his eyes are red; he weeps gently, toſſes his arms about him, but hath no pain in his head; his joints are cold, but without any tremor; his urine is copious, yellow, aqueous, thin, and diſcharged by little and little. Some *phrenitic* patients are afflicted with a noiſe in their heads, a ringing in their ears, an inceſſant head-ach; their looks are fixed and ſtern, and their eyes frequently wink." Aretæus ſays, that theſe patients are rarely thirſty, and this is true, for though the tongue is black, drink is refuſed; an extraordinary throbbing is obſervable in the arteries of the temples and neck in many patients; and from ſullen ſilence, a ſudden outrage ariſes; except the inflammation ſoon abates, it proves fatal. Sometimes the inflammation ends in ſuppuration, eſpecially if the ſubſtance of the brain is affected; in this caſe, the ſymptoms abate, a ſtupor only being left; but in time, if the pus is not abſorbed, the whole brain is deſtroyed. The delirium always goes off ſlowly.

The *phrenitis* ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from a mania, and from the deliriums attendant on other acute fevers; alſo from that inconſtancy and fooliſhneſs obſervable after ſome fevers, and that is owing to weakneſs.

Green vomiting, frequent ſpitting, ſhiverings, crude aqueous pale urine, convulſions, and no thirſt, are bad ſigns. When external violence is the cauſe, the diſeaſe is uſually fatal. A conſtant trembling, ſtarting of the tendons, ſuppreſſion of urine, total want of ſleep, conſtant ſpitting, a grinding of the teeth when the inflammation is from the lungs or inteſtines, are generally fatal. The more favourable ſymptoms are, hæmorrhages, the piles coming on, a diarrhœa, a pain in the breaſt, or lower parts, a ſtrong cough, free perſpiration, a plentiful diſcharge of urine which drops a copious ſediment.

The indications of cure are, to remove the inflammation in the meninges; in order to which, it ſhould be known whether the antecedent cauſe is the repulſion of acrid matter from the ſkin, &c. or obſtructed blood, as in ſuppreſſion of the menſes, &c. or whatever other cauſe may have produced it.

An agreeable friend may be admitted, but, in general, every thing ſhould be guarded againſt by which the imagination can be affected; the room ſhould be kept dark as is convenient. The patient ſhould be as little contradicted as poſſible, and ſhould even be complied with, though in a ſmall degree to his hurt.

This inflammation only admits of one ſalutary termination, and that is by reſolution; therefore the moſt powerful means for that end are needful, and that without delay. Bleed as freely as the ſtrength will admit of, and repeat the

operation as it may appear needful; bleeding from a large orifice, and ſupporting the patient in a ſtanding poſture, that he may ſooner faint with the loſs of blood, will have their advantages. If the jugular vein can be opened, it is uſually preferred, and if obſtructed menſes or lochia were the cauſe, bleed in the foot, after having taken away a portion of blood as above directed.

As ſoon as the patient is bled, give him a briſk but cooling purge. An infuſion of tamarinds with the ſal Glaub. or manna with nitre, or cream of tartar; or if it can be had, the ol. ricini. Repeat the purging medicine, as well as the bleeding, at proper intervals, until the inflammation abates in its violence at leaſt.

In the intervals of purging, give the vin. antim. vel pulv. antim. every two hours, in ſuch doſes as the ſtomach will retain.

Nitre, crude ſal ammoniac, or Clutton's febrifuge ſpirit, may be freely mixed in all that the patient drinks.

Cooling laxative clyſters ſhould alſo be frequently injected, at leaſt let one be adminiſtered every night and morning.

The head may be ſhaved, and cloths dipped in vinegar and water may be laid thereon, as oft as they dry or grow warm.

When thus the ſtrength is ſomewhat reduced, let a large bliſter be applied to the ſhaved head. Sinapiſms may be applied to the feet before bliſters are admitted of.

When there is hope of a mild reſolution, opiates may be admitted to abate the watchfulneſs, and then omit the clyſters; indeed, if the patient is very outrageous, opiates muſt not be forborn.

Some uſe tepid water for putting the legs into twice a day, and others prefer a bath for the whole body. If a continual *phrenitis* comes on in conſequence of obſtructed menſes, piles, or lochia and ſpaſms are thereby produced, they are the beſt alleviated by baths.

If the hæmorrhoids ſwell, apply leeches to them

When the diſorder is ſymptomatic, if the pulſe will bear it, a vein may be opened; but if the patient is too low, leeches may be applied to the temples, bliſters to the head and arms, and ſinapiſms to the feet. Camphor and nitre well mixed by trituration, or diſſolved together in an emulſion, ſhould be often given; a dram of camphor, with from ſix to ten of nitre, may be the proportion.

The *phrenitis* goes off by reſolution, or ſuppuration. Sometimes a diarrhœa, or in women an exceſſive flow of the menſes, carries off the diſorder from the brain. By bad management it ſometimes ends in ſtupidity, or madneſs, which continues during life.

See Alex. Trallian, Cœlius Aurelianus, Ætius, Willis's Pathol. Cerebri, cap. x. Hoffmann, Boerhaave, Baglivi, Fordyce's Elements, part ii.

PHRENITIS APYRETA, i. e. Mania.

PHRENITIS. Vogelii, i. e. Synochus.

PHRENITIS INANITORUM, i. e. Mania corporea.

PHRICASMUS. Shivering.

PHRICODES. A ſort of fevers mentioned by the ancients, in which the patients trembled at the leaſt breath of air. According to ſome it is a kind of ſemitertian fever.

PHRYCTE. In Latin, *fricta*, ſimply, without its proper ſubſtantive, is reſina colophonia. Black reſin, ſo called in diſtinction from the liquid ſort, called hygra.

PHRYGIUS LAPIS. The Phrygian ſtone. It is ſo called becauſe the dyers in Phrygia uſed it much. It is produced in Cappadocia; the beſt is pale and ponderous. When calcined, it becomes reddiſh. Its uſes are the ſame as thoſe of the lapis calam.

PHTHARTICOS, from φθείρω, *to corrupt*. Deleterious, deadly.

PHTHEIRIASIS. See PHTHIRIASIS.

PHTHEIROCTONON. A name for the ſtaveſacre, ſo called from φθεὶρ, *a louſe*, and κτείνω, *to kill*, becauſe it deſtroys lice.

PHTHIRIASIS. The louſy evil. from φθεὶρ, *a louſe*. It is a louſy diſtemper, children are frequently its ſubjects, and adults are ſometimes troubled with it. The increaſe of *lice*, when in a warm moiſt ſituation, is very great, but a cold and dry one ſoon deſtroys them. On the human body four kinds of *lice* are diſtinguiſhed: 1. The pediculi, ſo called becauſe they are more troubleſome with their feet than by their bite. Theſe are in the heads of children, eſpecially if ſore or ſcabby: and often in thoſe of adults, if they are ſlothful and naſty. 2. Crab *lice*. See MORPIONES. 3. Body *lice*; theſe infeſt the body, and breed in the cloaths of the naſty and ſlothful. 4. A ſort which breed under the cuticle, and are found in the hands and feet; they are of a round form, and ſo minute as often to eſcape the ſight; by creeping under the ſcarf-ſkin they cauſe an intolerable itching; and when the ſkin burſts where they lodge, cluſters of them are found there; ſome authors call them acari, cyrones, and pedecelli.

A good diet and cleanlineſs conduce much to the deſtruction of *lice*. When they are in the head, comb it every day, and, after each combing, waſh it with the following: ℞ Staph. agr. vel coc. Ind. contuſ. ʒ i. aq. font. ℔ iſs. & colaturæ adde cinner clavel ʒ ſs. or, inſtead of this decoction, ſprinkle the pulv. ſem. ſtaph. agr. vel cocul. Ind. among the hairs every night, and confine it with a tight cap.

Codrochius, in his Treatiſe of Lice, ſays, that the powdered coc. Ind. exceeds all other means, and that it may be mixed in the pulp of apple, or in lard, and applied every night to the hair. Some writers aſſert, that if the pul. cort. rad. faſſafr. is ſprinkled on the head, and confined with a handkerchief, it deſtroys the *lice* in one night.

The body *lice* are deſtroyed by any bitter, ſour, ſalt, or mercurial medicine, if applied to the ſkin. See Turner's Diſeaſes of the Skin.

The black ſoap, and the flowers called cardamine, or lady's ſmock, are ſaid to be ſpecifics in all caſes of *lice* on the human body. See Sennertus, Codrochius, Mercurialis, and Turner, in his Diſeaſes of the Skin.

PHTHISIS, from φθίω, *to grow lean*. A conſumption. The Greek word, *phthiſis*, ſignifies corruption; but it is uſed only to expreſs that kind which cauſes a *conſumption* of the whole body; and generally only that *conſumption* of the body which hath for its cauſe an abſorption of purulent matter from the lungs; hence is diſtinguiſhed by the term, *phthiſis* pulmonalis.

This diſorder is chronical, yet inflammatory; and the only chronical diſeaſe that is ſo. Dr. Cullen does not rank the *phthiſis* as an original diſeaſe, but as a mode of ſome other diſeaſe being terminated; but he diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies, or at leaſt two ſtates. 1. *Phthiſis* incipiens. 2. *Phthiſis* confirmata; both theſe vary according to their remote cauſes, and, according to De Haen, the ſecond varies according to the ſource of the purulent diſcharge. But generally, if not always, the purulence is from the lungs only.

Conſumptions are reckoned phthiſical, when obſtructions of any kind are the cauſes; and atrophical, when produced by an exceſs in any kind of the natural ſecretions, or excretions; and when an ulcer in the lungs gives riſe to it, it is called the *conſumption* of the lungs. Dr. Reid obſerves, that *conſumptions* ariſing from various cauſes, have been differently denominated, ſymptomatic, ſcrophulous, ſcorbutic, aſthmatic, &c. But the *phthiſis* pulmonalis he defines to be, "an expectoration of purulent matter from the lungs, by means of frequent coughing, attended with a fever, having morning ſweats, and remiſſions in the forenoon, occaſioning a waſting of the fleſh and ſtrength.

The ſeat of the true *phthiſis* or *conſumption* is in the lungs; not in the blood veſſels there, but the air veſſels. Sometimes one lobe is affected, and ſometimes both.

Thoſe are moſt ſubject to a *conſumption* to whom any of the remote cauſes thereof belong.

The remote cauſes are, an hereditary diſpoſition, weak and flaccid lungs, laxity of the fibres, an ill conformation of the breaſt or its contained parts, a narrow depreſſed cheſt, with prominent ſcapulæ, protuberant ribs, long necks, crookedneſs, a too free uſe of ſpirituous liquors, obſtructed perſpiration and reſpiration, or the obſtruction of any natural ſecretion, cold winds, a vapid putrid air, a plethora, a defect of blood, exanthematous, &c. diſorders, grief, intenſe ſtudy, a ſedentary life, ſmall and tender blood-veſſels, &c.

The mediate cauſes are, congeſtions of humours to parts of the lungs already too weak to return by the veins what they received by the arteries; the humours there ſtagnating loſe their former quality, and become the beginning of tubercles.

It appears in perſons of every age: but moſt commonly from about the age of fifteen, up to that of thirty-five, the

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fervor of the blood is the greateſt, and then an ill formation of the body, or of the breaſt in particular, and an acrimony in the juices, concurring with the mediate cauſes, the immediate cauſe, which is an ulcer in the lungs, hath every circumſtance favouring its appearance and progreſs. The ulcer is formed by the rupture of the ſuppurated cells in the lobes of the lungs, and the acrimony of the matter lodged there.

Cœlius Aurelianus in lib. ii. cap. 14. deſcribes a *conſumption* as follows: "A *phthiſis* is frequently produced by a previous ſpitting of blood, and ſometimes by a gentle, but long continued catarrh, or cough, by which the lungs are at firſt gently lacerated, and then ulcerated. It is accompanied by a latent fever, which begins in the evening, and is alleviated in the morning, and attended with a violent cough at thoſe times. At firſt a ſmall, but afterwards a large quantity of ſanious ſpit, is expectorated. Thoſe who fall into a *phthiſis*, in conſequence of an hæmorrhage, diſcharge, at firſt, a bloody ſpit, which becomes feculent, and then livid or green, and laſt of all white, and purulent, ſometimes ſalt, and at others ſweet; the voice is hoarſe and ſhrill, the breathing difficult, the cheeks red, and the reſt of the body of a cineritious colour. It is accompanied with a loathing of food, and a preternatural thirſt. Some patients have a ſenſe of a wound in their lungs, and even expectorate fibres of them. The pulſe is weak, hard, and formicular. A *phthiſis* is alſo accompanied with an inflammation of the feet. As the diſorder increaſes, a flux is brought on; and the phlegm diſcharged, when thrown upon a live coal, is of a fetid and diſagreeable ſmell. Dr. Reid deſcribes this diſeaſe as follows: the firſt ſtage of this diſeaſe begins with a cough, which is more or leſs troubleſome at night, uſually dry, cauſing pain and ſtitches in the breaſt, ſides, and head; ſlight rigors, and ſome degree of feveriſh heat, with pain in the back, joints, and limbs, the uſual effects of taking cold. Theſe ſymptoms increaſe; the cough becomes more violent, hard, dry, and inceſſant; reſtleſs at night; the pains in the thorax more lancinating and fixed; the difficulty and quickneſs of breathing conſiderable; expectoration little and frothy; the pulſe quick, hard, and ſometimes like a ſmall cord, at others full and laborious; the tongue white, and the back part tinged with yellow; the eyes dull; the countenance pale and ſickly. Some difficulty attends the fixing on ſymptoms that may be called ſigns of the firſt ſtage of a *conſumption*; the above ſymptoms, if not ſpeedily removed, may be ſaid to tend to, and too frequently end in it; and as the hard, dry cough, and dyſpnœa, indicate the exiſtence of tubercles, however ſmall, it may be called the inflammatory or firſt period. In a ſhort time the fever becomes more intenſe, with ſlight remiſſions in the morning; when a ſweat breaks out upon the breaſt and upper parts of the body, which ſenſibly relieves every ſymptom. The cough continues, and is aggravated in a recumbent poſture, keeping the patient from ſleep till towards morning. The expectoration increaſes in quantity, is frothy, ſometimes ſtreaked with blood. During the fever, the cheeks have a circumſcribed ſpot of pure florid red; the lips and tubercles in the canthus of the eyes are alſo brighter than when in health. The fever is augmented after eating, particularly ſolids, with flushing in the face, and burning heat in the palms of the hands and ſoles of the feet. As the diſeaſe advances, the fever comes on about the middle of the day, increaſes until the evening, and is violent moſt part of the night, until the ſweat breaks out, and the patient gets ſome reſt. In the morning they find themſelves relieved; but get up languid, pale, and unrefreſhed by their ſleep. Though the pulſe is always quicker than natural, yet there is a remiſſion of the fever for ſome hours in the forenoon. The expectoration becomes more copious, mixed with pus in ſmall globular maſſes; ſometimes diſagreeable to the taſte; yellow, greeniſh, and as the diſeaſe advances, of an aſh colour. The cough becomes leſs hard and looſe; the pains in the cheſt and head abate. At this period, when the hectic fever hath regular remiſſions, when the ſweats come on every morning, and when the patient ſpits up matter freely, the diſeaſe may be ſaid to be confirmed. The countenance now gives evident ſigns of waſting, the eyes are hollow and languid, the cheeks prominent, the noſe ſharp; the patient's fleſh wears away, and the ſtrength fails; the cough is more diſtreſſing in the firſt part of the night; the breathing ſhort, quick, and offenſive; their ſleep leſs, and diſturbed; morning ſweats more profuſe and melting; the interval from fever leſs diſtinct. The ſpitting is more loaded with matter, brought up more eaſily, and in greater quantity, ſometimes a pint in twenty-four hours: this is the ſecond period of the diſeaſe; in which there remains ſome degree of ſtrength, and the ſtomach is capable of digeſting food. From the beginning, the body is diſpoſed to be coſtive, particularly after the morning ſweats takes place. The menſes uſually ceaſe about this time. The third and laſt ſtage commences by the appearance of the looſeneſs. From being coſtive, there have frequent motions in a day, which ſoon become a confirmed diarrhœa; every thing taken into the ſtomach, quickly running off by the bowels. The fever, heat, and cough abate of their violence, and the morning ſweats become leſs profuſe. The diarrhœa increaſes; the ſtrength totally fails; frequent fainting comes on; ſometimes a ſlight delirium ſucceeds; the lower extremities ſwell; and, at laſt, death cloſes the ſcene. When the ſymptoms hurry the patient off quickly, the diſorder is commonly called a galloping *conſumption*. It ſhould not be unnoticed, that the above ſymptoms will be rarely met with exactly in the order above related.

The hectic fever attending the pulmonary *conſumption*, Dr. Reid thinks is different from that produced by ſuppurations, in or about any part of the body. See HECTICA.

The pulmonary *conſumption*, or true *phthiſis*, ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from all thoſe other diſorders which are denominated *conſumptions*, but in which the lungs are not remarkably affected; ſuch as the *conſumption* from a ſimple gonorrhœa, the fluor albus, the ſcurvy, ſcirrhous indurations in the meſentery, an abſceſs or ulcer in the meſentery, a chronical cough, &c.

It is remarkable that conſumptive patients are often chearful to the laſt, in the intervals of the fever, and flatter themſelves with the hopes of recovery. When the nerves are affected, as in the hypochondraic diſorder, there is always a ſinking redneſs; but, in conſumptions, the muſcular fleſhy parts decay, and ſuffer firſt; and that decay coming on gradually, ſcarce gives the ſoul notice of it, and thence the patient fancies himſelf in no great danger.

The matter expectorated engages the attention in this diſorder, particularly ſince Sydenham has ſaid, that if in a morning the patient ſpits out the phlegm into water, it will ſink if the lungs are ulcerated, but, if not, it will ſwim. But it may be obſerved, that if a ſmall quantity of mucus is mixed with the matter that is expectorated, it will always ſwim, let the lungs be in whatever ſtate they may. The moſt remarkable ſorts of ſpit are the bluiſh, the ruſt coloured, the blackiſh, and the cineritious; when any of the three firſt are thrown up, there is a taint in ſome of the viſcera, and the laſt indicates death's approach; it is the leaſt adheſive, and yet the heavieſt of any that ſuch patients excrete. The bluiſh ſpit is never thin, and is increaſed by things that cool the breaſt, as apples, &c. but leſſened by mercurials and ſudorifics.

The prognoſtics are rarely favourable, for it moſtly happens that the diſorder is too far advanced before the patient is ſo incommoded by it as to apply for relief; and often the firſt manifeſtation of the lungs being affected, uſhers in death. Aretæus ſays, that when pthiſical patients begin to grow better, the cough is leſs frequent, a larger quantity of ſanious and more moiſt ſpit is expectorated, much aqueous matter is evacuated by ſtool, the urine is copiouſly evacuated, though, as yet, it hath no ſediment, the voice becomes more clear and ſonorous, the ſleeps are ſufficiently long, the præcordia is much relieved, and the pain remitting, is ſometimes transferred to the ſcapulæ, the difficulty of breathing is gentle and leſs frequent, but accompanied with an aſperity of the voice, and when theſe things happen the patient recovers. Beſides the obſcurity of the diagnoſtics in ſome, and the late application of others, it is obſerved by Kirkringius, Willis, &c. that ſome have been thought to labour under a *conſumption* during thirty or forty years, without any evidence of the diſorder having any influence on their lives; but then the ſtate of the caſe hath not been rightly underſtood. Willis ſays that it ſometimes happens, that a cavity or two formed in the lungs, with callous ſides, ſo that matter collected in them is not conveyed to the maſs

of

of blood, but is every day totally expectorated, though its quantity is very large: perſons in this ſituation, have only, as it were, a fontanel in their lungs, and, although they ſhould every morning expectorate a large quantity of thick or yellow, and even, as it were, purulent ſpit, and a ſmall quantity of the ſame throughout the day, yet in other reſpects they enjoy ſufficient health, breathe eaſy, eat and ſleep well, have a due quantity of fleſh, or, at leaſt, have a good habit of body, and, at length, this diſcharge from the lungs abating, the patient is cured. So that on the whole, the favourable prognoſtics may only be conſidered as intimations that death is not ſo immediately to be expected, as when the more threatening ſymptoms attend. While the appetite is good, and the ſleep refreſhing, the diſorder does not appear to have made any dangerous progreſs; however in other inſtances this diſorder may be circumſtanced. It does not appear that a *conſumption* of the lungs is in its own nature ſo fatal as it uſually proves to be: wounds in the lungs are healed as ſoon as thoſe of any other of the viſcera; abſceſſes are formed in the lungs, which ſoon diſappear without inconvenience; and inſtances have occurred of patients recovering from all the ſtages of the pulmonary *conſumption*. To neglect, or miſmanagement, or both, for the moſt part, the uſual fatality is to be attributed. Dr. Geo. Fordyce obſerves, that there are two caſes in which an ulcer of the lungs is ſometimes cured: 1. From an abſceſs in a peripneumony. 2. From a wound in the lungs. But from any other cauſe he fears that it will ever prove fatal; for the ulcer is in the lungs, which are in conſtant motion, and have a quantity of air conſtantly taken into them, which prevents the ulcer from healing.

The origin of the genuine *phthiſis* pulmonalis may generally be traced from hæmoptyſis; from what is called taking cold; and ſometimes from external injuries. When the diſeaſe hath made a certain progreſs, the ſymptoms may have differed in their incipient ſtate. The general intentions of cure are, 1. To obviate the occaſional cauſes of fever. 2. To evacuate the purulent matter from the lungs. 3. To palliate the moſt urgent ſymptoms. 4. To regulate the air, exerciſe, diet, and paſſions of the mind.

The diet ſhould be light, nouriſhing, and aceſcent; a little may be often taken, but full meals ſhould never be allowed.

When ulcers are formed, and pus diſcharged, mild balſamics conveyed into the lungs with the breath, the bark taken freely into the ſtomach, a good air and proper exerciſe, are adapted for healing the ulcers. The bark, demulcent, and aceſcent diet and medicines, are uſeful to prevent putreſcency. The columbo root both mends the appetite, and blunts the acrimony of the juices; and may be uſed inſtead of the bark, when it does not agree with the patient: and as to particular ſymptoms, many of them are relieved as follows.

Dr. Fothergill obſerves, that the moſt benefit is obtained from medicine in the very beginning of the diſorder; a cough is firſt excited by acrid ſerum, or by an inflammation; the acrid ſerum, if not ſoon diverted, will cauſe an inflammation; and if this inflammation terminates any way than by a timely reſolution, though the immediate conſequences are ſeemingly ſmall, they prove inſurmountable, and proceed to a fatal iſſue. Tho' the inflammation ends in ſmall tubercles, which with much caution may not diſturb for many years, yet ſmall irregularities, and that want of care which is obſerved in moſt until too late, ſubject them to the worſt effects.

If inflammation and heat are conſiderable, bleeding is uſeful in the beginning, and may prove a principal means of cure; but, in the future ſtages, it only palliates for the preſent, and as it reduces the patient's ſtrength, the diſorder ſoon overcomes him.

Dr. Reid obſerves, that the recent effects of a cold are eaſily removed by bleeding, diluting drinks, abſtinences, and the uſual antiphlogiſtic plan. That when from a bad habit of body, or from neglect, the cough remains obſtinate and dry; with pain in the breaſt; ſtitches in different parts of the thorax, increaſed upon coughing, and attended with a conſiderable degree of heat and fever; bleeding ſhould be occaſionally repeated, in moderate quantities, according as the pulſe, &c. will permit, and until theſe ſymptoms abate. The bowels ſhould be kept lax by means of gentle ſaline purgatives; and if the cough prevents ſleeping, ſuitable doſes of the elix. pareg. may be given in the evening, and repeated in the night if required. But the remedy which he chiefly prefers in every kind of cough, and in every period of the pulmonary *conſumption*, is ſuch a doſe of pulv. ipecac. as will excite vomiting once or twice; this he repeats morning and evening, as the ſtrength of the patient and violence of the complaint may indicate. The Doctor obſerves, that the lungs are peculiarly affected by the ſtomach and its contents, and if the lungs are diſeaſed they will be the more influenced thereby; further, that if any of the hypochondriac viſcera are in a diſeaſed ſtate, the lungs, if inflamed, will be affected by them. It is well known, indeed, that when the lungs are ſound, acrid matter in the ſtomach and bowels hath cauſed and kept up an obſtinate cough. Hence the advantage of thoſe frequent but gentle emetics. By giving emetics as above recommended, not only the contents of the ſtomach are evacuated, accumulation of viſcid phlegm and acrid bilious matter prevented; but the lungs being compreſſed during the action of vomiting, whatever mucus and purulent matter are in the ramifications of the aſpera arteria, and air veſſicles, in tubercles or vomicæ, will be forced out and diſcharged; by which means an infinity of laborious coughing is prevented; the patient feels greatly relieved, and the tender lungs remain at reſt, till a freſh accumulation of matter is formed, which requires ſome time. By the univerſal concuſſion and agitation cauſed by vomiting, obſtructions in the liver, biliary veſſels, and in other hypochondriac viſcera, are attenuated and removed: and in all complaints ariſing from theſe cauſes, it is the moſt powerful and certain alterative that can be found in the whole materia medica. Puking once or twice does not fatigue even very enfeebled patients. Through every ſtage of the diſeaſe this method of puking with the ipecac. morning and evening, or every morning at leaſt, may be continued with great advantage. The ſtrength of the patient, and the urgency of the ſymptoms, will determine the frequency of the doſe. In the morning it ſhould be taken faſting, and if the patient is weak, it ſhould be taken in bed, but he muſt not ſleep after it, as that ſometimes prevents its action on the ſtomach. If it is required in the evening, its operation muſt be over before bed-time. Though emetics are ſo peculiarly inſiſted on, there are inſtances in which attention is required before they are adminiſtered, and indeed in which it will be proper to forbid their uſe; e. gr. ſome caſes of pregnancy in which abortion may be endangered; in ſchirrous affections of the ſtomach, they cannot be allowed of, with others that will occur to the attention of the judicious.

Vapours from demulcent balſamic medicines received into the lungs may be of uſe to moderate the cough, diſpoſe the ulcers for healing, and to aſſiſt expectoration; but the taking of balſamics into the ſtomach, rather counteracts than expedites the uſual intentions of preſcribing them. In applying vapours to the lungs by inſpiration, the ingredients ſhould be adapted to the ſtate of the diſeaſe, and it ſhould be obſerved whether the trachea or its branches are inflamed; whether or no there is an increaſed ſecretion of acrid mucus from the lungs; or whether or not they are ulcerated; in all theſe ſtates, whatever is conveyed into the lungs, muſt be aſſiſted by proper perſpiratives. Antiſeptics, or antiſpaſmodic, attenuant, and balſamic medicines, may all be conveyed by means of vapours into the lungs, and ſo applied immediately to the ſeat of the diſeaſe, and thus principally the attempts to cure ſhould be made. But if the cough is ſo troubleſome as to prevent ſleep, proper opiates will be neceſſary. See below. It is eſſentially requiſite to keep the lungs quiet, for the agitation of coughing fatigues the patient, increaſes the inflammation, and haſtens the ſuppuration of the tubercles. Repeated emetics greatly conduce to prevent theſe; but the additional aſſiſtance of anodynes are alſo ſometimes neceſſary. When the cough is prevented, or even conſiderably alleviated, the inflammation will readily diſperſe; the immediate cauſe of its continuance being removed.

Riding is indiſcriminately directed by Sydenham in all conſumptive caſes; and that the beſt phyſician in *conſumptions*

ſumptions is a horſe, and the beſt apothecary is an aſs, become a common-place witticiſm; but, if a patient is enfeebled, and rides in cold wet weather, he will be rather injured by it: if, in other more favourable ſeaſons, he is fatigued after riding, his breathing is thereby rendered more frequent and difficult, his ſkin parched and dry, the palms of his hands hot, his cheeks flushed, his tongue dry, and if he perceives a greater inclination to drink than to eat, a more gentle exerciſe muſt be uſed, riding on horſe-back muſt no longer be continued. In all caſes riding ſhould be over before dinner. Old people ſhould take longer journeys than young ones. In nervous *conſumptions* it is always uſeful. But in the true *phthiſis*, if in the beginning, eſpecially if the patient is plethoric, it endangers an hæmoptoe; and when there is a vomica, the briſk motion of a horſe may occaſion an inflammation. Again, *conſumptive* patients ſhould ride gently, only in a morning, and no longer than whilſt the pulſe continues calm. If after this exerciſe the patient's ſpirits are more gay, his appetite ſomewhat excited, his breathing is eaſy, his ſkin cool and ſoft, he may continue to ride whenever the weather will permit.

The bark is an important medicine after an ulcer is formed in the lungs, and an infuſion of it in cold water is an agreeable method of adminiſtering it. If it affects the breathing, three drams of the balſam of Tolu may be diſſolved with the mucilage of gum arabic, and added to each pint of the infuſion. The elixir of vitriol may be added to each doſe. Thus the hectic heats, night ſweats, and every ſymptom that can be attributed to the abſorption of purulent matter, are checked and kept moderate. It may here be remarked that, according to the experiences of different phyſicians, ſucceſs hath been various. Some extol the bark, the elix. vitrioli, &c. whilſt others declare them uſeleſs. It is well known to all, that diſeaſes of the ſame denomination are variouſly circumſtanced in different patients, and hence the ſeeming contradiction in the experiences related. If in one inſtance or more, the hectic fever attending, may be produced, as ſuppoſed by Dr. Reid, without the preſence of pus as an agent, in other inſtances the abſorption thereof may be an attendant; beſides, the various conſtitutions conſidered as natural, the different accidental diſorders in the habit, producing or accompanying the *phthiſis* pulmonalis, may ſufficiently reconcile the ſeeming different practices in this complaint, and render each an object not unworthy our attention. In many inſtances the merc. dulc. hath been the principal ſource of relief, according to the relations on this ſubject by Dr. Sims, who ſuſpecting a latent venereal cauſe, very happily proceeded on a mercurial plan, accompanied with ſuch other aids as his judgment in this, and ſagacity in that caſe, enabled him to diſcern as the needful.

Bliſters, when there is a fixed pain in the breaſts or ſides, increaſed by coughing that does not yield readily to bleeding, and the antiphlogiſtic medicines uſually given; good effects are often produced from ſmall bliſters applied upon the part, and repeated as ſoon as the ſkin is healed. This method is better than applying bliſtering ointment to continue the running, which is rarely ſufficiently effectual. But in ſome inſtances neither nitre, the bark, nor bliſters, can be complied with by the patient; in which caſes, ſuch other means as the ſagacity of the attending phyſician ſuggeſts, muſt be ſubſtituted.

Mercurials are extolled for their efficacy in diſſolving the tubercles which are formed as ſoon as the inflammation terminates that laid the foundation of the diſeaſe. The merc. alkalizat. given in ſmall doſes as an alterative, is preferred by ſome to all other preparations of this kind.

Milk hath been the diet propoſed in every age, at leaſt ever ſince Hippocrates's time. Women's milk, eſpecially if drawn from the breaſt by the patient, is to be preferred to all other; in want of it, aſſes milk is preferred, becauſe it abounds with ſweet ſerum, and poſſeſſes but little of the caſeous part with which more nouriſhing milks abound; next to the milk of aſſes, that of goats may be uſed; and if cows milk is drank, let it be mixed with an equal quantity of barley water. Milk affords a mild nouriſhment, and blunts the acrimony of the juices. Whey is alſo of ſingular advantage, and particular intentions might be carried on, by feeding the aſs, goat or cow, with ſuch vegetables as moſt conduce to effect the deſign of the preſcriber; or the milk may be mixed with infuſions of thoſe herbs.

Columbo root. It may be ſubſtituted for the bark, if it purges or otherwiſe offends.

Iſſues. Theſe ſhould never be omitted where there is a ſcrofulous diſpoſition, or a ſaline catarrh: they are moſt effectual if inſerted in the inſide of the lower part of the thigh.

A nauſea is often a troubleſome ſymptom, in which caſe two or three grains of ipecacuanha may be taken when required, and worked off with camomile tea.

Night ſweats are relieved by going early to bed, riſing ſoon in the morning, and taking the bark, as above directed. Frequently the elix. vitr. is a uſeful addition; it ſhould be given over night, and joined with the opiate when that is required. The ſp. vir. d. in the quantity of two or three drams to a pint of water, with a little of the ſyr. papav. rubr. is grateful and uſeful, if a glaſs of it is taken as often as is agreeable. As a ſalutary means of relief, in this inſtance, Dr. Sims recommends the wearing of a flannel ſhirt next the ſkin. He ſuppoſes that the morning perſpirations may ariſe, at leaſt in part, from that diſcharge being checked during the day, and nature making a puſh to relieve herſelf, and open the cloſed pores at night. Whatever therefore tends to keep up an equable diſcharge, prevents the neceſſity of a ſtruggle. He further adds, that the evening fever, and violent paroxyſm of coughing, which commences frequently on the patients going into bed, may alſo ariſe from the ſame cauſe; the latter however ſeems connected with the expoſure of the ſkin to the air, when the patient throws off his wearing apparel; as on cauſing a patient to make the experiment, he found that when he went into bed, without taking off his cloaths, he eſcaped the paroxyſm; whereas, whenever he put them off, although the bed was carefully warmed, he always had as violent a one as is ever obſerved in any.

The ſhortneſs of breath is relieved by proper vapours received with the breath, amongſt which thoſe from a mixture of wax and reſin are uſeful; the wax and reſin may be laid on an iron that is hot enough to ſend up vapours from them. Sterne's balſamic æther is much approved for this purpoſe.

Hectic heats are relieved by moderate bleedings, a free uſe of butter-milk, milk whey, and in the intervals the bark with elix. vitr. Two or three times a day give the following draught, and at bed-time add tinct. Theb. gt. vi. vel x. to the doſe: ℞ Mucil. e ſem. cydon. ℥ i. ſp. Minder. ʒ ii. ſyr. e mecon. ʒ ii. m. f. hauſt. Baths of ſoft water, with a little milk, and a ſmall quantity of nitre, are uſeful, and ſhould be daily uſed.

Spitting of blood. This ſymptom calls for repeated bleeding until it is overcome; and, to prevent returns, continue to bleed at proper intervals, and keep the mind free from all violent agitations.

A diarrhœa may be moderated, perhaps removed, by the decoct. vel extr. Campechenſis, or the pulv. e. bolo cum opio & pulv. trag. C. p. æq. If it is attended with griping pains and bloody ſtools, give the enem. amylo. cum opio. As this ſymptom uſually attends the laſt ſtages of a *conſumption*, when it is abated, the night ſweats and hectic heats will be increaſed, and vice verſa; ſo that little good is done by any means.

A vomiting may be generally relieved in the ſame manner as a nauſea; but, in caſe of failure, give the balſ. traumat. gt. xl. cum tinct. Theb. gut. v. in thea menthæ.

The cough, when attended with pain in the breaſt, requires repeated ſmall bleedings; the pil. Scillit. Ph. Edinb. or, when proceeding from ſcorbutic ulcers or ſcrofulous ones in the lungs, are much relieved with the pulv. hydrolapathum; but perhaps, in general, the beſt kind of remedy is ſuch doſes of a mixture of the pil. ſapon. and pil. Ruffi. as the urgency of this ſymptom may require; the proportions of each may be ſuch as while the cough is moderated by the opiate, the bowels may be moved by the purgative. In general their proportions may be from one to two parts of the pil. ſapon. to two parts of the pil. Ruffi. as a laxative, and almoſt a ſpecific for the cough, Dr. Sims recommends the uſe of ſulphur; he obſerves that it neither heats, nor checks perſpiration;

and is peculiarly efficacious in relieving, almoſt to the worſt ſtage of this diſeaſe.

See Morton's Phthiſiologia; Deſault; Bennet's Theat. Tabid. Boerhaave's Aphoriſms; Sydenham's Works; Hoffmann; Farr's Aphoriſmi de Maraſmo; Buchan's Domeſtic Medicine, and the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 289, &c. N. Robinſon, M. D. on Conſumptions; Dr. Reid on the Phthiſis Pulmonalis; Obſ. on Epidemical Diſorders by James Sims, M. D.

PHTHISIS ISCHIADICE, i. e. Tabes coxaria.

PHTHISIS PUPILLÆ. A kind of amaurosis.

PHTHISIS HUMIDA, i. e. Phthiſis confirmata.

PHTHISIS SICCA, i. e Phthiſis incipiens.

PHU. A name for ſeveral ſpecies of valerian, but in general the garden valerian is underſtood by it.

PHYGETHLON, from φυω. It is repreſented variouſly: ſome deſcribe it as a broad, but not much elevated tumor, in which there is ſome reſemblance of a puſtule; it is attended with violent pain, ſo as ſometimes to excite a fever. It is ſlow in ripening, and is not much of it converted into pus. Its general ſeat is in the arm-pits, neck, and groins. Celſus ſays that ſome of his countrymen call it panus. Both Galen and Celſus ſay that an eryſipelatous inflammation is called phygethlon. Celſus, in ſome places, ranks it among glandular ſwellings. Some fix its ſeat in the glands under the jaw.

PHYMA, from φυομαι, *to grow*, or *to be generated from*, or from φυω, *to produce*. All kinds of preternatural tumors from any part of the body, and eſpecially ſuch as effect the ſuperficies of the ſkin, and ariſe without any external cauſe, and are generated, increaſed, inflamed, and ſuppurated in a ſhort time. See Galen's Com. in 6 Epid. Phymata are alſo inflammations of the glands, which ſuddenly break forth, and haſten to ſuppuration. Paulus, lib. iii. c. 22. Sometimes by phymata, a kind of ſcrofulous tumors met with in children, are thus called; and ſometimes this word ſignifies abſceſs in the inward parts, as when there is a vomica in the lungs, &c. It is ſometimes uſed to ſignify a tubercle, a caruncle, &c. According to ſome, *phyma* is a diminutive of phygethlon.

PHYMA. Græc. Celſ. φυμα. A little ſwelling like a boil, ſomewhat round and flatter.

PHYMATA. Inflammations.

PHYMATA. A kind of beaſt, which if a man looks at, he looks pale for ſome days after.

PHYMOSICA (ISCHURIA). A ſuppreſſion of urine from a phymoſis.

PHYSALUS. A road.

PHYSCONIA. A phyſcony. It is a hardiſh tumor, occupying a large portion of the abdominal cavities; it increaſes very gradually, is not ſonorous, nor yet is any fluctuation obſerved in it. Dr. Aitken defines it to be a ſchirrus of one or more of the abdominal organs. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs cachexiæ, and order intumeſcentiæ. Its ſpecies are various as the parts affected; e. g. the liver, kidneys, womb, ovaries, meſentery, inteſtines, omentum, &c. Other tumors on the ſkin, &c. are called by the name of phyſconia. This diſeaſe admits not of a cure.

PHYSOMETRA A tympany of the womb. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs cachexiæ, and order intumeſcentiæ. It is formed by air, &c. which diſtend the womb. It may be diſcharged by rendering the os uteri internum, pervious.

PHYSIOLOGIA, from φυσις, *nature*, and λεγω, *to treat of*. That branch of medicine which conſiders nature with reſpect to the cure of diſeaſes, particularly the human body, its parts, ſtructure, health, life, functions, and œconomy. *Phyſiology* depends much on the knowledge of anatomy. See Sauvage, Pemberton, or Haller, on this ſubject.

PHYSOCELE, from φυσα, *a flatus*, and κηλη, *a tumor*. A wind rupture. Or a windy tumor.

PHYTOLACCA, from φυτον, *a plant*, and *lacca*, becauſe it gives a red colour like lacca. The flowers are roſaceous and diſpoſed in bunches; the berry is ſoft, globular, and full of ſeeds, diſpoſed in an orbicular order.

Boerhaave mentions two ſpecies.

PHYTOLACCA AMERICANA, called alſo ſolanum magnum, Virginianum rubrum, ſolanum racemoſum Americanum, pork phyſic, pork-weed, poke-weed, red weed of Virginia, red nightſhade. It is found every where in North-America, from Virginia to New-York. It is a large plant, with a ſtrong ſtem: it ſends forth many branches. The leaves are large, ſmooth, juicy, oval, and entire, without indentations on the edge, and placed alternately. The root is large and perennial, runs deep into the ground, and divides into many branches. It is raiſed in our gardens.

The leaves are anodyne. The juice of the whole plant is ſharp and corroſive: it is not uſed inwardly; but inſpiſſated to the conſiſtence of an ointment, by ſetting it in the ſun, it is applied to cancers and to ulcers for removing their calloſity. The corroſive part is ſo volatile, that, if the juice is quite dry, it is inactive and uſeleſs. If the roots are roaſted and beat into a poultice, then applied to ulcers with hard tumors and calloſities, it diſſolves them. See Med. Muſ. vol. i. p. 85.

The other ſpecies is diſtinguiſhed by its having leſſer fruit, and is alſo called ſolanum Barbadenſe.

PIA MATER. Pia mater. Quia cerebrum accurate, ſicut mater infantem, involvit ſic ab arabibus dicta. The thin membrane which immediately involves the brain. It is ſo thin that it would be inviſible but for its veſſels; where they do not enter it is quite tranſparent. The brain is divided into lobes, which form convolutions, ſomething of the appearance of the inteſtines. The *pia mater* covers the whole external ſurface, and ſends proceſſes between the convolutions of the brain. The principal veſſels that go to the brain paſs on the *pia mater*: ſo that its uſe is to connect the lobuli of the brain, and to ſupport the veſſels. Some deſcribe a third covering of the brain, and call it arachnoides, and place it betwixt the *pia mater* and the dura mater; others make this the external lamella of the *pia mater*, but it is not of that ſignification which it is reckoned.

PICA, called alſo picatio, malacia. Longing. It is a preternatural appetite in pregnant women, and ſome ſick perſons when about to recover. It it called *pica* from the bird of that name, which is ſaid to be ſubject to the ſame diſorder. The diſorder conſiſts of both a deſire of unuſual things to eat and drink, and in being tired of one and wanting another, particularly things that are accidentally ſmelled. It is called malacia, from μαλακος, *weakneſs*. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſorexiæ. In pregnant women it is ſomewhat relieved by bleeding, and in about the fourth month of their pregnancy it leaves them. Chlorotic girls, and men who labour under ſuppreſſed hæmorrhoides, are very ſubject to this complaint, and are relieved by promoting the reſpective evacuations. In general, whether this diſorder is obſerved in pregnant women, in perſons recovering from an acute fever, or in thoſe who labour under obſtructions of the natural evacuations, this craving of the appetite ſhould be indulged.

PICHROCHOLOS, from πικρος, *bitter* and χολη, *bile*. A perſon abounding with bitter bile, or a perſon ſubject to anger.

PICTONUM COLICA. See Colica.

PIEDRA DI COBRA, i. e. Cobra de capello. The pierres de cobras are diſcovered by Felix Fontana, to be artificial productions, and to conſiſt only of calcined hartſhorn.

PILA HYSTRICIS. The bezoar of the porcupine.

PILA MARINA. A ſpecies of alcyonium, or a round ſpherical ball found on ſea-coaſts amongſt wrack. Lemery deſcribes it as being about the ſize of a man's fiſt, ſometimes larger, ſometimes leſs: it is lanuginous, of a dark colour, formed by a collection of hairs, ſand, and other impurities of the ſea, united by means of ſome glutinous liquor. It is ſaid to kill worms. Zwelfer ſays that when it is calcined it is uſeful in ſcrofulas.

PILEUS, i. e. Cucupha. In anatomy it is the coif with which ſome children are born; it is called *pileus*, pileolus, galea, and vitta.

PILIOLUS. See Pileus.

PILMICTIO. A diſcharge of ſubſtances reſembling hairs with the urine.

PILOSELLA, i. e. Auricula muris. A ſpecies of pulmonaria, hieracium, gnaphalium, and turritis.

PILULA. A pill. *Pills* are a form well adapted for thoſe medicines that operate in ſmall doſes, and that are offenſive in taking. They diſſolve the moſt difficultly, and

and produce the moſt gradual and laſting effects of any other form; this, in ſome caſes, is a diſadvantage, in others an advantage. Emetics, if they are retained long in the ſtomach, uſually paſs off by ſtool; but ſtomachics are proper for this form.

Reſins ſhould be beat up with ſpirituous mixtures, ſuch as the ſyr. alb. ℥ viii. ſp. vini. R. ℥ i. m. gums with water, dry powders with the conſ. cynoſb. or mucilag. e gum arab.

Gold and ſilver leaf do not diſſolve in the ſtomach, and often hinder the pills from diſſolving, ſo ſhould never be uſed.

What cannot be included in four or five pills, for one doſe, is not fit for this form.

PILUS. A hair.

PIMENTA. All-ſpice or Jamaica pepper. See PIPERIS JAMAICENSIS.

PIMPILIM. Long pepper.

PIMPINELLA. Burnet or ſaxifrage, and Burnet ſaxifrage. It is called ſaxifraga becauſe it grows out of the rocks, as if it broke through them; and not becauſe of its efficacy in breaking the ſtone in the human bladder. Boerhaave reckons up eight ſpecies. The ſpecies ordered by the Edinburgh college, is the *pimpinella* ſaxifraga, or *pimpinella* ſanguiſorbæfolia, foliis pinnatis, foliolis radicalibus ſubrotundis, floribus umbellatis albis, Linn.

PIMPINELLA, called alſo ſanguiſorba, pimpinella minor, tragoſelinum. Smaller burnet ſaxifrage. It is a perennial umbelliferous plant: it grows in dry paſture grounds. It is the poterium ſanguiſorba, Linn.

PIMPINELLA ALBA GERMANORUM, called alſo pimpinella ſaxifrage major. Greater or white burnet, or ſaxifrage. Some of its leaves are deeply cut, the odd one into three ſections. It is common in Germany, but rarely met with in England.

All the ſpecies are joined into one by Linnæus: their qualities are alſo ſimilar. The roots have a hot pungent taſte, which is not durable; they have no particular taſte. When freſh they affect the eyes like as muſtard and horſeradiſh do. In drying they loſe all their ſubtil matter; water partially extracts their virtue, but ſpirit completely. When diſtilled with water they afford a ſmall portion of oil, which is acrid and fiery. Theſe roots are warm and ſtimulating, aperient and diuretic, and are uſeful when tenacious humours offend.

There is a ſpecies which is called nigra, from its being externally of a bright black colour, whilſt thoſe of others are whitiſh; it is remarkable for yielding a bluiſh oil: it grows wild in Germany and Switzerland.

PIMPINELLA. A name of the agrimoides, of ſeveral ſorts of tragoſelinum, and a ſpecies of melianthus.

PIMPINELLA ANISUM. Aniſe. The anniſeeds of the ſhops are the ſeeds of the *pimpinella aniſum*, or *pimpinella* Ægyptiaca, foliis radicalibus trifidis inciſis, floribus flaveſcentibus. Linn. See ANISUM, and ANISUM INDICUM.

PINEALIS GLANDULA, from *pinea*, *a pine apple*, to which it hath ſome reſemblance. The pineal gland. It is a ſoft greyiſh body, about the ſize of a pea; it is covered by the plexus choroides, and is ſituated on the cella turcica of the os ſphenoides. Its uſe, or that it is a gland, are alike uncertain.

PINGUEDINOSA MEMBRANA. The cellular membrane is ſo called, where the oily matter contained in it almoſt diſſolves ſpontaneouſly.

PINGUEDO. Fat. See ADEPS.

PINGUICULA. A plant ſo called by Geſner, becauſe its leaves are fat to the touch. See SANICULA.

PINHONES. The Barbadoes nut tree. See CATAPUTIA.

PINNA. A wing. The lateral and inferior parts of the noſe are called the *pinnæ* thereof; and the ſuperior broad parts of the ears are alſo ſo called.

PINNA, or Pinna Marina. A ſea-ſhell of a conical form, and of which there are many ſpecies. Large pearls are ſometimes found in them. See Lemery de Drogues.

PINNACULUM FORNICIS GUTTURALIS. The uvula.

PINO. The name of a ſpecies of nettle in Braſil.

PINUS. The pine-tree. It differs from the fir-tree in having its leaves ſtanding in pairs, thoſe of the firs being ſolitary. The *pine* abounds with the ſame kind of reſinous juice as does the fir-tree. The cones taſte agreeably, and are ſimilar in quality to the ſweet almonds. The reſin of the *pine-tree* is called frankincenſe. Some ſay it is the reſin of the pinaſter, which grows in Sweden, Norway, and Germany; others ſay it is only produced in Arabia. It is a ſolid brittle reſin, brought to us in globes of a browniſh colour on the outſide, internally whitiſh, or variegated with whitiſh ſpecks: it hath a bitteriſh acrid taſte, but no conſiderable ſmell: it totally diſſolves in rectified ſpirit of wine, but water ſcarcely affects it. It is a mild corroborant, though rarely uſed except in plaſters.

There are many ſpecies of *pine-trees*; among the reſt are the tæda, which grows in the country of the Griſons.

The bark of all the *pine-trees* is aſtringent, and the tops are antiſcorbutic. See Raii Hiſt.

PIPER. Pepper. It is the ſmall round aromatic fruit of a trailing plant, which grows in Sumatra, Java, and Malabar.

PIPER INDICUM, called alſo capſicum, capo molago, *piper* Hiſpanicum, *piper* Luſitanicum, ſolanum urens, ſiliquaſtrum Plinii, *piper* Braſilianum, *piper* Guineenſe, *piper* Calecuticum, Guinea pepper. It is the capſicum annuum. Or capſicum caule herbaceo, pedunculis ſolitariis, Linn. It is in long, roundiſh, taper pods, divided into two or three cells full of ſmall whitiſh ſeeds. It is a native of the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies. When this fruit is freſh it hath a penetrating acrid ſmell: to the taſte it is pungent and acrid; it produces a painful burning in the mouth, like that from arum root. Rectified ſpirit takes up its pungency, and if the tincture is evaporated, the remaining extract is exceſſively fiery. This kind of pepper is given in ſmall quantities, as one of the higheſt ſtimulants in cold, ſluggiſh, phlegmatic temperaments, in ſome paralytic caſes, in relaxations and inſenſibility of the ſtomach, and for promoting the efficacy of aloetic medicines, and the deobſtruent gums in uterine diſorders. A ſpecies of this is called in the Weſt-Indies bird-pepper, and is the baſis of a powder brought from thence under the name of Cayenne or Cayan pepper. There are four ſpecies of Guinea pepper, viz. the chilchotes, chilterpin, tenalchiles, and chilpelagua. There is a fifth ſpecies, which grows in Peru, and is called agy.

PIPER NIGRUM, called alſo molago-codi, melanſpiper, lada, molanga, *piper* aromaticum, ſpice, black pepper. It is the *piper nigrum*, or *piper* rotundum *nigrum*, foliis ovatis ſubſeptemnerviis glabris, petiolis ſimpliciſſimis Linn. The black pepper tree.

This is probably gathered before it is ripe; it is the fruit of a plant which grows in Java, Malabar, &c.

PIPER ALBUM, alſo called *piper* nigrum, maturum decorticatum, leucopiper, white pepper. The black pepper, when ripe, is macerated and decorticated, and then ſold as another ſpecies.

The black pepper is hotter and ſtronger than the white; they both ſeem to heat the conſtitution more than ſome other ſpices that are of equal pungency upon the palate; and from theſe ſpices they differ in this, that their pungency does not reſide in the volatile parts or eſſential oil, but in a ſubſtance of a more fixed kind, which does not ariſe in the heat of boiling water. Pepper infuſed in water impregnates it very ſtrongly with its flavour, but not with its taſte; by boiling a little while, a little more of its pungent matter is extracted, and its flavour diſſipated. Diſtilled with water, a thin, light, and limpid oil is obtained, which is very mild, for if a drop falls on the tongue, it only excites a grateful moderate warmth. Rectified ſpirit completely extracts the pungent part of the pepper; the tincture is hot and fiery, and when evaporated, a ſtill more fiery extract is left behind. The quantity of extract is nearly the ſame from both the ſorts of pepper, but that from the white is the weakeſt.

PIPER JAMAICENSIS, alſo called *piper* caryophyllatum, pimenta, *piper* odoratum *Jamaicenſe*, pimento, all-ſpice, and Jamaica pepper. The dried unripe aromatic berry of a large tree, growing in the mountainous parts of Jamaica, reckoned a ſpecies of myrtle, called by Linnæus myrtus pimenta, or myrtus *Jamaicenſis*, fol. oblongo-ovatis glabris alternis, racemis terminalibus & lateralibus, fructu orbiculari. This kind of pepper is moderately warm, of an agreeable flavour, ſomewhat reſembling a mixture of cloves, cinnamon, and nutmegs, whence its name

name of all-ſpice. Diſtilled with water it yields an elegant eſſential oil, which ſinks in water; it is moderately pungent, in ſmell and flavour approaching to oil of cloves, or rather a mixture of thoſe of cloves and nutmegs; the remaining decoction, inſpiſſated, leaves an extract ſomewhat ungrateful, but not pungent, and the berry itſelf is wholly deprived of its taſte as well as flavour, the warmth of this ſpice reſiding rather in the volatile than in the fixed part. Rectified ſpirit takes up all its virtue, but gives over little or nothing with it in diſtillation. The ſpirituous extract poſſeſſes the whole of the virtues of this pepper; it is very warm and pungent, but not fiery, like thoſe of the black and white peppers.

The Jamaica pepper is often ſubſtituted for the black and white ſorts.

Half a pound of this pepper is put into three gallons of proof ſpirit, and diſtilled. This water is ſubſtituted for the aq. aromatica, and the aqua mirabilis of former diſpenſatories.

The oil of Jamaica pepper is generally ſubſtituted for the oil of cloves, and is very little inferior to the oil of nutmegs.

PIPER LONGUM, called alſo macropiper. Long pepper. *Piper longum*, or *piper* indicum *longum*, fol. cordatis petiolatis ſeſſilibuſque. Linn. Indian long pepper tree. Of this there are three ſpecies. They are produced in the Eaſt Indies. The pods are round, about an inch long or rather more, with numerous minute grains within them. This is hotter and more pungent than any of the other ſorts of pepper; in its pharmaceutic properties it agrees with them entirely.

The black pepper is moſt agreeable to the palate, and is moſt uſed in food. The long is the ſtrongeſt and moſt uſed in medicine: the white is weakeſt, and ſeldom uſed in either. Their warmth and pungency reſide chiefly in their reſin; their aroma in an eſſential oil.

The general virtues of all the peppers, are, they are ſtomachic, carminative, and uſeful in low phlegmatic and leucophlegmatic habits; ten grains may be taken three times a day to aſſiſt digeſtion. When aſtringents have failed, a diarrhœa hath been cured by ℈ i. of pepper with ʒ ſs. of a diacodium, twice a day.

There are other ſpecies of peppers, but they are of but little note in medicine. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

PIPER CARYOPHYLLATUM. Jamaica pepper.

PIPER CAUDATUM. Cubebs.

PIPER CHIAPÆ. Jamaica pepper.

PIPER MURALE. See SEDUM.

PIPER TAVASCI, i. e. Caſſia caryophyllata.

PIPERITIS. Dittander.

PIRAMIDALIA CORPORA. The ſmall eminencies on the lower part of the medulla oblongata.

PISASPHALTUM. See AMBRA.

PISHAMIN VIRGINIANUM. A ſpecies of guajacana.

PISIFORME [Os], i. e. Lenticulare.

PISLOTHRA. Medicines which take off the hair.

PISONIA. It is a plant which is found in the Weſt-Indies; the natives call it ſingrigo. Father Plumier called it Piſonia, in honour of Dr. Wm. Piſo.

PISSÆUM INDICUM. See PETROLEUM.

PISSAGOUS, i. e. Bulbocaſtanum.

PISSASPHALTOS. Common foſſile pitch, or bitumen.

PISSELÆUM, from πίσσα, *pitch*, and ἔλαιον, *oil*. Oil of pitch. It is of the ſame nature as tar. It is prepared by boiling pitch; wool is ſaid to be ſpread over the boiling pitch, and when it is ſoaked with the riſing vapour it is wrung into a veſſel, and this is repeated as long as the pitch is boiling: but the common method of diſtilling to obtain eſſential oil is more probably uſed.

PISSELAION. Oil of cedar.

PISTACHIA, i. e. Terebinthus Indica Theophraſti.

PISTACIA, called alſo terebinthus Indica Theophraſti. The piſtic nut-tree, or the piſtachio nut-tree.

Piſtachio nuts are oblong and pointed, about the ſize and ſhape of a filbert, including a kernel of a pale greeniſh colour, covered with a yellow or a red ſkin. They are brought from the Levant. The kernels are agreeable to the taſte, are ſweetiſh and unctuous, and of the ſame general nature as almonds. See Raii Hiſt. Miller's Bot. Off.

PISTACIA SYLVESTRIS. See STAPHYLONDENDRON.

PISTACHIA, Jamaica birch.

PISTILLUM. The pointal or ſtyle. It is that column which occupies the center of the flower, riſing on the top of the embryo, and is generally ſurrounded with the chives. Theſe differ greatly in their form, for in ſome flowers they are roundiſh, in others triangular, oval, or ſquare.

PISTOLOCHIA, i. e. Ariſtolochia; alſo ſerpentaria Virginiana.

PISTOLOCHIA CONCAVA, i. e. Fumaria bulboſa.

PISUM. The pea. Of theſe there are various ſpecies, but they are not noted for their medical virtues. They are ſoftening and laxative.

PITHA. A name for the cereus ſcandens minor trigonus, &c.

PITTONIA. A plant mentioned by Miller. There are ſeven ſpecies in the warm parts of America.

PITUITA. So ſome call the water which comes from the ſtomach of ſome patients whilſt faſting in a morning.

PITUITA ALBA. The ſame as anaſarca.

PITUITARIA. It is that ſpecies of diarrhœa called diarrhœa mucoſa.

PITUITARIA GLANDULA. The pituitary gland. It is a ſmall ſpongy body, lodged in the ſella ſphenoidalis, between the ſphenoidal folds of the dura mater. It is of a ſingular ſubſtance, not appearing to be either medullary or glandular; on the outſide it is partly greyiſh and partly reddiſh, and white within. It is tranſverſely oval, and on the lower part, in ſome ſubjects, it is divided by a ſmall notch into two lobes, like a kidney bean. It is covered by the pia mater as by a bag, the opening of which is the extremity of the infundibulum, and it is ſurrounded by the ſmall circular ſinuſes, which communicate with the ſinus cavernoſi.

PITUITARIA MEMBRANA. The pituitary membrane. It is that which lines the whole internal nares, the cellular convolutions, the conchæ, the ſides of the ſeptum narium, and (by an uninterrupted continuation) the inner ſurface of the ſinus frontales and maxillares, and of the ductus lachrymales, palatini, and ſphenoidales. It is alſo continued down from the nares of the pharynx, ſeptum palati, &c. It is termed *pituitaria*, becauſe that through the greateſt part of its extent it ſeparates a mucilaginous lymph, called pituita by the ancients. This membrane is of different ſtructures in different parts; ſometimes it is thin, in other places it is thick and ſpongy; it is thickeſt on the ſeptum narium, the lower portion of the inner nares, and the conchæ; in the ſinuſes it is thinner; on the ſide next the perioſteum and perichondrium, it is plentifully ſtored with ſmall glands.

PITUITOSUS MORBUS. So the antients called the nervous fever.

PITYRIASIS. A ſcurvy diſorder of the head, chin, and eye-brows; called alſo porrigo.

PITYROIDES. An epithet for a ſort of ſediment in the urine, which reſembles bran.

PITYUSA. See TITHYMALUS.

PIX. Pitch.

PIX NIGRA, called alſo pix ſicca, pix arida, palimpiſſa Dioſcoridi. Common black pitch, dry or ſtone pitch.

It is tar dried by heat, or what remains of tar after diſtilling the eſſential oil from it; thus *pitch* is freed from the greateſt part of the eſſential oil, and the acid and aqueous parts of tar.

PIX BURGUNDICA. Burgundy pitch. It is the reſin of ſome turpentine trees, leſs diveſted of its oil than is the common reſin. Some ſay it is from the mountain pine. It is alſo called white pitch. It is from the pinus abies, or pinus foliis ſolitariis ſubulatis macronatis lævibus bifariam verſis. Linn.

PIX LIQUIDA. Tar. Dioſcorides calls it piſſæleon. It is the produce of all reſinous trees; it was firſt got from cedar, larch, fir, pitch, but now it is chiefly from pine trees. It is chiefly obtained from the pinus (ſylveſtris) foliis geminis: primordialibus ſolitariis glabris, Linn. & pinus

(abies)

(abies) foliis ſolitariis ſubulatis mucronatis lævibus bifariam verſis. Linn. The wood is incloſed in a large oven, which ſtands within another oven; the ſpace betwixt them receives the fire; from the bottom of the inner oven runs a gutter, by which the tar is conveyed off in proportion as it melts out from the wood.

Tar differs from turpentine in having received a diſagreeable empyreumatic impreſſion from the fire, and in containing along with the pungent, bitter, terebinthinate matter, a portion of the acid which is extricated from the wood by the heat, and likewiſe of its gummy or mucilaginous matter: by the mediation of theſe principles, a part of the terebinthinate oil and reſin becomes diſſolvable in watery liquors, which extract nothing from the purer turpentines.

Diſtilled in a common ſtill it affords the common black pitch, an eſſential oil, called from the name of the tree whence the *tar* is obtained ol. pini, or ol. tædæ, and an acid ſpirit. This oil hath the ſame general nature as the oil of turpentine, but is impregnated with the empyreumatic flavour of the *tar*.

Water in which *tar* hath been ſteeped is an uſeful remedy in many diſorders. It may be drank either warm or cold. In acute diſeaſes it is taken as freely as the thirſt may demand it; and in chronical diſorders from a pint to a quart may be taken every day, at three or four times, beginning with the firſt draught whilſt the ſtomach is empty. It is a good deobſtruent; it is warming and ſtimulating; it raiſes the pulſe, increaſes perſpiration, and the groſſer evacuations.

Tar water is made by putting two pounds of Norway *tar* to a gallon of water, ſtirring them well together for two or three minutes, and after ſettling two days, the clear liquor muſt be poured off. Of this a pint or more may be taken every day. Thoſe who are curious to ſee the variety of diſorders againſt which this water is ſaid to be a ſpecific, may conſult the biſhop of Cloyne's Treatiſe on *Tar* Water.

PLACEBO. A common place method or medicine.

PLACENTA, from πλακους, *a cake*. In botany it is that part of the pod or huſk of a plant to which the ſeeds are faſtened, and by which they are nouriſhed until they are ripe. In anatomy, it is a congeries of blood veſſels which adhere to the uterus during geſtation, which, together with the membranes and funis umbilicalis, is excluded generally after the fœtus; they are all together called the after-burden, the after-birth, and the ſecundines. The *placenta* is a round *cake*, thick in the middle, and thinner towards the edges; ſometimes it is oval, at others it is divided into two, as it were, adhering to each other by the membranes. It hath an internal convex ſurface, where the funis is inſerted, and an external concave ſurface, which ſeems compoſed of lobes. When there are two children there are two *placentæ*; and when they are but one to appearance, they are really two for the moſt part, for they have no communication of veſſels. The *placenta* hath generally been ſuppoſed to ſtick to the fundus, but that is uncertain; it adheres to that part of the uterus which it happens to fall upon. The *placenta* is made up of one vein, and of two arteries, which ramify together, the largeſt being on the internal ſurface; and even the parenchymatous ſubſtance appears by injections to be quite vaſcular. No nerves were ever found in the *placenta*.

In midwifery, many are in a hurry to bring away the *placenta*, and to that end introduce their hands into the uterus to ſeparate it therefrom; but, if left to itſelf a little while, freſh pains will ſeparate it, and during their action it is eaſily drawn away by gently pulling at the funis; and again, as by introducing the hand an inflammation in the uterus is ſometimes excited, patience is always to be exerciſed in this affair. It hath long ſince been obſerved, that haſtening the *placenta* was one cauſe of difficulty in delivering it. Many of the moſt eminent practitioners agree, that a flooding only can juſtify the ſpeedy ſeparation of the *placenta*. When neceſſity obliges the practitioner to introduce a hand into the uterus, the back of the hand ſhould be toward the uterus, and the hollow of the hand kept as cloſe to the *placenta* as poſſible in ſeparating it, that the womb may not be injured. Beſides the publications on the practice of midwifery, ſee Tolver's Preſent State of Midwifery in Paris.

PLADAROTIS. A fungous tubercle in the inſide of the eye-lid.

PLAGÆ. Solutions of continuity, wounds, ſtripes, blows, &c. It is ſynonimous with locales.

PLANCUS. See LEIOPODES.

PLANTA. A plant or vegetable. It is an organical body, deſtitute of ſenſe and ſpontaneous motions; it adheres to ſome other body ſo as to draw from it its nouriſhment, propagating itſelf by ſeed. Under this generical name are included trees, ſhrubs, under-ſhrubs, and herbs. Moſt *plants* are hermaphrodite, having the male and female parts in the ſame flower; others bear flowers on the ſame ſtem, ſome of which are male and others female; of this ſort are the melon and cucumber. Some whole *plants* bear flowers, which are never followed by any fruit; whilſt others of the ſame ſpecies bear fruit without flowers, and hence are diſtinguiſhed into male and female *plants*; of this ſort are the hop, hemp, poplar tree, &c. The female flowers are only followed by fruit; the hermaphrodites are reckoned among the female in this reſpect. Inſtances are well authenticated of the fœcundating farina, from the male flower, being carried to the female of the ſame ſpecies to the diſtance of fifteen leagues.

Plants can no more exiſt without nouriſhment and air, than animals can. Their nouriſhment is from oil rendered miſcible with water, by the intervention of alkaline ſalts, or alkaline earth: hence all good ſoils contain ſome proportion of one or the other of theſe: and the oily matter is attracted from the air, which is by putrefactions, exhalations, &c. abundantly ſupplied therewith. The radical fibres attract a part, and the leaves imbibe another portion of nouriſhment; the firſt from the earth, the latter from the air.

To a portion of iron in plants, their green colour is attributed; and this opinion is confirmed by all the accidents that happen to them from an excluſion of the ſun and air, or their free admiſſion, from putrefaction, &c.

On the ſtructure and nouriſhment of plants, ſee Dr. Grew; and on the ſleep of plants, ſee Dr. Hill.

PLANTAGO. Plantain. It is a ſmall perennial plant, common in fields, or by road-ſides; the leaves lie on the ground, have naked unbranched ſtalks, bearing on the top a ſpike of ſmall, imperfect, four leaved flowers, which are followed by little capſules, which opening horizontally, ſhed numerous crooked ſeeds.

PLANTAGO LATIFOLIA, called alſo ſeptinervia, arnogloſſum. Broad leaved plantain, common greater plantain, way-bread. *Plantago* major, or *plantago latifolia* major, foliis ovatis glabris, ſcapo tereti, ſpica floſculis imbricatis, Linn. It hath oval leaves, ſeven, ribs which are prominent on the lower ſide, running from end to end. It flowers in May.

PLANTAGO MINOR, called alſo anguſtifolia, quinque nervia. Rib-wort, the greater narrow-leaved plantain. It hath oblong, five ribbed leaves, and ſhort thick ſpikes.

The leaves of both theſe ſorts are ranked amongſt vulneraries, and are mildly aſtringent; they may be uſed indifferently, but they are rarely noticed in the preſent practice. Boerhaave enumerates ſeventeen ſpecies.

PLANTAGO. A name for a ſpecies of coronopus, and of pſyllium.

PLANTARES. Branches of the nerves called popliteus.

PLANTARES VENÆ. The tibialis poſterior having deſcended to the ſole of the foot, forms theſe veins, by dividing into ſeveral tranſverſe arches, which communicate with one another, and with the ſaphena, and ſend ramifications to the toes.

PLANTARIS ARTERIA EXTERNA. It is one of the diviſions of the poſterior tibial artery. It paſſes on the concave ſide of the os calcis obliquely under the ſole of the foot, to the baſis of the fifth metatarſal bone, and from thence it runs in a kind of arch toward the great toe, communicating there with the tibialis anterior, which perforates the interoſſeus muſcles. The convex ſide of this arch ſupplies both ſides of the laſt three toes, and the outſide of the ſecond toe, forming ſmall communicating arches at the end, and ſometimes at the middle of each toe, as in the hand. The concave ſide of the arch furniſhes the neighbouring parts.

PLANTARIS ARTERIA INTERNA. It is alſo a diviſion of the poſterior tibial artery. This inner *plantaris* having reached beyond the middle of the ſole of the foot, is divided into two, one of which goes to the great toe, communicating with the branch of the tibialis anterior; the other is diſtributed to the firſt phalanges of the other toes, communicating with the ramifications from the arch already mentioned.

PLANTARIS MUSCULUS. The muſcle whoſe tendon covers the planta, the ſole of the foot. It is alſo called tibialis gracilis. It riſes from the outer condyl; it paſſes down between the gaſtrocnemius and the ſoleus, and is united by a cellular membrane to the tendo Achillis. Winſlow thinks that as it is attached to the capſular ligament, it ſerves to keep it from being pinched in the motions of the joint. Dr. Hunter thinks it hath ſome action with which we are not acquainted, ſeeing it is always diſtinct.

PLANTULA MARILANDICA, i. e. Genſing.

PLANUM. The metatarſus.

PLANUM OS. It is the external lateral portion of the ethmoides. Its outſide, next the orbit of the eye (of which it is a part) is ſmooth; whence its name.

PLASTICUS, Plaſtic, from πλασσω, *to form*. Formative, or endued with a faculty of forming.

PLATÆ. The ſcapula.

PLATANUS. The plane tree. The leaves are large and laciniated; the flower is amentaceous, formed in a globular figure, and conſiſting of a multitude of ſtamina. The fruit, which is produced at a diſtance from the flower, is ſpherical, and contains vaſt numbers of long apiculated ſeeds, intermixed with much down. The Oriental ſpecies is called *platanus* latus, becauſe it extends its branches ſo as to cover an hundred men under its ſhade. The leaves cool and repel. See Raii Hiſt.

PLATANUS. It is a name for the female papaya, a ſpecies of maple, and the liquid amber-tree.

PLATINA. A Spaniſh word, and a diminutive of plata, which in that language ſignifies ſilver; ſo *platina* is little ſilver. The chemiſts call it white gold, for it reſembles gold more than any other two metals reſemble each other. It is a metallic body which does not melt in the fire, and is ſaid to be found in the gold mines in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. It approaches the neareſt of all bodies to the weight of gold, being as 18¼ to 19. Margraaf thinks it is artificial, notwithſtanding what is ſaid of its being a natural production. Some think that it is a ſpecies of emery. See Dict. of Chem. Neumann's Chem. Works; Dr. Lewis's Philoſ. Comm. of Arts, vol. i.

PLATYSMA. Any thing which is flat and broad; thus a piece of cloth, of plaſter, or of metal, is called by this name.

PLATYSMA MYOIDES, alſo called muoides, quadratus genæ, detrahens quadratus, tetragonus, ſubcutaneus, quadratus.

This muſcle riſes from the ſkin inſenſibly below the claviculæ, and is inſerted into the baſis of the lower jaw; it then runs up, and joins the triangularis, and is inſerted into the angle of the mouth, and the ſkin of the cheek. It depreſſes the lower jaw.

PLAUTUS. See LEIOPODES.

PLECTANÆ. The cornua of the uterus.

PLECTRUM. A name for the ſtyloide proceſs of the os petroſum, for the uvula, and, in ſome authors, for the tongue.

PLETHORA, from πληθος, *plenitude*. A *plethora* is when the veſſels are too much loaded with fluids. The *plethora* may be ſanguine or ſerous; in the firſt, there is too much craſſamentum in the blood, in the latter, too little. In a ſanguine *plethora* there is danger of a fever, inflammation, apoplexy, rupture of the blood-veſſels, obſtructed ſecretions, &c. in a ſerous, a dropſy, &c. A rarefaction of the blood produces all the effects of a *plethora*; it may accompany a *plethora*, and ſhould be diſtinguiſhed therefrom. Mr. Bromfield obſerves, that a ſanguine *plethora* may thus be known to be preſent by the pulſe. An artery overcharged with blood is as incapable of producing a ſtrong full pulſe, as one that contains a deficient quantity; in both caſes there will be a low and weak pulſe; to diſtinguiſh rightly, the pulſe muſt not be felt with one or two fingers on the carpal artery; but if three or four fingers cover a conſiderable length of the artery, and we preſs hard for ſome time on it, and then ſuddenly raiſe all theſe fingers, except that which is neareſt to the patient's hand, the influx of the blood, if there is a *plethora*, will be ſo rapid, as to raiſe the other finger, and make us ſenſible of the fulneſs. See his Obſ. and Caſes, vol. i. Linnæus obſerves, that in the ſanguine *plethora* there is a redneſs of the ſkin from the fullneſs of blood, attended with a dyſpnœa. The ſanguine *plethora* is relieved by bleeding; the ſerous by purging, diuretics, and ſweating.

PLEURA, from πλευρα, the ſide. The breaſt is lined with a membrane thus called; it is ſmooth inwardly, but rough outwardly, where it is attached by a cellular membrane to the adjoining parts; it covers the diaphragm, as the peritoneum covers it on the under-ſide; where it goes to the ſpine, it covers the lungs, and makes a complete bag on each ſide, which duplicature forms the mediaſtinum. The uſe of the *pleura* is to give the contained viſcera a ſmooth ſurface, and to confine a lubricating juice, which is ſuppoſed to be ſecreted by the extremities of the arteries; and the mediaſtinum ſerves to keep the heart more fixed in the centre of the body, and prevent wounds of one ſide the thorax from affecting the other. The *pleura* is of a firm texture, and hath many blood veſſels and nerves running in it.

PLEURITICA. A pain in the ſide.

PLEURITIS, from πλευρα. A pleuriſy, or inflammation of the pleura.

Three kinds of *pleuriſies* are ſpoken of by different writers, viz. the true or inflammatory, the falſe, and the ſpaſmodic, or flatulent. Dr. Cullen places it as a ſpecies of pneumonia, or inflammation of the contents of the thorax: and diſtinguiſhes four ſpecies. 1. Pleuritides idiopathicæ ſimplices. 2. Pleuritides complicatæ. 3. Pleuritides ſymptomaticæ. 4. Pleuritides falſæ.

The true *pleuriſy* is when a pain and fever attends an inflammation of the *pleura*.

Some have diſputed whether the ſeat of this diſorder be the *pleura*, or the external coat of the lungs, but it is generally ſuppoſed to begin in the *pleura*, and ſo to extend to the lungs, as by diſſecting thoſe who die of *pleuriſies*, the outer coat of the lungs is found affected.

Its cauſes are whatever can excite internal inflammation in general; alſo ſuddenly drinking of cold water after being heated with exerciſe.

Arcteus gives the following ſhort, but excellent deſcription of a *pleuriſy*: "An acute pain accompanies it, which reaches to the throat, in ſome to the back, and in others to the ſhoulders; it is ſucceeded by a difficulty of breathing, watching, nauſea, redneſs of the cheeks, phlegm, and very yellow and bloody matter. It is worſe if the ſpit be not bloody, or a delirium, or a coma, comes on." The pulſe is remarkably hard, vibrating, and ſtrong; but the *pleuriſy* is principally known to be preſent by the pain in the ſide with a high fever, a difficulty of breathing, and a cough. The pain is uſually juſt above the ſhort ribs; it is increaſed by inſpiration, and leſſens on expiration; thence the breathing is difficult: if the pain ſhifts its ſeat, a favourable prognoſtic thence ariſes; the inſpirations are ſhort. The cough is ſhort, ſuppreſſed, and ſometimes dry; but at others, a mucus is ſpit up from the lungs; at firſt it is thin, but growing more like pus and bloody. The difficulty of breathing ſometimes ſo increaſes, as to check the blood in its paſſage through the lungs, and the patient is preſently ſuffocated. If a mortification takes place, the pain ceaſes ſuddenly, the pulſe as ſuddenly becomes weak and ſmall, though it be quick, and it is often irregular; a delirium and convulſions then preſently come on, and the patient is deſtroyed. If the diſorder does not prove fatal by any of theſe ways, nor yet is relieved by the ſpitting, or by ſome other natural or artificial method, a ſuppuration comes on, which is known by an irregular coldneſs and ſhiverings, and the pain becoming a dull one; if the ſuppurated part points externally, a fluctuation may be felt by preſſing it with the finger; and if the pus is emptied into the cavity of the thorax, an empyema is formed, and is known as remarked in that caſe. Sometimes this ſuppuration is twelve or fourteen days before it is formed; and whether it happens ſooner or latter, it is uſually fatal. There is no diſeaſe wherein the critical ſymptoms are more violent, and more ſtrongly marked than in this, and a perfect cure inſtantly follows, when death is often the moſt expected.

The *pleuriſy* ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from inflammation of the lungs, of the diaphragm, of the mediaſtinum, and

of

of the intercoſtal muſcles; from the baſtard *pleuriſy*, and peripneumony, and from rheumatic pains in the ſide.

If the fever is violent, the heat burning, the cough and tongue very dry, a gangrene may be ſoon expected, if a ſuppuration does not take place. If the ſtitch abates ſuddenly without any manifeſt cauſe, but at the ſame time the countenance changes, he grows pale and ſad, the eyes appear dull and heavy, and the pulſe feeble, it denotes a tranſlation to the brain, and is moſtly fatal. If purple ſpots appear, they are rarely other than fatal.

Let the air in the patient's room be cool, but not cold; and except the heat is very great, let all that is drank be tepid. A ſpoonful of linſeed not bruiſed, and half an ounce of liquorice root infuſed in a quart of boiling water, is an excellent common drink.

In this, as in all other inflammatory fevers, bleeding is a principal remedy. The quantity of blood which may be taken away, and the repetition of the operation, are beſt determined by the continued hardneſs of the pulſe. A free bleeding at the firſt is always more uſeful than ſeveral leſſer ones afterwards; therefore, as a repetition is not often convenient, bleed at the firſt until the patient faints, or till the pulſe is manifeſtly altered. If before aſſiſtance is called in, the expectorated matter is bloody, and ſomewhat digeſted, bleeding muſt be forborne.

Bliſters are rarely to be omitted; generally they are applied on the pained part, immediately after a free bleeding; but ſome prefer the application of them to the legs, and that when the violence of the fever is ſomewhat abated. Before a bliſter is applied, bladders of warm water may be tried by laying them over the part complained of, and the volatile liniment may be rubbed thereon. If the pain is obſtinate, when the bliſter on one ſide ceaſes to diſcharge freely, apply another to the other ſide.

Cooling clyſters frequently injected during the firſt three or four days, render the loſs of much blood leſs neceſſary.

Antimonial preparations given in ſuch doſes as will keep up a nauſea, are of ſingular advantage both with reſpect to the fever, and to expectoration.

Nitre and camphor, with ſmall quantities of opium to moderate the violence of the pain, are powerful aſſiſtants. If the opium ſeems to affect the head, add a little ſal C. C.

If what is ſpit up be yellow, or ſtreaked with blood, the gum ammon. will be a proper addition to the other medicines.

A cooling purge may be given as ſoon as the firſt bleeding is over, and if the heat and inflammation are violent, it may be repeated every ſecond day, notwithſtanding the clyſters; for, if poſſible, a reſolution of the inflammation muſt be aimed at.

If the menſes appear in female patients, they muſt not interfere with the neceſſary repeated bleeding, nor occaſion any alteration in the treatment of the diſeaſe.

If after taking away blood the pulſe ſinks, and becomes languid, the ſal C. C. in doſes of ſix or eight grains may be repeated every three or four hours.

In the very beginning of the diſorder, having premiſed due evacuations, the decoct. rad. ſenek. is almoſt a ſpecific. An ounce of the root may be boiled in water to a pint, and two or three ſpoonfuls may be given three or four times a day. If it excites a vomiting, give ſmaller doſes.

See Swann's Tranſlation of Sydenham's Works; Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic; Hoffman's Med. Rat. Syſt. Fordyce's Elem. part ii.

The baſtard *pleuriſy* is an inflammation of the intercoſtal muſcles. The cauſes are nearly ſimilar to thoſe of the true *pleuriſy*. The ſymptoms and cure are alſo nearly alike. It differs from the true *pleuriſy* in that the pain is more external; where the pain is, there a ſwelling is perceived, and if the part is touched, the pain becomes very pungent, and he cannot lay on the pained ſide. There is leſs pain on inſpiration, and of conſequence not ſo great a difficulty of breathing. The cough is generally dry, the general inflammation is leſs violent, and the lungs are leſs apt to be affected; a mortification ſeldom takes place, and ſuppuration hath but little danger attending it.

In order to the cure, bleed in proportion to the hardneſs of the pulſe; purge at proper intervals; bladders of warm water may be applied to the part complained of, and it may alſo be rubbed with the volatile liniment: ſometimes when the pain is acute a bliſter is applied, and the decoction of rad. ſeneka given as in a true *pleuriſy*. If a ſuppuration threatens, encourage it by means of fomentations and poultices.

This diſorder ſometimes terminates in a ſweat, and rarely continues more than ſeven or eight days.

See Fordyce's Elements, part ii. Tiſſot's Advice to the People.

PLEURITIS HEPATICA. A variety of pleuriſy called a falſe pleuriſy, or an inflammation of the liver, with pleuritic ſymptoms.

PLEURITIS SPURIA. It is when the rheumatiſm is ſeated in the muſcles of the thorax.

PLEURITS SPLENICA. Inflammation of the ſpleen.

PLEURODYNE. Pains in the pleura.

PLEURODYNE RHEUMATICA. The rheumatiſm in the muſcles of the thorax, or baſtard pleuriſy.

PLEURON, i. e. Pleura.

PLEUROPNEUMONIA. A diſtemper conſiſting of a pleuriſy and peripneumony.

PLEURORTHOPNŒA. According to Blancard it is a pleuriſy, in which the patient cannot breathe without keeping his neck erect.

PLEUROSTHOTONOS, alſo called tetanus lateralis. It is when from a tetanus the body is bent to one ſide.

PLEXUS. In anatomy, is a kind of network, or complication of veſſels. A *plexus* of nerves, is an union of two or more nerves forming a ſort of ganglion or knot.

PLEXUS CARDIACUS, or Pulmonaris. It is formed of the reciprocal ramifications of both trunks of the eighth pair, and their mutual communications with the filaments of the intercoſtal or great ſympathetic nerve. It is ſituated above the lungs, on the foreſide of the bronchia, and it diſtributes filaments to the pericardium, &c.

PLEXUS CHOROIDES, alſo called plexus reticularis, or retiformis. The formix cut off, and removed, we ſee a vaſcular web, called the *plexus choroides*, with ſeveral eminences which it covers. The firſt two great eminences are called corpora ſtriata, and the other two are called thalami nervi opticorum. The firſt ſmall eminences are clearly united together, the anterior are called nates, and the poſterior teſtes. Le Dran explains it to be a folding of the carotid artery in the brain.

PLEXUS PAMPINIFORMIS. The ſpermatic veſſels.

PLICA, i. e. Plica Polonica.

PLICA POLONICA, or plaited hair. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe under the name of trichoma, in the claſs cachexiæ, and order impetigines. This diſorder is only met with in Poland and Lithuania, and conſiſts of ſeveral blood veſſels running from the head into ſome of the *hairs*, which cleave together, and hang from the head in broad flat pieces, generally about an ell in length, but ſometimes they are five or ſix yards long; one patient hath more or leſs of theſe, up to twenty, and ſometimes thirty. They are painful to the wearer, and odious to every ſpectator. At the approach of winter, an eruptive fever happens to many in theſe countries; the eruptions principally infeſt the head, and when at the height an ichorous humour flows from them. In this ſtate they are too tender to admit of being touched, and the matter running down the *hairs* mats them together; the ſkin by degrees breaking, the ramifications of the capillary veſſels following the courſe of the *hair*, or prolonged out of the ſkin, at length are increaſed to a vaſt length.

No method of relief is known; for if the diſcharge is checked, or the veſſels cut off, the conſequence is an increaſe of more miſerable ſymptoms, and in the iſſue, death; though ſome aſſert that there is no danger in cutting them off. Sennertus ſays, when all the morbid matter is thrown out of the body, the *plicæ* fall off ſpontaneouſly. He further obſerves, that the only ſafe practice in this caſe is, to ſolicit the peccant matter to the hairs, to which it naturally tends, and that this is beſt anſwered by lotions of bear's breech. Some ſay that a decoction of the herb club-moſs, and its ſeeds, with which the head is to be waſhed, is ſpecific. See Sennertus, Hoffmann de Mob. cert. reg. propr. Gehema in epiſt. ad Bontokoe de *Plica Polonica*.

PLICATIO. A violent ſhock and bending of a long bone without breaking it.

PLUMBAGO. Plumbage. Called alſo Molybdæna. The beſt is like litharge, yellow, ſhining, and of a pale red under levigation, but boiled in oil it takes an aſh colour; that which is of a leaden colour is not good. It is generated in the refining furnace of gold and ſilver. There is a foſſil ſort They are of the ſame nature as litharge.

PLUMBAGO, called alſo dentaria, dentellaria, lepidium monſpeliacum, lead-wort, or French dittander. It is a plant whoſe root is fibrous, thick, fleſhy, hot, and perennial; the leaves are alternate and entire; the calyx is very hairy; the flower is monopetalous, and they are placed on ſpikes. Boerhaave mentions two ſpecies of them, and notes the whole plants as being hot and biting like the pellitory of Spain, and as proper ſubſtitutes for it.

PLUMBAGO. A name of the perſicaria.

PLUMBUM. Lead. Alſo called Saturnus. Greek writers often uſe the ſame name for *lead* and tin; and many of their Latin tranſlators interpret κασσιτερος both by *lead* and tin. Geo. Agricola mentions three kinds, viz. the white, by which he means tin; aſh-coloured, or biſmuth; and livid coloured, or *lead*.

Common *lead* is a pale, livid, ſoft, flexible metal, eaſily ductile, not at all elaſtic, or ſonorous, and if mixed with any metal, makes it not to ſound; it is about eleven times ſpecifically heavier than water, fuſible in a ſmall heat, it is ſoon calcined, and thereby increaſed in its weight; it does not ruſt; if continued in fuſion it contracts a various coloured pellicle on the ſurface, and, if kept ſtirring, ſo as that freſh ſurfaces may be expoſed to the air, it changes by degrees partly into a fume, and partly into a duſky coloured calx; when fuſed it paſſes through any veſſel yet made to hold it, and with it takes all mixtures except gold or ſilver, or it diſſipates them in vapour, or carries them with it as it is formed into ſcoria, and thrown off at the ſides of the cupel. If the calcination of *lead* is continued ſome time, and the heat is increaſed to different degrees, it becomes yellow, and is called maſticot, or painters yellow; afterwards it becomes red, and is called minium. Theſe calces haſtily heated to a conſiderable degree, melt into the appearance of oil, and, on cooling, form a ſoft flakey ſubſtance called litharge, which is yellow, or reddiſh, according as the *lead* was more or leſs calcined. If the calces are urged with a pretty ſtrong fire, they run into a yellowiſh glaſs, which whilſt in fuſion, corrodes the common crucibles until it hath ſaturated itſelf with their earth. Theſe ſeveral ſubſtances, by the addition of charcoal, iron filings, or any oily matter, becomes *lead* again. *Lead* diſſolves moſt in the weaker acids; ſuch as aqua fortis and water, vinegar, &c.

The ores of *lead*, in colour, commonly reſemble the *lead* itſelf, and are of a cubical, or parallelopipedal ſtructure. Sometimes the ore is black, red, yellow coloured, &c. Engliſh ores are reckoned of three claſſes; that which, affords of good metal betwixt thirty to forty pounds from every hundred weight; that which yields from forty-five to ſixty; and that which gives out from ſixty to eighty. The metal extracted from the ore by fuſion, often contains ſilver enough to pay for its ſeparation from the *lead*.

Ceruſſa. *White* Lead.

Put ſome vinegar into the bottom of an earthen veſſel, and ſuſpend over it very thin plates of *lead*, ſo that the aſcending vapour may circulate about the plates; ſet the containing veſſel in the heat of horſe dung for three weeks, then ſcrape off the white powder, and expoſe what remains of the plates to the ſteams of the vinegar again, until all the *lead* is corroded.

White *lead* is uſed as a coſmetic, but it ſpoils both the colour and the ſmoothneſs of the ſkin, injures the conſtitution, and makes the teeth carious. It is adulterated with chalk, lime, whiting, &c. The entire flakey maſſes, called flake *lead*, or white flake, ſhould be choſen. To diſcover adulterations, compare pieces of equal ſize; the genuine will be the heavieſt; or take an ounce of the ſuſpected ceruſe, of any fixed alkaline ſalt, half an ounce; of charcoal duſt, two drams; put them in a crucible, and in a heat ſtrong enough to fuſe the *lead*; thus the *lead* will be reduced to its metallic ſtate, which being weighed, diſcovers the proportion of the adulteration, one-tenth part being allowed for the corroding acid of the ceruſe.

Acetum Lithargirites. *Vinegar of Litharge.*

Take four ounces of litharge, and the ſtrongeſt vinegar a pint. Digeſt in a ſand heat for three days, ſhaking the mixture now and then.

This vinegar of *lead* is of the ſame nature as ſolutions of ſaccharum ſaturni. The calces of *lead* diſſolve more freely than *lead* in its metallic ſtate. When a ſaturate ſolution is required, the ceruſe is preferred to litharge. When this vinegar of *lead* is diluted with a large quantity of water, it abates external inflammations, the itching and other uneaſineſſes in cancerous ulcers; and before Mr. Goulard's practice, it was uſed for bathing inflammations in ſcirrhous tumors, to prevent their becoming cancerous. Inflammations, and inflammatory tumors in general, are diſperſed by it.

Plumbum Uſtum. *Burnt, or calcined Lead.*

Melt *lead* with a gentle fire, and keep it continually ſtirring with an iron ſpatula, until it changes into a powder.

Minium. *Red* Lead.

Melt any quantity of *lead* in an unglazed earthen veſſel, and keep ſtirring it with an iron ſpatula until it falls into a powder, at firſt blackiſh, then yellow, and at laſt red, taking care not to raiſe the fire ſo as to run the *lead* into a vitreous maſs.

The making of red *lead* is a diſtinct buſineſs, and its makers melt large quantities of *lead* at once upon the bottom of a reverberatoy furnace built for the purpoſe, and ſo contrived, that the flame acts upon a large ſurface of the metal, which is continually changed by raking it with an iron rake, drawn backward and forward until the fluidity of the *lead* is deſtroyed; after which, the calx is only now and then turned. The reverberation of the flame upon the ſurface is abſolutely neceſſary for this effect. Red *lead* is often adulterated with red oker, which is diſcovered by melting it as directed for diſcovering adulterations in white *lead*, only in this the ſalt may be omitted.

Saccharum Saturni. *Sugar of* Lead.

Gently boil ceruſe with diſtilled vinegar in a *lead* or glazed earthen veſſel, until the vinegar is ſweet; then pour off the clear vinegar, and evaporate to the conſiſtence of honey, and ſet it to cryſtallize in a cool place; exhale the remaining liquor, and ſet it to ſhoot again, &c. until no more ſalt will ſhoot. The ceruſe ſhould be freely powdered before the vinegar is put to it; and during the boiling, it ſhould every now and then be ſtirred with a wooden ſpatula. The ſtrong acid which remains after diſtilling the diſtilled vinegar, is the moſt proper for this uſe. If the heat is conſiderable in the boiling of the vinegar and *lead* together, the acid will be diſſipated before it can be fixed by its combination with the *lead*; the vinegar may be made hot, and that will ſuffice. When the ſolution is exhaled for cryſtallization, let a ſmall quantity of rectified ſpirit of wine be added to it, and the mixture ſuffered to cool gradually; the ſugar will then concrete into very large tranſparent cryſtals.

In all the intentions of the acetum lythargiritum, and the tinct. ſaturnina, the ſugar of *lead* may be uſed.

Tinctura Saturnina. *The Saturnine Tincture.*

Take ſugar of *lead* and green vitriol, of each two ounces; of rectified ſpirit of wine, a quart. Reduce the ſalts ſeparately to powder, and put them into the ſpirit, then digeſt without heat, and filtre the ſpirit through paper. The doſe is from ten to thirty drops; but as there is no internal occaſion for its uſe, but which is more ſafely anſwered by other methods, they ought to be preferred; and as the preparations of *lead* have a conſiderable uſe externally, and when ſo applied are not injurious, the moſt prudent practice is to confine them thereto. This tincture was called tinct. antiphthiſica, becauſe it was uſed for checking the immoderate ſweats in hectic complaints.

Extractum Saturni. *Extract of* Lead.

Take as many pounds of the litharge of gold as quarts of vinegar; ſimmer them together for an hour and a quarter, and often ſtir them during their ſimmering; then taking it from the fire, as ſoon as it is cool enough pour the

the clear liquor into bottles to be kept for uſe. If this liquor is made into the common conſiſtence of an extract, it muſt boil yet longer after its ſeparation from the maſs; it will then be of a reddiſh colour. This is Goulard's method of preparing it, on which the ſame things may be obſerved that are related of the acetum lithargirites. This extract is the baſis of all Mr. Goulard's preparations of *lead*.

Aqua Saturni. Water of Saturn.

Mr. Goulard alſo calls this by the name of vegeto-mineral water, and makes it by dropping into a quart of pure water, an hundred drops of the extract of Saturn, and then adding to them four tea-ſpoonfuls of brandy. This is his ſpecific in external inflammations, particularly of the eye, for waſhing ulcers, cancers, ſcrofulas, contuſions, phlegmons, eriſipelas, piles, chilblains, tetters, gangrenes, &c. A ſolution of the ſaccharum Saturni will have the ſame effect.

Lead is of ſo poiſonous a quality, that no dog nor cat will come near the place where the ore is waſhed; if they do, they ſoon die. *Lead* is ſo fatal, that all who work in mines, and other places where it is a principal ſubject of their operations, ſuffer much from it. If it is received into the conſtitution, it produces the colic, palſy, general diſorders of the nerves &c. but externally applied, it is not only ſafe, but powerfully diſcutient, aſtringent, antiſeptic, and ſedative.

Lead is ſometimes diſſolved in acid liquors to prevent or remove their too great acidity; but thoſe liquors are thereby rendered unfit for internal uſe: to diſcover when this is the caſe, drop into the ſuſpected liquor a few drops of a ſolution of orpiment, or of common ſulphur, in lime-water, and the liquor in which *lead* is diſſolved becomes brown; and if on droping into this a few drops of the ſpirit of ſalt, this brown colour does not diſappear, it is *lead*, and not any other ſubſtance that is diſſolved in the acid or aceſcent liquor.

See Dictionary of Chem. Neumann's Chem. Works. Lewis's Mat. Med. Goulard's Treatiſe on the Effects and various Preparations of *Lead*. Aitken's Obſervations on the external Uſe of Preparations of *Lead*.

PLUMBUM NIGRUM. Black lead. It is alſo called nigrica fabrilis; ochra nigra; wadt; kello; *black lead*. It hath none of the properties of common *lead*, except that of colouring in drawing lines. It will calcine, but not fuſe. It is not now uſed in medicine, though formerly it was reckoned drying and repellent. See Dict. of Chem.

PLUMMERI PILULÆ. Plummer's pills. Levigate calomel, and the precipitated ſulphur of antimony, of each two drams, together; when they are well levigated, add three drams of the gum-guaiacum, and one dram of the reſin; mix them well, and make them into a pill, with the balſam capivi, and of each dram make twelve pills.

Its uſes are the ſame as thoſe of the æthiopis antimonialis.

PNEUMA. Spirit, air, vapour, or the breath. Hippocrates often uſes the word *pneuma*, to ſignify a difficult or ſhort breath.

PNEUMATOCELE, from πνευμα, *wind*, and κηλη, *a tumor*. A flatulent hernia, or windy rupture. It is when wind only is the contents of a rupture; but it rarely if ever happens. In ſome putrid fevers, in the ſmall-pox, and gangrenes, ſome parts of the ſkin frequently crackle like parchment under the finger. When carcaſes begin to corrupt, air evidently begins to generate in the veſſels and cavities, from which it may be preſumed that, in a very corrupted ſtate of the fluids, the *pneumatocele* may be formed. Mr. Bell obſerves, that the term *pneumatocele*, is applied to ſignify a diſtenſion of the ſcrotum by a collection of air. This hath been deſcribed by moſt of the ancient writers as a very frequent occurrence; but there is much reaſon to think, that a great proportion of all the tumors they take notice of as containing air, were either formed by collections of water, or by a protruſion of ſome of the bowels. That ſpecies of hernia, to which young children are liable, is to this day by our common people termed a wind rupture; as are all thoſe collections of water in the ſcrotum, with which the new-born infants are affected: but we know well, that none of theſe tumors are formed merely by wind; their contents being of a very different nature. In wounds of the lungs, air is ſometimes extravaſated into the ſurrounding cellular ſubſtance, and in that way paſſes into the ſcrotum, as it does in particular inſtances over the whole body: and in high degrees of putrid diſeaſes, ſo much air may be ſeparated from the blood, as to diſtend the cellular ſubſtance of the ſcrotum, as well as of other parts; but a real *pneumatocele* has never, probably, exiſted as a mere local affection of the ſcrotum. In the caſe of air diffuſed into the cellular ſubſtance of theſe parts, in conſequence of a wound or any other affection of the lungs producing an extravaſation of it, the ſame method of cure will anſwer for its removal that is recommended for anaſarcous ſwellings formed by water, viz. ſmall punctures with the point of a lancet, which are found to be fully ſufficient for evacuating great quantities of air. But whenever the diſeaſe is induced by ſuch a great degree of putreſcency in the ſyſtem as is neceſſary for affecting a ſeparation of air from the blood, there can be little reaſon to expect any advantage to reſult from whatever means may be employed for relief; though when the putrid degeneracy of the humours is the cauſe, a plentiful uſe of antiſeptics and corroborants are indicated.

Mr. Pott poſitively aſſerts the *pneumatocele* to be a miſtake. He ſays, that there is no tumor of this kind, and in this ſituation, in a living animal: it is indeed particularly deſcribed by many writers, both ancient and modern, and ſaid to be a diſorder to which infants are particularly liable: but the complaint ſo deſcribed, and which nurſes, &c. do ſtill call a wind rupture, is not what they take it for; neither is it produced by wind; it is either a true inteſtinal hernia, or a ſpecies of hydrocele. There is no hernia produced by mere wind; the two diſeaſes which in new born children, and infants, are taken for, and called wind ruptures are, a tumor produced by a ſmall quantity of fluid remaining in the lower part of the tunica vaginalis, after its communication above with the cavity of the belly is cloſed; and a true, but ſmall inteſtinal hernia. The natural communication between the cavity of the tunica vaginalis and the belly not being ſhut until ſome ſpace of time after birth; it may become cloſe at its upper part, while there is a quantity of fluid on the lower, too large for the abſorbent veſſels to take up immediately; and conſequently that ſuch infant will, until that office be executed, labour under a true hydrocele of the tunica vaginalis teſtis; a caſe which is very frequent, though generally miſtaken for a wind rupture.

Some late writers miſtake the encyſted hydrocele of the tunica communis which connects the ſpermatic veſſels for the wind rupture; but it differs from the wind rupture in its ſituation; but unfortunately, the encyſted hydrocele of the tunica communis, may be accompanied with a hydrocele of the tunica vaginalis, or with a true hernia, and then the caſe is ſomewhat difficult to aſcertain.

See Bell's Syſtem of Surgery, vol. i. p. 496. Pott's Chirurgical Works, quarto edit.

PNEUMATOSIS, i. e. Emphyſema. Alſo a pain in the ſtomach from wind.

PNEUMATOMPHALOS, from πνευμα, *wind*, and ομφαλος, *the navel*. An umbilical flatulent rupture.

PNEUMONIA. In general, an inflammation in the thorax, and of the membrane that lines it: but in particular, an inflammation of the lungs. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order phlegmaſiæ. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies. 1. *Pneumonia* peripneumonia. See PERIPNEUMONIA. 2. *Pneumonia* pleuritis. See PLEURITIS.

PNEUMONICA. A ſenſe of weight, or a load on the cheſt.

PODAGRA, from πους, *a foot*, and αγρα, *a prey*. The gout in the feet. Dr. Cullen uſes this term for the gout as a genus. See ARTHRITIS.

PODALIRIUS. A ſon of the Grecian Æſculapius. In this ſon's line, medicine was improved down to Hippocrates, who was the ſeventeenth in lineal deſcent. *Podalirius* gives the firſt inſtance of bleeding; this inſtance obtained him the princeſs, whom he bled, for a wife, and a part of her father's kingdom for a dowry. Nothing remarkable is recorded of the hiſtory of phyſic from *Podalirius* to Hippocrates. See HIPPOCRATES.

POEGEREBA. An American root, uſed in Paris as an aſtringent in dyſenteries.

POERINSII. A name for the arbor ſaponaria.

POINCIANA. Flower fence. It is alſo called frutex pavoninus; criſta pavonis; acacia orbis Americani; erythroxylon, &c. It grows in the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies; its ſeed-pods, infuſed with galls, affords the beſt black ink. See Raii Hiſt.

POLEMONIUM, alſo called valeriana Græca; valeriana cœrulea; Greek valerian; and Jacob's ladder. It is difficult to aſcertain what plant this is. See Raii Hiſt. Plant.

POLIUM. Poley. Of this plant botaniſts enumerate twelve ſpecies: the London College directs the teucrium creticum, Linn. The two following have been noted in medicine.

POLIUM MONTANUM LUTEUM. Yellow mountain poley; it is alſo called ſmall upright poley mountain, and poley mountain of Montpelier. It is a ſmall ſhrubby plant, with ſquare ſtalks, oblong woolly leaves ſet in pairs, and with labiated flowers.

POLIUM CRETICUM, alſo called roſmarinum ſtæchadis facie; teucrium fruteſcens; tree germander; poley of Candia. The leaves are ſet on ſhort pedicles, and are not indented; the flowers ſtand in looſe cluſters, each on ſeparate foot-ſtalks.

Both theſe ſorts have the ſame qualities; the leaves and tops have a moderately ſtrong aromatic ſmell, and diſagreeable bitter taſte. Diſtilled with water, they yield a ſmall quantity of yellow eſſential oil; an extract from the remaining decoction is very bitter. The leaves and tops are corroborant, aperient, and antiſpaſmodic. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

POLLEX. The thumb of the hand.

POLLEX PEDIS. The great toe.

POLYCHRESTOS, from πολυς, *much*, and χρηστος, *uſeful*. An epithet of ſeveral medicines, denoting that they have many virtues.

POLYCHRESTUM SAL. Salt of many virtues. See NITRUM.

POLYCHRESTUM, from πολυ, *much*, and χρηστος, *virtues*, BALSAMUM. The balſamum. The balſam of guaiacum.

POLYDIPSIA. Exceſs of thirſt. Dr. Cullen places it as a genus in the claſs locales, and order dyſorexiæ: but he ſeems to think it is always ſymptomatic. See SITIS.

POLYGALA, alſo called flos ambarvalis; amarella; common blue milk-wort. It is a ſmall perennial plant, with the leaves alternate, uncut, and thoſe on the upper-parts of the ſtalk larger than thoſe on the lower; the flowers are irregular, tubulous, tripetalous, labiated, ſet in looſe ſpikes on the tops, the cup compoſed of five leaves, the two larger of which continue after the flower hath fallen, and embrace like wings, a flat bicellular ſeed-veſſel. The ſtalks of this common ſort are procumbent; the lower leaves are roundiſh, the upper are oblong, narrow, or pointed; the flowers are blue, purpliſh, or red; ſometimes white, with a kind of fringed appendix on the lower lip; the roots are ſlender and hard. It grows wild in dry paſtures, and flowers in July. The roots are ſomewhat ſimilar in taſte to the Senegal milk-wort, but much weaker; and in a leſs degree they have the ſame effect in pleuriſies.

POLYGALA. See SENEKA.

POLYGALA INDICA MINOR. See COLINIL.

POLYGALA VERA, called alſo polygala major maſſiliotica; polygala valentina maritima; colutea caule geniſta fungoſo; coronilla; aſtragalus. Milk vetch.

An infuſion of this herb hath been uſed for increaſing the milk in women's breaſts.

POLYGONATUM, alſo called ſigillum Solomonis; Solomon's ſeal. It is the convallaria *polygonatum*, or the convallaria foliis alternis, amplexicaulibus, caule ancipiti, pedunculis axillaribus ſubunifloris, Linn. It is a plant with unbranched ſtalks, oval narrow leaves, ribbed like thoſe of plantain, generally all on one ſide; on the other ſide hang oblong monopetalous white flowers, two or more together on long pedicles, followed each by a black berry; the root (the part uſed) is white, thick, fleſhy, with ſeveral joints, and ſome flat circular depreſſions, ſuppoſed to reſemble the ſtamp of a ſeal. It is perennial, grows in woods, and flowers in May. Boerhaave mentions ſeven ſpecies. The roots are reſtringent, incraſſant and corroborant; if bruiſed and applied by way of poultice, it diſſipates blackneſs from contuſions ſpeedily. See Raii Hiſt.

POLYGONUM. Knot-graſs. That uſed in medicine is the polygonum aviculare, Linn. The root is creeping and fibrous; the ſtalk and branches are full of joints; the ſtalks recline towards the earth, are ſmooth, finely channelled, ſlender, and branched, full of knots or joints, at which grow long oval ſharp-pointed leaves. The root is cooling and binding, and hath been uſed againſt hæmorrhages inwardly, and againſt inflammations outwardly. See Raii Hiſt.

POLYIDUS. The next phyſician on record after Thyodamas, the ſon of Melampus. Polyidus was either a nephew or a grandſon of Melampus. By the fabulous accounts given of him, we may conclude that he was eminent in practice. The next eminent phyſician was Chiron.

POLYMERISMA. Supernumerary limbs or parts.

POLYMORPHOS. Multiform. An epithet for the os ſphenoides.

POLYNEURON. Plantain.

POLYOSTEON. That part of the foot which conſiſts of many bones.

POLYPETALOUS. Many leaves. Thoſe plants are ſo called whoſe flowers have many leaves.

POLYPHARMACOS, i. e. Polychreſtos.

POLYPODES. Wood-lice.

POLYPODIUM. Polypody. It is generally called *polypody* of the oak. The ſpecies uſed in medicine is the *polypodium* vulgare, Linn. It is a plant with long leaves iſſuing from the root, divided on both ſides, down to the rib, into a number of oblong ſegments, broadeſt at the baſe: it hath no ſtalk or manifeſt flower; the ſeeds are a fine duſt lying on the backs of the leaves in roundiſh ſpecks, which are diſpoſed in rows parallel to the rib; the roots are long and ſlender, of a reddiſh brown colour on the outſide, greeniſh within, full of ſmall tubercles, which are reſembled to the feet of an inſect; whence the name of the plant. It grows in the clefts of old walls, rocks, and decayed trees. That produced on the oak is uſually preferred, though no better than the other ſorts. It is found green all the year. The leaves have a weak ungrateful ſmell, a nauſeous ſweet taſte, a roughneſs and a ſlight acrimony. Its virtues are the ſame as thoſe of fern.

POLYPODIUM TENERUM MINUS, alſo called dryopteris, filix querna repens. Oak fern. It grows in marſhy places. If the root is bruiſed and applied to the ſkin, when the body is in a ſweat, it takes off the hairs.

POLYPODIUM ANGUSTIFOLIUM, alſo called lonchitis, aſpera, filix foliis polypodii. Rough ſpleen-wort. It grows in rough uncultivated places. The root is aperient and diuretic.

POLYPUS, from πολυς, *many*, and πους, *feet*. Many feet. This name is generally applied to a large ſea-fiſh, which hath eight claws or legs which ſerve it to ſwim with, and to convey aliment to its mouth; the four middle claws are the largeſt; the other four are called brachia, crura, cirri, and barba. Its mouth is in the middle of its body. It is found in the Adriatic ſea. See Lemery Traité des Drogues.

POLYPUS. Coagulations and concretions of blood in the blood veſſels are thus called, becauſe they ſend off many ramifications into the adjacent veſſels. The true polypus is only ſuch a concretion of blood as conſiſts of a whitiſh fibrous, and pretty compact ſubſtance, and differs widely from grumous or coagulated blood, which, when found, is called the baſtard *polypus*; it is a ſolid fibrous concretion, formed of the more viſcid parts of the lymph.

Their ſeat is in the ſinuſes of the brain, the ventricles of the heart, the jugular veins, the veins in the uterus, and in any artery or vein. According to Dr. Hunter, in his lecture on the blood, this is no diſeaſe in the living body, for the *polypus* found in the blood veſſels are not found till the body is dying. Thoſe that are the ſubjects of manual operations, their ſeat is in the noſe, the uterus, and the vagina. Theſe are inſtances of the ſarcoma.

The matter of the *polypuſes* is the more weighty fixed viſcid particles of the chyle and lymph.

The remote cauſes of a *polypus* in the blood veſſels are various;

various; as, a redundance of the blood, or its deficiency, may alike be the occaſional cauſes of this diſorder; a tall ſtature, large draughts of cold water ſuddenly drank after being heated with exerciſe, a too free uſe of acids and of ſpirituous liquors, terror, ſudden frights, and long continued grief, the apoplexy, epilepſy, hyſteric fits, a peripneumony, a ſpaſmodic aſthma, a pleuriſy and other acute as well as ſeveral chronical diſorders.

If a *polypus* is in the præcordia, the principal ſign is a long continued palpitation of the heart, often excited by a ſlight cauſe; ſuch as the commotions of the mind, flatulent aliment, or ſuch as renders the patient coſtive; another ſign is, an unequal intermitting pulſe, which is often accompanied with fainting, and difficulty of breathing without any manifeſt cauſe, a compreſſion of the præcordia, and what moſt generally accompanies this is a fixt pain about the heart: each of theſe, if they are almoſt perpetual, are palpable ſigns, that the circulation of the blood is obſtructed by ſome foreign body.

The palpitation of the heart, ſo troubleſome and frequent, as alſo the anxiety which ſo often attends, are cauſed by paſſions of the mind, flatulent diet, coſtiveneſs, &c. which by diſturbing the equable circulation of the blood, produce a greater impetus thereof to the heart, where, being preternaturally congeſted and accumulated, on account of the obſtructing *polypus*, it cannot find a ſufficient ſpace for expanding itſelf; but violently diſtends the heart and its veſſels, ſo produces theſe ſymptoms. The inequality and intermiſſion of the pulſe is occaſioned by the bulk of the *polypus* intercepting or preventing the due conſtriction of the heart and other veſſels on which the circulation of the blood depends. The compreſſion complained of in the præcordia is owing to ſpaſms there. *Polypuſes* happen more frequently in the right auricle and ventricle than in the left, and oftener in the veins than in the arteries: for ſince the chyle, which by means of the ſubclavian vein is conveyed to the vena cava and the right ventricle of the heart, is full of groſs particles which move ſlowly, it eaſily depoſits its heavy parts, by which the columnæ of the heart, being embraced, one ſubſtance or body, as it were, is produced. Then the blood conveyed to the veins by means of their too weak contractile force, circulated more ſlowly, is of a thicker conſiſtence, and more weighty than the arterial blood; hence it eaſily depoſits its thick parts; but eſpecially when theſe, not being intimately mixed, cohere ſlightly, they, by the force of their gravity, tend moſt to the bottoms and ſides of the veſſels. But it is otherwiſe with the arterial blood, for its courſe is promoted more effectually by the force of the arteries, and by its paſſage through the lungs is freed from a part which was unfit for circulation, if it hath not received ſomething from the inſpired air to fit it more effectually for its progreſs.

Polypuſes, by intercepting the circulation, are often the cauſes of ſudden death; this may happen either from their bulk or from the force of the circulation ſeparating one of them from its ſeat, and forcing it into the mouth of ſome principal veſſel, and fixing it there. *Polypuſes* haſten ſome other diſeaſes to an unhappy termination, as is obſerved in peripneumonies, pleuriſies, aſthmas, ſuffocative catarrhs, conſumptions, &c.

The indications of cure, are, to prevent their increaſe, and to diſſolve that which is already formed. At beſt the cure is not leſs difficult than dubious; however, means being uſed, and ſucceſs having followed them, acquits from the charge of neglect, and juſtifies hope.

The patient ſhould avoid entering ſuddenly into vigorous exerciſe, but moderate degrees ſhould frequently be engaged in. Dilute the blood, and reduce its quantity, if redundant. If frights, or other great commotions of mind, ſhould occur, adminiſter ſuch medicines immediately as allay violent commotions, and as render the circulation equable, that are gently reſolvent, and promote perſpiration; let moderate exerciſe alſo be uſed, for thereby the heart is better enabled to free itſelf from the congeſted blood. The bowels muſt always be kept ſoluble. If the habit is robuſt, alcaline ſalts, either fixed or volatile, and bleeding in the foot, ſo as to reſolve the texture of the blood to the greateſt thinneſs that conſiſts with health. Spirituous liquors muſt be avoided; alſo all ſtrong exerciſe, and every diſturbance of mind.

POLYPUS NARIUM. A polypus in the noſe. It hath been called noli me tangere, ſarcoma, and hyperſarcoma; but the *polypus* is always ſoft, and hangs by one or more ſlender roots; the ſarcoma is ſometimes ſoft, but generally hard, and is fixed on a large immoveable baſis.

The *polypus* of the noſe is an excreſcence whoſe branches ſpread among the laminæ of the os ethmoides, and through the whole cavity of one or both noſtrils. All theſe *polypuſes* ſpread on the laminæ ſpongioſæ, pretty nearly in the ſame manner as the hydatids of the belly in one kind of dropſy do on the ſurface of the liver. They proceed from any part of the noſtrils, or thoſe ſinuſes of the cranium that are lined with the ſame membrane as that with which the noſtrils are; being no other than an enlargement of one or more of the glands thereof.

The cauſes may be external or internal; the external are chiefly ſome violence done to the pituitary membrane, the application of ſtimulating drugs thereto, and blows, ſcratches, &c. Internal cauſes are, acrid defluxions, frequent or profuſe hæmorrhages, &c.

Different *polypuſes*, and the ſame at different times, appear of different ſizes and conſiſtences; their elongation is ſometimes ſo quick that they appear below the noſtrils in two or three days; for the moſt part they are free from pain, yet ſometimes they are attended with both pain and hardneſs, and then they generally are diſpoſed to a cancer, in which caſe they are of a livid colour, and apt to bleed by the ſlighteſt touch.

When a *polypus* appears ſoft, and of a pale colour like the ſerum of the blood, being alſo free from pain, it then is the beſt kind, and in the moſt proper ſtate to extract; theſe have rarely more than one attachment, from which they hang, and it is very ſmall; this muſt be brought away with the *polypus*, which commonly happens in the extraction of it if the forceps take hold, high enough. If it is hard, and appears ſchirrus, it will in general be found to have a broad baſis, and be unfit in every reſpect to meddle with: but if it is of that innocent kind juſt mentioned, its attachment is uſually in the anterior parts of the noſe, let the *polypus* appear where it will, and will be beſt extracted anteriorly, for few can bear the introduction of the forceps up behind the uvula.

Mr. Sharp directs the following method of extracting a *polypus*: "Introduce a pair of forceps with a ſlit at their extremities (for the better hold), an inch and an half up the noſtril, to ſecure the *polypus* as near the roots as may be; then twiſt them a little from one ſide to the other, and continue this action while you pull gradually downwards; if it breaks, repeat the extraction as long as any remains, unleſs it is attended with a violent hæmorrhage, which is an accident that ſometimes happens, and rarely fails, if the *polypus* is become ſcirrhus; this hæmorrhage is ſoon abated by the contraction of the veſſels, or the application of lint dipped in ſome ſtyptic." It may be known that the *polypus*, is removed, 1ſt. By the ſight; 2dly, By the voice; and 3dly, By the freedom of reſpiration through the noſe. In introducing the forceps it is difficult to avoid the oſſa ſpongioſa; but to ſhun them, keep the beak of the forceps as near as poſſible to the os palati. When the operator draws away the *polypus*, he may generally bring it away whole, if he draws and moves it very gently. If any of the *polypus* remains, touch it with the lunar cauſtic.

See Poterius, Rulandus, Wedelius, Celſus, Ægineta, Albucaſis, Sennertus, Glendorp, Malpighi, Hoffmann, Levret, Le Dran, Sharp, and Heiſter.

POLYSARCIA, from πολυς, *much*, and σαρξ, *fleſh*. Corpulence. It may be called a ſpecies of cachexy, for many diſagreeable ſymptoms attend; ſuch as an exceſs of fleſh and fat, flowneſs of motion, oppreſſion, weakneſs, difficulty of breathing, ſweating on the leaſt exerciſe, and all the misfortunes that attend voracious animals, or thoſe fattened for uſe, ſuch as inflation, diſtenſion, &c. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order intumeſcentiæ. The beſt remedies in this caſe are, a ſpare thin diet, frequent and long continued exerciſe, little ſleep, and cloſe application of mind. See Cœlius Aurelianus Chron. lib. v. c. 11.

POLYURICA, (Iſchuria). A ſuppreſſion of urine from a long neglect to diſcharge it.

POMA ANARANTIA. The orange.

POMA SINENSES. China oranges.

POMA-

POMACEUM. Cyder. It is the juice preſſed from apples, which hath ſtood to ferment in hogſheads. The more harſh *cyders* are the ſtrongeſt, and keep longeſt. *Cyder* is a uſeful drink in ſcorbutic and melancholic habits; but if drank to exceſs, it occaſions drunkenneſs of a longer continuance, and more pernicious conſequences than is produced by wine. It does not intoxicate ſo ſoon as wine, for its ſpirit conveys along with it many viſcous particles, which hinder both its ſpeedy effect and ſudden diſſipation. Moderately uſed, *cyder* is more ſalutary than wine; and whey that is made by turning the milk with *cyder*, is a much more agreeable drink for patients who labour under fevers, than that which is made with wine.

POMAMBRA. Apples of amber. They are made of odoriferous powders, to which oils may be added, and theſe powders are made into balls, &c. with wax, or mucilage of gum arabic, &c. E. g. take of mace and cinnamon of each two drams; muſk, civet, and gum arabic of each one dram; gum tragacanth, two drams. Mix and make into balls. They are agreeable to ſmell to.

POMATUM. It is the unguentum ſimplex. It was formerly made with lard, ſuet, and a ſpecies of apples called pome-waters; but at preſent it is only lard beat up into a curd, with the addition of a little roſe-water, or other ſweet-water, to give it an agreeable ſcent.

POMPHOLYX, πομφολυξ. A bubble excited in a liquid ſubſtance by ſome flatulent ſpirit or air contained therein. This name is given to the matter which is found adhering to the covers of the crucibles, &c. in the form of thin cruſts or light downy powder, of a white or whitiſh yellow colour, and is the produce of zinc, which ſublimes from the lapis calaminaris in making of braſs. It is alſo called nihil album, and white tutty.

POMUM. An apple. It is any fleſhy veſſel, containing more ſeeds than one; ſo that all plants which produce ſuch fruit are termed pomiferous, that is, *apple*-bearing.

POMUM ADAMI. A name for the lemon, fructu Aurantii; alſo for the protuberance in the fore part of the neck formed by the thyroid cartilage.

PONDO, or Pondus. A weight. The medical or troy pound is leſs than the averdupoiſe, but the ounce and the dram are greater. The Troy pound contains 5760 grains, the avoirdupoiſe pound contains 7000 ſuch grains. The Troy ounce contains 480 grains; the avoirdupoiſe ounce contains only 437½ grains. The Troy dram contains 60, the avoirdupoiſe rather more than 27. So that attention hereto ſhould be had in the making up what is preſcribed with a view to the Troy *weights*.

The pound and the pint are called libra by the Latins. But there is not any known liquor, of which a pint in meaſure anſwers to a pound in *weight*.

Rectified ſpirit of wine, a pint in meaſure, exceeds a pound *weight*, by half an ounce.

PONS VAROLII. Varolius, an Italian anatomiſt, gave this name to a ſort of arch in the cerebellum. He firſt obſerved it.

PONTICA VINA. Acid, feculent, and tartarous wines.

PONTICUM MEL. A ſort of poiſonous honey.

POPLES. The ham or joint of the knee.

POPLITEA ARTERIA. The arteria cruralis, in paſſing the ham, takes the name of *poplitea*, which, whilſt in the ham, is covered only by the integuments. It ends by dividing into the tibialis anterior and tibialis poſterior. Surpriſing as it may appear, it is a fact, that though the artery in the middle of the thigh may be tied with impunity, and the blood be diſtributed as uſual to the leg and foot, yet the *popliteal* artery in the ham never can. An aneuriſm in this artery ſeldom laſts long enough to cauſe a caries in the adjacent bones. When this diſeaſe happens it admits of no relief, except from amputation of the limb. The artery in this part, when dilated, will increaſe, and at length preſs upon the parts below, ſo as to make them become œdomatous, painful, and hard; the conſequence of which will be the deſtruction of the patient by a mortification of the limb, if amputation is not complied with in time.

POPLITEA VENA. The crural vein takes this name, juſt above the ham, and at the lower part of the muſculus popliteus, it divides into the tibiales anterior, tibialis poſterior, and peronæa.

POPLITEUS. The ſciatic nerve having reached the ham, takes this name: it divides into two branches, which ſpread about the whole leg.

POPLITEUS MUSCULUS, from *ples, the ham*. The place of its ſituation. This muſcle riſes tendinous from the external condyl of the femur, within the capſular ligament; it paſſes tendinous under the ham inwards; it plays upon the head of the tibia, and is inſerted into the ſuperior, and inner part thereof, ſerving to turn the toes inwards.

POPULAGO. Marſh-marigold. The flower reſembles that of the ranunculus. The plant is ſo cauſtic, that cattle avoid it though graſs be ever ſo ſcarce. It is not noted for its medicinal qualities.

POPULARIS. Endemical or epidemical.

POPULUS. The poplar. Boerhaave takes notice of five ſpecies.

POPULUS NIGRA, Linn. Black poplar. It is a tall tree, with dark green, rhomboidal, acuminated leaves, producing imperfect flowers in catkins. In ſome of the individuals called male, the flowers are barren; in others, called female, they are followed by membranous pods, containing a number of ſeeds winged with down. It is indigenous in watery places, and quick of growth. The young buds of the leaves are made into an ointment; they abound with a yellow unctuous odorous juice, which they readily impart to rectified ſpirit of wine. The tincture yields a fragrant reſin, which approaches to the nature of ſtorax. See Raii Hiſt.

POPULUS ALBA. White poplar. It grows in moiſt places; a decoction of its bark is given to remove the ſtrangury and the ſciatica.

POPULUS TREMULA. The aſp, or aſpin-tree. Its qualities are ſimilar to thoſe of the black poplar. It grows in woods and marſhy places.

PORI. Pores. It is ſuppoſed that one grain of ſand will cover one hundred and twenty-five thouſand of the pores in our ſkin, and that each pore is the orifice of a diſtinct gland; but this is only a ſuppoſition founded on the authority of Lewenhoek, who with aged eyes, and bad glaſſes, ſaw what younger eyes, aſſiſted with better glaſſes than he ever poſſeſſed, could never diſcover. Plants perſpire as well as men; but notwithſtanding the great perſpiration of both, *pores* cannot be diſcovered either in the cuticle of a man, or in the fine membrane that covers the external ſurface of the leaves.

PORPHYRITES. Red marble, or porphyry. It is brought from Egypt, Ethiopia, &c. It is a genus in the order of ſtones called compound ſtones. The compound ſtones conſiſt of more than one kind of ſtone. The characters of the *porphyry* are, ſtone, conſiſting of a baſis, which is of a ſtrong compact texture, with detached pieces of felt ſpat embedded in it, and freely ſtriking fire with ſteel. Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

PORRUM. Porret, or common leek. It differs from garlic only in being weaker. Botaniſts enumerate ſeven or eight ſpecies.

PORRUS, the ſame as ſarcoma.

PORTÆ VENA, vel Portarum Vena. The ſplenic, meſenteric, and meſocolic veins, uniting at the root of the meſentery, form the *vena portæ*. It may be conſidered as two veins joined endwiſe, and that ſend out branches in oppoſite directions to each other; that one of theſe veins is ramified in the liver, the other lying without the liver, and ſending its branches to the viſcera of the belly; that in the liver may be called *vena portæ* hepatica ſuperior, or minor; the other *vena portæ* ventralis inferior, or major. The particular trunk of the *vena portæ* hepatica, forms what is called the ſinus of the *vena portæ*; from this ſinus five principal branches go out, which are divided and ſpread through the whole ſubſtance of the liver; the extremities of theſe branches end in the pulpy friable corpuſcules, which ſeem to be thick villous folliculi. In theſe folliculi the bile is ſecreted, and collected by as many veſſels of another kind, which again unite in one common trunk; theſe ramifications are termed pori biliarii, and the trunk ductus hepaticus. The *vena portæ* ventralis is ſituated under the lower, or concave ſide of the

the liver, and joined by anaſtomoſis to the ſinus of the *vena portæ* hepatica, between the middle and right extremity of that ſinus, from thence it runs down from right to left under the trunk of the arteria hepatica, bending behind the beginning of the duodenum, and under the head of the pancreas, its length being about five fingers breadth. At the head of the pancreas it loſes its name, and divides into the meſaraica major and minor, and the ſplenica. See Winſlow's Anatomy.

PORTAGUILLE. See ACUTENACULUM.

PORTIO DURA. Winſlow calls it nervous ſympatheticus minor. It is one of the two diviſions of the ſeventh pair of nerves from the head, which run into the os petroſum, and there divides into the *portio dura* and *portio mollis*. The *portio dura* goes out between the ſtyloid and maſtoid proceſſes, paſſes through the parotid, becomes a cutaneous nerve upon the face, and communicates with the upper maxillary nerve.

PORTIO MOLLIS. The ſeventh pair of nerves go out from within the head, into the os petroſum, and there divides into two branches called *portio* dura, and *portio mollis*. The *portio mollis* is ſpent upon the labyrinth in the ear; it enters the meatus auditorius internus, and paſſes to the veſtibulum and cochlea.

PORTORARIUM. The duodenum, or the pylorus.

PORTULACA. Purpie, or garden-purſlane. It is chiefly uſed in the kitchen. Boerhaave enumerates ſix ſpecies; the leaves are cooling, antiſcorbutic, and moderately aſtringent. The ſeeds are the ſame.

PORTULACA MARITIMA. Alſo called halimus, atriplex maritima. Common ſea purſlane. It is found in ſalt marſhes; it flowers in July and Auguſt. It is a hot plant, and pickled in vinegar it helps the appetite.

PORUS. See POROS, *a paſſage*, and PORIS.

PORUS BILARIUS. The bile duct, from πορος, *a paſſage*.

PORUS OPTICUS. It is alſo called the blind point. It is the point on the retina where no object is ſeen.

PORUS RETICULATUS. A ſpecies of ſubmarine plant called eſchara.

POSCA. Vinegar and water mixed.

POSSETUM. Poſſet. This is by foreigners reckoned peculiar to the Engliſh. The ſerum of a *poſſet*, called *poſſet* drink, is like the whey of milk, only differing with reſpect to what the means were by which the curd and whey were made to ſeparate.

POSTBRACHIALE. The metacarpus.

POSTERIOR MUSCULUS AURIS, i. e. Abductor auris.

POSTHE. The prepuce.

POSTPOSITIO. Poſtpoſition. When the paroxyſm of a fever comes on later than it is expected, it is called the *poſtpoſition* of the paroxyſm. When it begins ſooner, it is called the anticipation.

POTAMOGEITON, from ποταμος, *river*, and γειτων, *adjacent*. Broad-leaved pondweed. It is alſo called millefolium, from the ſmallneſs of the leaves; and viola aquatica, from the colour of its flower.

This plant is found in ſtagnant waters; it flowers in June and July. Boerhaave enumerates eleven ſpecies, but they are not noted in medicine.

POTIO. A potion. It is a liquid form of medicine, calculated for one doſe or draught. *Potions* are diſtinguiſhed into cathartic, cardiac, and alterative.

PRÆCIPITANTIA. Precipitating medicines; that is, medicines which moderate the motion and heat of the blood, as was ſuppoſed, by abſorbing and correcting the acid contained therein.

PRÆCIPITANS MAGNUM. A name for the os ſepiæ.

PRÆCIPITATIO. Precipitation. It is the ſeparating of ſolid bodies from any fluid menſtruum wherein they are diſſolved, by the addition of a third body, which counteracting the power of the menſtruum, cauſes that which was diſſolved to regain its ſolid form, and to ſubſide in the ſtate of a powder. Or, by *precipitation*, bodies are recovered from their ſolutions, by means of the addition of ſome other ſubſtance, with which either the menſtruum, or the body diſſolved, hath a greater affinity than they have with one another.

Precipitation is of two kinds: firſt, where the ſubſtance ſuperadded, unites with the menſtruum, and occaſions that which was before diſſolved to be thrown down. Secondly, where the ſubſtance ſuperadded unites with the diſſolved body, and falls along with it to the bottom. Of the firſt we have an example in the *precipitation* of ſulphur from alkaline lixivia by the means of acids; of the ſecond, in the *precipitation* of mercury from aqua fortis by ſea-ſalt, or its acid.

When the matter to be precipitated is all at the bottom of the veſſel, the fluid being poured off, or filtered, what remains behind is all to be dried in the ſame manner as levigated powders are.

Precipitation may alſo be effected by dropping in a liquor ſpecifically lighter than the menſtruum by which the precipitated matter was diſſolved. Thus the ſpirit of ſal ammoniac precipitates plentifully the ſolutions of metals in acid menſtruums; the ſame is effected by rectified ſpirit of wine, which alſo precipitates all ſalts from water. Acids poured upon heavier acids will precipitate whatever ſwims in them; thus the ſpirit of ſalt precipitates lead, copper, and tin, diſſolved in oil of vitriol. *Precipitation* alſo ſucceeds, if an heavier body be added to the diſſolving menſtruum: thus acids, or water alone, will carry down all the ſolid corpuſcles which they meet with in tinctures of vegetables extracted by ſpirit of wine; and the ſame tinctures extracted by water, or wine, are precipitated by means of acid ſpirits.

When a third body is added to any ſolution, for precipitating one part thereof, it produces its effect by uniting with the diſſolving liquor, or with the matter which is diſſolved, and as one or the other happens. That which is precipitated is either ſimple or compound; if the precipitating matter joins with the diſſolving liquor, the precipitate is ſimple; if it unites with the precipitated matter, the precipitate is compound. This ſhould be obſerved, and the reſpective precipitates diſtinguiſhed by the words ſimple or compound.

Sometimes an advantage may be made of the liquor which remains after the *precipitation* is performed: thus, when fixt alkaline ſalt is diſſolved in water, and ſulphur is diſſolved in this lixivium, the addition of acids ſeparates and throws down the ſulphur, only in virtue of the acid uniting with, and neutralizing the alcali, by which the ſulphur was held diſſolved; conſequently, if the *precipitation* is made with the vitriolic acid, and the acid gradually dropt in till the alkali is completely ſatiated, that is, ſo long as it continues to occaſion any *precipitation*, or turbidneſs, the liquor will yield by proper evaporation and cryſtallization, a neutral ſalt, compoſed of the vitriolic acid and fixed alcali, that is, the vitriolated tartar; in like manner, if the *precipitation* is made with the nitrous acid, a true nitre may be recovered from the liquor; if with the marine, the ſalt called ſpiritus ſalis marini coagulatus; and if with the acid of vinegar, the ſal diureticus. See the Dict. of Chemiſtry.

PRÆCOCIA, or PRÆCOQUA. Apricots.

PRÆCORDIA. The diaphragm. Sometimes it ſignifies the hypochondria. Fernelius, in lib. iv. de Febr. comprehends under this term the region about the ſtomach, the *diaphragm*, the cavity of the liver and biliary ducts included therein, the pancreas, the ſtomach in particular, and its upper orifice, with whatever is contained under the inflections of the ſpurious ribs, towards the foreparts, and the ſternum. Some have given this name to the metatarſus.

PRÆPARANTIA MEDICAMENTA. Preparing medicines; that is, ſuch as prepare the morbid humours, and diſpoſe them to ſeparate from the healthy, and to paſs off by the help of evacuants.

PRÆPARANTIA VASA. It was formerly ſuppoſed that the ſeed was prepared in them; whence the name. The ſpermatic veſſels.

PRÆPARATA VENA. An ancient name for the frontal veins.

PRÆPUTIUM, from *præputo*. To lop off before. The prepuce or foreſkin.

PRÆSAGIA. Preſages. Fred. Hoffmann obſerves, that three things are requiſite to a right *preſage*, viz. 1ſt, That from due obſervation we are able to trace and inveſtigate the origins and cauſes of diſorders, in order to oppoſe them in the beginning, by proper remedies, or give

ſalutary directions. 2d, That we accurately know the various natures of diſeaſes, and their differences with reſpect to different conſtitutions, that we may the better be able to give medicines that are capable of removing them. 3d, That we be able to form a right judgment of the operation of medicines, and the event of diſorders This laſt, though it does not directly obtain the end of the healing art, yet it promotes the certainty of medicine and the reputation of the phyſician.

PRÆSENTATIO. A preſentation. In midwifery it is the manner in which a child offers itſelf in its paſſage into the world; and the different *preſentations* are denominated, according to that part of the child which is perceived at the mouth of the womb, when a woman begins to be in labour.

In a natural labour, the child preſents with its vertex. See PARTURIO.

The cauſe of wrong *preſentations* is not exactly known; but in different writers on midwifery, various opinions are given.

Preternatural *preſentations* are thus known. The membranes puſh out in a round form, in a right *preſentation*; but when any other part offers, the membranes protrude in a lengthened form; and when the pain is off, no part of the child can be perceived, but the membranes only, as in the beginning of labour; after ſome time indeed, from the quantity of water, the membranes have a round form, but then the orifice of the womb is but little opened thereby. If the head preſents, it is diſtinguiſhed by bringing the finger round, ſo as to take in a large ſpace of the head; we then feel an uniform hard ſubſtance, and often find a ſuture. When a ſhoulder, or a hip preſents, they have not that uniform hard feel which is obſerved when the head offers itſelf. If the back preſents, the vertebræ are felt. If the belly preſents, the funis umbilicalis diſcovers it. The breaſt preſenting, is known by feeling the ribs. When the breech offers itſelf, the private parts are eaſily perceived there, and the meconium is ſqueezed out at each pain. The hand, or foot preſenting, requires that we feel for the heel, that we may determine how to proceed.

Both feet preſenting. When this happens, the toes are generally towards the pubis, inclining a little to the right or to the left; draw the child gently downward whilſt the pains continue to increaſe, and are in their full force; and as you draw the child downwards gradually incline it to the ſide towards which its toes turn; for when the breech is delivered, the child muſt be turned with its face to the ſacrum of the mother. When the navel appears, draw down an inch or two of the funis, to prevent its being torn or too much ſtretched; when the body of the child is ſo far delivered, that its ſhoulders check its progreſs, introduce a finger to the elbow of the child; and gently draw the arm down, not perpendicularly, but by inclining it acroſs the breaſt of the child; this done, bring down the other arm with the ſame care. The arms brought down, place the fore and middle fingers of one hand, one on each ſide of the neck, with the thumb in one, and the fingers in the other axilla; then introduce the fore and middle fingers of the other hand into the mouth of the child to turn the face into the hollow of the ſacrum, and ſo finiſh the delivery.

One foot preſenting. In this caſe the toes are to the iſchium. If the leg is low in the vagina, ſo that the knee appears, it is too late to bring down the other foot, which may continue until the breech is delivered, and the child's face turned to the iſchium: then proceed as when the breech preſents.

Breech preſenting. When this is the preſenting part, if it is very high, and the os internum ſoft and open, break the membranes, and bring away the child by the feet; but if theſe circumſtances do not attend, leave the buſineſs a while to nature, the pains will puſh forward the preſenting part, and the labour will be as eaſy and ſafe as when the head preſents. In theſe caſes, the face of the child is uſually towards the belly of the mother, but ſometimes it is with its ſides towards her pubis and ſacrum, and as it inclines a little with its face to one or the other, in the courſe of the labour it will turn thereto. As it preſents, ſo let it deſcend, and keep the membranes whole as long as poſſible, for the more eaſy dilatation of the parts. When the hams of the child are from under the pubis, and the perineum freed from the breech preſſing on it, take hold of the child with both hands, and turn it with its face to the mother's back, and then bring down one leg after the other; if the child is very large, the legs muſt be brought down whilſt they are next the os pubis, and then the child's face is to be turned towards the mother's back. When the legs are free, proceed as when both feet preſent. When it is neceſſary to turn the child's face to the back of the mother, do it whilſt the pains are departing.

Back preſenting. When this ſituation is known, and the orifice of the womb is ſufficiently dilated, break the membranes, introduce the hand into the uterus, and carefully ſeek for the feet. When the child is in a lengthened form, and preſents with its back, neck, ſhoulders, or face, if at the ſame time the waters are gone, the caſe may prove a very difficult one. In tranſverſe ſituations of the child, the orifice of the womb does not open ſo ſoon as when the head preſents.

Belly preſenting. In this caſe the child is ſeldom living. The method of delivery is the ſame as when the back preſents. If the feet cannot be reached, get the knees to the belly, and then the feet are ſoon ſecured.

An arm preſenting in the vagina, and the membranes broke. This is one of the moſt difficult caſes that occurs in midwifery, eſpecially when the waters are gone, and the uterus contracts upon its burden forcibly. To proceed, puſh up the fore parts of the child towards the fundus uteri with one hand, whilſt with the other the feet are ſought for. Or, if the waters are all run off, begin with ſeeking for the feet; when they are found, draw them gently towards the vagina, at the ſame time puſh up the body of the child. When the feet are brought into the vagina, the caſe becomes the ſame as when the feet preſent. When the arm preſents, and the os internum is very rigid, before any attempts are made, wait for the dilatation of the part by the force of the pains.

In the London Medical Journal, vol. v. p. 64, &c. are related, by Dr. Denman, three caſes of the upper extremities preſenting, and the delivery being partly effected by the ſpontaneous evolutions of the child. In the firſt caſe, the woman had been in labour during the whole night, and one of the child's arms was the preſenting part; on attempting to turn the child, the pains were too violent to admit the introduction of the hand into the uterus. Imagining the child was ſmall, ſo that it might paſs, doubled, through the pelvis, farther endeavours to turn were omitted, and on waiting a little the breech preſented, and the head was the laſt part that was delivered. In the ſecond caſe, the *preſentation* was the ſame as in the firſt, and it was agreed on to turn the child; but the pains were ſtrong and frequent, ſo that the action of the uterus was ſuch as to forbid all endeavours that way. It was then agreed on to wait for the effect, which a continuance of the pains might produce, or till they were abated, when the child might be turned with leſs difficulty. The pains continued, and propelled the child lower into the pelvis, and in little more than an hour it was born; the breech being expelled, as in the firſt caſe. In the third caſe; the arm preſenting, and labour gone on for ſome time, after which attempts were made during ſeveral hours to turn the child, whoſe ſhoulder ſtrongly preſſed upon the perinæum; at length by the action of the uterus, the child was doubled, and the breech expelled; after which, the ſhoulders and head were extracted. In all theſe caſes the Doctor obſerves, that the women were at the full period of utero-geſtation, and the children were of the uſual ſize. More caſes might be related, but theſe ſufficiently prove the fact, that in caſes in which children preſent with the arm, women will not neceſſarily die undelivered, though they are not aſſiſted by art. With reſpect to the benefit we can in practice derive from the knowledge of this fact, it may be obſerved, that the cuſtom of turning and delivering by the feet in *preſentations* of the arm, will remain neceſſary and proper, in all caſes, in which the operation can be performed with ſafety to the mother, or give a chance of preſerving the life of the child. But when the child is dead, and when we have no other view but merely to extract the child, to remove the danger thence ariſing to the mother, it is of great importance to know that the child may be turned ſpontaneouſly, by the action of the uterus. If we avail ourſelves of that knowledge, the pain and danger which ſometimes attend the

operation

operation of turning a child, may be avoided. Nor would any perſon verſed in practice, fixing upon a caſe of preternatural *preſentation*, in which he might expect the child to be turned ſpontaneouſly, be involved in difficulty, if from a defect of the pains or any other cauſe, he ſhould be diſappointed in his expectations. Nor would the ſuffering or chance of danger to the patient be increaſed by ſuch proceeding. About thirty of theſe caſes have lately occurred, in two of which the children were born alive.

Some propoſe bleeding ad deliquium for abating the too ſtrong contraction of the uterus; and, at the moment of fainting, to attempt delivery.

The head locked faſt at the brim of the pelvis. In this caſe, and the ſeven next following, the membranes are broke, and the uterus is contracted about the body of the child. In this caſe, if the child be living, a tumor will be formed on its head, which will ſo increaſe, as to reach to the os externum; but when the child dies, this tumor becomes ſoft, and gradually diſappears. Whatever part of the head preſents, it may be locked faſt, though generally the face is towards the ſacrum; care is, however, required to know the part which preſents, and the ſituation of the child. In order to delivery, the curved forceps are neceſſary.

The middle of the ſagittal ſuture reſting on the pubes, and the face of the child turned up towards the fundus uteri. In this caſe the chin is preſſed upon the breaſt. Mr. Levret of Paris directs the following procedure in this caſe. "Before the firſt branch of the forceps is introduced, a fillet muſt be paſſed through the perforated blade, and likewiſe through the ſecond before it is paſſed; and after fixing the handles, tie the ends of the fillets together ſo as to hang down in a nooſe, about ſix or ſeven inches; then taking the forceps in the right hand, raiſe the handles, and bearing down at the ſame time with the left-hand in the garter, the forceps will be converted into a lever of the third kind, the moving power being between the point of ſupport (or the hand) and the point of reſiſtance (or the head of the child) which will be made to deſcend into the hollow of the ſacrum, and be delivered afterwards with eaſe.

The head preſenting with the ears to the pubes and os ſacrum. This is known by the ſagittal ſuture running from iſchium to iſchium, or oblique. And to know which way the face is turned, the ear ſhould be felt at the pubes. Sometimes the head may be removed from this poſition with our fingers; but when this cannot be done, the forceps muſt be uſed. If the face is to the left-ſide, turn the woman on her left-ſide; if to the right, lay her on her right ſide. In general, when the ears are to the ſides of the pelvis, and the forceps are to be applied, the woman ſhould be on her back, and her breech over the bed; but when the ears are to the pubes or groin, it is better to lay her on her ſide, and generally on the left. If the blade of the forceps cannot be introduced by the os pubis, the ear laying cloſe to it, introduce the blade a little to one ſide, then ſlip it over the ear under the pubis, and as the blade goes up, withdraw the hand. Over the ear is the beſt ſituation for the forceps, but if this cannot be, put one blade before one ear, and the other behind the other.

The forceps ſecured, pull gently when the pains are preſent, until the vertex is as low as the loweſt part of the iſchium; then turn the forehead into the concave part of the ſacrum, and give it a quarter turn more to bring the body into the ſame poſition, or, perhaps, the ſhoulders may catch againſt the pubis; then reverſe the quarter turn, and the forehead will be in its proper ſituation. The delivery will now be finiſhed, as when the head is low, and the pains gone.

The face preſenting with the chin to the pubes. In any faſe caſe, if the pains are ſtrong, uſe no forceps, but take time, and nature will do her own buſineſs. If the face preſents with the chin to the pubes, if the woman hath had children before, and the pelvis is good, the child will come forward very well by the force of the pains; for when it hath got below the pubis, the fore part of the neck will turn on it as on a fulcrum, and the vertex will riſe from under the perineum, and delivery will be effected without extraordinary difficulty, provided the perineum is well ſupported.

If called in time, and the os tincæ is dilated, it is uſually recommended to introduce the hand, and bring away the child by the feet; but if the pelvis is diſtorted, it is better to make the vertex preſent, by turning it with the hands. But be the pelvis as it will, if the face preſents with the chin to the pubes, if the waters are run off, the head low, and the pains very languid, apply the forceps. When the chin is cleared the difficulty is over. After the forceps are fixed, be careful to prevent the chin from catching againſt the os pubis.

The face preſenting with the chin to the os ſacrum. When the waters are run off, and the head is ſtrongly detained, delivery is extremely difficult. The head muſt be raiſed and turned with the chin to the pubis before delivery can be effected. In this caſe truſt to nature rather than begin too ſoon with the forceps; when the forceps are applied, force them upwards until you can turn the chin to the os pubis, and then proceed as when the chin at firſt preſented this way.

The face preſenting, and the chin to one ſide. If the woman is laid on her left-ſide, the child may often be turned ſo as for the chin to paſs under the pubis. If this cannot be done, introduce one blade of the forceps under the pubis, the other at the ſacrum; then bring the chin under the pubis, and proceed as in that caſe.

The face to the os pubis. When the fontanel preſents, the face is generally to the pubis. In this caſe, if the pelvis is good, and the parts dilated, the child will paſs by the force of pains; but if the parts are rigid, the perineum will be endangered. If the child is ſmall, and the pelvis large, pains may ſuffice to deliver the child; but if otherwiſe, as ſoon as the waters are broke, introduce the hand, and deliver by the feet. If this opportunity does not favour us, the forceps muſt be uſed. In order to feel the ear, puſh up the head, that the finger may paſs to the ear, and the forceps follow it; then fixing the other ſide of the forceps, and when the head is pulled ſufficiently low, turn the forehead into the cavity of the ſacrum, and deliver as when the head is low, but pains wanting.

The ſhoulders locked. In this caſe the head is moveable in the vagina; the face is on one ſide, one ſhoulder reſts on the upper and lateral part of the os ſacrum, the other paſſes over the ſides of the os pubis, ſo that the ſcapulæ and back of the child reſt in the pſoas and iliac muſcles on one ſide, and the knees and elbows preſs the ſame parts on the other ſide. The intention here is, to remove the ſhoulder on the ſide of the ſacrum, to bring them both to the wideſt part of the pelvis; to do this, ſlide a blade of the forceps under the ſhoulder of the child, and as with a lever raiſe that which reſts on the ſacrum, and carry it over the projection, which, when properly executed, the head will deſcend, and the delivery be almoſt ſpontaneous.

The head ſeparated and left in the uterus. In order to delivery, introduce a hand, and turn the chin to the os pubis, then, an aſſiſtant gently preſſing the belly to keep the head from rolling about, the operator muſt introduce the long curved forceps, and fix them on the head; having thus done, draw the head down until it is fixed in the pelvis; turn the handles up to the os pubis, and introduce a pair of ſciſſars; open the head, and deſtroy the ſtructure of the brain; after this, give the forceps a diagonal turn, then proceed as in any other caſe in which the head is ſo ſituated.

Twins. It is very difficult during pregnancy to know whether or no there will be twins at the birth. When there is but one child, the uterus rarely, if ever, riſes above the brim of the pelvis; ſo if on the third or fourth month it riſes up to the navel, it is very probable that there are twins. If after the delivery of one child the uterus is contracted into a firm hard ball above the os pubis, it is thereby known that there is not another; if, on the contrary, it is much diſtended, we ſhall find a child yet to come forth; and on examining there is another ſet of membranes. When one child delivered, tie the funis in two places, then wait for pains coming on, to deliver the next, except it preſents in a bad poſition, in which caſe bring it away by the feet. Except the placenta of the firſt child is looſe, and preſents itſelf for excluſion, leave it until the other child or children are delivered. The placentæ generally adhere to each other, but they are two diſtinct ones; though it ſometimes happens that ſome of their veſſels communicate; whence the neceſſity of tying the cut end of the funis when the firſt child is delivered.

Monſters. Theſe are when two children are ſo united

as to be one, or when one child hath, in ſome remarkable inſtances, the parts of two, and but one funis and placenta are found. When theſe are ſmall, they ſometimes paſs by the common methods of delivery, but when they are large they occaſion ſome difficulty. Rules cannot eaſily be laid down, becauſe of the variety of the ſubjects; the ſagacity and dexterity of the operator muſt here be wholly left to themſelves both in ſuggeſting the method, and in executing the plan for delivery.

The head low and right, but the pains have ceaſed. The head being long confined in the pelvis, is equally dangerous to the mother and the child, as a mortification may be induced in the firſt, whoſe influence will extend to the laſt, and prove fatal to both. To complete the delivery, the operator introduces one hand into the vagina, and puſhes them on until the ends of his fingers enter the orifice of the uterus; then with the other hand he paſſes one blade of the forceps between the introduced hand and the head of the child, withdrawing the hand, and holding the handle of the blade ſteady, he introduces the other hand in the ſame manner as the firſt, and after it he introduces the other blade of the forceps, then with both hands he puſhes them up until the locking part is within an inch of the child's head; he then locks and ties them ſo together that they may be ſteady, and proceeds by pulling them gradually from ſide to ſide, reſting a little now and then; when thus the head is brought ſo low as conſiderably to ſtretch the perineum, and to protrude from under the os pubis, the handles of the forceps muſt be raiſed gradually towards the woman's belly, and thus the head will be compleatly delivered: this done, and the forceps removed, the procedure will be as when the labour is natural.

The head too large, or the pelvis too ſmall. In theſe caſes the head being brought as low as the natural pains can force it, its ſize is leſſened by boring into it with a pair of ſciſſars contrived for that end, and diſcharging the brains; then with the curved crotchets ſecured on the head in the ſame manner as is directed for the forceps; or with a blunt hook introduced into the perforation made with the ſciſſars, the head of the child is brought forward. When the pelvis is diſtorted, the child muſt never be turned with a view of delivering it by the feet; but if it preſents by the feet, endeavours muſt be made to deliver it that way.

The occiput preſenting. When this happens, ſuppoſe the occiput lays over the os pubis with the face upwards, the operator muſt thruſt up the child, and preſs back the ſacrum, that the vertex may be brought to preſent; but if this cannot be done, fix one ſide of the forceps betwixt the os pubis and the occiput, ſo as that the point may be in the neck of the child, and ſtrive thus to move it; this done, fix the blades on the moſt convenient parts, and deliver. See the authors mentioned under the article OBSTETRICATIO.

PRAXAGORAS. The next celebrated phyſician to Diocles Caryſtius: he was of the Eſculapean family, born in the iſle of Cos, and is ſuppoſed to be the laſt of that family who had much repute. He adviſed in the iliac paſſion to cut the bowel open, and take out the excrement, and then to ſew it up; but in this he was never followed. A pupil of his was HEROPHILUS, whom ſee.

PREHENSIO. The catalepſy.

PREMNON. The extremity of the white of the eye.

PRESBYTÆ, from πρεσβυς, *old*, becauſe frequent in the aged. So thoſe are called whoſe eyes are too flat to refract the rays ſufficiently, ſo that unleſs the object is at ſome diſtance, the rays coming from it will paſs through the retina before their union, conſequently viſion is confuſed; old people are uſually the ſubjects of this diſeaſe. In order to remedy, or at leaſt to palliate this defect, the perſon ſhould firſt uſe glaſſes that do not magnify, and from them paſs gradually to more convex ſpectacles, which ſhorten the focus. It is a ſpecies of dyſopia, which ſee.

PRESSURA. Inflammation of the finger end from the effect of cold. It is an inſtance of the phlogoſis erythema of Cullen.

PRIAPISMUS, from *Priapus, the heathen god*, whoſe penis is always painted erect. A priapiſm. It is an erection of the penis without any concomitant pain, or the conſent of other parts. It is thus called, becauſe the perſon in this ſtate reſembles the lewd god *Priapus*. Cœlius Aurelianus ſays it is a palſy of the ſeminal veſſels, and other nerves diſtributed to the parts about the penis, by the diſtenſion of which this diſorder is produced.

PRIAPUS. A penis.

PRIMÆ VIÆ. The firſt paſſages; that is, the ſtomach and inteſtinal tube.

PRIMULA VERIS. The primroſe, i. e. primula vulgaris, Linn.

PRINCIPIA. The principles or elements of bodies. To know the virtues of *bodies*, or how mixed *bodies* ſtand related to the human *body*, either for preſerving, or for reſtoring it, we muſt know the principles of which they conſiſt; alſo the mixture and proportion of ſuch principles as their virtues conſiſt in: ſuch ſimple parts, therefore, as all mixed bodies can be reſolved into, are called *principles*, or *elements*.

In analyſing mixed *bodies*, a ſpirit, (or mercury as the ancients call it) ſulphur, that is oil, ſalt, water, and earth, are obtained. Modern chemiſts deny that either ſalt or oil are *principles*; for ſulphur and oil may be reduced to ſalt, earth, and water.

On this ſubject, what Beecher hath advanced, though very obſcure, is yet the ſource of many valuable diſcoveries in chemiſtry. Stahl hath improved on Beecher, and by the aid of theſe great men, it is demonſtrated, that fire, water, and earth, enter into the compoſition of *bodies*. Sir Robert Boyle and Dr. Hales have as clearly proved that air is a conſtituent of moſt *bodies*. Thus, as Ariſtotle taught long before chemiſtry furniſhed its aids for the eſtabliſhing this truth, the four *elements*, viz earth, air, fire, and water, are now ſaid to be the *principles* of all compound *bodies*. However *bodies* are decompoſed, theſe conſtituents are always obtained; and as theſe cannot be decompoſed any farther, they are conſidered as ſimple ſubſtances, and are called primary *principles*, or *elements*.

In decompoſing *bodies* that are much compounded they are not by a firſt analyſis reduced to their primary *principles*; but ſubſtances are obtained from them that are more ſimple than the original one was; and as theſe do the office of *principles* in the compoſition of *bodies* leſs ſimple than themſelves, they have been called *principiate principles*. Moſt chemical agents, as acids, alkalies, &c. are of this kind. *Principiate principles* have very different degrees of ſimplicity, and ſo are diſtinguiſhed into firſt, ſecond, &c. orders. See the Dict. of Chem.

PRIVATIVI. Diminution of the ſenſes. Defect of appetites. It is ſynonymous with dyſæſtheſiæ and dyſorexiæ in Cullen's Noſology, particularly in the inſtances of deficiency.

PROCARDION. The pit of the ſtomach.

PROCATARCTICA CAUSA. The procatarctic cauſes. See CAUSA. The pre-exiſtent cauſe, from προκαταρχω *antigredior*.

PROCESSUS. A proceſs, from *procedo, to ſtart out*. In chemiſtry, it is a ſeries of operations tending to the production of ſomething new.

In anatomy it is a *proceſs*, and is a protuberance or eminence of a bone. Many bones have *proceſſes* riſing out of them. If the *proceſs* ſtands out in a roundiſh ball, it is called caput, and the narrow part is called cervix; when the head is rather oblong, and unequally rounded, it acquires the name of a condyle; a rough, unequal protuberance is called a tuberoſity; ſuch *proceſſes* as terminate in a ſharp point, have the name of corone or coronoid; ſuch as form a longitudinal ridge are called ſpine, and ſometimes criſta, the labia are each ſide of a broad ſpine; ſuch as form brims of cavities are named ſupercilia. The uſe of *proceſſes* is to give bones their neceſſary ſhape, and to adapt them for motion; they ſometimes ſerve to give cavities, and generally are uſeful in allowing a greater ſurface for the origin, larger attachment, and more advantageous direction of muſcles. *Proceſſes* are of two kinds, viz. the APOPHYSIS, and the EPIPHYSIS, which ſee.

PROCESSUS CILIARES. See CILIARES LIGAMENTUM.

PROCESSUS MAMILLARES. So the olfactory nerves are called.

PROCIDENTIA. See PROLAPSUS.

PROCIDENTIA ANI, from *procido, to fall down*, called alſo prolapſus ani, exitus ani. The *falling down* of the

fundament. It is a relaxation of the ſphincter to ſuch a degree that the internal villous, or rugous coat of the inteſtine, turneth out, and beareth down, making a ſwelling proportionably.

The cauſes are, a weakneſs in the part, which is aggravated by coſtiveneſs, diarrhœas, and particularly a teneſmus: an acrid humour falling on this part, the hæmorrhoids, hard labour, a ſtone in the bladder, or whatever can occaſion a paralyſis of the levatores and ſphincter ani. Hoffman ſays the cauſe is not in a relaxation of the inteſtine, but of its ligaments.

Infants are the moſt frequent ſubjects of this diſorder, by reaſon of the tenderneſs of their frame and their frequent ſtraining, either from coſtiveneſs, or the *falling down* of a ſharp humour on theſe parts.

The ſigns are evident to the ſight; the inſide of the inteſtine is turned outward; the tumor is of a fleſhy colour, ſometimes it is wrinkled, at others it is ſmooth and ſhining, and is accompanied with an uneaſineſs, and an ineffectual deſire to go ſtool.

Sometimes this diſorder is miſtaken for the piles; indeed any tumour about the anus, when of a conſiderable ſize, may be miſtaken for the deſcent of the part, and vice verſa; therefore, attention is not unneceſſary. Through miſtake, a ligature hath been applied about the prolapſed anus, in order to extirpate it.

The cure is difficult, but leſs ſo in children than in grown people. When coſtiveneſs, a ſtone in the bladder, or labour, gives riſe to this complaint, the cure is ſometimes effected; when a diarrhœa follows it the cure is very difficult; if ſucceeded by the hæmorrhoids the difficulty is yet greater.

When acrid matter is obſerved to occaſion fruitleſs ſtraining, ſo as to force down the inner coat of the rectum, give a gentle doſe of rhubarb every third or fourth day; and in the intervals of purging give abſorbents and ſtrengtheners, ſuch as chalk, in frequent and ſmall doſes; if pain is conſiderable, give ſmall doſes of the tinct. Theb. at proper intervals. If the habit is coſtive, give laxatives in ſuch doſes as will procure a ſtool or two every day: if a diarrhœa attends, it ſhould be gradually checked; if there are ulcers in the inteſtines, or if by the ſharpneſs of the humours the mucus is abraded, the ſtarch clyſter, with a few drops of the tinct. Theb. ſhould be now and then injected. If a teneſmus comes on, let a clyſter be injected every night, or oftener, in which is the Venice turpentine diſſolved with the yolk of egg. If the prolapſed inteſtine is ſwelled, apply diſcutients; when the tumour gives way uſe gentle aſtringents; then, by gently preſſing the part with your fingers, the whole will return to its proper ſituation; after the reduction the part may be ſuſpended by the T bandage. It is the moſt eaſily reduced by the patient himſelf lying on his back, and writhing himſelf from one ſide to another, croſſing his legs, &c. But, as in all other caſes, let the cauſe be firſt attended to. If it goes up and down of its own accord, there is no occaſion for ſurgery; the beſt method will be to remove the irritation, and ſtrengthen the whole ſyſtem, which is generally in a relaxed ſtate. The irritation is frequently produced by an acrid mucus, which is generally relieved by alkaline medicines. Avoid aſtringents, even omit the bark, if it proves aſtringent. Sometimes the inteſtine is not only thruſt forth, but is ſo bound by the ſphincter ani above, that it cannot readily be returned; in ſuch caſe Mr. Pott adviſes to bleed, to give opium as required, to foment, and wrap up the part in an anodyne and emollient poultice; thus in a little time its ſtate is ſo altered, that it generally is returnable, until which time, the more we handle it the worſe it will be, but now having gently wiped it clean, it may be returned. If extirpation proves neceſſary, it is beſt performed by ligature; exciſion is not to be attempted, for fear of hæmorrhage, which ſhould it follow, it would be from veſſels that nature muſt ſtop, for art could not reach them. If the *prolapſus* is large, take a ſtrong needle, double threaded, and paſs it through the inteſtine, tie it above on one ſide, and then below on the other, or above and below properly. If the prolapſus is ſmall, paſs a double ligature round its whole diameter; in both caſes leave it to drop off. The pain is allayed by poultices, opium, &c. The ſphincter afterwards does its office, and this moſt troubleſome complaint is entirely got rid of.

When the *prolapſus ani* is cauſed by a ſtone in the bladder, or other diſeaſe, it will be reſtored when thoſe complaints are relieved on which it depends: therefore, great care ſhould be taken before extirpation is attempted, that the caſe is ſimply the relaxed *prolapſus*. If a gangrene affect the inteſtinal fold, ſlightly ſcarify the diſcoloured part, apply ſtupes wrung out of warm red wine, or other antiſeptics; repeat them every two or three hours, and betwixt the uſe of theſe continue the catapl. e cymino on the part. When the prolapſed part cannot eaſily be kept up in grown people, Cheſelden recommends to "take away a piece of the prolapſed gut lengthways, for after the cicatrix is formed, the gut will never deſcend." But on this Mr. Pott remarks, "I am ſorry for this, leſt Mr. Cheſelden's authority ſhould tempt any other perſon to make the ſame trial." Gooch, in his Caſes and Remarks, gives the draught of a convenient machine by which the parts may be ſupported. See Turner's, Wiſeman's, and Heiſter's Surgery.

PROCIDENTIA UTERI. The falling down of the womb. Different ſpecies of this diſorder are thus diſtinguiſhed: 1. Relaxatio, a bearing down or deſcent of the womb; it is when the womb deſcends down to the middle of the vagina, or even with the meatus urinarius. 2. Procidentia; the precipitation or falling out of the womb: it is when it deſcends to the labia pudenda. 3. The prolapſus; the precipitation, or falling out through the labiæ pudendæ. 4. Inverſio or peryerſio: and 5. Retroverſio.

In the leſſer degrees of theſe diſorders they are diſcovered by the touch, and the greater degrees by the eye. If the woman ſtands upright, and a finger is introduced into the vagina, the deſcent of the womb is diſcovered, and by meeting with the os tincæ the caſe is diſtinguiſhed from a deſcent of the vagina; though, in ſome inſtances, much difficulty attends the diſtinction of theſe accidents. If the woman is pregnant, ſhe finds a weight at the bottom of her belly, and the cervix uteri preſſes ſo low that ſhe cannot walk but with pain and ſtraddling; towards the latter end of pregnancy, the womb ſinks ſo low as to cauſe numbneſs in the hips and ſleepineſs in the thighs, a difficulty of urine and at going to ſtool, by preſſing the rectum and the neck of the bladder; a conſiderable pain is alſo felt in the loins, about the inſertions of the ligamenta lata. When there is a perverſio uteri, it appears like a piece of fleſh, and when this is the caſe, it is always attended with a *procidentia* veſicæ urinariæ.

Girls are ſometimes the ſubjects of this diſeaſe, but it moſt frequently happens to women who have had children, in whom it is generally cauſed by hard labour, or getting out of bed too ſoon after delivery, though ſometimes it is owing to a weak relaxed habit. A ſhort funis umbilicalis, and the placenta adhering, may be the cauſe, particularly if force is uſed in delivering them.

If any ſpecies of this diſorder is neglected, the woman ſuffers much pain, with a difficulty in voiding her urine, and ſometimes an inflammation, ulcers, or a cancer, will be formed in the womb.

In general the cure is only palliative, and conſiſts of introducing a peſſary into the vagina, by which the uterus is kept from falling down any lower; ſometimes this proves a means towards a radical cure, by giving the relaxed parts an opportunity of recovering their tone. Sometimes, when a leſſer degree of this diſorder hath happened, the uſual confinement in bed during the next lying in hath effected a cure; a peſſary ſhould be introduced as ſoon as it conveniently can, after delivery being completed, and worn for ſome time after the woman walks abroad. A round peſſary is the beſt, and ſhould be ſo large as to occaſion ſome uneaſineſs in paſſing it up, or it will be apt to fall down again. If a lacerated perineum is the cauſe of the womb bearing down, a peſſary will not be very uſeful; in this caſe a ſort of cuſhion may be placed with its convex ſide to the os externum, and ſecured there by the T bandage. If the prolapſus hath been long neglected, ſo that a ſwelling and inflammation is come on upon the part, bleed, keep the bowels open, and apply fomentations and poultices. If a mortification appears, give the bark, and uſe the juſt named applications, until the ſloughs ſeparate and the parts heal, after which apply a

peſſary, if the patient can bear it. Whenever a gangrene or a cancer appears, reduction increaſes the attending ſymptoms, or produces new and fatal ones; but if there are ulcers, the part ſhould be reſtored with all convenient ſpeed.

The inverſio is when the uterus not only deſcends, but is turned inſide outward. This never happens but immediately after delivery, the os tincæ then being nearly as large as the fundus; and, beſides this, ſome violence, ſuch as pulling the funis forcibly to bring away the placenta, is uſed, otherwiſe the contraction of the womb, after being freed from its principal burden, (the child) would abſolutely prevent all poſſibility of this kind of diſorder. Whatever be the cauſe, the part muſt immediately be reſtored, or the conſequence will ſoon be fatal, for its orifice will contract in this unnatural ſtate, and ſo prevent the needful relief. Firſt empty the bladder, if it contains much urine; then lay the patient on her back with her hips raiſed, then with the hand reſtore the uterus; gently return it into the vagina with three fingers, and then with the whole hand place it in the belly, after which, clench the fiſt, and retain it there, until the uterus contracts upon it; laſtly, ſupport it as in the caſe of a prolapſus.

The retroverſion of the uterus. This diſorder is not properly a ſpecies of *procidentia* as above deſcribed, but is when it ſo falls, from its natural poſition, that the urinary bladder is either preſſed by it, or drawn from its uſual place, and the fundus uteri preſſes upon the inteſtinum rectum; or it may be that the fundus uteri is thrown upon the os pubis, and its orifice towards the rectum. Moſt of theſe caſes happen in the early ſtages of pregnancy, ſeldom ſo late as the fourth month; they occaſion firſt a difficulty, then by degrees a ſuppreſſion of urine, and ſoon after, a ſuppreſſion of the inteſtinal diſcharge. For the moſt part the following treatment hath been ſucceſsful. Firſt, the urine is to be drawn off by means of the catheter, then a ſtimulating clyſter muſt be injected, that the inteſtines may be duly evacuated; theſe done, place the woman on her knees and elbows, with her head downwards, and by introducing one hand up the vagina, endeavour to draw it forwards, then with two fingers in the anus endeavour to puſh up the fundus uteri. See an account of ſome inſtances of this nature in the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 388, &c. and ſee Dr. Hunter's Tables of the gravid Uterus.

On the *procidentia uteri*, ſee Ruyſch's Obſ. No. 1, 7, 9, 10, and Saviard. Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii. p. 8—6. Med. Muſeum, vol. i. p. 227—230. Heiſter's Surgery. Hamilton's Outlines. Edinb. Med. Comm. vol. iv.

PROCIDENTIA VAGINÆ. The degrees of this diſeaſe are different; but when a part of, or all the vagina appears through the pudenda, it may be called a prolapſus; when it deſcends to the labia pudenda, it may be termed a *procidentia*; and when not ſo far, a relaxation. Widemannus gives a caſe of a prolapſus vagina which had all the appearance of a prolapſus uteri, and which was not properly diſtinguiſhed until it was too late to afford any relief; but generally they are diſtinguiſhed by obſerving the os tincæ, which diſtinguiſhes the womb from all other caſes of a deſcent, and from the inverſio, by its only happening after labour. When the whole vagina is prolapſed, it appears like crude bloody fleſh. If the prolapſed vagina ſwells violently, and is attended with inflammation, there is immediate danger of a ſphacelus; if the prolapſed part be affected with little or no ſwelling, or if there is no inflammation, the tumor will be very little trouble, and without danger. This diſorder ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from a tumor, a fungus, a ſarcoma, &c. of the part.

The part may be reſtored with the fingers; which when done, the patient ſhould reſt in bed for ſome days, and uſe an injection of warm vinegar and water, or red wine and water; but if theſe fail, the T bandage muſt be worn. If inflammation, &c. attend, the ſame procedure will be proper, as when the like ſymptoms happen to the uterus. See Heiſter's Surgery.

PROCIDENTIA VESICÆ URINARIÆ. The inverſion of the uterus never happens without the bladder being diſplaced. They get down to the perinæum, and there make a protuberance. The bulb of the bladder being thus forced down, it is now no longer expoſed to the preſſure of the abdominal muſcles as before, and not having force enough in this poſture, to contract and preſs out the urine, the poor woman in this ſtate never makes any water, without firſt ſqueezing the bladder with her hands, or between her thighs. When the bladder is thus diſpoſed, if the catheter is to be introduced, it muſt not be thruſt inward, but downward, the bulb of the bladder being below the meatus urinarius.

PROCONDYLOS, from προ, *after*, and κονδυλος, *finger*. The firſt joint of each *finger* next the metacarpus, ante internodium.

PROCTALGIA. Inflammation of the anus, with pain. Dr. Cullen places it as a variety of phlogoſis phlegmone.

PROCTITIS. The ſame as PROCTALGIA.

PROCTOLEUCORRHŒA. The ſame as Proctorrhea, but thus named becauſe of the diſcharge reſembling that called the whites.

PROCTORRHŒA. A nervous flux, that is ſometimes yellowiſh, or ſtreaked with blood; probably from the external hæmorrhoidal veſſels, or perhaps in ſome inſtances from the internal ones; this diſcharge is accompanied with heat and itching about the anus.

PROEGUMENE. A precedent cauſe. Or an intercedent, internal cauſe of a diſeaſe, in the body, occaſioned by another cauſe.

PROFLUVIA. Fever, with an increaſe of ſome natural diſcharge.

PROFLUVIUM URINÆ, i. e. Diabetes.

PROFLUVIUM. A flux of any kind.

PROFUNDA BRACHII VENA, vel Profunda Superior. It is a branch from the baſilica vena, ſent off from it below the neck of the os humeri; and near the hollow of the axilla: it runs along the ſide of the brachial artery, and ſpreads in the adjacent muſcles.

PROFUNDUS MUSCULUS. A name for the perforans manus.

PROFUSIO. Paſſive hæmorrhages; ſuch as happen from wounds, &c. and not the effect of fever. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order apocenoſes.

PROGERMINUS ABSCESSUS. An abſceſs ariſing from a viſcid and almoſt corrupted phlegm.

PROGLOSSIS. The tip of the tongue.

PROGNOSIS, from προ, *before*, and γινωσκω, *to know*. The prognoſtic of a diſtemper. It is the knowledge of the ſigns by which we preſage thoſe circumſtances that will happen to the patient. In this Hippocrates excelled; his prognoſtics are at this day eſteemed; yet it muſt be allowed that ſome of them are fallacious from the difference of climes, and conſtitutions.

In forming prognoſtics, attend to, 1. What will be the future event of the diſeaſe. 2. From like diſeaſes having preceded in the ſame body. 3. And, from a knowledge of the preſent ſtate of the vital powers, and a compariſon thereof with the ſtrength of the morbific cauſe.

The ſigns of health, and death, are more fallacious in acute, than in chronical diſeaſes.

See the Engliſh tranſlations of Hippocrates's Prognoſtics in Acute Diſeaſes; and of Proſper Alpinus's Preſages on Life and Death.

PROHIBENS. The ſame as contraindicans.

PROJECTIO. Projection. In chymiſtry, it is the caſting of any ſubſtance to be calcined into a crucible, by a ſpoonful, or a ſmall quantity at a time. *Projection* is alſo an addition of a ſmall quantity of ſomething to a greater quantity of a metal, in order to meliorate the metal. See Wilſon's Chemiſtry.

PROJECTURA. An apophyſis.

PROLABIUM, *pro*, *before*, *labium*, *the lip*. The red part of the *lips*. Under the epidermis, which in this part is called epithelium, is a collection of fine long villous papillæ, cloſely connected together, and covered not only by the epidermis, but alſo that pellicle which covers the glandulous membrane of the cavity of the mouth: this villous ſubſtance is of exquiſite ſenſibility.

PROLAPSUS. See PROCIDENTIA. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order ectopiæ. A *prolapſus*, a procedence, or exany, is the miſplacing of a ſoft part, and ſo that it is generally obvious

to

to the ſight; or, it is a tumor ariſing from the diſlocation of a ſoft part, as a membraneous or fleſhy part, as is inſtanced in the bearing down of the rectum, an inteſtinal hernia, &c.

PRONATIO Pronation. When ſpoken of the hand, it is when the thumb is turned towards the thigh; ſo then, if the body is laid on its back, the palm of the hand will be downwards.

PRONATOR QUADRATUS. This muſcle is alſo called tranſverſus. It ariſes tendinous from the inner part of the ulna, and is inſerted into the inner part of the radius. One end of it is fixed to the lower part of the ulna, and by the other in the concave ſide of the lower extremity of the radius.

PRONATOR TERES. It riſes from the internal inferior part of the os humeri, and is inſerted into a line at the lower end of the radius. This muſcle is alſo called obliquus, and *pronator radii teres*.

PROPHYLACE, or Prophylactice, or Prophylaxis, from *προ, before*, and *φυλασσω, to preſerve*. The method of preſerving health, and averting diſeaſes.

PROPOLIS. Bee bread. It is a wax like a kind of glue, found in the entrance of bee hives. It ſoftens indurations; but it is not noticed in the preſent practice.

PROPRIETATIS, (Elixir,) i. e. elix. aloes.

PROPTOMA. A prolapſus or deſcent of a part.

PROPTOSIS, from *προπιπτω, to fall out*. The ſame as procidentia. It is to fall from its natural ſituation. When the eye is ſo enlarged that the eye-lids cannot cover it, it ſometimes burſts; and this diſorder is called *proptoſis* by the Greeks. If the eye is ſwelled with a watery humour, ſome call it hydrophthalmia; oculus bubulus; oculus bovinus; or oculus elephantinus, from its reſemblance to the eye of an ox, or an elephant. If the hydrophthalmia is recent, and the eye not altogether deformed, it may be reſolved by bleeding, purging, bliſtering, and diſcutient embrocations; if theſe fail, diſcharge the humour by tapping every two or three days, until there is no further need; dreſs the eye with lint dipped in the white of egg, and over it lay a thick compreſs dipped in ſpirit of wine, uſing at proper intervals, ſudorifics, diuretics, purges, &c. If the ſight is loſt, if a caries, a ſpina ventoſa, cut out the cornea, and proceed as in the ſtaphyloma. It is ſynonimous with ſtaphyloma in ſome writers.

PRORA. The occiput.

PRORÆ SUTURA. The lambdoidal ſuture.

PROSARTHROSIS, i. e. Adarticulatio.

PROSPER ALPINUS. A profeſſor at Padua. About the end of the ſixteenth, or the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, he revived the methodic ſect by his De Medicina Methodica. From the time of Myrepſus this ſect had been almoſt extinct.

PROSTATÆ, from *προ, before*, and *ιστημι, to ſtand*, from *προϊστασθαι, to be adjacent to*. The proſtrate glands. The *proſtatæ* are ſituated at the neck of the bladder, are ſhaped like an heart, the lower ſurface is the largeſt, and the upper ones are both flat. The membranous part of the urethra runs through it; it is about the ſize of a wal-nut. When cut open, the eminence called caput gallinaginis is ſeen. The vaſa deferentia paſs through its ſubſtance. When the *proſtate gland* is inflamed from a ſuppreſſed gonorrhœa, every means ſhould be uſed to reſtore the diſcharge; for, if this inflammation terminates in ſuppuration, whether the abſceſs breaks into the urethra, bladder, inteſtinum rectum, or perinæum, it will always be attended with diſagreeable conſequences. The ſymptoms of an inflammation or ſwelling of this gland are known from the pain and difficulty of making water; beſides, if we ſhould be doubtful whence they proceed, the finger will clearly teach us. If a ſuppuration has already taken place, we have only to obſerve, that mercury internally and externally will be neceſſary, and afterwards proper injections, the compoſitions of which muſt be left to the judgment of the practitioner. The remedies proper for indurated teſticles or buboes, will be ſuitable in this caſe; but eſpecially bliſters repeatedly applied to the perinæum, and internally hemlock in large doſes. If a total ſuppreſſion of urine is feared, bring on a ſuppuration to prevent worſe ill.

PROSTATA. A ſuppoſitory.

PRUNA. Prunes. Botaniſts enumerate nine ſpecies of prune trees. It is a name alſo for the carbuncle.

PRUNA GALLICA, called alſo pruna parva, prunus ſativa. Common or French prunes, called by our gardeners, the little black damaſk plum. The prunus domeſtica, Linn.

PRUNA BRIGNOLENSIA, called alſo pruna Brignolenſia, prunello, or Brignole plum. The prunus domeſtica, Linn. It is ſo called from Brignole in Provence. It is of a reddiſh yellow colour, and of a very grateful, ſweet, ſubacid taſte.

PRUNA DAMASCENA. The damaſk prune, called damſons. This ſpecies is generally ſupplied by the common prune. Their general qualities are to cool, quench thirſt, and render the bowels lax. The prunelloes quench thirſt more than the others; and the French prunes are moſt laxative.

PRUNELLA. See BRUNELLA.

PRUNUS SYLVESTRIS. The black thorn; or ſloe-buſh. The prunus communis, Linn. It is a prickly buſh, very common in hedges, produces an auſtere fruit, which is ſmaller than an ordinary cherry. This fruit is too harſh to be eaten before the froſts have ſoftened them. The juice expreſſed from them before they are ripe, or affected by the froſt, if inſpiſſated by a gentle heat, is called acacia Germanica, and is generally ſold for the acacia Egyptiaca, from which it differs in being harder, heavier, darker coloured, and of a ſharper taſte, and yet more remarkable in its giving out its aſtringence in a good meaſure to ſp. vini R. whereas the Egyptian acacia is not at all diſſoluble in ſpirit.

A conſerve is made of the ſloes by ſteeping them in hot water before they are affected with the froſt; and when they are ſoft enough to pulp, they are paſſed through an hair ſieve, and to one part of the pulp, three parts of lump-ſugar muſt be added. This is very aſtringent, and is alſo of uſe to brace up ſpongy gums. The flowers of the ſloe buſh are laxative. The bark is uſeful in intermittents. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

PRURIGO. A violent itching.

PRURITUS. A violent itching, or the itch. Dr. Cullen names this genus of diſeaſe pſora; he places it in the claſs locales, and order dyalyſes. Many are the appearances on the ſkin, and various the diſorders that are accompanied with, or manifeſted by an *itching* therein; but the *itch* is a ſkin diſeaſe, and hath for its cauſe a very ſmall kind of animalcula of a whitiſh colour, and ſhaped like a tortoiſe, each having ſix feet, and a ſharp head, with two ſmall horns on its point. They are very hard, ſo are not eaſily deſtroyed by rubbing them.

This diſorder uſually appears at firſt about the wriſts and fingers, then on the arms, legs, and thighs, but never affects the head. In the evening, when the patient approaches to the fire, or begins to grow warm in bed, the *itching* is moſt troubleſome; in ſome patients there are blotches here and there, in others there is a ſcurfy or ſcaly kind of eruption; this laſt is called the dry *itch*. The moiſt kind moſt frequently happens to children, and the drier ſort to adults. The humour in the moiſt ſort is ſanious and purulent, and an inflammation is obſervable about the baſis of each eruption; but in the dry kind, the puſtules are of a ſmall ſize, and are filled with a ſerous ichor, which by irritating the highly tender fibres under the cuticle occaſion both heat and *itching*.

The moiſt kind of *itch* is more eaſily cured than the dry ſort; this diſorder is obſtinate in old people, and ſtill more ſo in thoſe whoſe viſcera are unſound.

Whether the cauſe be a morbid ſerum in the blood, or the animalculæ abovementioned, ſulphur alone is to be depended on for a cure; it ſhould be taken inwardly, ſo as to keep the bowels lax; but if it agitates the blood, and occaſions eruptions to appear on the ſkin, it may be mixed with the cream of tartar. As to its external uſe, it need not be applied like other medicines to every part of the body; but if rubbed on the palms of the hands, and the ſoles of the feet, it ſuffices: and thus uſed there is leſs objection to the ſmell, and the uncleanlineſs complained of, than when the whole ſkin is anointed.

Dr. Pringle recommends the following ointment to be uſed at four times, each portion to be applied at bed-time; and to prevent any diſorder from too many pores being

ſtopped

ſtopped at once, he directs that one fourth part of the body only ſhould be rubbed at once.

℞ Flor. Sulp. ℥ i. p. rad. elleb. a ʒ ii. vel ſal ammon. crud. ʒ ii. axung. porc. ℥ ii. m.

During the uſe of ſulphureous applications, clean linen is neceſſary; it ſhould often be changed, but not worn again before being well waſhed and bleached.

Many other applications have been uſed, and ſtill are preferred by ſome. The following are recommended by eminent practitioners.

℞ Merc. cor. A. ʒ i. alum. rup. ʒ ii. ſal. prunel. ℥ ſs. aq. calcis ſi ℔ ſs. m. f. lotio.

℞ Merc. cor. A gr. x. merc. præcip. A. ʒ i. ung. pomat. ℥ iſs. m.

Dr. Turner prefers a ſolution of the ſalt of tartar in the proportion of a dram to an ounce of water: of this a teaſpoonful is to be taken two or three times a day in any ſmall drink. The body at the ſame time to be waſhed with a weak ley.

The extr. cicutæ hath been found uſeful in ſome obſtinate caſes, which reſiſted all other common methods.

Baths ſhould be uſed in the dry ſpecies particularly; and perſpiratives are uſeful in both ſorts of this complaint.

The venereal *itch* requires the uſe of mercurial alteratives, and the decoction of guaiacum. See Biſs's Eſſays; Turner on the Diſeaſes of the Skin; Barbette's Chirurgia, lib. i. c. viii. Wepfer's Obſ. 214. Philoſ. Tranſ. abr. vol. iv.

PSALLOIDES. So the ancients called the inner ſurface of the fornix, becauſe it appears as if ſtringed like a dulcimer.

PSELLISMUS. Stammering, or a faulty articulation of words. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſcineſiæ. He diſtinguiſhes ſeven ſpecies. *Pſelliſmus* hæſitans; when there is difficulty to pronounce the firſt ſyllable or word, which is not effected before repeated trials are made. 2. *Pſelliſmus* ringens; when there is a fault in pronouncing the letter R. 3. *Pſelliſmus* lallans; when the letter L is ſounded improperly, or in the place of the letter R. 4. *Pſelliſmus* emolliens; when the hard letters are expreſſed too ſoft, as the letter S is too frequently ſounded. 5. *Pſelliſmus* balbutiens; when from a large tongue the labial letters are too much heared, and are often ſounded inſtead of others. 6. *Pſelliſmus* acheilos; when the labial letters are difficultly ſounded, or not at all. 7. *Pſelliſmus* lagoſtomatum; when, from a diviſion in the palate, the guttural letters are not well pronounced.

PSELLOTIS, i. e. Pſelliſmus, and pſelliſmus emolliens.

PSEUCROLUSIO. Pſeucroluſion. Bathing in ſalt-water.

PSEUDES. Falſe or baſtard. Hence is derived the word pſeudo, with which many names begin.

PSEUDIPECACUHANA. The white ſort of ipecacuanha. It hath no medical virtue.

PSEUDO ACACIA. Baſtard acacia. It is produced in America, and is raiſed in our gardens by the curious. Boerhaave takes notice of two ſpecies, but they are not noted as medicinal.

PSEUDO ACORUS. Yellow water-flag.

PSEUDO APIOS. A ſpecies of cataputia minor.

PSEUDO APOCYNUM. A name in Boerhaave for ſome ſpecies of bignonia.

PSEUDO ARISTOLOCHIA, i. e. Fumaria bulboſa.

PSEUDO ASPHODELUS. Baſtard aſphodel. Ray takes notice of three ſpecies, but they have little or no medical virtue.

PSEUDO ASTHMA. An aſthma excited by an abſceſs, or a vomica in the lungs.

PSEUDOBLEPSIS. Falſe ſight; as when a man ſees what does not exiſt, and the things that do exiſt are ſeen differently from what they are perceived by others, whoſe eyes are in a proper ſtate. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſæſtheſiæ. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies. 1. *Pſeudoblepſis* imaginaria; in which things that do not exiſt are ſeen, as luminous appearance, ſuddenly paſſing by; various colours, &c. 2. *Pſeudoblepſis* mutans; as when any objects appear double, &c.

PSEUDO BUNIAS, i. e. Barbarea.

PSEUDO BUNIUM, i. e. Bunias.

PSEUDO CAPSICUM. Tree night-ſhade.

PSEUDO CASSIA, i. e. Folium, or Indian leaf.

PSEUDO CHAMÆBUXUS. A ſpecies of polygala.

PSEUDO CHINA. American China root.

PSEUDO COLOCYNTHIS, i. e. Pepo fructu ovato variegato.

PSEUDO CORALLIUM. Black coral.

PSEUDO COSTUS, i. e. Paſtinaca, oluſatri folio.

PSEUDO CYTISUS. A ſpecies of laburnum.

PSEUDO DICTAMNUS. Baſtard dittany. It is alſo called gnephalium veterum. It is a plant which reſembles the horehound in its virtues, but it is not uſed in the preſent practice. Boerhaave takes notice of ſeven other ſpecies, but they are of as little value in medicine as the juſt named.

PSEUDO DIGITALIS. The herb called American dragon's head.

PSEUDO FUMARIA. So Boerhaave calls the capnoides.

PSEUDO GNAPHALIUM, i. e. Gnaphalodes Luſitanica.

PSEUDO HELLEBORUS, i. e. Helleboro ranunculus.

PSEUDO IRIS, i. e. Acorus adulterinus.

PSEUDO LIEN. A name for ſome glands which Ruyſch obſerved near the ſpleen.

PSEUDO LOTUS, i. e. Guajacana.

PSEUDO LYSIMACHIUM. A name for a ſpecies of ſalicaria, and of a ſpecies of veronica.

PSEUDO MARRUBIUM. A name for two ſpecies of lycopus.

PSEUDO MELANTHIUM, i. e. Lychnis ſegetum major.

PSEUDO MOLA. A falſe mole; it is formed of a piece of the placenta, which hath been left in the uterus, after the delivery of a child.

PSEUDO NARDUS. So the narrow leaved, and broad leaved lavender is called.

PSEUDO PLATANUS. The great maple tree; a ſpecies of acer.

PSEUDO RHABARBARUM. A name for ſome ſpecies of thalictrum.

PSEUDO RUBIA, i. e. Rubeola.

PSEUDO SALVIA. A name for three kinds of phlomis.

PSEUDO SELINUM, i. e. A ſpecies of caucalis.

PSEUDO STACHYS. A name for two ſpecies of ſtachys, and one ſpecies of galeopſis.

PSEUDO STRUTHIUM, i. e. Luteola herba ſalicis folio.

PSEUDO VALERIANA. A name for ſeveral ſorts of valerianella.

PSIDA, or Pſidium. Pomegranate peel.

PSILOTHRA. Medicines which take off the hair.

PSILOTHRUM, i. e. Bryonia alba.

PSIMMYTHION. Ceruſs.

PSOÆ. The name of two pair of muſcles in the loins. According to Galen, Pollux, &c. the loins were called ψοαι.

PSOAS, alſo called lumbaris internus, pſoas magnus. It is placed obliquely on the ſides of the loins, and runs under Poupart's ligament to that thigh on which ſide it is. It riſes fleſhy from the ſides of the upper vertebræ lumborum; and from the roots of their tranſverſe proceſſes, paſſes down under Poupart's ligament, and is there joined by the iliacus internus, which lies upon the concave part of the ilium, and takes its origin from the anterior edge of the bone; it runs down before the *pſoas*, and makes one maſs with it; they then run over the head of the bone, and paſs upwards to be inſerted into (tendinous) the little trochanter, and fleſhy into the bone a little below that proceſs. Its office is to bend the femur, by bringing it forwards, partly to rotate it, and to turn the toes out. The kidnies often preſs upon this muſcle, over which runs a nerve; hence thoſe who have ſtones therein do often feel a numbneſs in the thigh of that ſide.

The *pſoa* abſceſs receives different names from different writers.

writers. Mr. Pott obſerves, that it receives this name from the matter of it ſliding in its fall upon the ſide of the *pſoas* muſcle, or betwixt that and the iliacus internus. Dr. G. Fordyce obſerves, that between the *pſoas* muſcle and the muſcle of the back, lies a quantity of looſe cellular membranes, from which an inflammation often takes place, which terminating in an abſceſs forms this diſorder.

Mr. Pott thinks this diſorder originates in the lymphatic glands, near the receptaculum chyli, the vertebræ about which are generally diſeaſed and carious in theſe caſes. Dr. Hunter again obſerves, that matter is ſometimes lodged in this part at the criſis of a fever, and he hath ſeen inſtances of matter proceeding from the liver into this ſituation, after making its way through the peritonæum. As there is a great quantity of cellular membrane over the *pſoa* muſcle, and a conſiderable way toward the ſkin, the matter ſeldom points outwardly on the back, where it is formed, but running down on the courſe of the muſcle, makes its way into the groin, thigh, ham, the inner condyle of the os femoris, &c. or when on the right ſide, it may penetrate the colon which lays upon it, and thereby occaſions a large diſcharge of matter per anum, and poſſibly a fiſtulous ſore.

The *pſoa* abſceſs often exiſts a conſiderable time before it is ſuſpected.

The eruptions in the beginning are ſimilar to thoſe of inflammation of the liver, excepting for the ſituation; its progreſs and termination is like that of the liver too. The pains are ſituated in the back, for the moſt part, rather lower than the region of the kidneys. The pain is but ſlight, and ſo moderate are the ſymptoms for a time, that frequently it hath not been attended to until ſuppuration had taken place. After the abſceſs is formed, the pain often becomes greater than before; for, the pus fermenting in the cellular membrane, ſpreads itſelf, and produces a great degree of general inflammation. This cellular membrane communicates itſelf with the cellular membrane in other parts, and the pus ſometimes makes its way through the peritonæum, into the cavity of the abdomen, whence ariſes hectic heats, and is fatal. The matter may alſo paſs down the *pſoas* muſcle, and make its exit externally a little further than the inguinal glands, or it may paſs further down the thigh, diſſect the muſcles, and form ſinuous abſceſſes. Sometimes the matter paſſes through the muſcles of the back, but may take its courſe into the cavity of the back part of the pelvis: thus it appears that the pus is capable of paſſing ſeveral different ways, and may communicate with all the parts at once, which makes it a dangerous abſceſs, not ſo much with regard to its ſize, as to the parts which it affects. Uſually the firſt ſymptoms that the patient feels in caſes of the *pſoa* abſceſs, is not where the diſeaſe originates, but a pain in the lower part of the thigh of the ſide affected; he ſtands on his toes, &c. and does not complain of the part for ſome time, but by attending to the circumſtances from the beginning, and laying the perſon affected on his back, lifting up his thigh, then between inſpiration and expiration, carefully examining the part, you will probably feel the tumor near, or in the region where the diſeaſe originates. The leg of the affected ſide ſeems to be ſhorter than the other, but it is not ſo. In ſome caſes the diſeaſe proceeds rapidly, in others very ſlowly, at length it appears in the groin, and the affected ſide; the muſcles of the thigh become exceedingly emaciated, and the whole body waſtes. When it proceeds thus far, the patient rarely, if ever, recovers; the ſymptomatic fever that generally attends cloſes the ſcene.

This diſeaſe is often confounded with the abſceſs of the hip joint, yet they are very diſtinct and different in their origin, ſeat, and progreſs. The *pſoa* abſceſs originates often in the lymphatic glands near the receptaculum chyli, the vertebræ about which are generally diſeaſed and carious; in other inſtances it originates in or about the loins, if not higher in the abdomen. The firſt ſymptom which the patient feels in this complaint is not where the diſeaſe originates, but a pain is felt in the lower part of the thigh of the ſide affected; he ſtands on his toes, &c. and does not complain of the part where the diſeaſe is ſeated for ſome time. At length it appears in the groin, the limbs waſte, and, indeed, the whole body alſo, &c. The hip-joint abſceſs originates in the hip-joint; when it attends, the leg of the affected ſide is ſhorter than the other; the pain begins in the part where the diſeaſe originates, and about the great trochanter. The *pſoa* abſceſs is a diſeaſe of the vertebræ of the loins, and of the parts adjacent; the hip-joint abſceſs is a diſtemper of the hip-joint, and its ligaments. To diſtinguiſh it from a local external abſceſs, lay the patient on his back, and ſqueeze the tumor; if it be a *pſoa* abſceſs, the matter will be preſſed into the cavity of the belly, but if it be in the part itſelf, no alteration takes place; and further, if there be two lumbar abſceſſes, by compreſſing one will fill the other. A ſtone in the kidneys hath been taken for this diſeaſe; but there is this difference between them, the ſtone in the kidney will ſometimes produce but ſlight inflammation, but at other times very conſiderable; beſides, the pain reaches from the kidneys down the groin to the bladder, paſſing ſtony concretions, and ſometimes blood with the urine; theſe ſymptoms do not exiſt in the *pſoa* abſceſs. See Abscess *in the Hip*.

If an abſorption takes place before the abſceſs hath burſt externally, the patient often dies. It is generally of the ſtrumous kind, but when not, it is often fatal. The matter is ſo deep ſeated, and the adjacent bones ſo injured by it, before a fluctuation can be diſcovered, that for want of aid the diſcharge is made internally, and then the patient dies. If a fetid ichor is diſcharged, or the bones are affected, little or nothing is to be hoped for. The matter of this abſceſs ſometimes makes its way from the region of the kidnies down to the bottom of the thigh of the affected ſide, but before this, the miſchief it hath done is not to be repaired; and if an opening is made, the patient is likely to be deſtroyed by the exceſs of the diſcharge.

A ſymptomatic fever generally attends this complaint, and cloſes the ſcene. But what is very remarkable, this fever does not come on during the time the matter is confined, nor to any great degree for forty-eight hours after the matter is let out; this circumſtance is extraordinary, as it cannot ariſe from the abſorption of matter, for that muſt have been greater before the opening; nor from a waſting in conſequence of the evacuation of the matter, as that was before extravaſated, and was an extraneous body with reſpect to the conſtitution; nor from the admiſſion of air, for that in other caſes does not produce ſuch effects; we are therefore at a loſs to know why the ſymptomatic fever does not occur till after the diſcharge of the matter.

This diſeaſe, whilſt in its inflammatory ſtate, is generally neglected or miſtaken; otherwiſe it probably would eaſily be cured, and that principally by bleeding. Dr. Fordyce obſerves, that this diſorder ſhould be treated in the ſame manner as inflammation of the liver, (except for the ſituation) both in the ſtate of inflammation and ſuppuration. He further adds, that in all internal ſuppurations, the lungs become affected; hence hectic heats, &c. are produced; thence it is neceſſary, that if the patient reſides in a large town, he ſhould remove into the country for the benefit of air. Correſpondent with this, Dr. Hunter obſerved in his Lectures, A. D. 1771, that the moſt likely means to prevent the fatal effects of this diſeaſe are, endeavours to keep up the patient's ſtrength ſufficiently to enable him to undergo the diſcharge, which is moſt likely to be accompliſhed by a nouriſhing diet, and clear air, the bark, elixir of vitriol, &c.

Elements of the Pract. of Phyſ. part ii. by G. Fordyce, M. D.

PSOAS PARVUS. When there is a little *pſoas*, it is on the anterior part of the great *pſoas*. It ariſes fleſhy from the upper vertebræ of the loins laterally; is inſerted by a long, flat, thin tendon, into that part of the os pubis, where it joins the ilium. Its uſe is to aſſiſt the recti abdominis in drawing the os pubis upwards, as in raiſing ourſelves from a decumbent poſture.

PSOPHOS. Crackling or rattling of the bones.

PSORA. A kind of itch. See Pruritus.

PSORIASIS. A ſpecies of itch which affects the ſcrotum, from ψωρα, *ſcabie labore*. The ſcrotum is alſo unuſually hard.

PSORICA. Medicines for the itch.

PSOROPHTHALMIA. An itchy or ſcurfy diſorder of the eye-lids, which renders them ſore, and ſometimes ſcabby. See Trachoma.

PSUCHAGOGICA. Medicines which recal life in an apoplexy or ſyncope.

PSYDRACIA. A ſpecies of puſtule, or of ſmall tubercles on the head, which reſemble puſtules, and corrode the ſkin. Trallian thus deſcribes them, in lib. i. c. 5. Phlyctenæ, or ſmall watery puſtules, when ſeated on the head, are called *pſydracium*. *Pſydracia*, a veſpis, ſignifies the humour, &c. from the ſtinging of waſps. Others deſcribe the *pſydracia* as hydatids, or ſanious puſtules.

PSYLLIUM. Flea-wort. It is alſo called pulicaris herba. It is the plantago *pſyllium*, Linn. It is an herb of the plantain kind, agreeing with it and the coronopus, only the ſtalks are leafy and ramous, or divided into a multitude of branches. It grows wild in the warmer parts of Europe, and is raiſed in our gardens. The ſeeds have formerly been brought from the ſouth of France; they are ſmall, ſmooth, ſlippery, of a ſhining brown colour, of an oblong flattiſh figure, ſuppoſed to reſemble that of a flea, whence the name of the plant.

A dram of the ſeeds renders a pint of water moderately ſlimy, and gently laxative. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

PTARMICA, called alſo pſeudo-pyrethrum, dracunculus pratenſis, ſternutamentoria, ſneeze-wort, baſtard pellitory. It is the achillea *ptarmica*, of Linn. It is a plant with long, narrow, ſerrated leaves, and radiated diſcous flowers, ſet in form of umbels on the tops of the branches. It is perennial, grows in moiſt ſhady grounds, and flowers in June, &c. throughout the ſummer. The roots have a hot biting taſte, much like that of pyrethrum, with which they agree in their pharmaceutic and medical properties. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

PTARMICA, i. e. Xeranthemum, alſo ageratum, and a ſpecies of milleſolium.

PTERIS. Fern.

PTERNA, i. e. Os calcaneum.

PTERYGION. A film on the eye, called a web. In Celſus, lib. vi. cap. 19. it is a diſorder of the fingers, which he thus deſcribes: "In the nails there is a ſpecies of caruncle, accompanied with great pain, which the Greeks call *pterygion*." To theſe a mixture of alum and honey, in equal parts, is applied.

PTERYGIUM. See Albugo. It is alſo a name for the diſorder called unguis.

PTERYGODEES. So Hippocrates calls thoſe people whoſe cheſts are narrow and flat, ſo that their ſcapulæ are prominent, like wings. Such perſons are ſubject to conſumptions.

PTERYGOIDEUS EXTERNUS. Fallopius firſt deſcribed theſe muſcles. They riſe from the ala externa, and from the neighbouring parts of the os ſphenoides, and are inſerted into the neck of the condyle of the lower jaw, and likewiſe into the cartilage of the condyle, which cartilage is hollowed, to move upon the tuberoſity of the os temporis.

PTERYGOIDEUS INTERNUS. It riſes from the cavity between the lamellæ of the proceſſus *pterygoidæus*, and is inſerted into the inſide of the angle of the lower jaw. It lies on the inſide of the lower jaw, almoſt as the maſſeter does on the inſide, being of the ſame figure with it, only it is ſmaller and narrower.

PTERYGOIDEUS MAJOR, i. e. Pterygoideus internus.

PTERYGOIDEUS MINOR, i. e. Pterygoideus externus.

PTERYGOIDEUS PROCESSUS, from πτερυξ, *a wing*, and ειδος, *form*. See Sphenoides Os.

PTERYGOPALATINUS, i. e. Spheno-pterygopalatinus.

PTERYGOPHARYNGÆI, from πτερυξ, *a wing*, and φαρυγξ, *the palate*. It is a name of the cephalo-pharyngæus. In the edge of the internal alæ of the apophyſes pterygoidæi, theſe muſcles riſe, then run backward, and are inſerted into the linea alba of the pharynx.

PTERIGO-STAPHYLINUS SUPERIOR. The muſcles which bear this name are only the external portions of the ſpheno-ſalpingo ſtaphylini.

PTERYGO-STAPHYLINUS INFERIOR. Theſe muſcles are very ſmall. They are inſerted at one extremity into the uncus pterygoideus, and by the other into the ſeptum, near the uvula.

PTILOSIS, from πτιλος. A perſon who hath loſt his eye-laſhes. A baldneſs of the eye-laſhes, from a callous thickening of the edges of the eye-lids, ſo that it is a complication of a madaroſis, and a hard lipitude.

PTISANA, vel ptiſſana, from πτισσω, *to decorticate, bruiſe*, or *pound*. Ptiſan, or ptiſſan. Properly it is barley deprived of its hulls; or *pounded* barley, becauſe formerly the barley was *decorticated* by *pounding*, after having ſteeped it a little in water, and then it was dried. After this *pounded* barley was ground into meal, it was made into balls by firſt boiling, and then drying it to a due conſiſtence for this end.

Ptiſan was alſo made of other kind of grain; but then to *ptiſſana* was added the name of the grain from which it was made.

A quantity of theſe *ptiſans* was boiled in from ten to fifteen times their quantity of water, until the meal ſwelled very much; then they added a little vinegar, a little oil, and a ſprinkling of ſalt. The *ptiſan* thus boiled is called the cream, or ſoop of *ptiſan*; the broth, gruel, or juice of *ptiſan*.

PTOSES. Tumors cauſed by protruſion.

PTOSIS, from πιπτω, *to fall*. It is a diſorder conſiſting in the deſcent of the upper eye-lid, either on account of a palſy of the muſcles which ſhould elevate it, or a flux of humours which depreſs it.

PTYALISMOS, or Ptyaliſmus. A frequent and copious diſcharge of ſaliva; but at preſent it is generally underſtood to be a ſalivation excited by mercury. See Salivatio. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order apocenoſes. It is generally ſymptomatical. A ſingular caſe of a troubleſome *ptyaliſm* being cured, by chewing dry bread, and ſwallowing it, is related in the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 34, &c.

PUBIS INTEROSSEUM (Ligamentum). It is a ſtrong triangular membrane, fixed by two of its edges in the inferior branches of theſe bones, all the way up to their common ſymphyſis; the third edge, which is the loweſt, is looſe: and this whole membrane, the middle of which is perforated by a particular hole, is ſtretched very tight between the two bones, and under their cartilaginous arch, to which it adheres very cloſely.

PUBIS OSSA. They are ſituated in the middle, anterior, and internal part of the os innominatum. On their ſuperior part is a ridge, which runs on a continued line with another of the os ilium: it diſtinguiſhes the cavity of the belly from that of the pelvis. Betwixt the pubis and iſchium, is the foramen magnum ovale, which in the recent ſubject is filled up with a ligament. The ſymphiſis of the *os pubis* is a compoſition of two cartilages, and one ligament; the two cartilages cover the ſurface of each bone, and the ligament is betwixt them. On this ſymphiſis, ſee Dr. Hunter's Obſ. in the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. ii. p. 333.

As a ſubſtitute for the Cæſarean operation, the ſection of the ſymphyſis of the pubes is ſubſtituted by the French, and is thus directed to be performed: the inſtrument uſed on this occaſion, is a common diſſecting knife with a convex edge, a little blunt in the point, leſt it ſhould injure the bladder, and rather thin, becauſe it cuts the better. The proper ſituation for performing this operation, is to place the woman on her back at a height convenient to the accoucheur; the thighs being ſomewhat opened, and the mons veneris being ſhaved, introduce a catheter into the bladder. The inferior part of the integuments muſt be drawn down, and the inciſion begun about two or three lines above the pubes, and no higher. The firſt inciſion muſt not be carried further than the middle of the ſymphyſis. Another method may be uſed; viz. take the integuments between the fingers on each ſide the ſimphyſis, and make the inciſion in the middle: this way would be eaſier for the ſurgeon, and leſs painful for the patient; but the tenſion of the integuments makes it difficult. From this firſt inciſion you will have but little hæmorrhage, and the cartilage will be expoſed to the ſight, ſo that you may chuſe exactly where to proceed with the next inciſion. By cutting in the middle of the ſymphyſis, the ſuſpenſory ligament of the bladder will be divided, and in procuring the neceſſary ſeparation, it will be lacerated, which may occaſion an incontinence of urine. There are caſes, in which this complaint can be attributed to no other cauſe than

than the laceration or relaxation of the ligament of that viſcus; it will therefore be right to avoid cutting in the middle of the cartilage. There are ſeveral advantages from cutting on either ſide: 1ſt. Part of the ſuſpenſory ligament of the bladder will be preſerved, and it is likely by ſo doing, that the bone on that ſide will be touched; the ſhooting out from itwill procure a ſpeedy agglutination and reunion. 2dly, The left *pubes* appearing after the ſection to recede more than the right, there will be a greater opening on that ſide; beſides, 3dly, the neck of the bladder being rather more inclined to the right, and the fundus being ſo always, all theſe reaſons ought to determine us rather to chuſe the left ſide. The integuments being cut as far as the middle of the *pubes*, the ſuperior part of the cartilage will be expoſed; you muſt then begin the inciſion, and continue it as far as the ſymphyſis, taking care to direct the catheter to the ſide oppoſite that on which the operation is performed; then finiſh the ſection of the integuments, and afterwards that of the cartilage. As you are in moſt danger of wounding the bladder in dividing the upper part of the cartilage, it is very important not to be obſtructed by any hæmorrhage. This method, on account of its facility and readineſs, together with its ſucceſs, ſeems hitherto to be the beſt. The moment the ſymphyſis is divided, the *pubes* recedes, and this the more, according as the thighs are kept opened. If the ſeparation is very ſudden and conſiderable, as the poſterior articulations act in the nature of hinges, the interior ligaments which cover them will be diſtended too ſuddenly, which may be of bad conſequence; it is, therefore, adviſeable to keep the thighs moderately opened during the operation; and afterwards, upon raiſing them, to widen them gradually, until you have obtained the ſeparation neceſſary to finiſh the delivery.

With regard to the delivery, if the child preſents by the head, ſome adviſe to leave it to nature; I hope the following reaſons will induce to a different practice. After the ſection there is an arterial hæmorrhage, but however trifling it is, we ſhould not diſregard it. If, after the operation, we leave delivery entirely to nature, it would probably occaſion pains in the poſterior articulations, irritate and inflame the ſurrounding parts; hence, we ought not to leave the expulſion of the child to nature. As to the forceps, inaſmuch as they are ſuppoſed to diminiſh the ſize of the head, they appear to be of ſome uſe, but their preſſure is often of fatal conſequence.; the beſt way is, to turn the child, and deliver it footling; after which the woman's thighs are to be lowered and placed near one another. The integuments which were greatly diſtended during pregnancy, now will ſubſide, ſo as to cover the ſymphyſis. A bladder muſt be fitted to the end of the catheter, in order that the patient may not be obliged to ſtir when ſhe wants to diſcharge her urine, and alſo in caſe the bladder hath been injured, that the wounded part may heal without any inconvenience from urine.

As to the wound, nothing more is neceſſary than dry lint, moiſtened with brandy, beat up with the white of an egg, and diſcutient embrocations upon the poſterior articulations of the pelvis. A bandage muſt be applied to keep the parts in contact, to which there muſt be two tapes faſtened, to be conveyed between the legs, and tied before. The mother ſhould ſuckle the child for eight or ten days, to prevent bad conſequences from the milk; laxatives, with tonics, may then be directed, according to circumſtances. Care muſt be taken to keep the parts at reſt as much as poſſible, in order to favour a ſpeedy reunion. There is great reaſon to expect, that by obſerving the above directions, the cure may be effected in about three weeks in general, and that without any alarming ſymptoms.

Mr. Sigault, of Paris, is the firſt who propoſed and performed this operation, in which he was aſſiſted by M. le Roy, M. D. of the ſame place. They, with ſome others, obſerve, that the bones of the pelvis are connected by a ſubſtance which, during the latter period of pregnancy, ſwells and ſoftens, ſo that it may very eaſily be cut through; and that by ſuch an inciſion the two fore parts of the *pubes* recede from each other to the diſtance of from two inches to two inches and a half, more or leſs according to the ſwelling and ſoftneſs in the cartilaginous ſubſtance: thus the capacity of the pelvis is enlarged; for, in proportion to the ſeparation of the *pubes*, they alſo diverge forwards.

When the diameter of the brim of the pelvis from the ſacrum to the *pubes*, meaſures from two inches and a half to three inches and a quarter, this operation is recommended.

See Dr. Le Roy's Practical and Hiſtorical Enquiries, on the Section of the Symphyſis of the Pubes.

On this ſubject it may be proper to relate ſomething of what has been attempted in England, with a view to eſtabliſh the practice of it, particularly in ſuch caſes as have hitherto demanded the ſeverer operation called the Cæſarean ſection. To Dr. Leake we are indebted for a caſe, in which the requiſites are afforded, for an encouraging view of this new operation; alſo for anſwers to the objections advanced in oppoſition to it. The reaſons for preferring it are as follow: In December, 1778, a woman died in the Weſtminſter Lying-in Hoſpital about a fortnight after her delivery; after the neceſſary examinations for the cauſe of her death, the *ſection of the ſymphyſis pubis* was performed, in order to aſcertain *how much ſpace might be gained between the divided bones*. The cartilage being laid bare, it was cut through with great eaſe, and without wounding the neck of the bladder, or any of the contiguous parts. The *oſſa pubis* immediately receded from each other about one inch, and with very gentle force were ſeparated *two inches and an eighth*. The contents of the pelvis were afterwards removed, and on examination, the internal poſterior ligaments of the bones of the pelvis were neither lacerated, or in the leaſt injured.

The objections, with Dr. Leake's anſwers are, as follow: firſt, that the cartilage at the ſymphyſis of the *pubes* may happen to be oſſified, which would prevent its diviſion with the knife. It is anſwered, that cartilage being a ſubſtance eſſentially diſtinct from bone, is never found oſſified, except in a *præternatural ſtate*; or in *old age*, after the time of child-bearing is paſt, and where there could be no occaſion for the operation. Secondly, the neck of the bladder may be wounded. It is anſwered, the neck of the bladder being only ſlightly attached to the ſymphyſis of the *pubes*, by cellular membranes, and not in cloſe union with the cartilage, there *never can be the leaſt danger of wounding it*, except through ignorance of the ſtructure and ſituation of the parts. Thirdly, that the ſpace gained by the ſection of the *pubes*, may not, in a narrow pelvis, be ſufficient to allow the child's head to deſcend through the cavity. It is anſwered, in the caſe of Mrs. Braſier, M. Le Roy found a ſeparation of *two inches and a half*: and as the caſe at the Weſtminſter Lying-in hoſpital affords inconteſtible proof, that after the ſection of the cartilage, the bones of the *pubes*, without violence, receded from each other full *two inches and an eighth*; there can be no doubt but ſo much additional ſpace will, in general, be ſufficient to let the child's head paſs, even in a pelvis ſo preternaturally narrow, that no other means but the Cæſarean operation could be deviſed for its birth. It is generally allowed, even by the opponents of this operation, that the ſpace gained by the aperture between the divided bones, is nearly *two inches and a half*, even in the dead body, which is leſs yielding than the living one; and it may be added, that the ſpace gained from the ſacrum to the *pubes* will be equal to the enlargement of the pelvis from ſide to ſide. Fourthly, that the union of the cartilage may not be effected. It is anſwered, from obſervations and unqueſtionable authority of Petit and De la Faye, we are aſſured, that cartilages will as firmly unite after diviſion, as bones after a fracture. But to put this matter out of doubt, Camper, a Dutch phyſician, made experiment upon a quadruped, by cutting through the cartilage of the *pubes*, and after diſſecting the parts, he found they were firmly united. Fifthly, that the internal poſterior ligaments uniting the ſacrum and ilia, may be torn aſunder, by dividing the bones of the *pubes*. It is anſwered, reſpecting this, we may refer to the caſe above mentioned at the Weſtminſter hoſpital, where the ſection of the *pubes* was made in the preſence of ſixteen medical gentlemen, and where, notwithſtanding the ſpace gained was two inches aud an eighth, no laceration, or the leaſt mark of violence appeared, but, on the contrary, theſe ligaments were found perfectly firm, and in their natural ſtate.

If a comparative view is taken of the Cæſarean operation, and the ſection of the *pubes*, the advantages are conſiderably in favour of the latter. The ſection of the *pubes*, which allows the child to be born by the natural paſſage, carries not with it thoſe ideas of cruelty which attend the Cæſarean operation, where the patient is, as it were, embowelled alive. No formidable apparatus is neceſſary, the ſection being made with expedition, and without pain or danger; no blood-veſſel, nerve, or other parts, eſſential to life, are wounded: theſe divided, being only cutis, cellular membrane and inſenſible cartilage, from which neither hæmorrhage, or ſymptomatic fever are to be apprehended. Theſe are my reaſons for preferring the ſection of the *pubes*, by which the mother and the child may probably *both be ſaved*; but where the mother, at leaſt, to whoſe ſafety our principal attention ſhould be directed, would generally be loſt by the Cæſarean ſection.

See Practical Obſervations on the Child-bed Fever, by Dr. Leake, edit. 5. page 238—255. See alſo Comparatio inter Sectionam Cæſaream & Diſſectionem Cartilaginis & Ligamentorum Pubis in Partu, &c. Auctore, C. C. Siebold, M. D.

Dr. Hunter is leſs ſanguine with reſpect to this operation. He very early ſuggeſted its difficulties and diſadvantages; and ſince that, Dr. Walter, of Berlin, diſputes its uſefulneſs ſo much, as to preſer the Cæſarean operation to it. See his De Diſſectione Synchondroſeos Oſſium Pubis in Partu difficili.

PUDENDA ARTERIA, i. e. Pudica arteria.

PUDENDAGRA. So ſome have called the venereal diſeaſe; *pudenda*, from *pudor*, *ſhame*. Others define it to be, pain or uneaſineſs in the genital parts of men or of women, ſomewhat reſembling a diarrhœa, but without a dyſuria. But Dr. Berdoe aſſerts, in his Eſſay on the *Pudendagra*, that it is diſtinct from the venereal diſeaſe, and alſo that it is proper to women. It is an affection of the uterus alone in the beginning, however other parts may ſuffer in time. The prediſpoſing cauſe is a too rigid chaſtity, or a deprivation of the venereal act; the primary cauſe is a morbid affection in the nerves of the uterus; and the more immediate cauſe is an indulgence of the venereal appetite, at times when the uterus is ſo diſordered as to ſuffer thereby. An exceſſive flux of the menſes, and the fluor albus, aggravate the *pudendagra*, which is not properly confirmed until the uterine nerves having entirely loſt their ſenſibility, are no longer capable of diſtributing the menſtrual flux. Exceſſive venery haſtens the inſenſibility of the uterine nerves.

The *pudendagra* may affect the conſtitution many years without ſpreading its influence beyond the limits of the uterus.

In this diſorder there is a diſcharge of a purulent ichorous matter from the uterus, which may produce ſome inflammatory ſymptoms in the penis when a man cohabits with a woman who is thus affected; but though the woman is a great ſufferer, the infection which the man receives is ſoon removed by bleeding, and a few doſes of manna, or other more cooling laxatives.

On diſſecting thoſe who have died whilſt labouring under the *pudendagra*, it hath been obſerved, that the parts leading to the uterus were particularly relaxed, and that the uterus itſelf was enlarged by ſcirrhous and other tumors.

PUDICA ARTERIA. It comes out between the pyriform muſcle, and the ſpine of the iſchium; it runs downwards between the two ligaments (the one of which comes from the tuberoſity of the iſchium to the ſacrum, and the other from the ſpine of the iſchium to the ſacrum) on the inſide of the tuberoſity: as it goes on, it gives ramifications to the anus, which are called the external hæmorrhoidal, and then goes to the crura penis.

PUDICA EXTERNA ARTERIA. See Crural is.

PUDICÆ EXTERNÆ VENÆ. As the crural vein paſſes from under the ligamentum Fallopii, it ſends out branches to the inguinal glands, the muſculus pectineus, and the parts of generation; theſe are called *pudicæ externæ*, and they communicate with the *pudicæ internæ*.

PUDICÆ INTERNÆ VENÆ. The veins that ſpread about the parts of generation are thus called. They are branches from the venæ hypogaſtricæ.

PUERILIS MORBUS. The epilepſy.

PUERPERA. A lying-in-woman. Much care is uſually neceſſary when women are in this ſtate, for they are liable to many diſorders. As ſoon as delivery is effected, the woman ſhould have every thing that is wet removed; dry warm linen ſhould be in readineſs for her uſe; and as oft as they become very wet with the uſual diſcharges, freſh ones ſhould be ſupplied. If fainting fits come on after delivery, let the patient be laid with her hips higher than her head. It is generally neceſſary to keep the breaſts warm, by means of flannel cloths, until the milk flows freely. The air in the room ſhould be kept warm or cool, as is moſt agreeable to the ſenſations of the lying-in woman. During the firſt three or four days, the diet ſhould be thin, but yet not ſo as that the ſtrength is not duly ſupported by it. The common allowance is caudle, which is oatmeal boiled in water until it is of the conſiſtence of a thin jelly, and then rendered agreeable to the palate, by the addition of a little ſugar, and as much ale as will make it duly cordial; it is then called brown caudle; but if inſtead of ale a quantity of wine is added, it is named white caudle. If the ſtomach is ſubject to windineſs and acidity, the addition of a little brandy is to be preferred. Reſt muſt by every means be promoted; and, if required, opiates may be given for this end. Nor ſhould the neceſſary care to keep up a gentle perſpiration be wanting. Coſtiveneſs ſhould be guarded againſt, notwithſtanding that a diarrhœa at this time would be an unfavourable circumſtance. The child ſhould be applied to the breaſt in about ten or twelve hours after its birth, if the mother intends to ſuckle it; for the ſooner the ſecretion of milk can be promoted, the leſs danger will there be of the fever called a milk fever.

PUERPERILIS FEBRIS. The puerperal fever, or the child-bed fever. A fever happening from any diſeaſe in conſequence of pregnancy, or delivery of a child, and happening during the time of lying-in, may properly be called a *puerperal fever*. This is Dr. Cullen's ſpecies of peritonitis, which he diſtinguiſhes by the name of peritonitis omentalis. See Peritonitis.

The cauſes are various, and ſometimes the diſorder is inflammatory, but it ſoon tends to the putrid kind; it often is from the beginning a putrid fever. The omentum and peritonial coat of the inteſtines are generally the parts inflamed, but other of the abdominal viſcera may be alſo thus affected; but which ever of them is the ſeat of inflammation, a putrid matter is ſoon abſorbed therefrom, or there is an abſorption of putrid matter from without. But notwithſtanding that in many inſtances the womb hath been found, on diſſecting the deceaſed body, to be free from any appearance of a diſeaſe, it is moſt probable that the origin of this fever is in that viſcus. Conception is immediately followed with an increaſed ſpaſmodic irritability, which produces the ſymptoms of pregnancy; this irritability is increaſed by labour. In the pregnant ſtate the uterus is more irritable than uſual, and this circumſtance extends itſelf throughout the whole frame, whence pregnant women are violently affected by any cauſe that can increaſe their preſent preternatural ſtate, and hence the taking of cold, being kept too hot, or any other circumſtance that can excite a fever, may now be the cauſe of that which comes under this denomination. The occaſional cauſes may be a ſudden emptying of the womb, when there was a great quantity of water contained in the membranes; for then the blood ruſhing into the emptied parts with too much violence to be returned, excites inflammation there; coagulated blood lodged in the uterus, after delivery, and becoming putrid by the acceſs of air; obſtructed lochia, a putrid air, the coming of the milk, inflammation in the breaſts, the abſorption of acrid milk, and the retention of the excrements. Dr. Hulm and many others ſuppoſe, that an inflammation of the omentum and inteſtines, is always the cauſe of this fever, to which they are prediſpoſed by the preſſure of the gravid uterus.

In the *puerperal* ſtate, a quick pulſe, and a febrile heat, manifeſt the preſence of this fever, or at leaſt give us reaſon to ſuſpect its preſence, which is more certainly determined by the following diagnoſtics, which attend according as the cauſes are various.

If putrid blood inflame the uterus, and is abſorbed, the lochia will be diminiſhed or obſtructed; whilſt any of the

lochia

lochia is discharged it comes away in small lumps; thus the patient continues for three or four days; at length a fever comes on, being preceded by rigors, which are followed by a quick weak pulse, thirst, pain in the head, want of sleep, sighing, load at the præcordia, restlessness, great weakness, dejection of spirits, a wildness or else despair in the countenance, and often an inflammation in the eyes; sometimes there is a difficulty of breathing, pain in the side, the skin is dry, the tongue is of a glossy brown colour, and also very dry; sometimes in the advanced stage of the fever, if a hand is laid on the patient, one feels the same kind of prickling sensation in a less degree, as is felt after having the fingers in warm putrid blood. There is nothing to be learnt from the urine, as it is mixed with black putrid blood, which is constantly drained through the vagina. A diarrhœa soon follows the feverish symptoms, the stools are fetid, liquid, and blackish; the tongue is brownish, or of a reddish colour; the skin is very dry and hot; often there are aphthæ in the mouth; the breasts are flaccid, and upon drawing them, blood, instead of milk, is frequently discharged. Milk may indeed appear in the breasts when the putrefaction is several days before it takes place, yet they soon become perfectly flaccid. Sometimes the belly swells during the course of the disease, but a soreness and tenderness of it is a never failing attendant soon after the fever begins. Dr Hulme observes, that as the child seems chiefly supported in the abdomen, by resting upon the brim of the pelvis, the greatest pressure will commonly be upon the small intestines, either on the right or left iliac region, or directly in the middle above the os pubis; and from this circumstance he accounts for the pain and tenderness of the hypogastric region, which is the constant and inseparable companion of this disease, and therefore constitutes the chief pathognomonic symptom: a delirium is common through a great part of the disorder.

It may be observed that a tenderness and soreness in the belly, or flaccidness of the breasts, are not to be feared if there is not a fever at the same time.

When an inflammation of the uterus is the cause, the pulse is quick, a fever attends, pains resembling after-pains, and which shoot from the loins and belly into the groin and thighs, without any perfect intermissions; soon after these symptoms the anus and the neck of the bladder sometimes becomes very sensible; the tongue is white and moist; the belly costive; the lochia are suppressed, or only a brown ichor is discharged from the uterus. The breasts are flaccid.

When this fever is produced by inflammation of the abdominal viscera, a dull weight and pain at first is felt in the belly, the pulse is not very quick, nor the heat very considerable; the patient is generally costive; but sometimes the fever runs higher, and a diarrhœa comes on, and in general the patient is affected as those are who die of bruises in the belly.

If putrid effluvia from without are the causes, they at the first occasion symptoms of local inflammation, yet the disorder may be distinguished from an original disorder of the uterus, (unless the patient is seized with an epidemic disease previous to, or during labour) by the lochia being at first regular, and the after-pains, if there are any at the same time, unaccompanied with symptoms of inflammation.

These symptoms are generally more or less of them in all these fevers, be the cause what it will. They vary also according to the time of seizure, as well as from the difference of causes. The pulse is commonly more quick in *puerperal* than in other fevers, because of the extraordinary irritability attendant on those patients; and in consequence of the discharges during delivery, it will be generally very weak.

The *puerperal fever* should be distinguished from the milk fever, from after-pains, and from colic pains.

A small degree of fever in lying-in women is more dangerous than in any other state. That state of increased irritability, &c. which renders lying-in women liable to so many accidents, seems to be much abated after the discharge of the lochia and the coming of the milk; whence, after these, whatever disorders attend, their danger will be considerably lessened.

In order to the cure, if the patient did not lose much blood in the time of delivery, and the pulse is full and quick, take away a little; but if the evacuation when delivered was sufficiently large, though the pulse is hard, defer bleeding, and proceed with such medicines as the case requires. If the patient is costive, a glyster may be given, and after it, a dram of sal Glaub. ver. every three or four hours, or at greater intervals, according to the effect produced by each dose; if the salt runs too fast through the bowels, a few drops of the tinct. theb. will restrain it. If the salt is rejected, give two or three grains of calomel, with half a grain of the tart. emet. After a few stools, antiphlogistics and sudorifics may be used, e. g ℞ Sal diuret. ʒ ss. vin. antim. gut. xxx. vel tart. emet. gr. ½ m. f. haust. 4ta vel 5ta quaq. hora. If these run off too freely by stool, add to each dose two or three drops of the tinct. theb. If a sweat comes on, continue these draughts: if not, when there seems to be no farther need of evacuating the intestines, give the following bolus and draught every four or five hours.

℞ Sal ammon. crud. gr. xv. vel ℈ i. sp. cæti & pulv. e chel. c. ää gr. x. conf. lujulæ q. s. f. bol.

℞ Spt. Minder. & aq. menth. sim. ää ʒ i. m. f. haust. these produce a sweat.

The patient's drink may be tepid or cold water, in which toasted bread is steeped.

A mixture of sal volatile and water, in equal parts may be rubbed on the belly.

Hitherto the disorder is considered in its first or inflammatory state; but if a diarrhœa comes on, the putrid or second stage is commenced. The diarrhœa is not to be immediately or suddenly checked, but nature must be assisted by rendering the matter less active which irritates the intestines, by correcting the whole state of the fluids, by lessening the irritability of the habit, that the materia morbi may have the less effect, by giving antiseptic diuretics, and by defending the nerves of the primæ viæ against irritation, so that, whatever putrid matter gets into the intestines, it may pass off without acting as a violent purge. The columbo root with rhubarb may be given as a cordial, to lessen irritability, and carry off putrid matter from the primæ viæ; and the above purposes are answered where the pulse is full, and the heat great, by giving a powder composed of the pulv. flor. chamomil. and amylum; this may be repeated every four or five hours with a little sp. nitri d. vel sp. sal marin. in any thing that the patient drinks. But in this second stage of the fever the bark is most to be depended on: as soon as the pulse sinks, and the heat is lessened, or that the stomach will bear it, it hath relieved both the fever and the diarrhœa, by going off in two or three stools, and a sweat; but whilst the heat is considerable, always join a little of the sp. nitri d. with every dose of the bark, and if two or three drops of the tinct. theb. are also added, the heat is more effectually abated, provided it does not wholly suppress the purging. If the diarrhœa goes off without the fever abating, instead of laudanum, give rhubarb with the bark. If the pulse sinks, and the nervous oppression comes on, the julep e camph. will lessen preternatural irritability, keep the diarrhœa within bounds, and by its immediate action on the nerves, it revives and supports the spirits; an ounce is a sufficient dose, and may be repeated every four or five hours. What the patient drinks may be acidulated with the sp. sal. marin. When blood pent up in the uterus corrupts there, and gives rise to this disorder, however inflammatory the first symptoms may appear to be, bleeding must be omitted; purging and saline medicines are also alike improper; the absorbed matter is more than sufficiently attenuating, and often causes greater discharges by stool than the patient can bear; in this case give a dose or two of rhubarb with the columbo root to evacuate the bowels, and then supply the patient with antiseptics as above, of which the chief is the bark. If the patient is weak, join the rad. serp. V. with the bark. If the fever is caused by obstructed lochia, from inflammation, give antiphlogistics, but, if the lochia is obstructed from the coagulated blood choaking up the os uteri, internal medicines are useless. If a putrid air produced this fever, the mucus, the bile, &c. in the primæ viæ will be contaminated, and, unless removed, will be a constant fomes to the disease: in this case begin with an emetic, keep the room filled with pure cool air: the emetic should be given be-

fore the inflammation of the viſcera comes on. If it does not give way to this treatment, the diſeaſe is deeply ſeated, and an abſorption of putrid matter from the uterus may be ſuſpected to contribute to the diſorder, or that the blood is contaminated, and then the above antiſeptics will be required. See Kirkland, Denman, Hulme, Leake, and White, on the *Puerperal*, or Child-bed Fever.

PUGILLUS. A pugil. The eighth part of an handful.

PULEGIUM. Pennyroyal. It is a plant of the mint kind, differing from the mints ſtrictly ſo called, in the flowers being diſpoſed, not in ſpikes on the tops, but in thick cluſters at diſtances round the joints of the ſtalks, and the upper ſegment of the flower not being nipped at the extremity.

PULEGIUM VULGARE, called alſo pulegium regale, pulegium latifolium, mentha aquatica. Pudding-graſs, common pennyroyal. It hath oval obtuſe leaves, and trailing ſtalks, which ſtrike root at the joints. It grows wild on moiſt commons, and flowers in June. It is the mentha *pulegium* vel mentha floribus verticillatis, foliis ovatis obtuſis ſubcrenatis caulibus ſubteretibus repentibus, ſtaminibus corolla longioribus, Linn.

All the *pennyroyals* are warm and pungent, ſomewhat ſimilar to mint, but more acrid, and leſs agreeable, both in ſmell and taſte. They are leſs proper than mint in the common naufeas, but more efficacious as warm carminatives and deobſtruents in hyſteric caſes and diſorders of the breaſt. This ſpecies is the ſtrongeſt, though the leaſt ungrateful.

The active principle of the *pennyroyals* is their eſſential oil, which is more valuable than that of mint. It comes over at the beginning of the diſtillation with water, and riſes in great part with ſpirit of wine; it taſtes and ſmells ſtrongly of the plant. Its doſe is from gr. i. to v.

The London College directs a ſimple and a ſpirituous water to be diſtilled from *pennyroyal*; but an infuſion of it is equal, if not ſuperior: and the whole virtue of the herb may be thus extracted, either by water or by ſpirit. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

PULEGIUM CERVINUM, i. e. Mentha cervina, Linn.

PULMONARIA MACULOSA, alſo called pulmonaria ſymphytum maculoſum, ſage of Jeruſalem, Jeruſalem cowſlips, and ſpotted lungwort. *Pulmonaria* officinalis, Linn. It is an hairy ſcabrous plant, with leaves of a dark browniſh green colour on the upper ſide, and ſpotted for the moſt part with white, underneath it is of a paler green; the lower leaves are oval, and ſet on broad pedicles; thoſe on the ſtalks are narrower, long pointed, ſet alternately without pedicles: the flowers are monopetalous, of a purple or blue colour, and ſometimes white, followed each by four ſeeds incloſed in the cup. It is perennial; it grows wild in many parts of Europe, and flowers in April or May. Their virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of the herb trichomenas.

PULMONARIA AUREA, alſo called pulmonaria Gallica, hieracium murorum, piloſella major. French or golden lungwort. It grows on old walls, in woods, and in ſhady places. Its virtues are the ſame as the above ſpecies.

PULMONARIA ANGUSTIFOLIA. Sage of Bethlehem. It is cultivated in gardens; it flowers in May, and is of the ſame virtue as the ſage of Jeruſalem. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

PULMONARIA. A name for the muſcus pulmonarius, and for a ſpecies of hieracium.

PULMONARIS ARTERIA. See PULMONES.

PULMONARIÆ VENÆ. See PULMONES.

PULMONES. The lungs. They are two ſpongy bodies, which are reddiſh in children, greyiſh in adults, and bluiſh in the aged. They are divided into two principal lobes, which are incloſed in two diſtinct bags, formed of the pleura; ſo that the right and the left lobes have not the leaſt communication. On the right ſide the lobe is divided into three leſſer ones, one inferior, one ſuperior, and one anterior, the loweſt lying upon the diaphragm. On the left ſide there are two lobes divided by a fiſſure. The ſpace betwixt the *lungs* is filled up by the heart below; above by the thymus and trachea; behind by the œſophagus and ſpine. The *lungs* are narrow above, and broad below, correſpondent to the ſhape of the thorax. The *lungs* are univerſally covered on their external ſurface by the pleura, and an inner lamella of it runs into their ſubſtance, as we find in infants.

The whole maſs of the *lungs* is compoſed of air-veſſels, blood-veſſels, lymphatics, nerves, and cellular membranes.

The air-veſſels are very ſmall branches continued from the wind-pipe, with which in a ſound ſtate they have a free communication, ſo as at every inſpiration to be filled with air. See BRONCHIA. The blood-veſſels are the pulmonary and the bronchial arteries and veins. The pulmonary artery riſes from the right ventricle, runs upwards to the left of the aorta; on the curvature it divides into two branches, which diviſion lies before that of the trachea, the right branch is longer than the left, for the ſame reaſon as the trachea is ſo; juſt as it is plunging into the *lungs* it divides into two or three branches. When this artery hath divided into very ſmall branches, they do not anaſtomoſe like the ſmall branches of the aorta, but they join again, and form veins, which uniting together go to the left auricle of the heart, commonly in four or five trunks. The bronchial arteries. See ARTERIÆ BRONCHIALES. The large veſſels run in the large interſtices, and in the ſmall parts the branches ſtill run on in the interſtices of ſmaller lobuli, and are connected by a cellular membrane, as in the other parts of the body; at laſt the arterial ramifications terminate in a fine net-work, upon the cells called rete Malpighi, where it is ſuppoſed that the blood undergoes the alteration, as there it is neareſt to the air; from this net-work the veins begin, and carry the blood back. The pulmonary artery receives and returns the whole maſs of blood which circulates through the *lungs* before it paſſes to the reſt of the body, to the end that ſuch parts of this fluid ſhould be ſeparated, and carried off by reſpiration as were unfit to be circulated, or unneceſſary in the œconomy of nature. The bronchial arteries are deſtined to the nouriſhment of the *lungs*. The lymphatic veſſels are diſtributed on the ſurface of the *lungs*, and convey the lymph which they imbibe to a certain duct, whence it is returned to the maſs of blood. The nerves are from the eighth pair chiefly; they are very ſmall branches. The cellular membrane fills up the intermediate ſpaces between the veſſels. See ASPERA ARTERIA, and BRONCHIA.

As to the uſe of the *lungs*, Dr. Rutherford, of Edinburgh, ſays, that the good ſtate of them ſeems to have an influence on ſanguification; he ſays, that they are of more conſequence than any other viſcus for making good blood, and that, whenever their action is weakened, the blood grows thinner in proportion. Many other conjectures are made on this ſubject, among which the moſt important are, that from the air received by inſpiration, a neceſſary principle is imbibed in order to life and health; and that with the air carried out from the *lungs*, a quantity of matter is alſo carried from the blood, which, if retained, would either be a redundant load, or otherways injurious. Dr. Prieſtley aſſerts, that a principal uſe of the *lungs*, is to carry off redundant phlogiſton from the blood.

The *lungs* differ from every other part of the body in many other reſpects, particularly in the following: their ſubſtance is more vaſcular, and a greater quantity of blood paſſes through them in a given time. The aſpera arteria minutely ramifying through every part of their ſubſtance, terminating in air veſicles, is peculiar to them, and by reſpiration they are kept in a perpetual motion; theſe differences ſubſiſt through life, in ſickneſs and in health. When the *lungs* are diſeaſed, their motion is not only increaſed by the reſpiration being quickened, but they ſuffer, for the moſt part, violent concuſſions by means of coughing. This circumſtance attending no other viſcus, renders ſuch diſorders more difficult to cure; for all authors agree in this, that reſt is abſolutely neceſſary to parts when inflamed. If by any means the cough could be prevented, it is moſt probable that diſeaſes of the *lungs* would be nearly in the ſame ſtate, and admit of a cure as readily as any other internal part, equally inflamed. The increaſed frequency of reſpiration does not appear to be in theſe caſes of great importance, becauſe it is natural and familiar, as it takes place upon any exertion or quick motion of the body.

PULMONIA, i. e. Peripneumonia.

PULPA. Pulp. It is the ſoft part of fruits which ſurrounds the ſeeds.

PULPEZIA. An apoplexy.

PULSATILLA. Nigricans. Stoerck, Ph. Edinb. It is the *pulſatilla* flore minore *nigricante*, C. B. Anemone pretenſis, vel anemone pedunculo involucrato, petalis apice reflexis, foliis bipinnatis, Linn. It is a ſpecies of anemone, much reſembling the *pulſatilla* vulgaris, or paſque flower, but its flower is leſs, and of a darker hue. It is a native of the South of Germany, and other neighbouring countries. All the anemonies have a conſiderable degree of acrimony; but this ſeems to poſſeſs the largeſt ſhare. The whole plant when chewed impreſſes the tongue with a ſharp, burning, durable taſte; the root is milder than the other parts. On diſtilling the plant with water, the liquor which comes over is ſtrongly impregnated with its virtues; and the remaining extract is alſo conſiderably active. From numerous trials, Dr. Stoerck, of Vienna, celebrates the efficacy of this plant in various chronic diſeaſes of the eye; in venereal nodes and nocturnal pains, in foul ulcers with caries, in ſerpigo, and ſuppreſſed menſes; he relates inſtances of its curing blindneſs of many years continuance, by diſſipating and diſſolving films and obſcurities of the cornea. In theſe caſes its good effects were firſt indicated by conſiderable pain excited in the eye. The ſenſible operation of the medicine was nauſea and vomiting, particularly when the diſtilled water was uſed; an increaſed flow of urine, and ſometimes gripes and looſeneſs, with increaſed pain at firſt in the affected parts. From all theſe circumſtances, the *pulſatilla* ſeems to be endued with very active and penetrating powers, yet ſuch as may be employed with perfect ſafety, if proper caution be uſed. The doſes of the diſtilled water to adults is about half an ounce twice or thrice a day; of the extract, reduced to powder, with the addition of ſugar, five or ſix grains. Bergius ſpeaks, in his Materia Medica, p. 491, of having given the extract copiouſly, eſpecially in diſeaſes of the eyes, but without any effect. The Edinb. College had adopted the diſtilled water of *pulſatilla*, but has now changed it for the extract. See Lewis's Mat. Med. ed. 3.

PULSUS. The pulſe. *Pulſes* were not attended to before the time of Hippocrates, ſince whom what have been called improvements thereon being more than any one can retain in his memory, they cannot be applied to uſefulneſs in practice: Celſus calls the *pulſe* res fallaciſſima: moſt publications on this ſubject are in truth to be arranged in the ſame order. To the different degrees of irritability in conſtitutions is owing the variety of *pulſes*, with reſpect to their being quick or ſlow; every accident that happens to the body, and every affection in the mind hath an influence on them; ſo that very little can be determined from them whence concluſions may be made in practice. The hard and the ſoft *pulſe* are very often owing to a quantity of fat, or of a cellular membrane being ſituated betwixt the artery and the finger, or from the almoſt total abſence of theſe in this ſituation. The full and the ſmall *pulſes* are owing chiefly to the different diameters of the arteries; and, except the quick, the ſlow, and the irregular *pulſes*, there are none of the kinds which are ſo ingeniouſly diſtinguiſhed by authors, but what will, on proper enquiry, be found to be fallacious.

There are adults in health, whoſe *pulſe* exceeds not thirty or forty ſtrokes in a minute; others, while they are at reſt, have a *pulſe* ſo quick that it may be counted to 120, and during the preſence of a fever, the *pulſe* hath been obſerved in ſome inſtances to beat 220 times in the ſame ſhort period.

Schwalbius, of Prague, contented himſelf with three *pulſes*, viz. the equal and unequal, the quick and ſlow, and the ſtrong and the weak. Sylvius reduces *pulſes* to three kinds, viz. the ſtrong and weak, the large and ſmall, and the quick and ſlow. Fernelius obſerves, that "the ordinary affections of the body change the *pulſe*; ſo that without duly adverting to theſe affections, the *pulſe* cannot be certainly underſtood, nor can it be determined how far it recedes from a natural ſtate in conſequence of diſeaſe."

In the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 18, &c. Dr. Heberden hath inſerted ſome obſervations on the *pulſe*, in which it appears how little it is to be depended on alone, or without the conjunction of other ſymptoms; in how few caſes an attention to the *pulſe* is of any ſignificancy; and as to various diſtinctions concerning *pulſes*, how groundleſs they are. The quick and the ſlow *pulſes* he fixes on, as thoſe on which uſefulneſs and certainty attend, when they are the ſubjects of our remarks, and leaves for our notice the following obſervations, viz. That the *pulſe* of a child under two years old ſhould be felt whilſt it is aſleep, becauſe it is ſo eaſily quickened by every new ſenſation; that the *pulſe* of an healthy infant on the day of its birth, and when it is aſleep, is between 130 and 140 in a minute, the mean rate during the firſt month is 120, and rarely, if ever, below 108. During the firſt year the limits may be from 108 to 120, the ſecond year at 90 and 100, the third year at 80 and 108, the fourth, fifth, and ſixth nearly the ſame as the third, the ſeventh year it is ſometimes at 72, but generally more; the twelfth about 70; in adults it is uſually from a little below 60 to a little above 80.

A full meal quickens the *pulſe* to about 10 or 12 in a minute more than its number of *pulſations* were before the advantage of refreſhment.

If the *pulſe* is quickened, ſo as to exceed the healthy ſtandard by ten *pulſations* in a minute, there is ſome diſorder; but the irritability of a child is ſuch, that a very ſlight fever will make the artery beat 140, or even 160, when no danger attends: and as there is much difficulty in counting the *pulſe* when it is at 180 and upwards, we are better enabled to judge of the danger of fevers in children by the thirſt, quickneſs of breathing, averſion to food, and want of ſleep, than by the *pulſe*.

A child of two years old will die of an inflammatory fever, though the artery beats only 144 in a minute; yet children of four years ſometimes recover from fevers when the *pulſe* is at 156.

If the *pulſe* of a child be 15 or 20 below the healthy ſtandard at its loweſt limits, and there be at the ſame time the ſigns of conſiderable illneſs, it is a certain indication that the brain is affected, conſequently ſuch a quiet *pulſe* ſhould alarm us with the probability of danger.

In adults labouring under an inflammatory fever, the danger is generally not very great, where the beats are fewer than one hundred. An hundred and twenty ſhew the beginning of danger, and they ſeldom exceed this number, unattended with delirioufneſs, and where the caſe does not prove fatal. To this there are two exceptions: Firſt, before ſome critical ſwelling begins to ſhew itſelf in fevers, then the *pulſe* hath riſen to 150. Secondly, in acute rheumatiſms, the *pulſe* riſes to 120, without danger; but in both theſe caſes the appetite, the ſenſes, ſleep, and ſtrength, deviate leſs from their natural ſtate than when the life of the patient is in danger.

When aſthmatic patients are ſeized with a ſudden fit, the *pulſe* ſometimes beats 120 times in a minute, in which caſe danger is great, but if this is exceeded, they rarely recover.

When the *pulſe* from being very quick, ſuddenly becomes quiet, all other ill ſymptoms continuing, it ſhews that the patient is become irritable: that the diſeaſe is tranſlated to the brain, and that a palſy, an apoplexy, or death, will be the conſequence.

In an inflamed ſcirrhus ſeated in any of the viſcera, in a cancer, ulcers in the internal parts, a quick *pulſe* is a more certain ſign of danger than a quiet *pulſe* is of ſafety. In hectic and rheumatic patients, the appetite continues, and an ability to take ſmall journies, when the *pulſe* is ſo quick that in an acute fever, with ſuch a quickneſs in the *pulſe*, they would be forced to keep in bed.

A good *pulſe*, with a loſs of appetite, ſtrength, and ſleep, with thirſt, and a quickneſs of breathing, is a dangerous ſituation; on the contrary, a bad *pulſe*, the appetite, ſleep, and ſtrength not much affected, with moderate thirſt, and the breathing but little affected, is ſafe.

PULVINARIA. Cuſhions made with chaff, in which is mixed ſome medical ingredients coarſely powdered.

PULVIS. A powder. This form receives ſuch materials only as may be reduced and kept in this ſtate a ſufficient time without any loſs of their virtues, and yet do not poſſeſs ſuch qualities as render them ſo bulky for a ſufficient quantity to be taken in each doſe, or to render them very diſguſtful to the taſte. Bitters, fetids, acrid medicines, alkaline ſalts, gums, emollients, and muci-

laginous

laginous ſubſtances, are generally improper for keeping and giving in this form. The doſe of *powders* are from ℈ i. to ʒ ſs.

Compound *powders* are called ſpecies.

PUMEX, alſo called lapis bibulus, lapis ſcyrus. Pumice ſtone. It is found in volcanos. It hath been uſed as a dentifrice, but, if freely uſed, it wears away the enamel. It is a ſpongy maſs of a ſtony nature, but light and brittle: the beſt is of a white or greyiſh colour.

PUNCTA LACHRYMALIA. Lachrymal points. They are two ſmall holes, one on each upper and one on each lower eye-lid, on their inner edge, near the internal angles, where may be ſeen a ſmall eminence. Theſe orifices are ſituated oppoſite to each other. They convey away the tears when they have anſwered their purpoſe on the anterior ſurface of the eye, and carry them into the *lachrymal* ſac, and ſo into the noſe.

PUNCTICULA, vel Punctilaris, i. e. Petechialis febris.

PUNCTUM AUREUM. It is when an hernia of the inteſtines is reduced, an inciſion is made through the ſkin and membrana adipoſa, quite down to the upper part of the ſpermatic veſſels; then a golden wire is to be fixed and twiſted ſo as to prevent the deſcent of any thing down the tunica vaginalis.

PUNCTURA. A puncture. Synonymous with vulnus.

PUNCTURA AUREA, i. e. Punctum aureum.

PUNICA. The Pomegranate. See GRANATA MALA.

PUORRHŒA. A purulent diſcharge from the belly.

PUOTURIA. White, mucous, or purulent urine.

PUPILLA. The pupil. Becauſe it repreſents your image when looked into no bigger than the *pupilla, a puppet*. The choroides is continued on the inſide of the cornea tranſparens of the eye, and forms the iris; but it is perforated in the middle, and ſo forms the *pupilla*; as the iris contracts or expands, the *pupil* is larger or leſs. The uſe of the *pupil* is, to tranſmit the rays of light to the humours of the eye.

PUPILLARIS MEMBRANA. In the fœtus of five, ſix, and ſeven months, there is no pupil, but a fine vaſcular membrane, with large arteries going quite acroſs the part where the pupil is afterwards ſeen. It cannot be ſeen without injecting it; nor is it known what becomes of it after the birth. It is alſo called velum pupillæ.

PURGAMENTUM STELLARUM, i. e. Cœlifolium.

PURGANTIA. Purgative medicines. The firſt purge on record is Melampus's giving hellebore to the daughter of the king of Argos. *Purging medicines* are thoſe that facilitate, or increaſe the natural diſcharge of the alvine fæces. Thoſe which facilitate the natural diſcharge are called lenients, laxatives, or ſolutives, and by the Greeks eccoprotics; their action is from a fine ſaline ſtimulant quality, which is ſoon loſt in boiling. When theſe medicines increaſe the natural diſcharges, they are called *purgatives*, or cathartics, &c. They are of different degrees of ſtrength and action: the more rugged are called draſtic.

Eccoprotics are ſuch as give no diſturbance to the body, and expel but little from it; of this kind are ſoft oils, or they are ſuch as are now called lenitives, but by the ancients were called minoratives; they do not evacuate much fæces at once, but by degrees: of this ſort is the ol. ricini, which, whilſt it ſtimulates, it alſo lubricates, and its conſiſtence is ſuch as hinders its eaſy paſſage into the lacteals.

Draſtic purges act by a fine cauſtic inflammatory ſalt, which operates much in the ſame manner as poiſons do. The reſinous extracts of *purging* vegetables cauſe vomiting, convulſions, and death; and, on opening the ſtomach and bowels after their uſe, they are found inflamed, and marked with red ſpots, as when arſenic is taken.

For the milder kind of *purgatives*, we are indebted to the Arabians.

Eccoprotics ſhould be uſed in caſe of coſtiveneſs; when women are pregnant; and, in all very irritable habits, for in general *purges* are unfriendly to the ſtomach, and to thoſe whoſe nervous ſyſtem is ſubject to diſorderly motions. But in dropſies, and when there is a torpid ſtate of the inteſtinal fibres, draſtic purges are neceſſary; they ſhould be confined to the hydropic, lethargic, paralytic, apoplectic, and ſuch like.

Purgatives are excellent alteratives. In order to their uſefulneſs when given in this character, let ſuch a quantity as would ſuffice for a *purging* doſe, be divided into leſſer doſes; all which muſt be taken at proper periods, in the ſpace of twenty-four hours.

Diluting drinks are taken during the operation of *purging medicines*, to aſſiſt the increaſed ſecretion of the inteſtinal juice, in waſhing off the ſtimulus, alſo to ſoften the fæces. See Quinſey's Pharmaceutic Lectures, ſect. iii. and iv. Tournefort's Mat. Med.

PURGATORIUM. In Paracelſus it is a name for any diſeaſe.

PURPURA. The purple fiſh. It is found in the Mediterranean ſea. Its ſhell is ſtriated, furrowed, rough, ſtrong, and with ſhort tubercles. The juice of this fiſh, as well as that of many others, dyes linen of a *purple* colour, which fades not, though frequently waſhed.

PURPURA. A name for the miliary fever; alſo the ſpotted fever. The ſpots are ſymptomatic only.

PURPURA ALBA. A ſpecies of eruption to which men with a phlegmatic plethora are inclined.

PURPURA SCORBUTICA. It is the herpes of Vogel; the *purpura* of Hoffmann; and the true ſerpigo of ſome other writers. Hoffmann ſays, it is to be conſidered as entirely the progeny of a *ſcorbutic* diſpoſition. It is diſtinguiſhed by the eruption of exanthemata, of a very peculiar kind on the ſurface. Sometimes it is accompanied with an acute, and even a malignant fever; on other occaſions, it runs its courſe without fever, continuing for a greater length of time, and diſturbing the functions in a more gentle manner. In this diſeaſe, the ſmall papulæ which appear on the ſurface, are ſometimes of a red, ſometimes of a white colour. In the former caſe, there are veſicles more or leſs broad, containing a fluid; but the latter conſiſts of ſmall knots, fixed as it were deep in the ſkin; theſe are about the ſize and figure of millet ſeed, rough to the touch, and filled with a thick purulent matter. When the eruption firſt appears, it is attended with corrugation, roughneſs and dryneſs of the ſkin; none of the exanthemata are in their nature apt ſo ſuddenly to diſappear and return again. This return of the eruption is in general attended with a ſenſe of heat or coldneſs, of itching or pricking in the part; while other exanthemata appear on every part of the body, the *purpura* is chiefly obſervable on the neck, breaſt, back, and arms, very rarely affecting the inferior extremities.

To prevent this diſeaſe, it is recommended to avoid all kinds of malt liquors. Patients diſpoſed to it are adviſed to uſe for their common drink, either mineral water, or pure water, with a mixture of wine. Exerciſe, change of air, tranquility of mind, and amuſement, are of great ſervice in their prevention. Avoid all that produces coſtiveneſs, or that leſſens perſpiration. High ſeaſoned animal food, and pork, are to be avoided. Milk and whey are very ſerviceable. After the diſeaſe hath taken place, the patient ſhould ſleep in a large bed-chamber, of a moderate temperature. He ſhould ſhun great heat in bed, and not lie in it very long together: thus exceſſive ſweats, which aggravate the diſeaſe, are avoided; but though exceſſive ſweating is injurious, a moderate perſpiration is beneficial. The mineral anodyne liquor is here of ſingular efficacy. See Lewis's Tranſlation of Hoffmann.

PURPURATÆ, i. e. Petechialis febris.

PURULENTIA. Purulence, or ſuppuration.

PURPURA URTICATA. The acute nettle raſh.

PUS. Matter. The *matter* which appears on the ſurface of wounds that are healing; alſo what is met with on opening well digeſted abſceſſes, is called *pus*. It is unctuous, yelloviſh, nearly of the conſiſtence of freſh cream, without any particular ſmell, and of a mild taſte, which reſembles that of chyle. See Dr. Gaber's Experiments with reſpect to the Nature and Formation of *Pus*, in the Med. Muſeum, vol. iii. p. 269, &c.

When mucus is detained in the lungs for a time, and then ſpit up, it often reſembles *pus*; to diſtinguiſh rightly, if *pus* (or *matter*) is mixed with water, and ſlightly agitated with a whiſk, it is eaſily diffuſed, and after ſtanding a few hours falls to the bottom of the veſſel. Mucus is with difficulty diffuſed in water, requiring ſtrong agitation, and

then forms with it a permanent ropy fluid. When the *matter* ſpit up by conſumptive patients is agitated in water, it mixes without difficulty; and on ſtanding a ſhort time, a *matter* falls to the bottom, reſembling *pus*; and the fluid above remains ropy, reſembling the mucus and water.

PUSTULA. A puſtule, or little pimple, from *pus*, *corruption*. Theſe particularly appear in the ſpring, and are of various kinds; for ſometimes a certain roughneſs appears all over the body, reſembling that which is produced by the application of a nettle, or the obſtruction of ſweat, and are called by the Greeks exanthema. They are red and white, and of different ſizes. There are alſo *puſtules* of a black, livid, or any other colour; they are produced by cold, fire, or medicine, as the epynictis, &c. Celſus recommends, as the cure of all *puſtules*, a due proportion of exerciſe, and to leſſen the quantity of aliment.

PUSTULA ORIS. The thruſh. See APHTHÆ.

PUTREDO, vel Putrefactio. Putrefaction. *Putrefaction* is a ſpecies of fermentation, in which the phlogiſton and the fixed air of the putrefying ſubject, are ſeparated, and by which a diſſolution of the parts of the ſame body are not only effected, but a fetor is always induced in it. In order to *putrefaction* taking place, it is neceſſary that there ſhould be a degree of heat, moiſture, and of atmoſpheric air; but whenever a ſmall portion of matter is become putrid, it eaſily diffuſes itſelf through a large quantity, like as leaven does in paſte; this is in nothing more manifeſt than in the human body, wherein a ſmall portion of putrid matter being abſorbed, eaſily and ſoon contaminates the whole.

From *putrefaction* it is that the plague, the ſpotted fever, the true ſcurvy, and other diſorders of the like kind, take place. In all theſe diſorders the ſtrength is diminiſhed, and ſo is the vital heat. In general, if a recovery is within the power of medicine, the bark, acids, fixed air, warm perſpiratives, camphor, &c. are the moſt powerful antiputreſcents, and are the moſt ſucceſsful means for removing theſe diſorders.

On this ſubject, ſee the Appendix to Sir John Pringle's Obſervations on the Diſeaſes of the Army; Biſs's Eſſays; Macbride's Eſſays.

PUTRID FEVER. See SYNOCHUS. Under this general name may be included the plague, ſpotted or petechial fevers, peſtilential, malignant, camp, jail fever, &c. The more mild inſtances are of the typhus kind. Dr. Cullen obſerves, in the firſt volume of his Firſt Lines, that the ſynochus ſeems not ſo properly a genus, as a variety of typhus; that the typhus ſeems to be a genus comprehending ſeveral ſpecies, but that theſe are not well aſcertained by obſervation; and in the mean time we can perceive, that many of the different caſes obſerved do not imply any ſpecific difference, ſeeming to be merely varieties, ariſing from a different degree of power in the cauſe, from different circumſtances of the climate, or ſeaſon in which they happen, or from different circumſtances in the conſtitution of the perſons afflicted. One effect ariſing from theſe circumſtances is, a putreſcent ſtate of the fluids. From the diſſolved ſtate of the blood, as it appears when drawn out of the veins; or as it appears from the red blood's being diſpoſed to be effuſed, and run off by various outlets, and ſeveral other ſymptoms, we have no doubt that real *putreſcency* of the fluids takes place in *fevers*. This *putreſcency*, however, often attends intermittent, as well as continued *fevers*; and of the continued kind, both the ſynochus and typhus, and all of them in very different degrees, ſo that whatever attention it may require in practice, there is no fixing ſuch limits to it as to admit of eſtabliſhing a ſpecies under the title of *putrid*.

Theſe *fevers* are often inflammatory in their beginning, but they ſoon become *putrid*, and they are all of the continued kind. Indeed in ſome caſes, diſorders of a very oppoſite nature, by continuance, degenerate into putrid ones.

Thoſe who are weakly, who live poorly, and labour hard, the luxurious, thoſe who ſit up late, people of cold, of phlegmatic, or of irritable conſtitutions, the penſive, and thoſe who are oppreſſed with grief, are moſt ſubject to *putrid fevers*.

The ſame cauſes which produce the plague, if applied in a leſs degree, produce the other ſorts of *putrid fevers*. The remote cauſes are improper diet, and ſuch as are *putrid* when eaten; corrupted grain, as well as corrupted animal diet, is productive of *putrid* diſorders; a too free uſe of alkaline ſalts, and ſuch other medicines as diſſolve the blood; a moiſt ſouth wind long continued, eſpecially if much heat attends it; putrid effluvia; warm, calm, ſultry weather, with a moiſt atmoſphere. The proximate cauſe is a diſſolution of the blood, which is ſoon produced by *putrid* miaſmata, received either into the lungs by inſpiration, into the ſtomach with the food, or being generated in ſome part, is abſorbed, as from *putrid* ulcers, &c. According to the quantity of *putrid* matter received into the conſtitution, and the different parts which it firſt impreſſed, the ſymptoms excited will be ſomewhat various; if received from the atmoſphere by the lungs, as when *putrid* vapours are diffuſed in a country where theſe diſorders are epidemical, or in cloſe confined places, ſuch as ſhips, jails, &c. in this caſe nervous ſymptoms are firſt produced. If the ſtomach is firſt diſordered thereby, a ſickneſs, vomiting, or great anxiety, are brought on; when it enters into the blood by abſorption, the blood is at firſt diſſolved, then proceed heat, delirium, a diarrhœa, high coloured fetid urine, &c.

Putrid fevers attack with more violence than the nervous. And Dr. Huxham obſerves, that "the rigors are greater, the heats ſharper and more permanent, yet, at the firſt, they are ſudden, tranſient, and remitting; the pulſe is more tenſe and hard, though ſometimes quick and ſmall, and at others ſlow and regular, then fluttering and unequal." In the beginning it generally happens, that during the firſt twenty-four hours, the alternate heat and cold are conſiderable, and ſymptoms of ardency are attendant, but theſe ſoon vaniſh; the *fever* increaſes every evening, and in the ſecond week the patient becomes delirious, and the ſymptoms, which at firſt came on, increaſing, deſtroy the patient; or gradually decreaſing, about the end of the ſecond week, the delirium changes to a ſtupor, and other ſymptoms taking place, the patient, from the end of the ſecond, or the beginning of the third week, grows better; but in ſome caſes and under ſome kinds of management, the *putrid* ſymptoms increaſe from the ſecond week, both in their number and degree, and the patient ſinks under them. In the beginning, the head-ach and vomiting are violent; there is often a pain in the temples, or over the eyes, and in the bottom of the orbit; the eyes are full and heavy, yelloviſh, a little inflamed, then the countenance becomes bloated; the temporal arteries throb, though at the ſame time the pulſe at the wriſt is ſmall; there is a ringing in the ears, great dejection of ſpirits and faintneſs, reſpiration is difficult, mixed with ſighing, and the breath is hot and offenſive; pains are complained of in the loins and limbs, an univerſal wearineſs, and often a load at the ſtomach, attended with pain and heat there, alſo a naufea, and often a diſcharge of blackiſh or bilious matter. In the beginning the tongue is white, then grows drier and darker coloured: in ſome it is livid, in others black, or of a dark pomegranate colour. In the increaſe of the *fever*, the thirſt is the greateſt, but no liquor pleaſes; moſt things are mawkiſh and bitteriſh to the taſte, but often the ſenſe of thirſt is little or none during the whole of the diſeaſe; the lips and teeth are furred with a black tenacious ſordes; in the beginning the urine is pale and vapid, high coloured in the advance, and at laſt grows very brown and blackiſh, and hath more or leſs of an offenſive ſmell; the ſtools are blackiſh and very offenſive; they often run off inſenſibly; after profuſe evacuations by ſtool, the belly becomes ſwollen and tenſe; livid ſpots appear on the ſkin; hæmorrhages, and cold clammy ſweats appear in ſome inſtances on the fourth or fifth day, in others not till the eleventh, but generally they uſher in death.

Putrid fevers ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe of the ardent kind, the nervous and inflammatory, particularly from the peripneumony.

The vital heat, and the adheſion and quantity of the craſſamentum of the blood, mutually depend on each other; and as the *putrid* infection both diſſolves the craſſamentum, and repels the vital heat, from thoſe circumſtances, moſt, if not all the ſymptoms that are obſerved in *putrid* diſorders, may be accounted for, whether they attack the ſanguine or the ſerous habit.

The prognoſtics are generally very uncertain. A red raſh, or an inflamed ſcab below the noſe, or about the

lips, are favourable for the moſt part; deafneſs at the decline is generally eſteemed a promiſing ſymptom; but amongſt the unfavourable ones are, a change of voice, wild ſtaring eyes, difficulty of ſwallowing, inability to put out the tongue, a conſtant inclination to uncover the breaſt, urine that depoſits a dark or blackiſh ſediment, no thirſt, inflamed fauces, a diarrhœa with a ſwelled belly, bloody ſaliva, purple or livid ſpots on the ſkin, black aphthæ, laborious reſpiration, ichorous and fetid ſtools, cold ſweats, convulſions, &c.

The indications of cure are, to check the *putrefaction*, and to recal the vital heat. In order to which, the air in the patient's room, and the linen which is worn by the patient, ſhould be often changed; the ſtools and urine ſhould be immediately conveyed under ground, to prevent their diffuſing their morbid qualities in the air. Acid vapours may be diffuſed in the apartments of the ſick, or fumigations of myrrh and other aromatic and antiſeptic ingredients may be uſed. In the adminiſtration of medicines, the doſes ſhould be ſo repeated as to ſupport the heat of the patient in as equal a degree as is poſſible; the medicines and diet may be given in ſmall doſes, and proportionably frequent, and endeavour to ſupport the heat of the patient as near to that of health as may be.

The diet ſhould be acid or aceſcent. The drink ſhould be acidulated, and often mixed with red wine; whey made with muſtard is both agreeable to ſome and uſeful to moſt. The elixir of vitriol, or Ciutton's febrif. ſpt. may be uſed for acidulating what the patient drinks. Beef broth that is boiled long enough to extract the finer parts of the meat, is an excellent part of diet in theſe caſes; but it ſhould not be continued boiling until the groſſer parts of the meats are drawn out.

As to medicines, in many caſes, the bark and ſpirit of vitriol, accompanied with the julep of camphor, ſucceed without any other aids.

Bleeding is rarely, if ever, to be admitted of, for the *putrefaction* ſoon produces all that can be effected by it. Some bleed if the pulſe is quick and tenſe; the pain in the head and back is violent, the breathing difficult, and other ſymptoms of ſtrength appear; but, as the *putrid* miaſmata ſoon produce all that bleeding can effect, and as the greateſt point is to ſupport or to recover the vital heat, bleeding, as a leſſer ill, may probably be ſometimes admitted of, but much caution is required before the operation is determined on.

In general, an antimonial emetic ſhould begin the cure; or the pulv. ipec. may be given with the tart. emet. and a cordial draught, or a doſe of the julep. e camph. may immediately ſucceed its operation.

After the emetic and the ſucceeding draught have been taken, give frequent ſmall doſes of the vin. antim. or of the tart. emet. with proper antiſeptics and cordials. Neutral ſalts are generally hurtful, and even the ſp. Mindereri is better omitted.

The bark is a principal means of relief, and ſhould be given very early in the diſorder; at the lateſt it ſhould be begun with as ſoon as ſymptoms of inflammation or of ardency diſappear; and, if theſe do not attend, begin with it immediately after the operation of the emetic. The bark may be given in ſubſtance, in a cold infuſion with water, and in conjunction with ſaffron, ſnake-root, or other ſuch like medicines, according to the intention of the preſcriber.

Whilſt the pulſe is quick and full, bliſters are not adviſable; but generally they are uſeful in the early ſtages of theſe *fevers*, and if one is applied as a former one begins to dry, the advantage will be conſiderable in every ſtage. If a delirium approaches, the head or back may be bliſtered, as alſo if the patient is comatous. If in the earlier ſtage of a *putrid fever*, the patient is delirious, and other ſymptoms ſeem to forbid the uſe of bliſters, ſinapiſms may be applied to the feet.

Clyſters are convenient, both for carrying off *putrid* matter from the inteſtines, and for conveying antiputreſcents there. Though, for ſimply regulating the ſtools, perhaps a little tart. emet. and rhub. may be the moſt proper; and when any purging medicine is uſed for carrying off the contents of the bowels, the patient ſhould be ſupported during their operation with cordial liquors.

Camphor is both uſeful as an antiſpaſmodic and antiſeptic, but is moſt eminently ſerviceable in the beginning of the diſeaſe.

Amongſt the antiſeptics fixed air is found to be peculiarly uſeful, and may be commodiouſly adminiſtered in clyſters.

The vis vitæ muſt be carefully ſupported; the principal means of which are, acids, the bark, red wine, and a ſupine poſture.

If a diarrhœa comes on, give gentle opiates, ſuch as the ſpec. e ſcord. cum op. or the conf. Democrat. &c. Aſtringents are uſeful, but acids are the moſt ſo in theſe kinds of looſeneſſes, eſpecially if accompanied with perſpiratives.

If the petechiæ ſuddenly diſappear, a delirium will come on, and the pulſe ſink; in this caſe bliſter the head or the inſides of the thighs, or apply ſinapiſms to the feet. Bliſters remarkably relieve the nervous ſymptoms attendant on theſe diſorders.

However deſirable a general diaphoreſis may be, it ſhould never be forced by the uſe of medicines; to promote it, when there is the leaſt degree of tendency thereto, and to ſupport it when preſent, ſub-acid diluents, with cordials, may be freely uſed.

When petechiæ appear, give ſtrong red wine negus, well acidulated.

Sometimes a vomiting continues to afflict the patient, after having emptied the ſtomach by means of an emetic: if in this caſe the theriaca Andromach. given with the ſaline draught fail to relieve, apply a cataplaſm of the theriac Andromach. well charged with aromatic ſpices.

If a grain or two of the tart. emet. with a ſmall quantity of rhubarb is given, whenever a diſagreeable taſte is perceived in the mouth, or even without this indication, if it is repeated every two or three days, much putrid colluvies will be carried off, which would otherwiſe prove a pabulum to ſupport the violence of the diſorder.

See Huxham and Sir John Pringle on *Putrid Fevers*; Fordyce's Elements (part the 2d); An Enquiry into the Cauſes, Symptoms, and Cure of *Putrid Fevers*, by W. Fordyce, M D.

PYCNOTICA. Incraſſating medicines.

PYGÆ. The buttocks.

PYLORICA ARTERIA. It is a branch of the hepatic artery, which runs, and is ramified on the pylorus, and from thence to the cardia, and anaſtamoſes with the arteria gaſtrica dextra, and terminates on the pylorus by an anaſtomoſes with the coronary artery of the ſtomach.

PYLORICA VENA. It is a branch from the venæ portæ ventralis. Sometimes it is only a branch of the gaſtrica recta; it paſſes over the pylorus to the ſhort arch of the ſtomach, where it anaſtomoſes with the coronary vein thereof.

PYLORUS, from πυλη, *a door*, and ουρος, *to guard*. The word ſignifies a porter, and thus the Greeks called the right orifice of the ſtomach.

PYOSIS, i. e. Hypopyon.

PYRAMIDALE CORPUS. The ſpermatic cord.

PYRAMIDALES MUSCULI. The pyramidal muſcles of the belly, alſo called ſuccenturiati. They preſent themſelves next to the aſcending and deſcending oblique muſcles. They were firſt diſcovered by Fallopius. They are ſituated before the extremities of the recti, ariſing from the fore part of the os pubis, cloſe to the ſymphiſis. They grow ſmaller as they proceed; they end in a point, and are loſt in the linea alba. Their figure gives them their name. They pull down the linea alba. Fallopius called them ſuccenturiati, or auxiliary muſcles, from a ſuppoſition that they are only ſupplemental to the recti in their action, the order of their fibres in both agreeing; and theſe being always abſent when the recti are continued fleſhy to the juncture of the oſſa pubis.

PYRAMIDALIA CORPORA. A name of two protuberances from the medulla oblongata, and alſo a name for the ſpermatic veſſels.

PYRAMIDALIS NASI [Muſc.] It is alſo called recti and triangularis. One extremity is inſerted in the ſynarthroſis of the os frontis, and oſſa naſi; it runs down the ſide of the noſe, and is again inſerted into the cartilage there.

PYRE-

PYRETHRUM, from πυρ, *fire*, becauſe of the fiery heat of the root. It is alſo called buphthalmum Creticum. Pellitory of Spain. It is the anthemis *pyrethrum*, or anthemis caulibus ſimplicibus unifloris decumbentibus, foliis pinnato-multifidis, radice longe ſervida, flore bellidis, Linn. It is a trailing perennial plant, with finely divided leaves, like thoſe of fennel or chamomile, and naked thick ſtalks, bearing each a large flower, with a yellow diſk, ſurrounded with petals of a pure white colour on the upper ſide, and of a fine purple underneath. The root ſinks deep in the ground like a carrot, is of a browniſh colour on the outſide, and white within. It is a native of the warmer climes, and is brought to us from Italy, but bears the cold of our climate. It flowers from January to May. The roots which grow in England are larger than thoſe from abroad.

The roots are hot and pungent to the taſte, but have little or no ſmell. Its pungency is in its reſin, which is of a fixed kind. Water extracts but little of the reſin, ſpirit of wine takes up the whole of it. In diſtillation, neither water nor ſpirit takes up any thing with them. The watery extract is the moſt in quantity, but the ſpirituous contains moſt of the active parts.

It is chiefly uſed as a maſticatory. Dr. Lewis recommends a decoction of theſe roots with the tinct. ſacra in cliſters for the ſaturnine colic. It is not certain that the pellitory of the moderns is the ſame with that of the antients. See Newmann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

PYREXIÆ, πυρετικες, from πυρετος, *febris* vel *fervis*. Febrile diſeaſes.

PYRIFORMIS MUSCULUS. It riſes from the lower part of the os ſacrum, where it is joined to the os ilium; it paſſes through the ſciatic notch, and is inſerted into inſide of the tip of the trochanter major, ſerving as a rotator, an extenſor, or an abductor, according to the direction of the thigh. It is called *pyriformis* from its figure, and iliacus externus from its ſituation.

PYRITES. Fire-ſtones. They are alſo called marchaſita. They are called *fire-ſtones*, becauſe they ſtrike fire with ſteel. By expoſing them to the air they become vitriolic; ſome are calcined, and then expoſed to the air. They vary much in their appearances, being of different colours, ſhapes, and internal ſtructure. In moſt parts they are found near the ſurface of the earth. They conſiſt chiefly of ſulphur, iron, and unmetallic earth; in ſome there is a little copper; in the yellow ſort there is much ſulphur; in the white there is but little.

When *pyrites* are expoſed to the air, the inflammable part of their ſulphur is diſſipated, the ſtones become powdery, and acquire a vitriolic taſte; the rain now falling on them, waſhes away the remaining acid of the ſulphurous contents, and veſſels are placed underneath to receive it; and from this the green vitriol is generally made.

Pyrites are not uſed medicinally in ſubſtance, but in Saxony they obtain the common ſulphur therefrom; artificial vitriols are prepared from them; and it is ſuppoſed that the chalybeate ſprings receive their impregnation from them. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Dict. of Chem. Neumann's Chem. Works.

PYRMONT WATER. It is one of the principal of the chalybeate kind.

PYROSIS. In Scotland this is called the water-braſh. Dr. Cullen places it as a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes, and order ſpaſmi. This diſorder is named *pyroſis* ſuecica by Sauvages, but Linnæus calls it cardialgia ſputatoria. Dr. Cullen conſiders the *pyroſis* as an idiopathic diſeaſe, and ſeems to be the firſt who hath treated of it in a ſyſtem. He obſerves, that it is a diſeaſe frequent among people in lower life, but occurs alſo, though more rarely, in people of better condition. It appears (he ſays) moſt frequently in perſons under middle age, but ſeldom in any perſons before the age of puberty. When it has once taken place, it is ready to recur occaſionally for a long time after, but it ſeldom appears in perſons conſiderably advanced in life. It affects both ſexes, but more frequently the female; it ſometimes attacks pregnant women, and ſome women only when they are in that condition. Of other women, it more frequently affects the unmarried, and of the married, moſt frequently the barren; it frequently happens to women labouring under the fluor albus. The fits of this diſeaſe uſually come on in the morning and forenoon, when the ſtomach is empty. The firſt ſymptoms of it is a pain at the pit of the ſtomach, with a ſenſe of conſtriction, and as if the ſtomach was drawn towards the back; the pain is increaſed by raiſing the body into an erect poſture, and, therefore, the body is bended forward. This pain is often very ſevere; and after continuing for ſome time, it brings on an eructation of a thin watery fluid in conſiderable quantity: this fluid hath ſometimes an acid taſte, but very often is without this, and abſolutely inſipid. The eructation is for ſome time frequently repeated, and does not immediately give relief to the pain which preceded it, but does ſo at length, and puts an end to the fit. The fits come on without any evident exciting cauſe; they attack perſons uſing animal food, but more frequently thoſe who live on milk and farinacea. Cold applied to the lower extremities ſeems often to be an exciting cauſe, and ſo is every conſiderable emotion of mind. The doctor goes on to obſerve, that the nature of this affection is not very obvious, but he thinks it may be explained as follows: it ſeems to begin by a ſpaſm of the muſcular fibres of the ſtomach, which is afterwards, in a certain manner, communicated to the blood-veſſels and exhalents, ſo as to increaſe the impetus of the fluids in the veſſels, while a conſtriction takes place on their extremities. The increaſed impetus pours out a larger quantity of fluid than uſual, while the conſtriction upon their extremities allows only the pure watery parts to be poured out, analogous, as I judge, in every reſpect to what happens in the diabetes hyſtericus. As to the cure, little can be done. Opium relieves the paroxyſm. The vitriolic æther, volatile alkali, &c. are ſometimes of ſervice. Linnæus ſpeaks of the nux vomica being uſeful, but to prevent the returns of this diſorder is not eaſy. See Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. iii.

PYROSIS. It is the name of a diſeaſe in the ear, which affects the patient as if a heat was excited there by a burning coal.

PYROTECHNIA, from πυρ, *fire*, and τεχνη, *art*. Chemiſtry.

PYRUS. The pear-tree. The tree and fruit are ſufficiently known not to need any deſcription. From pears the liquor called perry is obtained by expreſſion.

PYULCON, from πυον, *pus*, and ελκω, *to draw*. An inſtrument to fetch out the matter from the cavity of the breaſt, or any ſinuous ulcer.

PYURIA. The ſame as Dyſuria mucoſa.

PYURIA ARTHRITICA. The ſame as dyſuria mucoſa.

PYURIA VISCIDA. The ſame as dyſuria mucoſa.

PYURIA MUCOSA. The ſame as dyſuria mucoſa.

Q.

QUADRAGESIMUS DIES. The fortieth day. The antients fixed on this day as the laſt to which acute diſtempers could extend, calling all thoſe chronical which continued longer. But Dr. James obſerves, that he hath ſeen an acute diſeaſe which continued ſixty days

QUADRANS. A three ounce meaſure was formerly thus named

QUADRATI MUSCULI. Four-ſquared muſcles. See OCCIPITALIS MUSCULUS.

QUADRATUS FEMORIS. This muſcle riſes from the outſide of the tuberoſity of the iſchium, and it is inſerted into the line between the trochanter major and minor, ſerving to rotate the thigh.

QUADRATUS GENÆ, i. e. Platyſma myoides.

QUADRATUS LUMBORUM. This muſcle riſes from the ſpine of the ilium, whence it goes to the tranſverſe proceſſes of the four upper lumbar vertebræ, and partly from theſe tranſverſe proceſſes, which part goes to the laſt rib. This muſcle lies between the contained parts of the belly, and the erectors of the back, and ſerve to pull the body to one ſide, by bringing the laſt rib down. This muſcle is alſo called quadrigeminus, and lumbaris externus; underneath it a troubleſome abſceſs is ſometimes formed. See ABSCESS of the LOINS.

QUADRIFOLIUM. A name for the trifolium, *quadrifolium*, hortenſe album.

QUADRIGA, alſo Cataphracta. A bandage for the ſternum and ribs. It is twenty-four feet long, three or four fingers broad, with two heads; it binds upon the thorax and ſternum more firmly when the ribs are fractured. The middle is placed on one ſide of the body; the two heads are carried ſo as to interſect on the oppoſite ſhoulder; they are brought back to where they begin, and then paſs circularly round the body.

QUADRIGEMINI. A name for the following four muſcles taken together, viz. pyriformis, gemellus ſuperior, gemellus inferior, and the quadratus femoris.

QUADRIGEMINUS, i. e. Quadratus lumborum.

QUARTANA CONTINUA. Continued quartan. The paroxyſm returns every fourth day, after previous pandiculations and horripilations, but does not very exactly obſerve its period; nor when the paroxyſm abates does it totally intermit, but is only milder on the intermediate days than in that in which the paroxyſm happens. The heat is alſo preternaturally intenſe, the pulſe increaſed, the appetite languid, the ſtrength low, the mouth dry, the head giddy, the ſleep reſtleſs, the urine red, thick, and with a high coloured ſediment.

QUARTANA DUPLEX. A double quartan. It is when within four days two ſucceeding paroxyſms happen, in ſuch a manner, that each preſerves its proper type, and peculiar time of acceſſion, alternately correſponding to the preceding paroxyſm, and the third day only being totally free from the fever.

QUARTANA FEBRIS. An ague, or quartan fever. It hath two fits in four days, or two days free from the fit, ſo on the firſt and the fourth the fever attends, and on the ſecond and third it is free; the acceſſion of the fit is in the afternoon. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order febres. It is uſually both more violent and obſtinate than a tertian. Sometimes a *quartan fever* is double, that is, when the fits come on every other time at different hours, and ſo that the third day only is free from *fever*. It is called ſpurious when the fit begins at any other time of the day than about four or five o'clock in the evening.

The fits return with greater regularity generally than is obſerved in other ſpecies of *fevers*.

The cure is as related for intermitting fevers.

QUARTANA LEGITIMA. The ſame as quartana. It obſerves its periods in its proper returns, which is in the afternoon, more exactly than in any other ſpecies of fevers.

QUARTANA SPURIA. Spurious Quartan. It hath no certain period for its returns, which, however, is in the forenoon generally; the heat alſo is greater, and affects the patient more than the cold fit does.

QUARTARIUS. A meaſure which contains about four ounces.

QUARTATIO. Quartation. It is an operation in chemiſtry, by which the quantity of one thing is made equal to a fourth part of the quantity of another thing. Thus when gold, allayed with ſilver, is to be parted, we are obliged to facilitate the action of the aqua fortis by reducing the quantity of the former of theſe metals to one fourth part of the whole maſs, which is done by ſufficiently encreaſing the quantity of the ſilver, if it be neceſſary. Some extend this name to the operation of parting.

QUARTURA, i. e. Quartatio.

QUARTZ. It is a hard vitrifiable ſtone, called alſo quartzoſe ſtone. It is found both with ores and without them. According to Cronſtedt, it always forms hexagonal priſms, pointed at one, or both ends, when there has been no interruption to its cryſtallization; and this cryſtallized *quartz* is rock cryſtal, which, like the uncryſtallized *quartz*, is colourleſs or coloured, tranſparent or opake. See Dict. of Chemiſtry, edit. 2. In Foſſilogy, the *quartzoſe ſtone* is an order in the claſs of ſtones; the characters of this order are, that it is a foſſil body, ſtriking fire with ſteel, and either tranſparent or figured, and of a ſolid ſtructure.

Of the tranſparent *quartz*, called *quartzoſe* cryſtal, are the various precious ſtones, as the diamond, ruby, &c.

According to Mr. Edwards, the characters of *quartzoſe* cryſtal are, that it is a *quartzoſe ſtone*, which is well diſtinguiſhed from the other foſſil bodies of the order of *quartz*, being never properly inveſted with an outward cruſt, clearer than flint and agate, frequently figured; agate and flint never or ſeldom having proper figures; not breaking in ringlets like flint, and wanting the delicate appearance of agate, and being by the character of the order diſtinguiſhed from all other foſſil bodies.

Different ſorts of *quartzoſe* cryſtal frequently are called precious ſtones; the reaſon for this diſtinction being chiefly on account of their beauty and hardneſs, for they have great luſtre; and many of them are ſo hard, that they cannot be touched by the file, yet, upon this or any other diſtinction, to conſider precious ſtones as different bodies from *quartzoſe* cryſtal, and to arrange them accordingly, is contrary to nature, and all the laws of arrangement. *Quartzoſe* cryſtal, poſſeſſing an eminent degree of beauty and hardneſs, is called ruby, when it hath a fine red colour, and preſerves it in the fire; ſaphire, when it hath a bright blue colour; topaz, when it has a beautiful golden yellow colour; emerald, when it hath a fine green colour; chryſolite, when it hath a duſky green colour, with a caſt of yellow; amethyſt, when it hath a violet colour; garnet, when it hath a deep red colour; hyacinth, when it hath rather a deep red colour, approaching to a flame colour; beryl, or aqua marina, when it hath a ſea or bluiſh green colour. The *quartzoſe* cryſtal, which is ſuperior to all other precious ſtones in its pellucidity, luſtre, beauty, and hardneſs, and which attracts its foil, is called diamond, and is of various colours. See Elements of Foſſilogy. The precious ſtones (ſee GEMMA) have been extolled in medicine, but their abſolute inſolubility in the human ſtomach renders them incapable of uſefulneſs, and the preſent practice rejects them.

QUASSI LIGNUM. Quaſſi wood. This wood is ſo called from a negro who was named Quaſſi; he lived at Surinam,

Surinam, and uſed it medicinally. He had great ſucceſs by giving it in fevers of the intermittent, malignant, and putrid kinds. It is the *quaſſia* amara, or the *quaſſia* floribus hermaphroditis, foliis imparipinnatis, foliolis oppoſitis ſeſſilibus, petiolo articulato alato, floribus racemoſis, Linn. The wood hath no ſmell, is very bitter, and ſtronger and more concentrated than that of any one medicament yet known; it is totally void of ſtypticity. As a bitter, it may be uſed as is common with bitters in general; it may be given in the form of pills, powders, or infuſion. *Quaſſi* made a tincture with it in brandy, but an infuſion of it in boiling water ſeems to be the beſt preparation. A dram may be infuſed in a pint of boiling water, and an ounce may be given for one doſe. When the bark could not be taken, in the intermiſſion of fevers, the *quaſſi* with an equal quantity of rad. ſerpent. V. infuſed in boiling water, anſwered every end that was expected from the bark; it allayed vomiting, and appeared powerfully to reſiſt putrefaction.

QUATRIO. The aſtragalus.

QUERCERA, i. e. Epialos.

QUERCUS. The oak tree. It is the *quercus* robur, or *quercus* foliis deciduis oblongis ſuperne latioribus, ſinubus acutioribus, angulis obtuſis, Linn. The common Engliſh oak tree. It is a common foreſt tree, and is known in all parts of Europe. The bark is a ſtrong aſtringent, moderately bitter, having no particular ſmell; with a ferruginous ſolution it ſtrikes an inky blackneſs. It hath been uſed with ſucceſs in intermitting fevers, and in gleeting gangrenous wounds and ulcers, in which caſes, ſome ſay, its extract is as good as the extract of the bark. Both water, and rectified ſpirit, take up its virtues. The bark is more uſed for tanning, than as a medicine.

QUERCUS MARINA. See KALI.

QUIETALES. Diſeaſes in which the voluntary and involuntary motions, and the ſenſes are diminiſhed.

QUINA QUINA. The Peruvian bark.

QUINCUNX, a five ounce meaſure.

QUINQUEFOLIUM, alſo called pentaphyllon. Common cinquefoil, five-fingers, or five-leaved graſs. It is a trailing plant, with ſerrated leaves, ſet five together, on long pedicles. It is perennial, grows wild on clayey grounds, and flowers in June. The roots are aſtringent, they give out their virtue to water and to ſpirit. The leaves are of the ſame nature as the roots. See Raii Hiſt.

QUINQUEFOLIUM. A name for a ſpecies of tormentilla, of a ſpecies of argentina, and a ſpecies of ſinapiſtrum.

QUINQUINA. The Peruvian bark.

QUINQUE NERVIA, i. e. Plantago.

QUINTA ESSENTIA. Quinteſſences. They are made by adding to any eſſential oil twelve times its quantity of pure alcohol of wine, and ſhaking them ſo together, that the oil may not appear. If theſe are diſtilled in a cloſe veſſel, with a fire of 90 deg. by Farenh. therm. the alcohol will riſe with only the preſiding ſpirit of the oil; and if with care the thinner part is ſeveral times ſeparated from the thicker, by repeated gentle cohobation, the alcohol will at length be ſo impregnated with thoſe oily ſpirits, as to appear to be almoſt pure ſpirit itſelf, leaving a groſs exhauſted oil behind.

Dry *quinteſſences* are made by diſſolving an aromatic oil in alcohol of wine, then adding to them ten times their weight of ſugar finely powdered, then placing them in a proper place and veſſel for exhaling the ſpirit from the ſugar, but preſerving it from being loſt. Thus the ſugar will remain dry, but with the virtues of the aromatic oil in it. ℈ i. in a glaſs of wine is a good cordial.

QUINTANA. An ague, the paroxyſm of which returneth every fifth day; the ſecond, third, and fourth are free from fever.

QUISQUILIUM. A grain of chermes.

QUOTIDIANA CONTINUA. The continued quotidian of Vogel, is the continued quartan of Cullen.

QUOTIDIANA FEBRIS. A quotidian fever. It intermits, but returns every day, and that generally early in the morning: when the fit approaches at any other time of the day, it is called ſpurious or anomalous. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order febres. The blood is more denſe in this ſpecies of intermittents than of any other. For the general method of cure, ſee INTERMITTENT FEVER.

QUOTIDIANA SOPOROSA, i. e. Tertiana Carotica.

R.

RABDOIDES. See RHABDOIDES.

RABIES, i. e. Hydrophobia. When from the bite of a mad dog, the patient hath a deſire of biting, the canine madneſs is called *rabies*.

RACEMUS. A cluſter, ſuch as a bunch of grapes, or of ivy berries, or other fruit which grows in cluſters; or rather a ſtalk divided into ſeveral branches, ſuſtaining each a flower or fruit, ſet thick together, as is ſeen in grapes, &c.

RACHIALGIA, i. e. Colic, particularly the colica Pictonum.

RACHIALGIA PICTONUM, i. e. Colica Pictonum.

RACHIALGIA METALLICA, i. e. Colica Pictonum.

RACHIALGIA ab ADIAPNEUSTIA, i. e. Colica Pictonum.

RACHIALGIA TRAUMATICA, i. e. Colica Pictonum.

RACHITÆ, or Rachiæi. The muſcles belonging to the back.

RACHITIS, ſo Dr. Gliſſon called it, from ῥαχις, *the ſpine of the back*, becauſe he ſuppoſes a fault in the ſpinal marrow produces it. The rickets. This diſorder is alſo called cyrtonoſus. In ſome countries it is called the Engliſh diſeaſe, though it is much more frequent elſewhere: it did not appear in England until about the middle of the ſeventeenth century, from whence it is ſaid to have ſpread all over Europe, and whence it obtained the name of Engliſh. Dr. Gliſſon ſays, that it was firſt obſerved in the Weſt of England, in the counties of Dorſet and Somerſet, betwixt the years 1600 and 1620, and that afterwards it ſpread.

It is a chronical diſeaſe, and a ſpecies of cachexy. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs cachexiæ, and the order intumeſcentiæ. He diſtinguiſhes two varieties. 1. *Rachitis* ſimplex; when there is no other diſeaſe. 2. *Rachitis* cum aliis morbis conjuncta. The whole habit is affected, but more particularly the heads of the bones or joints, with their ligaments and cartilages; and alſo the whole cranium. Bodies that have been diſſected after the death of ricketty patients, were found to have pale and flaccid muſcles, ſwelled lungs, enlarged livers, indurated meſenteric glands, ſpongy bones, the nodes on them were ſoft, and the marrow within them like bloody

ſerum. Some obſerve, that the top of the ſpinal marrow is uncommonly hard and obſtructed, that water is lodged between the dura and pia mater, and that the brain is large.

Uſually the ſubjects are children from ſix months to ſix years of age, though ſometimes its attack is not before the ſixth year, or even after. Mr. Bromfield gives an inſtance of a woman being afflicted with, and at length dying under this diſorder. See his Chirurg. Obſ. vol. ii. c. 2 Children who cut their teeth late are diſpoſed to this complaint.

The remote cauſes are, whatever hinders digeſtion, generates a viſcid chyle, or in general leſſens the vis vitæ. A cold moiſt atmoſphere diſpoſes to the *rickets*, whence the greater frequency thereof in marſhy countries. In Holland, and at Halle in Saxony, this diſorder prevails very much, on account of their atmoſphere being filled with moiſt and otherways unſalutary exhalations. Bad nurſing, a too acefcent diet, &c. are alſo cauſes of this kind. The immediate cauſes are, ſuch an indiſpoſition of the ſpinal marrow as prevents a due paſſage of the vital heat along it, whence all thoſe parts which receive nerves therefrom are but poorly nouriſhed; whilſt a redundance of this neceſſary principle is conveyed to the head, whence its extraordinary increaſe, and the florid complexion uſually obſerved in patients thus afflicted; and, as Dr. Hunter obſerves, a deficiency of the oſſeous or of the earthy matter of the bones.

The chief differences in this diſorder are from the greater or leſſer number of the following ſymptoms being attendant in one and the ſame patient; and from the different degrees of their violence. Uſually the firſt appearance of this kind is in the eighth or ninth month of the child's age; by degrees ſeveral parts of the body become diſproportioned, the ſkin grows lax, the belly becomes flaccid, the muſcles wear away, particularly thoſe of the neck, the joints of the hands, arms, knees, and feet grow large, ſo that there ſeems to be excreſcencies on the bones of the wriſts and ankles; the bones at length are too weak to ſupport the body, and, as well as the ſpine, they grow crooked; the child walks with more and more difficulty, until it entirely loſes the uſe of its feet; the carotids and jugulars ſwell, but the other blood-veſſels ſeem leſs: the head grows large; the ſutures are viſible; the fontanel is often membranous; the neck is too weak to ſupport the head ſteadily; the countenance is lively; the child is more ſenſible than is common to children of the ſame age; the breaſt is ſtrait, and compreſſed on its ſide. The ſternum riſes up ſharp, and in a point, and the extremities of the ribs are knotty; the diſeaſe at length increaſing, a fever comes on, which is followed by a cough, a difficulty of breathing, and other ſymptoms which continue during life; the wriſts are knotty and diſtorted, ſo are the ankles; the ribs protuberate and grow crooked; the hypochondres ſwell; other ſymptoms reſembling the conſumption come on, and at length deſtroy the patient. Children who are old enough to walk go tottering and waddling along; but they like beſt to ſit ſtill, and as their diſorder increaſes, they would always lay down; the teeth come forward very ſlowly, and with much uneaſineſs, ſoon decay and fall out: and it is remarkable that moſt of this time the appetite fails not, nor does the patient ſeem to digeſt with difficulty what he eats.

The *rickets* do not often prove fatal; but when an hectic fever, conſumptive ſymptoms, or an aſthma, &c. ſucceed, the patient is carried off by them. If the diſorder continues after the fifth year of the child's age, it proves difficult of cure, and the body uſually continues weakly and deformed for ſome years after. When a faulty air or a bad diet are the cauſe, or if it is ſucceeded by the ſmall-pox, the itch, or other cutaneous eruptions, and is not accompanied with conſiderable incurvation of the bones, and inability to motion, the cure is not very difficult. The bones of the legs, though very crooked, will become nearly and often quite ſtraight during the growth of the child, if it becomes ſtrong and healthy.

The intentions of cure are, to diſſolve the viſcidity of the juices, open obſtructions, and promote a free circulation, and then to increaſe the vital heat and ſtrengthen the ſolids.

The diet ſhould be light, cordial, and nutritious; be of broth, in which cray-fiſhes are boiled, is excellent, or beef broth alone; ſpiced meats are uſeful; rice with wine and a little cinnamon mixed with it will be a proper change. The air ſhould be dry and warm; exerciſe, according to the ability of the child, ſhould be regular, gentle, and frequent. To keep the child dry and clean conduces much to relief.

Gentle emetics and lenient purges ſhould begin the cure, particularly the tinct. ſacr. and tinct. rhab. mixed in equal parts; theſe may be repeated two or three times: or equal parts of calomel and rhubarb may be given, and repeated to as not to ſalivate: after theſe, when the children's bellies are ſwelled, give pills of the gall of eels, or pikes as deobſtruents; or, if the patient is emaciated, or the viſcera are not ſound, ſaponaceous medicines ſhould be given, particularly the ſal diureticus.

Liniments may be uſeful both by their efficacy as medicines, and by the friction uſed in the proper application of them. R ol. Palmæ ʒ ii. balſ. Peruv. and ſp. ſal. ammon. āā ʒ ii. ol. n. m. per expr. ʒ i. ol. carioph. & ſuccin. āā gut, xxm. with this or even with ſp. vini. c. let the ſpine and any of the affected joints be rubbed twice a day. If before the uſe of the liniment, &c. the parts are rubbed before the fire with a large flannel cloth, their efficacy will be more increaſed. Dry frictions alone are peculiarly uſeful.

If on trial cold bathing is found to excite a glowing warmth, it may be continued with advantage; if on the firſt uſing the cold bath the child ſhivers, put it between blankets until it grows warm or ſweats a little; afterwards uſe warm water, and gradually proceed to the uſe of colder.

To warm the conſtitution and ſtrengthen it, nothing excels the cort. Peruv. and flor. mart. The firſt may be given in powder, or in the form of an infuſion, and the latter alſo may be given in ſubſtance or tincture. Inſtead of theſe the unruſted fine filings of iron may be mixed with mild aromatics, and waſhed down with any bitter infuſion. Dr. Zaviani gives the flor. mart. gr. v. more or leſs, every day for two weeks, interpoſing the pulv. rhab. gr. v. once in four or five days; he then omits the medicines during two weeks, after which he repeats them as before. But if the patient is feveriſh, give him the infuſ. cort. Peru. cum elix. vitr. inſtead of the iron or any of its preparations.

The ſal tart. is highly extolled in this diſeaſe. In the fourth vol. of the Edinb. Med. Comm. is the following account of its efficacy: A boy of ſeven years old, who laboured under *rickets* to a great degree; his inferior extremities were become ſtiff and immoveable; the abdomen flaccid; he was emaciated with a diarrhœa and conſtant ſweatings, and had five fiſtulous ulcers all running at the ſame time. The following was preſcribed: R decoct. cort. Peruv. ℥ viii. ſalis tartari ʒ ſs. m. Half of this mixture was taken every day. In the courſe of one month, the patient was ſo far recovered as to be able to riſe from his bed, and to walk with ſome ſupport. At that time the bark was changed for the rubia tinctorum; and in leſs than four months, the boy was ſo recovered as to walk with a crutch, and the ulcers by that time were nearly healed. Many *ricketty* people have been cured by a watery ſolution of the ſalt of tartar, without any other means being uſed.

The oſmunda regalis, or flowering fern, if given in decoction, powder, or extract, is recommended as of great efficacy in this diſorder.

A glaſs of claret, with a morſel of bread ſhould be given to the child, an hour before dinner every day, and again in the evening.

See Boerhaave's Aphoriſms; F. Hoffmann's Oper. tom. iii. p. 487, &c. Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham's Works, ſecond edit. p. 64, 65, 384, 604, note k. Med. Muſ. vol. i. p. 66, 71. Shaw's Practice of Phyſic. Zaviani's Treatiſe on the *Rickets*. Petit's Diſeaſes of the Bones.

RACHOSIS. Excoriation of the relaxed ſcrotum.

RADIÆUS MUSCULUS, i. e. Radialis.

RADIÆUS EXTERNUS, i. e. Extenſor Carpi Radialis.

RADIALIS ARTERIA. It is a branch of the humeral artery. It runs down the ſide of the radius, covered by the ſupinator longus; at the wriſt it divides into two, one

one of which paſſing over the palm of the hand, is loſt in the fleſhy part of the thumb; the other paſſes on, and between the metacarpel bone of the fore-finger, and the firſt bone of the thumb, plunges into the palm, and forms a ſort of arch there. In its courſe, it ſends off branches which run on both ſides of the hand, communicate with the cubital branches, and is loſt among the metacarpal bones.

RADIALIS MUSCULUS. See the extenſor and the flexor muſcles.

RADIALIS. The nerve ſo called. See CERVICALES.

RADIALIS EXTERNA [VENA.] When the cephalica hath reached the bend of the arm, it divides into two principal branches, one is called the *radialis externa*; it ſpreads about, and along the fore-arm.

RADIALIS INTERNA VENA. It is a long branch from the mediana cephalica.

RADICULA. A name for the raphanus.

RADIUS. Radius, a ſtaff or beam. It is one of the bones of the fore-arm, which is ſo called from the reſemblance it bears to the ſpoke of a wheel. Its upper extremity is formed into a ſmall circular head, which is hollowed for an articulation by arthrodia, with the tubercle of the os humeri at the ſide of the trochlea; and the half of the round circumference of the head, next to the ulna is ſmooth, to be received into the ſemilunated cavity of that bone. The lower extremity of the *radius* is much larger than the ſuperior; it is flattened before, and grooved backwards by the tendons of the muſcles. The extremity of the *radius* is hollowed for the reception of the bones of the wriſt. The reaſon why the fibres of the interoſſeus ligament run obliquely upwards from the ulna to the *radius* is, that as this laſt is very ſlightly articulated to the os humeri, in a fall the force of it would be communicated to its upper extremity, and eaſily diſlocate it if this ligament was not to take off the force of the fall.

RADIX. A root. It is that part of a plant by which it naturally receives its nouriſhment. Some roots are fleſhy, others are fibrous, and others again are woody.

Roots are divided into different ſpecies. Linnæus divides them into fibrous, bulbous, and tuberous, which are again ſubdivided by other diſtinctions, the chief of which are the following:

RADIX ASPHODELI. Aſphodel root. It is that which is compoſed of ſeveral oblong fleſhy knobs. Of this kind are the king's-ſpear, and the day-lily.

RADIX BULBOSA. The bulbous root. It is that which conſiſts of ſeveral coats, involving one another, or of ſeveral ſcales lying one over another. The firſt of theſe is called a tunicated root. Of this ſort are onions, &c. The laſt is called a ſquamous, or ſcaly root. Of this ſort are the lily, &c.

RADIX FIBROSA. A fibrous root. It is one which conſiſts only of ſmall fibres like hairs. Of this ſort, ſee GRASS and CORN.

RADIX GRANULOSA. A granulous root. It is a kind of granulous root, conſiſting of many ſmall fleſhy knobs, which reſemble grains of corn. Of this kind is the white ſaxifrage.

RADIX GRUMOSA. A grumous root. It is one which conſiſts in many oblong fleſhy knobs, joined to one centre at the top. Of this ſort is the ranunculus.

RADIX PALMATA. A handed root. It is a tuberous root, divided, as it were, into ſeveral fingers, ſo as to reſemble a hand. Of this ſort is the handed orchis.

RADIX TESTICULATA. A teſticulated root. It is a double tuberous *root*, for it conſiſts of two knobs, reſembling a pair of teſticles. Of this ſort are ſome of the orchis ſpecies.

RADIX TUBEROSA. A tuberous root. It conſiſts of an uniform fleſhy ſubſtance, and is generally roundiſh. Of this kind is the ſow-bread.

RAIS DI JUAN LOPEZ LUSITANIS. It is the radix Indica Lopeziana, Pharm. Edinb. Radix Indica, a Joanne Lopez, denominata Gaubii Adverſar. cap. vi. The root of an unknown tree, growing, as ſome ſay, at Goa, others ſuppoſe in Malacca, from whence it is ſometimes brought to Batavia. It is met with in pieces of different thickneſs, ſome, at leaſt, of two inches diameter. The woody part is whitiſh and very light; ſofter, more ſpongy, and whiter next the bark, including a denſer, ſomewhat reddiſh medullary part. The bark is rough, wrinkled, brown, ſoft, and as it were woolly, pretty thick, covered with a thin, paler cuticle; neither the woody nor cortical part hath any remarkable ſmell or taſte, nor any appearance of reſinous matter. On boiling in water, no odour is emitted, and the ſtrained liquor, which is of a yellow hue, is almoſt inſipid, only impreſſing the tongue with a very light, obſcure bitteriſhneſs, and without viſcidity. The extract obtained by evaporating the decoction, is equally void of ſenſible activity. Rectified ſpirit is tinged by the *root* of a brown colour, but acquires no particular taſte. After drawing off the ſpirit from the tincture, a matter remains reſembling balſam, which bubbles and inflames in the fire, and has a bitteriſh taſte, like that of opium.

This *root* is regarded in the Eaſt Indies as a medicine of extraordinary efficacy in diarrhœas. Gaubius, in his Adverſaria, ſtates ſome experiments made with it, which, in ſome degree, confirm its reputation; it appeared remarkably effectual in abating colliquative diarrhœas, which had reſiſted the uſual remedies, and thoſe attending the laſt ſtage of conſumptions were particularly relieved by its uſe. It ſeems not to act by an aſtringent power, but by a faculty of reſtraining and appeaſing ſpaſmodic and inordinate motions in the inteſtines. Gaubius compares its action to that of ſimarouba, but thinks it more efficacious than this medicine. The powder is given with any proper vehicle, in doſes from fifteen to thirty grains, repeated three or four times a day. A tincture made with common ſpirit is ſaid to be equally effectual with the *root*; of this tincture the doſe was a tea-ſpoonful three times a day. Lewis's Mat. Med. edit. 3.

RAMALIS VENA. The vena portæ.

RAMEX. An hernia.

RAMEX VARICOSUS, i. e. Hernia varicoſa.

RAMUS. A branch. It is the diviſion of a ſtalk, or a tree; it is called a bough.

RAMUS INFERIOR. A name of the third maxillary branch of the nerves, which proceed from the fifth pair.

RAMUS SUPERIOR, i. e. Frontalis nervus.

RANA. The frog, or paddock. The ſpawn of *frogs* was formerly uſed for cooling, but now it is wholly neglected.

RANINÆ ARTERIÆ & VENÆ, vel RANULÆ. See SUBLINGUALIS. Quia nigræ ſunt inſtar ranularum.

RANULA. The name of a tumor which is ſeated under the tongue; it hath been brought to reſemble a little frog, whence the name of *ranula*; though ſome ſay that it is thus named, becauſe it alters the voice of the patient, ſo as to make him croak like a frog. This tumor is formed in the ſalivary glands under the tongue, and is ſeated on either ſide of the frænum; it is generally of the ſcrofulous kind. The matter varies much in different inſtances of this diſorder, being ſometimes like the white of an egg, at others it is more ſolid; in ſome inſtances it is purulent, in others it differs from all theſe. It ſometimes grows ſuddenly, impedes both the ſpeech and ſwallowing, and alſo cauſes much pain; but generally its growth is more gradual, and its effects not ſo violent. Inſtances have occurred of their having degenerated into cancers. They are all of the encyſted kind, and are with great difficulty either diſperſed or brought to ſuppuration, generally requiring the knife for their removal. If a tumor of this kind is ſeated where the ſalival ducts enter into the mouth, inciſions muſt never be attempted, becauſe of the danger of wounding theſe ducts, with the nerves or blood-veſſels; in this caſe wait until nature opens a paſſage for the contents: if it is ſeated on either ſide, great care is required, leſt the nerves or the bloody-veſſels there, ſhould be injured: however, in ſuch caſes, hold up the tongue of the patient, and make an inciſion tranſverſely into the tumor, the matter being diſcharged, dreſs with the honey of roſes acidulated with the ſpirit of vitriol, that the cyſt may alſo be deſtroyed. See Heiſter's Surgery.

RANUNCULUS. Crowfoot. It is a plant with pentapetalous flowers, that are alſo roſaceous; they are ſet in five-leaved cups; they are followed each by a round cluſter of naked ſeeds, and are perennial. Boerhaave enumerates ſixty-nine ſpecies, ſome of which are inert, and others are very cauſtic.

RANUNCULUS BULBOSUS, called alſo ranunculus tuberoſus major, round-rooted, or bulbous crowfoot. It hath a round tuberous root, the ſize of an olive; the leaves are divided commonly into three ſegments, and theſe are further ſubdivided; the ſtalks are erect; the flowers are of a bright gloſſy yellow, their cups turned downwards. It is common in paſture grounds, and flowers in May. This is one of the cauſtic ſpecies.

RANUNCULUS LONGIFOLIUS PALUSTRIS MINOR, called alſo flammula, ſpearwort, or ſmaller water crowfoot, with fibrous roots, long, narrow leaves, acuminated at both ends, and leaning on procumbent ſtalks; it grows in watery places, or moiſt meadows, and flowers in June. The roots and leaves have no ſmell, but have an acrid fiery taſte. Taken internally, they appear to be deleterious, even when ſo far freed from the cauſtic matter by boiling in water as to diſcover no ill quality to the palate. The effluvia of the leſs acrid ſpecies, or varieties, cultivated in gardens, when freely inſpired, have occaſioned head-achs, anxieties, vomitings, and ſpaſms. The leaves applied externally bliſter the part, the roots do ſo too, and as ſuch have been uſed; their pungency is diminiſhed by drying, and deſtroyed by long keeping. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

RANUNCULUS VIRIDIS. The name of a ſpecies of frog.

RAPA. The turnip, commonly called the round rooted turnip. It is a plant with a round root, with jagged leaves, yellow flowers, with ſmall round, ſmooth, reddiſh, or blackiſh ſeeds, lodged in long pods. The garden *turnip* is ſuppoſed to be a variety produced by culture from the ſmaller ſort, which grows wild in ſandy grounds in ſome parts of England. It is biennial. Botaniſts enumerate ten ſpecies.

Turnips are uſeful and agreeable food; they are detergent, laxative, and diuretic, but in weak ſtomachs they produce flatulencies, and are ſometimes not eaſily digeſted. The liquor preſſed from them, after boiling, is taken medicinally in coughs and diſorders of the breaſt; the ſeeds are alexipharmic and diaphoretic; they have no ſmell, but to the taſte they are mildly acrid. The female ſpecies, which are longiſh, are thought the beſt; the male ſpecies is round. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

RAPHANIA. Raphany. It is a nervous affection, of the ſpaſmodic kind, in which there is a violent contraction of the joints, with convulſive agitations, and great pain at various periods. Linnæus giveth this name to this diſeaſe, from its ſuppoſed cauſe, viz. the ſeeds of the raphanus raphaniſtrum, Linn. i. e. the baſtard radiſh, or charlock. Dr. Rothman, who wrote on this diſeaſe, ſuppoſes it to be cauſed by the raphanus above named, becauſe of its prevalence when the ſeeds of that plant abounded amongſt the corn. Linnæus alſo having fed ſome birds with the ſeeds of the raphaniſtrum, and finding that they died convulſed, he gave this diſeaſe the name of *raphania*. The Germans call this diſorder, kriebel krankheit. Sauvage names it, eclampſia typhodes; alſo convulſio *raphania*, vel convulſio ab uſtilagine.

It is defined to be, "A ſpaſtic contraction of the limbs or joints, attended with convulſions, and excruciating periodical pains." Dr. Cullen places it in the claſs neuroſes, and order ſpaſmi, in his Noſology.

In the ſixth volume of Amœnitat. Academicæ, Dr. Rothman gives the hiſtory of this diſeaſe, and a full deſcription of it. He obſerves, that it had been frequently epidemical in Sweden, notwithſtanding that many phyſicians think it is a new diſtemper: he has traced it in the writings of many authors, from the year 1596 to 1727, by which it appears to have been common in other parts of Europe; he adds that, this dreadful diſtemper ſometimes held the ſick for three or four weeks, and thoſe who periſhed, generally ſunk under a diarrhœa, or died in convulſions. The poorer people were the chief ſubjects of this complaint; they were uſually attacked in autumn, ſoon after eating bread made of new corn.

In order to its relief, valerian, caſtor, camphor, and other ſimilar antiſpaſmodics were given with ſome advantage. See Pulteney's View of Linnæus; Memoirs of the Royal Med. Society, at Paris, A. D. 1779, but particularly Dr. E. Roſen, and Dr. Rothman's Diſſertatio *Raphaniæ*.

RAPHANISTRUM. This plant is ſo called from its likeneſs to the raphanus minor, with which it alſo agrees in its medical virtues.

RAPHANISTRUM. A name for ſome ſpecies of eruccago, of rapiſtrum, and of the miagrum.

RAPHANUS HORTENSIS, called alſo radicula, raifort. Common garden radiſh. It is ſufficiently known not to need a deſcription. Its virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of the cochlearia. The root is attenuating, and occaſionally is both flatulent or carminative; all the parts of the plant are antiſcorbutic. The roots are more acrid after drying than they are whilſt freſh, but this acrimony is ſoon diſſipated by boiling.

RAPHANUS RUSTICANUS, alſo called raphanus ſylveſtris, raphanus marinus, armoracia, horſe-radiſh. It is the cochlearia armoracia, or cochlearia foliis radicalibus lanceolatis crenatis, caulinis inciſis floribus albis, Linn. Its flowers and ſeeds reſemble thoſe of ſcurvy-graſs, the leaves are large and long, and are indented about the edges. It is found wild about the ſides of ditches and rivulets, but for medicinal and culinary purpoſes it is cultivated in gardens. It is perennial, and flowers in June. It rarely perfects its ſeeds, but is propagated by traniverſe cuttings of the roots.

The roots impreſs both the noſe and the palate with a quick penetrating pungency; they alſo contain in certain veſſels a ſweet juice, which ſometimes exudes in little drops upon the ſurface. Its pungent matter is a very volatile ſalt, which is all diſſipated in drying, and is carried off in diſtillation, both by water and by ſpirit of wine. As the pungency exhales, the ſweet matter becomes more ſenſible, though this alſo is in a great meaſure diſſipated. It impregnates both water and ſpirit by infuſion or diſtillation very richly with its active matter; in diſtillation with water it yields a ſmall quantity of eſſential oil, exceedingly penetrating and pungent. This root agrees with creſſes and ſcurvy-graſs, and differs from muſtard-ſeed (though reſembled to it by ſome) in the volatility of its pungent matter, and its ſolubility in ſpirit. It is ſtimulating, aperient, attenuant, and antiſeptic; it promotes urine and perſpiration, the expectoration of viſcid phlegm, and excites an appetite in weak relaxed ſtomachs, without producing immoderate heat, or inflammatory ſymptoms. It is uſed in paralytic and rheumatic complaints, in ſcurvies and ſcorbutic impurities, in dropſies that follow intermitting fevers. If this root is chewed in the mouth, it produces the ſame effects as the pelitory root hath, in producing a diſcharge of ſaliva, in a want of taſte, and in a palſy of the tongue.

When an infuſion of *horſe-radiſh* root is uſed, wine is the beſt menſtruum. Infuſions thus made excite a kindly glow in the ſtomach, and in the habit in general, an advantage which does not uſually attend thoſe made with water, or with ale.

If the root is kept in a cool place, and buried in dry ſand, its virtues are retained a long time. Dr. Alſton ſays, that it may be ſo dried as to powder, and ſtill to retain an uſeful portion of its virtue.

The London College directs a compound water, in which this root is the principal ingredient, and from which it takes its name. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

RAPISTRUM, called alſo lampſana, ſinapi arvenſe præcox, ſemine nigro, charlock, chadlock, kedlock, or wild muſtard. This plant is called rapa, becauſe its leaves reſemble thoſe of the rapa. All the ſpecies, of which ſix are reckoned by Boerhaave, are antiſcorbutic, but their efficacy is too inſignificant to obtain a place in practice.

RAPUNCULUS. A plant ſo called from the reſemblance of its root to that of rapum; in other reſpects, it reſembles the campanula. It is not noted for its medical virtues.

RAPUNCULUS. A name for the cervicaria, for a ſpecies of rapuntium, and for ſeveral ſpecies of campanula.

RAPUNTIUM. It is a plant which much reſembles the

the campanula in its external appearance. One ſpecies of it bears the flower which is known by the name of cardinal flower; but they are not remarkable for their medicinal qualities.

RAPUNTIUM. Small rampions. Alſo a ſpecies of rapunculus.

RASPATORIUM, from *rado, to ſcrape.*

RAUCEDO. An hoarſeneſs. It is a diminution of the voice, ſometimes attended with a preternatural aſperity or roughneſs thereof: the parts affected are, the aſpera arteria, and particularly the larynx. Dr. Cullen obſerves, that it is generally a ſymptom of catarrh, but ſometimes it is a ſpecies of paraphonia; which ſee.

Its cauſes are, a ſort of catarrh, which ariſes from too great acrimony and viſcidity of the lymph: in which caſe a ſmall quantity of horſe-radiſh juice, mixed with honey, may be ſwallowed every morning, with a draught of new milk whey. 2. A copious effuſion of thin lymph upon the larynx and parts adjacent; and when from this cauſe, relief may be expected from the pulv. e trag. c. amylum, terr. Japon. &c. 3. In the ſmall-pox, puſtules in the membranes of the larynx, &c. produce an *hoarſeneſs*, which is relieved by the uſe of attenuants and lubricants, which aſſiſt the variolous matter in its paſſage through the ſkin. 4. A tumour, or inflammation, in or about the larynx; to remove the complaint from this cauſe, let vapours of warm water be received into the throat, or frequently uſe the following gargle: ℞ decoct. fol. vel rad. althaeæ ℔ i. ſp. ſal ammon. vol. gt. 60 m. 5. A dryneſs about the larynx and the muſcles ſubſervient to ſpeech. Here nitrous and acid attenuants, mixed with diluents, are very uſeful. 6. The ſpittle becoming thick or acrid, hence a viſcid tough matter ſticks to, and renders the ſurface of the larynx, &c. unequal, and conſequently the voice *hoarſe*; to remove which cauſe, things that attenuate and dilute the lymph, that render the ſpittle thin, ſoft, and copious, and empty the glands, will be the proper means; ſuch are emollients and expectorants.

In many inſtances the moſt ſpeedy relief is obtained from continuing the feet in warm water, for the ſpace of half an hour, about bed-time.

RAUCITAS, i. e. RAUCEDO.

REALGAR. A compoſition of ſulphur, orpiment, or yellow arſenic, and unquenched lime. It is alſo a name for the white arſenic. Mr. Edwards, in his Elements of Foſſilogy, places the *realgar*, or ſandarach, amongſt the cryptometallines, as a ſpecies of arſenic flos. It is of a red colour, always gloſſy, but not always tranſparent.

RECEPTACULUM CHYLI. The receptacle of the chyle. It is alſo called *receptaculum* Pecqueti, becauſe Pecquet firſt demonſtrated it. Euſtachius and Aſellius, were in ſome degree acquainted with it. It lies on the right ſide of the aorta, at the union of the laſt vertebra of the back with the firſt of the loins. It is a ſort of membranous veſicle, of various ſhapes in human ſubjects. Sometimes it ſurrounds the aorta like a collar. Its coats are very thin. The upper portion is contracted between the aorta and the vena azygos, and forms a particular canal which runs up through the thorax, and is called the DUCTUS THORACICUS, which ſee.

RECIPE. Take. It is uſually placed at the beginning of preſcriptions, and is generally wrote thus, ℞, or with the character for tin ♃, over which metal Jupiter was ſuppoſed to preſide, and ſo is uſed to denote the invocation of Jupiter, before preſcribing.

RECTI MUSCULUS NASI, i. e. Pyramidalis naſi.

RECTIFICATIO. See DEPURATIO.

RECTUM INTESTINUM. The laſt of the large inteſtines, called the *rectum*, or the ſtrait gut, is every where covered by longitudinal muſcular fibres, and hath ſtrong circular ones for expelling the fæces. It is not furniſhed with bands as the colon is, nor is it covered with the peritoneum, as are the other inteſtines. At the lower extremity of the *rectum* are certain cryptæ, which are ſuppoſed to be the ſeat of worms, and certain vaſcular ridges between the cryptæ where the piles are ſituated, which are external or internal, according to their ſituation. This gut is a continuation of the laſt convolution of the colon, which having paſſed below the laſt vertebra of the loins to the inſide of the os ſacrum, is bent backward in the concave ſide, to which it is connected, and having reached the os coccygis, it runs in the direction thereof, and bends a little forward, terminating beyond the extremity of the os coccygis. The inner coat is furniſhed with many glands, which ſeparate a mucus with which to keep it ſupple. The arteries are from the hæmorrhoidalis interna, the laſt branch of the meſenterica inferior, which communicate with the hypogaſtrica, and particularly with the hæmorrhoidalis externa. The veins are branches from the meſaraica minor, or hæmorrhoidalis interna, which communicate with the hypogaſtrica. The nerves are from the plexus meſentericus inferior, and the plexus hypogaſtricus.

Sometimes, there are hard, ſcirrhous lumps, without pain, ſeated at the bottom of the *rectum* or near the anus; theſe are thruſt out at every effort to void the ſtool, and then indeed is perceived a degree of uneaſineſs, but at no other time, except after handling them. If they have a ſmall baſis, Mr. Pott adviſes to remove them as ſpeedily as poſſible, for if they continue, they certainly prove fatal. In the inſtances that cannot be removed, the beginning ſymptoms do not give any light into their nature; the firſt ſymptom is a feel as if the patient wanted to void a large ſtool; on making the attempt, nothing is voided; this unavailing needing is frequently returning; at length he trieth a glyſter, but when the pipe is about to be introduced into the gut, it is obſtructed by a lump there; thus he is alarmed. The judicious ſurgeon, on introducing a finger, ſoon perceives the nature of the caſe, but he only offers a palliative remedy.

Another diſeaſe of this gut, is a fungous or general relaxed ſtate of its whole ſubſtance. When it is extruded through the anus, it is bound by the ſphincter muſcle, and puts on the appearance of a fungus with a narrow baſis; the mere fungus is uniform, and may be got round; it is ſoft to the touch, yet from the irritation of the part this may be as painful as a cancerous one. It is therefore proper juſtly to diſtinguiſh them, as the firſt may be cured, but the latter cannot. The cancerous fungus within the *rectum* is ſeldom uniform, but generally unequal, ſpreading from a large baſis, and diſcharges an offenſive ichor or gleet.

RECTUS. The name of ſeveral muſcles as follow; they are ſo called from the recti linear direction of their fibres.

RECTUS ABDOMINIS. The recti muſcles of the belly ariſe from the os pubis, are inſerted into the ſternum, and are expanded upon the cartilages of the fifth, ſixth, ſeventh, and ſometimes of the eighth ribs. In their courſe they are divided into four or five portions, by three or four tendinous interſections. They lay on the fore-part of the belly, immediately under the integuments, betwixt the linea alba and the linea ſemilunares. The veſſels which paſs underneath the upper parts are the mammary artery deſcending, and its vein aſcending; thoſe of the lower part are the epigaſtric artery aſcending, and its vein deſcending.

RECTUS DEPRIMENS OCULI. See DEPRESSOR OCULI.

RECTUS INFERIOR OCULI. See DEPRESSOR OCULI.

RECTUS CRURIS. Some call it rectus ſemoris, and others call it rectus anterior. It riſes by a ſtrong tendon from the anterior and ſuperior proceſs of the ileum, and from the cartilaginous tip of the acetabulum, and is inſerted into the upper part of the patella.

RECTUS INTERIOR. See GRACILIS INTERIOR.

RECTUS MAJOR. It riſes from the upper part of the ſpinal proceſs of the dentata; it runs upwards and outwards, and is inſerted near where the os occipitis is joined to the os temporis, ſerving to bring the head backwards. It is alſo partly a rotator of the head.

RECTUS MINOR. This riſes from the knob which anſwers to the ſpinal proceſs of the atlas, and paſſes thence to the head. It can only move the head upon the atlas.

RECTUS LATERALIS. It riſes from the tranſverſe proceſs of the atlas, and is inſerted into the os occipitis and os temporis, near the maſtoid proceſs. It bends the head to one ſide.

RECTUS INTERNUS MAJOR. It lies before the rectus internus minor. It riſes commonly by ſo many tendons from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the fifth, fourth, third, and ſecond cervicle vertebræ, and is inſerted in-

to the cuneiform proceſs of the os occipitis, and bends the neck forward. Winſlow calls it, rectus anticus longus.

RECTUS INTERNUS MINOR. Winſlow calls it rectus anticus brevis. It riſes from the root of the tranſverſe proceſs of the atlas, and is inſerted into the cuneiform proceſs of the os occipitis, juſt behind the groove where the lateral ſinus forms the beginning of the internal jugular. This muſcle gives the head a lateral jerk upon the atlas.

RECTUS ANTERIOR, i. e. Gracilis anterior.

RECTUS ATTOLLENS, i. e. Genio-hyoidæus.

RECTUS EXTERNUS OCULI. See ABDUCTOR OCULI.

RECTUS INTERNUS OCULI. Muſculus interior. It riſes from the bottom of the ſocket near the hole by which the optic nerve paſſes into the orbit, paſſes on the ſide of the globe next the noſe, and is inſerted into the ſclerotica. It draws the eye towards the noſe.

RECTUS SUPERIOR OCULI. See ELEVATOR OCULI.

RECURRENS. The recurrent nerve. See PAR VAGUM.

REDUC. Alſo called redux, or a flux. It is a powder by which calcined metals, or minerals, are reduced to a reguline form. *Fluxes* are generally either of the vitreous, or of the ſaline kind; by the vitreous is meant, all thoſe that are of themſelves, or that readily aſſume a gloſſy form in the fire; the chief of which are the glaſs of lead, glaſs of antimony, and borax; by the ſaline is meant all thoſe that are compoſed of ſalt, whether of nitre, or tartar, or the like. There are *fluxes* of a yet cheaper kind; ſuch are dried wine lees, dried cow dung, dried horſe dung, dried river mud; fuller's earth, iron filings, pot-aſh, &c. There are a variety of compound *fluxes*, ſome of which are better adapted for ſome ores than others are, and, indeed, almoſt every operator hath his favourite kind. The common black *flux*, ſee in the article CALCINATIO.

REFRIGERATORIUM. A refrigeratory. It is the veſſel filled with water, through which the worm paſſes in diſtillations: its uſe is, to condenſe the vapours as they paſs through the worm.

REGIMEN. The *regimen*, or the regulation of the diet, with a view to preſerve, or to reſtore health. In chemiſtry it is the regulation of fires.

REGINA PRATI, i. e. Ulmaria.

REGIONALIS MORBUS. An epidemical diſeaſe.

REGISTERES. Regiſters. They are openings in different parts of furnaces, which are to be ſhut occaſionally with ſtoppers or burnt clay. By means of theſe *regiſters* the fire may be governed as we pleaſe, for their heat is increaſed or diminiſhed by the cloſing, or opening of theſe holes. Theſe holes ſhould be from two to four inches wide, if the diameter of the furnace is a foot within.

REGULUS. Thus the chemiſts have called metallic matters when ſeparated from other ſubſtances by fuſion. The alchemiſts firſt invented this name, becauſe they expected to find gold in the metal. At preſent the word is confined to the metallic part of certain ſemi-metals which have no proper name, as the *regulus* of antimony, the *regulus* of cobalt, the *regulus* of arſenic, &c.

REMITTENTES. Remitting diſeaſes. They are when a diſtemper abates, but does not go quite off before it returns again. This moſt frequently happens in thoſe fevers which only go near to a diſtinct intermiſſion, without completely effecting it.

RENALES ARTERIÆ. They are commonly called emulgents, are generally two in number, and go out laterally from the lower deſcending aorta, immediately under the meſenterica ſuperior, one to the right hand, the other to the left. The right is ſituated more backward, and is longer than the left, becauſe of the vena cava which lies on the right ſide, between the aorta and the kidney; they run commonly without diviſion, and almoſt horizontally to the kidnies, into the depreſſions of which they enter by ſeveral branches, which form arches in the inner ſubſtance of the viſcera. From theſe arches many ſmall branches go out toward the circumference, or ſurface of the kidnies. Sometimes two arteries go into one kidney. Generally the right renal artery paſſes behind the vena cava, and the renal vein in the other ſide; and the left artery firſt behind, and then before the vein. Sometimes they ſend branches to the glandulæ renales, membrana adipoſa of the kidnies, and even to the diaphragm.

RENALES GLANDULÆ. See CAPSULÆ ATRABILARIÆ.

RENALES VENÆ, alſo called emulgentes venæ. Theſe ſpring from the inferior vena cava, when it arrives at the kidnies, into which theſe branches are ſent. Theſe are the largeſt veins that go from the vena cava, betwixt the liver and the biſurcation. The right emulgent is the ſhorteſt, becauſe of the ſituation of the kidney; the left is longer, becauſe it hath to croſs the trunk of the aorta. Uſually the left emulgent vein furniſhes the left ſpermatic vein.

RENELIUS. Snorting. Snoring.

RENES. The kidnies. They are two oblong flattened bodies, extending from the eleventh and twelfth ribs, to the fourth lumbar vertebra. The right *kidney* lies under the great lobe of the liver, and is lower than the left, which is ſituated under the ſpleen. The *kidnies* are ſhaped like a large bean; their circumference is concave on the ſide next the vertebræ, and convex on the oppoſite ſide. The aorta deſcendens, and the vena cava inferior, lie between the *kidnies*, pretty cloſe to the bodies of the vertebræ, and each of them commonly ſend off one capital branch, ſometimes two or three, which enter into the ſinuous part of the *kidney*, and dividing into two or three branches before it enters, ramifies through the whole. With theſe veſſels the nerves enter. The *kidnies* are covered on one ſide by the peritoneum, and the whole ſubſtance is inveſted by a capſula, compoſed of two laminæ connected together by a cellular ſubſtance. The external lamina is thin and ſmooth, and makes the *kidney* uniform. In children we may obſerve this convex ſubſtance is divided into little lobules, and we ſometimes find it ſo in adults. There are two ſubſtances obſervable in the *kidney*, the external or cortical, and the internal, which is called tubular or mammillary, which laſt is made up of a number of pyramidal portions (about twelve in each *kidney*), whoſe points are received into the pelvis, ſo that the cortical part not only lays round the outer ſurface of the *kidney*, but throws proceſſes into the interſtices. The cortical part is quite vaſcular; in minute injections are obſerved certain appendages, called by ſome corpora loboſæ, but which are naturally cryptæ, or cells, where the ſmall arteries ſeem to be expanded. Ruyſch ſays they are arteries coiled up in a little ſpace. The veins have none of theſe cryptæ; whence it is plain that they are not extravaſations; beſides, they are uniform, and only in the cortical part. Each mammilla lies in a kind of membranous calix, or infundibulum, which opens into a common cavity, called the pelvis, which is membranous like the infundibula, of which it is a continuation. After the infundibula have contracted into a conical form round the apices of the mammillæ, each of them forms a ſmall ſhort tube, which uniting at different diſtances along the bottom of the ſinus of the *kidney*, form three large tubes, which go out from the ſinus in an oblique direction from above downwards, and, immediately after, unite into one trunk, which is called

The URETER, and runs down obliquely, with a ſmall degree of inflexion, to the lateral parts of the inner-ſide of the os ſacrum, and paſſing between the rectum and bladder, it terminates in the latter in its inferior part, near the veſiculæ ſeminales; they perforate each coat diſtinctly in a ſlanting manner, ſo that their oblique inſertion anſwers the ſame end as a valve. The internal ligamentary membrane of the uterus does not end with their inſertion into the bladder, but is continued toward the proſtrate gland, where it ſeems to be inſerted; this ligament keeps the lower part of the bladder from ſtretching, and keeps the *ureters* fixed. The ſituation of the *ureter*, with reſpect to the renal artery and vein, is thus: the artery is in the upper part of the ſinus of the *kidney*, and partly before the vein; the vein is about the middle and between the artery and the *ureter*, which is in the lower part, ſomething behind the vein, and partly ſurrounded by a branch of the artery, whence appears the impoſſibility of nephrotomy, and that the operation, however repreſented, is no other than opening an abſceſs in the loin, through which opening the ſtone paſſes.

RENES SUCCENTURIATI, i. e. Renales glandulæ.

RENOVATIO. Renovation. In chemiſtry it is the reſtoration of a mineral body to a perfect ſtate, from one which is imperfect.

RENUANS MUSCULUS. A name for the *rectus anticus brevis*.

REPELLENTIA. Repellent medicines. By theſe are meant ſuch as prevent ſuch an afflux of a fluid to any part as would raiſe it into a tumour. Whatever other medicines may occaſionally produce the effects of repellents, thoſe only are properly of this tribe, which cool, dry, aſtringe, and ſtrengthen the parts, and enable them to reſiſt the afflux of ſuch matter as is lodged there.

REPULSIO. Repulſion. The cauſe which oppoſes itſelf to abſolute attraction hath been acknowledged by all who were converſant in phyſics, with reſpect to the celeſtial bodies; and it hath been termed *repulſion*, that is, a power as real as attraction, which repels bodies after they have approached each other to a certain point, and prevents their uniting together. This repulſion, though a ſecond cauſe, and ſubject to the laws of attraction, is properly inherent in matter; this property acts conjointly with attraction in the elements of bodies, and in all the operations of chemiſtry. It appears that it is from theſe two effects reunited, and from their different degrees of action, that the variety reſults, which is obſerved in the hardneſs and denſity of bodies. Many have rejected this repulſion, which Sir Iſaac Newton had allowed in ſublunary things; but if we juſt glance on many of the operations of chemiſtry, it is impoſſible to help admitting a retropulſive property in bodies.

RES NATURALES. The naturals. According to Boerhaave, theſe are life, the cauſe of life, and its effects. Theſe, he ſays, remain in ſome degree, however diſordered a perſon may be.

RESINA. Reſin. All ſorts of exudations, from evergreens, as turpentine, tar, &c. are in a general acceptation included under the name of *reſin*. Eſſential oils, indurated by age, or by acids, are called *reſins*. When the eſſential oil of the exudations from ever-green trees is exhaled, the remaining maſs is called *reſin*. As *reſin* conſiſts of oil and acid, it is artificially produced by the admixture of ſpirit of vitriol and ſpirit of wine, or the ſpirit of turpentine. The *reſina* alba of the Pharm. Edinb. Coll. is from the pinus ſylveſtris, and the pinus abies. The *reſina* flava is alſo from the ſame.

Reſins in general diſſolve in ſp. vin. R. It is chiefly by this means that they are extracted from the ſubjects in which they are contained. They alſo diſſolve in expreſſed oils, and in eſſential ones; and may be united with water by means of the ſame intermedia which render fluid oils miſcible with water. In a heat leſs than that of boiling water, they melt into an oily fluid, and in this ſtate they may be incorporated one with another. In their reſolution by fire, in cloſe veſſels, they yield a manifeſt acid, and a large quantity of empyreumatic oil.

The acrid *reſins* exhibited by themſelves tenaciouſly adhere to the coats of the inteſtines: by their ſtimulating power they irritate and inflame them, and thus produce ſpaſms, inflammations, &c. Theſe inconveniences are remedied by alcaline ſalts, by ſoap, and in a good meaſure by ſugar, if they are triturated with the *reſin*, before the patient takes it. Some rub eſſential oils with *reſins* to correct them, but the oil is ſoon ſeparated therefrom in the ſtomach, and the *reſin* is rendered more active, and ſo becomes more virulent, or, at leaſt, the ſame effects being produced in a degree by the oil which is obtained from the *reſin*, the *reſin* will act with more advantage.

Reſins act principally by irritating the ſtomach and bowels, and by attenuating the fluids; if the irritation is quick, they prove emetic; if not ſo ſudden, they paſs off by ſtool. They operate more violently in robuſt conſtitutions than on thoſe of a contrary habit; the veſſels of the former being more tenſe, ſo leſs capable of bearing irritation. The action of theſe medicines is extended beyond the primæ viæ, as is evident from the children being purged by the milk of thoſe nurſes who take them. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Dict. of Chem.

RESPIRATIO. Breathing. It is the action of taking in and of diſcharging the air from the lungs. As ſoon as the child is born, the air ruſhes into its lungs and diſtends them, and as heat rareſies the air, its force is ſo increaſed, that by expanding the lungs the whole breaſt is diſtended: thus the rareſying air, diſtending the lungs every way by its natural ſpring, increaſed by heat, may be conſidered as the firſt mover in the action of reſpiration. By this firſt diſtenſion of the lungs it happens that the blood which had hitherto paſſed by the foramen ovale, whilſt the fetus continued in the womb, is now obliged to take a different way, and paſs by the pulmonary artery and veins; and the former paſſage, by this means, is rendered uſeleſs. This makes it neceſſary that *reſpiration* be continued for ever after during life.

As the ſpring of the air is increaſed by the heat of the lungs, ſo the ſame air, when rarefied by the heat it meets with, becomes lighter than the external air, is made to reaſcend by the contraction of the diaphragm and intercoſtal muſcles, which are antagoniſt powers to the dilating one of rarefied air.

After the firſt expiration, a portion of the inſpired air remains, which is rarefied by the heat to which it is ſubjected; thus the external or atmoſpherical air again deſcends into the lungs; and as in the firſt inſtance of *reſpiration* the ſame circumſtances follow, ſo inſpiration and expiration continue to ſucceed, until with the laſt expiration death is uſhered in.

Reſpiration is partly voluntary and partly involuntary; but, as we determine this or the other muſcle to action by the influence which our wills have on them, ſo we exert a ſimilar power on the organs of *reſpiration* by the ſame means.

Some aſſert that the elevation of the breaſt by means of the intercoſtal muſcles is neceſſary to inſpiration; but perhaps a due attention to theſe muſcles will diſcover to us that their action is only during expiration, and if ſo their theory falls to nothing.

On particular occaſions, as in a difficulty of breathing, other powers are aſſiſtant in *reſpiration* beſides the air, the intercoſtal muſcles, and the diaphragm: and during ſleep, the air and the diaphragm are alone, or very nearly the whole, that are active herein.

The uſes of *reſpiration* are many, ſome of which are as follow: by *reſpuration* air is duly received into the lungs, in order to the exerting of our voices: by expiration the defect of perſpiration through the ſkin is in a good degree regulated; for much of the perſpirable matter is carried off from the body with the air which is expired; and in cold weather, &c. when the diſcharge is leſſened through the ſkin, there is a proportionable increaſe of the ſame from the lungs. Again, as the pulſe, ſo the action of the lungs is accelerated by heat; whence an advantage of inſpiration is, the cooling of the blood by the application of cold to that portion of it which is paſſing through the lungs, as well as by expiration, to carry off a portion of redundant heat along with the matter perſpired. Laſtly, by the action of the parts ſubſervient to *reſpiration*, the progreſs of the aliment through the ſtomach, &c. as alſo of the fæces through the inteſtines, are facilitated and haſtened.

See Haller's Phyſiology, ſect. 10; Hoadley on *Reſpiration*; Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic.

RESTA BOVIS. Reſt-harrow.

RESUMPTIVA. Reſtoratives. They differ not much from agglutinant corroboratives, and their manner of operation in the ſame way may be accounted for, only that *reſtoratives* are more adheſive and ſubtil, whereby they enter into the nouriſhment of the remoteſt parts. All under this claſs are rather nutrimental than medicinal, and repair the waſtes of the conſtitution more than alter and rectify its diſorders. Cordials are known by this name.

RETE MALPIGHI. See PULMONES.

RETE MIRABILE. It is the name of a congeries of blood-veſſels in the brain.

RETE MUCOSUM. The true ſkin on its whole ſurface is covered with two lamellæ, one is the *rete mucoſum*, the other is the cuticula. The *rete mucoſum* is the principal ſeat of colour in man; in Europeans it is tranſparent, in mulattoes it is brown, and in negroes it is black. One uſe of the *rete mucoſum* is, to keep the papillæ moiſt, which would otherwiſe grow rough and unfit for ſenſation. The *rete mucoſum* is alſo called *corpus mucoſum*,

mucoſum, and *corpus reticulare*. Mr. Sheldon thinks that the colour of the *rete mucoſum* depends on the blood, which he ſays is darker in the Africans than in the Europeans: he was informed by a phyſician, on whoſe veracity he had the greateſt dependence, that the bile and ſemen of the Africans are darker than in Europeans. This obſervation contributes in favour of Mr. Sheldon's opinion. Wherever the cuticle thickens, the *rete mucoſum* thickens in proportion; as is exemplified by thoſe laminæ of integuments in the hands and feet of Africans. It is alſo obſerved, that in the fœtus of nine months, the *rete mucoſum* is yellower than the cuticle. In Africans the *rete mucoſum* is more eaſily ſeparated from the cuticle than in Europeans.

RETINA. Thus the expanſion of the optic nerve on the inner ſurface of the eye is called. Though this expanſion is ſuppoſed to be a production of the medullary ſubſtance of the optic nerve, which is ſpread like a membrane, and from its reſemblance to a net, is called *retina*; yet by laying open the coats of the nerve, its medullary ſubſtance cannot be clearly traced, as continuing on to form it. This inner coat of the eye is moſt probably the ſeat of viſion, notwithſtanding the objections lately made to this opinion.

RETROVERSIO UTERI. See PROCEDENTIA.

RHABARBARUM. *Rhubarb*, alſo called *rheum*; *lapathum Orientale*; *lapathum Chinenſe*; *rhubarb*. The Greeks called it *rhabarbarum*, from its growing on the banks of the river Rha (i. e. Wolga) in the barbarous country of Ruſſia. But the later Greeks are ſaid to have called it *barbaricum*, becauſe it was brought to Barbaria, a country lying on the Sinus Barbaricus, whence it was ſent to other countries.

Rhubarb is a plant of the dock kind. It is the *rheum* palmatum, or *rheum* Chinenſe, foliis palmatis acuminatis ſcabriuſculis, foliorum laciniis oblongis acutiuſculis, Linn. The leaves are ſomewhat heart-ſhaped, acuminated, and ſlightly hairy. The root is the only part in uſe; it is brought from China, and from Siberia, by way of Ruſſia. As good *rhubarb* plants have been raiſed in our phyſic gardens as any that are met with abroad; they grow with vigour in open ground.

Two ſorts of the roots are met with in our ſhops, viz. one from Turkey, or perhaps much of this is from Ruſſia; for in the Ruſſian territories the fineſt *rhubarb* grows in large quantities. The Turkey *rhubarb* is generally in flattiſh pieces, more compact and hard than the Ruſſian; that which grows in Tartary and Siberia is in round lumps, leſs weighty than the Chineſe, but of a finer grain, and always perforated; the reaſon of this difference in weight and form, is owing to the different methods of curing them. In China they cut their *rhubarb* into ſlices, and preſs it cloſe before drying; in Ruſſia they hang it up to dry without cutting it into ſlices or preſſing it. The Chineſe pieces are externally of a yellow colour, and within there is a mixture of bright reddiſh ſtreaks with the yellow. The ſecond ſort is brought from the Eaſt Indies; it is in longiſh pieces, harder, heavier, and more compact than that from Turkey. Dr. Alſton thinks this as good as the Turkey ſort. The firſt ſorts muſt be kept dry, or they grow mouldy, or are deſtroyed by worms. The Indian *rhubarb* is not ſo ſubject to theſe inconveniences, and the finer pieces, after being rubbed with the powder of Turkey *rhubarb*, are ſold for it.

Whether *rhubarb* is of the Turkey or of the Eaſt-India kind, chuſe that which is of a lively colour when cut, that is firm and ſolid, but not hard, that is eaſily powdered, and when powdered is of a bright yellow colour; that on being chewed imparts to the ſpittle a yellow colour, but that does not grow ſlimy whilſt in the mouth; to the taſte it ſhould be ſub-acrid, bitteriſh, and ſtyptic, and its ſmell lightly aromatic.

Rhubarb gives out its purgative quality moſt freely to water; after digeſting it with water it becomes inactive, but after ſeveral digeſtions with ſpirit of wine it retains ſome of its purgative virtue. The powder purges the moſt; the next to it is an infuſion in water; the ſpirituous tincture purges the leaſt, but hath more of the aroma and of the aſtringency of this root. The watery infuſion, when reduced to an extract, hath its virtue much diminiſhed; the ſpirituous loſes leſs, ſo that ʒ ſs. of it will operate moderately, but not more ſo than an equal quantity of the powder.

The London college directs a tincture to be made with wine, and another with proof ſpirit. Theſe are intended for ſtomachics and ſtrengtheners, as well as for purgatives. Spirituous liquors excellently extract that part of the *rhubarb* in which the two firſt qualities reſide. When given in the firſt intentions a ſpoonful or two is a doſe; but, when they are intended as purgatives, from two to three ounces muſt be given.

The Edinburgh college directs an infuſion in water as follows:

℞ Rad rhab. inciſ. ʒ i. aq. bullient. ℔ i. infund. per noct. & colaturæ adde aq. cinnam. ſp. ʒ i. When *rhubarb* is given as a purge, this is one of the beſt preparations.

Whether *rhubarb* is taken in powder or infuſed in water, if the doſe is mixed with a diſh of coffee, the patient will rarely object to its taſte.

The practice of toaſting *rhubarb* is attended with no real advantage; but if it is not removed from the fire as ſoon as it is fit for powdering, it will be injured. If inſtead of toaſting it, a ſmall quantity of any thing aſtringent is added, the end of toaſting would be better anſwered.

Rhubarb is a mild cathartic, and alſo a mild aſtringent; it ſtrengthens the inteſtines, leaves the belly coſtive, and is hence preferred in diarrhœas and dyſenteries. It is often given more with a view to its ſtrengthening, than to its purgative quality. That which is bright, of a light texture, moſt fragrant and ſound, contains leſs reſin in proportion to its earthy and ſaline parts, than that which is heavy, tenacious and fetid; and therefore we find it milder in its operation, more grateful to the ſtomach, and better to anſwer the intention of an aſtringent, a diuretic or an alterant: and the other more to nauſeate the ſtomach, and to operate more ſtrongly as a purge in the firſt paſſages. *Rhubarb* changes the urine to a yellow colour before it operates as a purge: it is a good ſubſtitute for aloes when they are productive of the piles, which are ſeldom occaſioned by *rhubarb*; at the ſame time, as an attenuant, it is very little inferior to aloes. In acute fevers, when there is apprehenſion of producing a diarrhœa by purging medicines, *rhubarb* is ſafe. In diarrhœas and dyſenteries, *rhubarb* is doubly uſeful; 1ſt, by carrying off the peccant matter; 2dly, by ſtrengthening the bowels againſt a further afflux. A peculiar excellency in *rhubarb* is, its evacuating viſcid bile when lodged in the bile ducts; in this caſe, next to aloes, it is the beſt amongſt purging medicines; and it hath this advantage over aloes, viz. that it may be given where inflammation is attendant, provided bleeding be premiſed. In groſs habits, *rhubarb* is an uſeful aſſiſtant to ſecure the efficacy of the bark, if joined with it. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

RHABARBARUM ALBUM. i. e. Mechoachana.

RHABARBARUM ANTIQUORUM. i e. Rapontic.

RHABDOIDES, from *ῥαβδος a ſtrait twig*, and *ειδος, form*. A name for the ſagittal ſuture.

RHACHIS. The ſpine of the back,

RHACHISAGRA, from *ραχις, the ſpine of the back*, and *αγρα, a prey*. A ſpecies of gout fixed in the ſpine of the back.

RHACHLÆI, or RHACHITAE. The muſcles belonging to the ſpine of the back. From *ῥαχις, the ſpine of the back*.

RHACOSIS. Excoriation of the relaxed ſcrotum.

RHAEI. Rhubarb.

RHAGADES, from *ῥηγνυμι, to break off*. Chaps, clefts, or fiſſures in the ſkin. If ſeated in the anus, and recent, the patient muſt ſit ſtill, and ſit over the ſteam of warm water. The cerat. epulot. may alſo be applied. If the lips of theſe fiſſures are callous, cut them, or otherwiſe treat them, as that they may become new ulcerations. See Turner's, Wiſeman's, and Heiſter's Surgery. *Rhagadia* may be cauſed by extenſion, contraction, or acrimony; are amongſt equivocal ſigns or productions of the firſt infection of the pox. They are ſeated about the anus and various parts of the pudendum muliebre, the anus, corners of the mouth, noſtrils, eye-lids, nipples, &c. Theſe chaps iſſue ſometimes a thin, ſharp ichor, which

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is either venereal, or of other kinds of acrimony; and at times are very painful. If they are freſh contracted, they are not difficult, but if their lips are deep, callous, and inflamed, they are more difficult to remove. See a Treatiſe on the Venereal Diſeaſe, by N. D. Falck, M. D. edit. 2. 1774.

Different from the *rhagadia*, in appearance, are the chaps in the palms of the hands, and ſoles of the feet; both proceed from the acrimony of the virus, ſearching as it were for the cuticula, by which it is ſhrunk together.

RHAMNUS, alſo called ſpina cervina, *rhamnus* catharticus, ſpina ſolutiva, ſpina infectoria, cervi ſpina. Buckthorn, and purging thorn. It is the *rhamnus* catharticus, or rhamnus catharticus, foliis, ovatis, ſpinis terminalibus, floribus, quadrifidis dioicis, baccis nigris, Linn. It is a prickly buſh, or a low tree, common in hedges, having pointed leaves; in June it produces ſmall green flowers, and in the beginning of October it ripens into black berries, which contain a dark green juice, with four ſeeds in each.

It is uſual to find theſe berries mixed when brought to the markets, with the berries of the black alder, and alſo of the dog berry tree; but they are thus diſtinguiſhed; the juice of the buckthorn berries is green, that of the others not ſo, the buckthorn berry hath four ſeeds, that of the alder hath but two, and the dog berry hath but one.

Buckthorn berries have a faint unpleaſant ſmell, and a bitteriſh, acrid, nauſeous taſte; they operate briſkly by ſtool; at theſame time they occaſion dryneſs in the mouth and throat, with thirſt, and griping in the bowels; but if plenty of warm ſmall liquor is drank during the operation, theſe effects are not ſo much obſerved.

A ſyrup is uſually kept in the ſhops, which is made by boiling the juice of theſe berries with ſugar, to a proper conſiſtence. From one to two ounces are given for a doſe, but it is rarely uſed, on account of its nauſeous taſte and churliſh operation.

Thoſe who ſell the juice often mix it with water. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

RHAMNUS. A name for the paliurus, the rhamnoides, and the hippophæs.

RHAPONTICUM. The true rhapontic. It is alſo called rheum; rheum ponticum; rha verum antiquorum; rheum Dioſcoridis; rhaponticum Alpini; rhabarbarum Dioſcorides; rhab. forte Dioſcoridis; Engliſh rhubarb. It is as the true rhubarb, a ſpecies of dock, with ſmooth, roundiſh leaves, ſomewhat channeled pedicles: it grows wild on the mountains of Thrace, whence Alpinus brought it into Europe about the year 1610. It bears the hardeſt winters in our climate. The roots are often mixed with thoſe of the true rhubarb, but are detected by their mucilaginous taſte when chewed, and by their not tinging the ſaliva of ſo bright a yellow as the true rhubarb does; when the *rhapontic* is cut through, it appears regularly marbled in a radiated manner; it is duſky on its ſurface, and of a looſe ſpongy texture, more aſtringent than the modern true rhubarb, and leſs purgative; as a purge, two or three drams are required, but it is a better ſtomachic than the true rhubarb. See Raii Hiſt. Tournefort's Mat. Med.

RHAPONTICUM VULGARE, called alſo rhapontic cum folio heleni incano, centaurium majus, centaurium magnum, great centaury. Common rhapontic. It is the centaurea centaurium, Linn. It is a large plant, with leaves, compoſed of oblong, ſerrated ſegments, ſet in pairs on a middle rib, edged in the intermediate ſpaces with a ſerrated margin; the ſtalk divides towards the upper part into ſeveral branches, which bear on their tops round, ſoft, ſcaly heads, from which come forth bluiſh floſculi, followed by down, incloſing the ſeeds. It is perennial, a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, and raiſed with us in gardens. The root is of a dark black colour on the outſide, it is internally reddiſh, and yields, when freſh, a juice of a deep red. It hath a ſlight ſmell, which is not diſagreeable, and in chewing it diſcovers a viſcous ſweetneſs, and roughneſs, with ſome degree of acrimony. It is reckoned to be an aperient and corroborant, and is ſuppoſed to be particularly uſeful in alvine fluxes. It is very much inferior to the true *rhapontic*. See Raii Hiſt. Tournefort's Mat. Med.

RHENCHOS. Snoring. This affection is otherwiſe called ſtertor, which is found like that of the cerchnon, but greater and more manifeſt. A *ſtertor* is that ſound which is ſuppoſed to be made betwixt the palate and noſtrils, by perſons aſleep: cerchon, or cerchnon, is that bubbling noiſe which is made in reſpiration, from the larynx, or the aſpera arteria. Theſe affections are owing to a weakneſs of nature.

RHEON, and Rheum. Names for the rhapontic, and alſo the rhubarb.

RHENOPHONIA, i. e. Paraphonia reſonans.

RHEUMA, from *ῥέω, to flow*. A flux, or fluxion. The ſame as catarrh, which ſee.

RHEUMA CATARRHALE, i. e. from cold.

RHEUMA EPIDEMICUM, i. e. from contagion.

RHEUMATICA. The rheumatic fever.

RHEUMATISMUS. The rheumatiſm, from *ῥέω, to flow*. It is a painful diſeaſe, affecting the intermediate ſpaces between the joints and muſcles in different parts of the body; ſometimes the viſcera are alſo attacked. It is with or without a fever; when a fever attends, it is called the acute, and where there is no fever, it is called the chronical *rheumatiſm*. The ancients called all kinds of pains affecting the external parts or joints, by the common name of arthritis; but about the end of the ſixteenth, or beginning of the ſeventeenth century, ſome celebrated French phyſicians called thoſe that were ſituated any where but in the joints, that is in their tendinous and nervous ligaments, by the name of *rheumatiſm*. Dr. Cullen places the acute *rheumatiſm* as a genus in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order phlegmaſiæ. The varieties of the one ſpecies take their name from the parts affected; as 1. Myoſitis; when the pain is ſeated more in the muſcles that proceed from the joints. 2. Lumbago; when the muſcles of the loins are the ſeat of the complaint. 3. Ichias; when the muſcles of the hips are the ſuffering parts. 4. Pleurodyne, and pleuritis ſpuria; when the muſcles of the thorax are attacked.

The chronical *rheumatiſm* is conſidered by Dr. Cullen as generally the mode of an acute *rheumatiſm* terminating.

Whatever part of the body the *rheumatiſm* affects, or whatever ſpecies of this diſorder is complained of, the cellular membrane is the immediate ſeat thereof.

Perſons of any age may be afflicted with the *rheumatiſm*, but uſually thoſe in the prime of life are its ſubjects, and particularly thoſe of an active diſpoſition.

The cauſes of the acute *rheumatiſm* are, whatever may conduce to the production of an inflammation in the part affected. The chronic *rheumatiſm* hath for its principal cauſes, an irritating acrimony in the juices ſecerned into the parts complained of.

The acute or inflammatory *rheumatiſm* is attended with a fever, pains in the limbs, which are generally in the joints, preventing their motion, and are accompanied with heat, redneſs, and ſwelling of the part. When the pain is fixed, the fever abates, though with ſome it continues many days, always increaſing in the evening. After ſome days, the pain commonly quits one part and affects another, as from the knee to the foot, from thence to the hip, &c. The feet, ankles, knees, hips, loins, nape of the neck, ſhoulders, ſhoulder blades, arms, elbows, and wriſts, are the uſual ſeats of the pain. So great is the tenderneſs of the parts affected, that the patient complains of the leaſt motion, as when violence is uſed. The parts in which the pain is uſually moſt afflictive, are, the neck, the loins, and the hips. The violence of the acute *rheumatiſm* ſeldom continues above fourteen days, though a weakneſs and puffneſs, &c. will remain long, or many months, eſpecially if the diſeaſe attacks the patient in autumn. Some, after the pains are gone off, complain of a laſſitude, which does not leave them till an eruption of ſome kind appears on the ſkin.

The chronical *rheumatiſm* is known by the pains, and the abſence of fevers, by the long continuance of the pain, and by a few parts only being attacked at once. Generally there is no viſible alteration in the affected part, though ſometimes it is hot, red, and ſwelled.

When the pain is in the hip, and extends down the thigh, it is called ſciatica.

When the ſymptoms of a ſcorbutic habit attend theſe pains, the diſorder is called a ſcorbutic *rheumatiſm*.

When a violent pain is fixed on the loins, reaching

ſometimes to the os ſacrum, attended with nephritic ſymptoms, it is called a *rheumatic* lumbago; in this caſe the patient is forced to ſit upright, and to keep his body perpetually forward.

When the *rheumatiſm* is unattended with a fever, it muſt be diſtinguiſhed from the gout; when the loins are the ſeat of the diſorder, care is required to diſtinguiſh it from the gravel, from a ſtone in the kidneys, and from an inflammation in the ureter; alſo from an abſceſs in the parts about the loins. A *rheumatiſm* in the muſcles of the belly muſt be diſtinguiſhed from the colic. One ſpecies of *rheumatiſm* ſhould alſo be diſtinguiſhed from another.

Whilſt the ſeat of the pain is in the external parts there is no great danger; but if the internal organs are the ſeat thereof, the danger is great. If the brain is attacked, and delirium is the conſequence; if the lungs are affected, a ſuffocation diſturbs the patient; if the ſtomach or the bowels are the ſeat of the diſorder, an inflammation there may be ſoon expected. If the pain continues long in any joint, its motion will be impaired for life; a wry neck hath ſometimes been the conſequence of preceding *rheumatic* pains. Dr. Rutherford, of Edinburgh, obſerves, that wherever a *rheumatiſm* is ſeated, that part never ſweats, and that as ſoon as a ſweat can be raiſed in the pained part, the diſorder will be conquered; it may alſo be obſerved, that when in either the acute or chronical *rheumatiſm* the ſymptoms vaniſh, and at the ſame time a free perſpiration comes on, and the ſame is obſerved on the parts affected, and the urine is turbid and copious, a cure may certainly be expected.

The indications of cure will be, to diminiſh the fever, when attendant, and to moderate the pain; to diſſolve and eliminate the morbid matter, and to ſtrengthen the weak parts.

As to the acute *rheumatiſm*, an obſtructed perſpiration and an inflammatory diatheſis conſtitute the moſt general cauſes. This laſt concurring cauſe muſt be immediately removed; for whilſt it ſubſiſts, a perſpiration is not to be expected, and hence, as in other inflammatory diſorders, we are in general to proceed in this.

Bleed. By this operation the hardneſs of the pulſe is abated, and though the pains ſtill continue, the patient is not ſo reſtleſs, the tenſion of the veſſels is removed, the fever is reduced, and makes room for attenuants and diluents. But, as ſizy blood is no rule for bleeding in this diſorder, ſo very free diſcharges this way do but lay a foundation for the chronic *rheumatiſm*. When weakly people are attacked with the acute *rheumatiſm*, much care is required before bleeding is preſcribed; for, if imprudently admitted of, it produces diſorders in them that are not removed but with the greateſt difficulty; in ſuch patients, a cooling but moderately nouriſhing diet ſhould be uſed; whey, for inſtance, may be ſubſtituted inſtead of bleeding. Bleeding is ſafe and uſeful when the ſymptoms are violent and threatening, as when the fever is violent; when the wandering pains ſhift ſuddenly from the extremities to the internal parts, and affect the ſides or the breath.

Clyſters or purges. A laxative clyſter may be given, and, if the head is uneaſy, repeat the clyſter every night and morning: but, in general, a cooling purge, given every other day, or as may ſeem neceſſary, is preferable to clyſters; when bleeding is required, a purge ſhould be given after each time the blood is taken away. Clyſters with nitre, for moderating the fever, are uſeful; but, for purging, give medicines by the mouth. If purges are duly adminiſtered, leſs blood may be taken away, and opiates can be more freely uſed. Indeed, in conſtitutions that are rather ſerous than ſanguine, purging is more the proper evacuant than bleeding is.

Nitre. In the inflammatory *rheumatiſm* this ſalt is peculiarly uſeful; it may be diſſolved in every draught of the patient's drink, and given as freely as the ſtomach will admit it. In the decline of acute, and in every ſtage of chronical *rheumatiſms*, it may be given to advantage in conjunction with the ſal. vol. c. c. Imperial is an agreeable liquor for common drink, and may be freely taken.

Opium. The pains are moſtly increaſed in the night, whence opiates are given, but bleeding ſhould be premiſed, and purges adminiſtered as above mentioned; otherwiſe the advantages from opium will not equal the inconveniences they often occaſion. When this medicine is allowed of, it ſhould be given rather to moderate the pain than to cauſe ſleepineſs.

Guaiacum. The volatile tincture of this gum may be given from ʒ ii. to ℥ ſs. twice a day in any thing that the patient drinks; if it paſſes off too freely by ſtool, add a few drops of the tinct. Thebaic. to each doſe.

Antimony. The preparations from this drug which paſs off by perſpiration are never to be omitted; they may be given at proper intervals, betwixt the doſes of ſuch other medicines, as circumſtances may require.

The bark. In old chronic *rheumatiſms*, when the blood is poor, the bark is the principal remedy, if given when free from febrile ſymptoms. And in the acute *rheumatiſm*, as ſoon as it puts on the appearance of an intermittent, the bark is neceſſary; and whether it intermits or not, as ſoon as plentiful ſweats break out, and the urine depoſits a copious ſediment, the bark will ſhorten the diſeaſe.

Warm baths. They may be made of pure ſoft water, and heated ſo as juſt to produce an agreeable ſenſation in the ſkin. In theſe the patient may be placed for a quarter of an hour, more or leſs, as circumſtances indicate; and then being preſerved from cold, he muſt be rubbed dry, and put between blankets, if poſſible to excite a perſpiration.

Bliſters. If placed on the part affected are ſometimes uſeful. Dr Cullen ſays, that they ſeldom fail of ſucceſs if applied before the ſwelling comes on. In chronic *rheumatiſms* their efficacy is more frequently uſeful.

After the cure, the cold bath is uſeful in preventing returns; and the ſtrength ſhould be confirmed by the uſe of bitters, aromatics, and chalybeates.

In chronical *rheumatiſms*, mild mercurials given in ſuch doſes as not to ſolicit the excretions too much; daily frictions, with a flannel cloth, particularly on the parts that are, or were pained; bliſters on or near the ſuffering part; iſſues in the inſide of the lower part of the thigh; and a decoction of the rad. ſeneka, which is called a ſpecific, are chiefly to be depended on. The tinct. guaiac. vol. in large doſes, is alſo of ſingular efficacy.

If with *rheumatic* diſorders, there is a ſcorbutic habit, the ſulphureous water at Harrowgate, &c. ſhould be both drank and bathed in.

In the lumbago, apply iſſues and bliſters on the thigh, and then having premiſed proper evacuations, opiates, and mercurial alteratives if properly perſiſted in, will moſt effectually anſwer the expectations of the patient. See Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham's Works; Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic; Tiſſot's Advice to the People; Cheſhyre on the *Rheumatiſm*; Lobb on painful Diſtempers; Brooks's and the London Practice of Phyſic.

RHICHNOSIS. Lean and wrinkled.

RHIGOS. Rigor. When any ſenſible part of the body is affected with ſpaſms, all the other parts are readily drawn into conſent with it; hence the horror and *rigor* on the ſurface of the body, the coldneſs, &c. Irritation in the primæ viæ is often the cauſe. Galen ſays, a *rigor* is a ſtrong and urgent ſenſe of a refrigeration of the natural heat. *Rigor* ſometimes ſignifies an inflexible hardneſs and tenſion of the nervous and muſcular parts, but theſe are better expreſſed by the word *rigiditas*. Others define a *rigor*, as being a general chillyneſs, with a ſenſe of coldneſs inwardly, and a contraction of the lower jaw.

RHOCAS. The watery eye.

RHOCHMOS. Snoring, or ſnorting through the fauces.

RHODIA, alſo called rhodia radix, anacampſeros, rhodiola, telephium, luteum minus. Roſe-root, or roſe-wort. It is a ſpecies of orpine; its dried root ſmells like the damaſk roſe.

RHODODENDRON. The dwarf roſe bay.

RHODODENDRON (CHRYSANTHEMUM). Foliis oblongis impunctatis ſupraſcabris venoſiſſimis, corolla rotata irregulari, gemma floriſera ferrugineo-tomentoſa, Linn.

This ſpecies of dwarf roſe bay hath been recommended in rheumatic pains, particularly the chronic kind. Dr. Kolpin, of Alten-ſtetin, uſed an infuſion of it in water,

kept twenty-four hours in nearly a boiling heat. The proportion was, from two drams of the leaves and tops of the plant to half an ounce, to ten ounces of water; the dose two ounces, to be repeated after a few hours, and continued as required. Dr. Home observes, in his Clinical Experiments, &c. that it is astringent, and powerfully sedative; he directs it in infusion, from half a dram to three drams for a dose. Dr. Kolpin observes, with respect to the infusion of this vegetable, that when taken internally, it produces a feverish heat, a kind of intoxication, and sometimes a stupor and loss of the senses; at the same time the patient feels a singular pricking sensation in his limbs, or other parts of his body; the intoxication soon goes off, leaving behind it neither head-ach nor nausea. During the heat produced by this remedy, the patient complains of intense thirst, and if cold water is drank in this state, there ensues a violent but salutary vomiting, especially in complaints of the bowels. Besides the vomiting and purging, this medicine produces a sweat on the parts affected with the rheumatism or gout. Large doses produce a stupor and anxiety. In some instances the pains grow worse on the first use of the infusion; but this increase of disease is soon followed by a remarkable degree of relief; instead of quickening the pulse, it renders it weaker and slower. In the instances of venereal rheumatism, its effects are very considerable. Many who drank this infusion, complained of a heat and constriction in the fauces; a proof that the plant possesses a little acrimony; but this effect speedily passes off. In robust habits, it operates quickly, and with a degree of violence; in the infirm and feeble, it is very slow in its effects, hence in such instances the patient should not be uneasy to increase the dose.

RHOMBOIDES MUSCULUS, from ῥομβος, *a four-square figure*, and εἶδος, *form*. It rises from the ligamentum colli, the spinal processes of the third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh cervical vertebræ; and the first, second, third, and fourth dorsal; and is likewise attached below to some of the ribs: it runs beneath the latissimus dorsi, and is inserted into the whole length of the basis of the scapula, to bring it upwards and backwards. Some divide the *rhomboides* into the major and minor; and, if so, the minor is above the major below.

RHOPALOSIS, i. e. Plica Polonica.

RHUS, from ῥεω, *to flow*, because it stops fluxes. It is also called *rhus* obsoniorum, and coriariorum. Common sumach.

It is a shrub, or low tree, with oval, pointed, serrated leaves, and clusters of yellowish or greenish flowers, each of which is followed by a small, red, flattish berry, including a roundish, reddish, brown seed. It is a native of the south of Europe, and is cultivated in our gardens. The berries have an acid, austere taste, are cooling and restringent. The leaves and young twigs are restringent; but it is chiefly used by dyers. See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Neumanns' Chem Works.

RHYSSEMETA. A wrinkled face.

RIBES. The common red currants, called also ribesium, grossularia non spinosa. The different sorts have a cool acidulous sweet taste, agreeable both to the palate and the stomach; they agree in general with the summer fruits in their medicinal qualities.

RICÆ, ῥικος. A covering on the heads of the Roman and other women during the time of sacrifices; hence *rica*, the kerchief.

Kerchief (the great). The French call it, *le grand couvre chef*. It is used after trepanning, &c. It is made of a square cloth, and, when dexterously applied, it keeps the dressings on. As to the method of applying it, seeing and practising only can obtain a dexterity therein.

Kerchief (the triangular). The French call it, *couvre chef en triangle*. It is a square cloth, folded in the form of a triangle. The middle of the longest side of which is applied to the forehead, the two ends of the same tied behind the head, and the angle, which falls behind the head, secured there to the confined ends of this kerchief. Its use, in general, is to secure the dressings on the face and head.

RICINI, (Ol). See Cataputia.

RIGOR. See Rhigos.

RIGOR NERVOSUM, i. e. Tetanus.

RISUS SARDONICUS. See Spasmus Cynicus.

RIVINIANÆ GLANDULÆ, i. e. Sublinguales glandulæ.

ROB. See Extractio.

ROBINIA. False acacia.

RODATIO. Too short eye-lashes.

RONCHUS. Snorting or snoring through the fauces.

ROSA. The rose. Miller enumerates no less than forty-nine species of this flower, amongst which the white, the damask, and the red, are in use.

White *roses* are the weakest, so that when the damask (*rosa* pallida) vel (*rosa* centifolia, Linn.) can be had in sufficient quantities, they only are used. They give out their agreeable scent both to water and to spirit, but most so to the latter. They do not lose much by drying, if carefully managed, nor do they soon lose their qualities by keeping. On distilling large quantities, a small portion of a fragrant butyraceous oil, of a yellowish colour, is obtained; it concretes in a slight degree of cold: both the water and the oil are chiefly used as perfumes. On distilling the damask *roses*, a liquor is left in the still which purges gently. This is made into a syrup, and given to children. If the liquor which remains after distillation is evaporated to an extract, it purges adults, if given in a dose from ℈ i. to ʒ i.

The red *roses* have but little of the fine flavour of the pale sort; to the taste they are bitterish and somewhat astringent. They are the *rosa* Gallica, or *rosa* Germanibus ovatis pedunculisque Hispidis, caule petiolisque Hispido-accileatis, flore rubro multiplici, Linn. The astringency is the greatest before the flower opens, and this quality is improved by hasty drying in a gentle heat, but by slow drying, both the colour and astringency are impaired. They give out their virtues to water and to spirit. Water they tinge with a deep red, and spirit with a pale one. The extract from a watery infusion is austere, bitter, and subsaline; that from spirit more so in each of these instances. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

ROSMARINUS, called also libanotis coronaria. Common rosemary. *Rosmarinus* (officinalis) latifolia, Linn. The flowers are called anthos in the Edinburgh Dispensatory. Rosemary is a large shrubby plant, with long, narrow, stiff leaves set in pairs, of a dark green colour above, and hoary beneath, with flowers of a pale bluish colour. It is a native of the southern parts of Europe, where it grows wild in dry gravelly ground. It is common in our gardens, where it smells stronger in proportion as the soil is dry and gravelly.

Rosemary hath a warm, pungent, aromatic, bitter taste, and a fragrant smell, approaching to those of lavender, but more of a camphorated kind; the leaves and tender tops are the strongest; next to these the cup and the flowers. The flowers by themselves are much the weakest, but most pleasant; it is chiefly in the cup that the active matter of the flowers reside; for the bluish petalum, carefully separated, hath but little either of smell or taste.

A conserve is made of the flowers, by beating them, but their virtue is destroyed in a great measure; the tender tops and leaves are the best for this form.

The leaves and tops give out their virtue completely to rectified spirit, which, when distilled from them, becomes considerably impregnated with their fragrance, leaving, however, in the extract, the greatest share of both their flavour and pungency.

The active matter of the flowers is more volatile than that of the leaves, the greatest part of it arising with spirit; the Hungary water is a strong spirit distilled from the flowers.

Spiritus Rorismarinæ. *Spirit of* Rosemary.

Take two pounds of fresh *rosemary* flowers; rectified spirit of wine a gallon; distil to dryness in a vapour bath. This is the Hungary water, and to make it in perfection the spirit must be very pure, the leaves at their full growth, gathered without bruising, and committed to distillation. If the flowers were hung in the still, or retort, in a wicker basket, the spirit being first put therein, and a gentle heat applied just sufficient to make the spirit rise, the vapour lightly percolating through the flowers, will imbibe their fine parts, and leave their grosser behind.

Pure spirit extracts in great perfection all the aroma of the

the *rofemary*; but in diſtillation, it leaves ſo much behind, as that the reſinous maſs left upon abſtracting the ſpirit, proves an elegant aromatic, and very rich in the peculiar qualities of the plant.

Aqueous liquors extract a uſeful portion of the virtues of *roſemary* by infuſion, and elevate them by diſtillation. Along with the water ariſes a conſiderable quantity of eſſential oil, which is light, thin, pale, and almoſt colourleſs; it hath a caſt of a green and yellow.

See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

ROS SOLIS, alſo called roſa ſolis, rorella, ſponſa ſolis, rorida. Red rot, Sun dew. It is a ſmall low plant, with a little fibrous root, from which ſpring ſmall, round, hollowiſh leaves, on foot-ſtalks of about an inch long, covered with ſhort red hairs, which makes the whole leaf appear red. It grows in boggy ground, and flowers in June and July. Some commend it as a cordial, but it is injurious to cattle if they happen to eat it, and is very cauſtic, ſo it hitherto hath not obtained a place in practice. See Raii Hiſt.

ROSTRUM LEPORINUM. The piece of fleſh which hangs betwixt the diviſion of the hare-lip. The hare's-lip is alſo thus named.

ROTATOR MINOR. The leſſer trochanter.

ROTATOR MAJOR. The greater trochanter.

ROTATOR NATIS. The great trochanter.

ROTULA In anatomy it is the knee-pan. In pharmacy it is a troche. It ſignifies a little wheel.

ROTUNDA LIGAMENTA. The round ligaments. On each ſide of the womb there is one; they are two vaſcular ropes, compoſed of arteries and veins, lymphatics, and nerves, and ariſing from the fundus uteri, run under the duplicature of the broad ligaments to the rings of the abdominal muſcles, and paſſing under Poupart's ligament, are loſt on the crural veſſels &c. or vice verſa, ariſing from the crural veſſels, &c. are loſt on the fundus uteri. They run in a contorted form, and thus are capable of being lengthened. It is probable that the nerves of theſe ligaments being compreſſed in time of labour between the uterus and abdominal muſcles, cauſe the pain which the patient feels and complains of in the inſide of her thighs.

ROTUNDUS MUSCULUS. The round muſcle.

RUBEOLA. The meaſles. See MORBILLI.

RUBIA, alſo called rubia tinctorum, Linn. Erythrodanum, rubia major. Madder. Rubia foliis annuis, caule aculeato, Linn. The root is called radix rubra.

It is a rough procumbent plant, with ſquare jointed ſtalks, and five or ſix oblong pointed leaves, ſet in form of a ſtar at every joint; on the tops come forth greeniſh yellow flowers, which are followed by two black berries. The root is long, ſlender, juicy, of a red colour both externally and internally, with a whitiſh woody pith in the middle. It is perennial, and cultivated in different parts of Europe for the uſe of dyers.

The roots are bitteriſh, and ſomewhat auſtere; they have but very little ſmell. They impart to water a dark red tincture; to rectified ſpirit and diſtilled oils a bright red. Both the watery and the ſpirituous tinctures taſte ſtrongly of the madder. Taken internally it tinges the urine red; and if fowls, &c. have it mixed with their food, their bones becomes red and brittle, but the fleſh and the cartilages are no way affected by it. The bones thus tinged preſerve their colour, though boiled in water, or ſteeped in ſpirit of wine. The ſubtil parts of which this root is poſſeſſed, render it eminently uſeful as a reſolvent and aperient in obſtructions of the viſcera, particularly the urinary organs; in coagulations of blood from falls; in the jaundice, and in the dropſy. It paſſes freely by urine.

RUBIA SYLVATICA LÆVIS, alſo called gallium, mollugo, and mountain wild madder. Its virtues are ſimilar to the above kind.

RUBIA SYNANCHICA, called alſo rubeola, ſynanchica Lugdunenſis, aſperula, ſaxifraga, and ſquinancywort. It hath a black, thick, woody root, which runs deep into the earth, with many capillary fibrils, divided into a multitude of heads, and ſhoots up many ſmooth, ſlender, ungulous ſtalks, a ſpan long or more; at every joint of the ſtalk are four leaves, which are ſhort and broad; the flowers are on the top of the ſtalks and branches, and form umbels of a red colour, and agreeable ſmell, like that of the jaſmine; each flower is followed by two ſeeds, which are rough, and when dry of a yellow colour.

It is found on chalky grounds, and is ſaid to be of uſe in quincies, but the preſent practice does not own it.

RUBIA. A name of the rubiola, for a ſpecies of croſswort, and a ſpecies of horſe-tail.

RUBRICA FABRILIS. Red oker, ruddle, marking ſtone. See OCHRA.

RUBUS IDÆUS. The raſberry.

RUBUS VULGARIS. The common bramble or black berry-buſh. Rubus fruticoſus, Linn. It grows wild in hedges and in woods. The berries have a faint taſte, with an agreeable flavour. The leaves are moderately aſtringent. The flowers appear in July, and the fruit is ripe in Auguſt and September; but no part of this buſh, or its productions, are under the preſent practice.

RUCTATIO, or Ructus. A diſcharging of wind upwards. When a diſeaſe it is an inſtance of diſpepſia, and is better relieved by means that help digeſtion, than by ſpirituous liquors, and warm carminatives.

RUDII EXTRACTUM, i. e. Extr. cathartieum.

RUPELLENSIS SAL. It is alſo called ſel de ſeignette, and Rochel ſalt. It is a ſoluble tartar, made with the mineral fixed alkaline ſalt after its being melted by the heat of the fire, by which it forms more eaſily into cryſtals. ʒ vi. of this ſalt is a gentle cooling purge.

RUPTURA. A rupture. The word hernia is tranſlated by the Engliſh word rupture, (ſee HERNIA;) but this tranſlation was in conſequence of the idea that the peritoneum was ruptured when the abdominal contents protruded through the teguments. The word *ruptura* or *rupture*, is moſt properly ſpoken of a cartilage, a ligament, or a tendon; when they are divided by violence, then a ſpecies of wound is produced, viz. the lacerated.

RUSCUS, alſo called bruſcus, oxymyrſine, myrtacantha, myacantha, ſcopa regia. Wild myrtle, knee holly, butcher's broom. It is the ruſcus aculeatus, Linn. It is a low woody plant, with oblong ſtiff prickly leaves joined immediately to the ſtalks; from the middle ribs of the leaves on the upper ſide iſſue ſmall yellowiſh flowers, which are ſucceeded by red berries. The root is pretty thick, knotty, furniſhed with long fibres matted together, of a pale browniſh colour on the outſide, and white within. It grows wild in woods and heaths, is perennial and ever-green; it flowers in May, and its berries open in Auguſt. The root taſtes ſweet, and is ſlightly bitter; it is aperient and diuretic; its virtues are extracted by water and ſpirit; and on inſpiſſating the tincture, they remain entire behind. The young ſhoots are moſt powerful, and are eaten inſtead of aſparagus. See Miller's Bot. Off.

RUSCUS LATIFOLIUS, called alſo laurus Alexandrina, Alexandrina genuina, hippogloſſum. Laurel of Alexandria.

The root of this plant is knotted at the head; the ſtalks are tough and pliant; the leaves are placed alternately; on the middle of the back part of each grows a ſmall moſſy flower, which is ſucceeded by a red berry. This plant grows on the mountainous parts of Italy and Hungary. It is diuretic. See Miller's Bot. Off.

RUTA. Rue. Ruta graveolens, or ruta ſylveſtris major, fol. decompoſitis, petalis laceris, floribus lateralibus quadrifidis, Linn. Large wild rue. It is a ſmall ſhrubby plant, with thick bluiſh green leaves, divided into numerous roundiſh ſegments; on the tops of the branches come forth yellowiſh flowers, followed each by a capſule, which is divided into four partitions full of ſmall, blackiſh, rough ſeeds. It is cultivated in gardens, flowers in June, and holds its leaves all the winter.

Rue hath a ſtrong unpleaſant ſmell, and a penetrating pungent bitter taſte; if much handled it is apt to inflame and exulcerate the ſkin. It is commended as a powerful ſtimulant, aperient, antiſeptic, and as being in ſome degree antiſpaſmodic. In crudities and indigeſtion, for preſerving againſt contagious diſeaſes, and the ill effects of corrupted air, in uterine obſtructions, and hyſteric diſeaſes, its efficacy is conſiderable. It is uſeful in cold phlegmatic habits, for it quickens the circulation, diſſolves tenacious juices, and promotes the fluid ſecretions.

A conſerve

Externally it is discutient and antiseptic, if applied by way of fomentation.

A conserve is made of the young leaves, and this is the most agreeable method of giving it inwardly.

Its virtues are extracted by water and by spirit of wine, but most perfectly by the latter. On inspissating the spirituous tincture, very little of its flavour arises with the menstruum, nearly all the active parts of the *rue* remaining in the extract, which impresses the palate with a warm, subtil, durable pungency, and in smell it is rather less unpleasant than the herb in substance. Next to the conserve this is the best preparation of *rue*. Though the principal virtues reside in the essential oil, yet this oil not being very volatile, it resides in the extract.

Distilled with water, a yellowish, or brownish essential oil is obtained: and if the liquor which remains in the still is inspissated by evaporation, a warm, pungent, bitterish extract is obtained.

When *rue* leaves are distilled for their essential oil, they should be used whilst fresh, should be gathered when the flowers are ready to fall off, and as the seeds and their capsules contain more oil than the leaves, they should be gathered and distilled also. They all require to be macerated some time before they are distilled.

See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

RUYSCHIANA TUNICA. See CHOROIDES.

RYTHMUS, from *ῥυθμος*, *measure*, a term used by musicians. A term used by musicians with respect to time in music; but since Herophilus applied it to the pulse, it is used to express the time, motion, or modulation of the pulse.

S.

SABADILLA, i. e. Cevadilla.

SABINA, also called savina, sabina sterilis, common or barren savine. It is the juniperus sabina, or juniperus fol. oppositis erectis decurrentibus oppositinibus pyxidatis, ramis serratulis, Linn. Common savin. It is an evergreen shrub, with short narrow leaves, which are so stiff as to be prickly: when old, and not till then, it bears blackish berries, like those of the juniper. It is a native of the southern parts of Europe, and is raised with us in gardens. The leaves and tops have a strong smell of a disagreeable kind; of a hot, bitter, acrid taste. They give out great part of their active matter to watery liquors, and the whole to rectified spirit. Distilled with water they yield much essential oil, which smells strongly and tastes moderately of the savin: its dose is from two to four drops.

The decoction which remains after distilling for the oil, yields an extract, which retains much of the pungency, warmth, and bitterness of the plant. On inspissating the spirituous tincture there remains an extract consisting of two distinct substances; one is yellow, unctuous, or oily, bitterish, and pungent; the other is black, resinous, tenacious, less pungent, and sub-astringent.

Savin is stimulant and aperient, useful in uterine obstructions which proceed from a sluggishness of the humours and a laxity of the vessels. The oil impregnates the urine with its smell. *Savin* promotes all the glandular secretions. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

SABINA. A name for some species of cedar.

SACCHARUM. Sugar. The Arabians call it suchar, succhar, sutter, zuchar, zuccara, and zozar; the Greeks called it sakchar, sakchari, salcharion, and spodion. It is the saccharum officinarum. Linn.

Sugar is the essential salt of the sugar cane, or of whatever vegetable it is obtained from. It is chiefly the produce of the arundo saccharifera C. B. which grows spontaneously in the East Indies and some of the warmer parts of the West, and is cultivated in many of the American islands: the best canes grow in the Canary and Madeira islands. The expressed juice of the cane is clarified with the addition of lime-water, &c. and boiled down to a thick consistence; it is then removed from the fire, and then the saccharine part concretes into brown coloured masses: this is the saccharum rubrum of the Pharm. Lond. and Edinb. It leaves an unctuous liquor, called melazzo or molasses, from its being of an honey-like consistence, and with us it is called treacle. This red sugar is clarified in conical moulds, by spreading on the upper broad surface some moist clay, whose watery part gently percolating through the mass, carries with it a large portion of the treacly matter. This is further refined by dissolving it in water and mixing it with the whites of eggs, then draining off the water, and covering it with clay again in the moulds: this is the sacchar. alb. Ph. Edinb. This process again repeated, it is the sacchar. purissim. Ph. Lond. Brown sugar boiled to a proper consistence, is placed in a hot room to shoot into crystals upon sticks placed for the purpose, and it is then called saccharum candidum in the Pharm. Edinb.

By the assistance of heat *sugar* dissolves in rectified spirit of wine, but the greatest part separates when cold, and concretes into a crystalline form. On this foundation saccharine concretions are obtained from saturated spirituous tinctures of several of the sweet plants of our own growth, the saccharine part separating when the tincture is set in the cold, whilst the resinous and other matter separated from the plant remains in the spirit.

On all trials hitherto made, *sugar* appears to be perfectly neutral, and unites with most kinds of humid bodies without altering their native qualities. It serves as an intermedium for uniting together some bodies naturally repugnant; in consequence of this property it is supposed to unite the unctuous part of our food with our juices. Hence some conclude that it increases fatness, whilst others say it hath the contrary effect, by preventing the separation of the oily matter from the blood. Neumann observes, that he hath known very lean people who have eaten great quantities of sugar. Some say that it thickens the juices, and makes them sluggish; that it retards the circulation, obstructs the natural secretions, and thus occasions or aggravates scorbutic, cachectic, hypochondriac, and other disorders; but general experience does not manifest that *sugar* produces any of these effects in a remarkable degree. Its moderate use is innocent, and perhaps, of all others, it is the most inoffensive of the sweets.

Sugar preserves both animal and vegetable substances from putrefaction, and appears to possess this power in a much greater degree than the common alimentary salt. Animal flesh hath been preserved by sugar more than three years from every degree of being tainted or putrified. The impure brown *sugars* are most laxative, in consequence of their oily or treacly matter. The candied sugar dissolving with difficulty, renders it more fit for gradually melting in the mouth to moderate coughs. In other respects, its principal use is to render other medicines more palatable, or to give them a proper form. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

SACCULI ADIPOSI. The cells of the cellular membrane filled with fat.

SACCULUS CHYLIFERUS, i. e. Receptaculum chyli.

SACCULUS CORDIS, i. e. Pericardium.

SACCULUS LACHRYMALIS. The lachrymal ſac is an oblong membranous bag, by which the tears are conveyed from the ſurface of the eye to the noſtril, on each ſide reſpectively. It receives the tears at the lachrymal points, from whence it conveys them to the os turbinatum inferius, where it opens into the noſtril. The body of the bag is in the grooves of the os unguis, and os maxillare, which form the paſſage.

SACCUS. The inteſtinum cæcum.

SACER IGNIS. The eryſipelas.

SACER MORBUS. The epilepſy.

SACER MUSCULUS. Winſlow calls this muſcle tranſverſo ſpinalis lumborum. It is compoſed of ſeveral oblique, converging, or tranſverſo ſpinal muſcles; and it lies between the ſpinal and oblique apophyſes of the loins, reaching to the os ſacrum. The loweſt is fixed to the upper lateral parts of the os ſacrum, and to the poſterior ſuperior ſpine of the os ilium; the reſt are fixed to the three loweſt tranſverſe apophyſes, and to the four loweſt oblique apophyſes of the loins, and their lateral tuberoſities, from thence they run up to all the ſpinal apophyſes of the vertebræ.

SACRA HERBA, i. e. Verbena.

SACRA VASA. The veſſels which belong to the os ſacrum and the adjacent parts, as the arteries and veins.

SACRA ARTERIA. It goes out from the back part of the aorta, at the bifurcation, on each ſide reſpectively. Sometimes they take their riſe ſomewhat higher from the lumbares, or from the iliacæ. Sometimes there are three or four of them, and ſometimes but one. They are ramified on the os ſacrum and the neighbouring parts of the peritoneum, rectum, fat, &c. and alſo penetrate into the ſubſtance of the bone.

SACRA VENA. It ſometimes proceeds from the bifurcation of the vena cava, at others from the origin of the left iliaca, and accompanies the artery of the ſame name.

SACRO LUMBARIS, called alſo ſacro lumbalis. This muſcle is one with the longiſſimus dorſi at its origin, but ſoon divides, and is inſerted by digitations into the angle of every rib. The uppermoſt tendon is inſerted into the tranſverſe proceſs of the laſt cervical vertebra.

SACRO LUMBARIS, (Accessorius) called alſo acceſſorius ad ſacro lumbalem, acceſſorius ad ſacro lumbares, cervicales deſcendens, and cervicalis dorſi. It is a continuation of the cervicalis dorſi; it lies on the outſide of the complexus, and coming down from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the lower vertebræ colli, is continued down under the ſacro lumbaris to the ribs, which it depreſſes, as well as the ſacro lumbaris.

SACRI NERVI. Five or ſix branches of nerves from the ſpine paſs through the os ſacrum, whence their name. The three firſt join the fourth and fifth lumbar nerves to form the ſciatic nerve. The third ſacral nerve gives ſome branches to the pelvis.

SACRO COCCYGÆUS, i. e. Coccygæus poſterior.

SACRUM OS. This bone is thus named from its having been offered in ſacrifices. Some call it os baſillare, from its being, as it were, the ſupport of the whole ſpine. This bone is of a ſomewhat triangular ſhape, broad above, narrow below, convex behind, and concave before. In the fœtus ſtate it conſiſts of five diſtinct bones, but in adults they are united into one. On the outſide there is a ridge, which is called the ſpine. On the fore part there are four pair of holes for the tranſmiſſion of the nerves. This bone is connected with the oſſa innominata by ſynchondroſis, and forms the poſterior part of the pelvis. Below, the os ſacrum is connected with the os coccygis.

SAGAPENUM, alſo called ſerapinum, gum ſagapen. It is the gummy reſinous juice of an oriental plant, ſuppoſed to be a ſpecies of ferula. It is brought from Alexandria either in diſtinct tears, or run together in large maſſes; outwardly it is of a yellow colour, internally it is paler, and clear like horn. It grows ſoft on being handled, ſo as to ſtick to the fingers. Sometimes pieces of bdellium are ſold for it, but they may be diſtinguiſhed by their weaker ſmell. The ſmell of *ſagapenum* is ſtrong and diſagreeable, like that of the leek, or of a mixture of aſſafetida and galbanum. To the taſte it is moderately hot and biting. It is one of the ſtrongeſt of the deobſtruent gums. As an alterative it may be given from gr. iii. to 3 ſs. and a purge 3 i. muſt be given for a doſe. It is generally uſed as an aperient, an expectorant, or a deobſtruent. Neumann ſays it is uſed in the ſame caſes as is the ammoniacum. Boiling water diſſolves about 3-4ths of this gummy reſin. Rectified ſpirit takes up about one half. Water brings over with it in diſtillation much of the flavour of the ſagapenum, and a ſmall portion of eſſential oil, but the diſtilled ſpirit is moſt flavourleſs. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works; Tournefort's Mat. Med.

SAGITTA. Arrow-head. At firſt the leaves of this plant reſemble thoſe of plantane, but afterwards the bearded head of an arrow; the fruit conſiſts of a collection of ſeeds like the ſtrawberry. It is ſaid to poſſeſs ſimilar virtues with the plantane, but it is rarely uſed.

SAGITTALIS SUTURA. The ſagittal future. It runs from the os frontis to the os occipitis, betwixt the parietal bones.

SAGITTARIA. A ſpecies of ſagitta.

SAGITTARIA ALEXIPHARMICA, alſo called canna Indica, arundo Indica, arrow root, dart wort. The root is alexipharmic, and is uſed by the Indians to remove the poiſon which they receive from darts when wounded by them. It is found in the Weſt-Indian iſlands, and is two or three inches long, as thick as a man's thumb, jointed and white. See Raii Hiſt.

SAGO. See Palma.

SAL. Salt. It is a body that is more or leſs hard, having a remarkable ſavoury taſte, is entirely ſoluble in water, and does not precipitate, unleſs there is more than the water can diſſolve; or, as Geoffroy defines it, "It is a ſolid, friable, pellucid, ſapid, mineral body, ſoluble in water, fuſible by fire, and concreſcible into the form of cryſtals." This definition agrees with ſea-ſalt, nitre, vitriol, alum, borax, and ſal ammoniac. Salts are natural or ſimple, and artificial or compound. The ſimple are the acid and alkaline; the compound the neutral, metallic, and earthy; of the acid kind there are the vitriolic, nitrous, muriatic, vegetable, animal, &c. of the alkaline there are the fixed, both vegetable and foſſil; and the volatile, which laſt are chiefly from animal ſubſtances; they are very rarely found in the mineral kingdom. See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Lewis's Mat. Med. Dict. of Chem. Neumann's Chem. Works; and ſee Chrystallizatio.

SALEP. See Orchis.

SALICARIA. Spiked willow. Boerhaave mentions four ſpecies, which are admired for the beauty of their flowers, but are not noticed in medicine.

SALIVA, from *σιαλος*. It is that fluid by which the mouth and tongue are continually moiſtened in their natural ſtate, and is ſupplied by glands which form it, that are called ſalivary glands. This humour is thin and pellucid, incapable of being concreted by the fire, almoſt without taſte and ſmell. By chewing, it is expreſſed from the glands which ſeparate it from the blood, and is intimately mixed with our food, the digeſtion of which it greatly promotes. In hungry perſons it is acrid and copiouſly diſcharged; and in thoſe who have faſted long it is highly acrid, penetrating, and reſolvent. A too copious evacuation of it produces thirſt, loſs of appetite, bad digeſtion, and an atrophy. See Haller's Phyſiology in the article of Maſtication; Boerhaave's Inſtitutes; Fordyce's Elements, part 1, p. 23.

SALIVALES GLANDULÆ. The ſalivary glands. They are commonly reckoned three pair, viz. the parotid, the maxillary, and the ſublingual; but Dr. Hunter would reckon the ſublingual of another kind.

SALIVALIS DUCTUS STENONIS. Steno's ſalival duct. It is alſo called the upper ſalival duct. It is the duct which carries the ſaliva from the protid gland into the mouth.

SALIVANTIA. Medicines which excite a ſalivation.

SALIVARIS HERBA. The pellitory of Spain.

SALIVATIO. A ſalivation. It is that extraordinary diſcharge of ſpitting which is excited by the uſe of mercury; a practice which is now rarely directed, becauſe all the advantages of mercury are obtained by uſing it as an alterative; and that without the trouble and danger which attends this method of promoting an evacuation by it. However, as occaſionally it may be needful to excite a gentle ſpitting, in general it is beſt done by rubbing a proper quantity of the ungt. cœrul. every or every other night on the thighs. Mr. Clare recommends the application of merc. dulc. gr. iii. vel iv. to the inſide of the cheek; he directs the patient to moiſten his finger with ſaliva, then therewith to take up the merc. dulc. and rub it on and around that place where the parotid (ſalivary) duct opens into the mouth. He adds that, a grain or two of the merc. dulc. applied behind the præputium, or to the labia, will, when accompanying the application of it to the inſide of the cheek, greatly advance the cure. This muſt be repeated every or every other day as its efficacy is more or leſs. This mode, he obſerves, is leſs diſagreeable than the uſual one of rubbing the ungt. cœrul. as is commonly directed. Before the uſe of the merc. dulc. it is proper to waſh the mouth well with warm water, that the mucus ſpread about on the cheeks may not prevent its abſorption. See an Eſſay on the Cure of Abſceſſes, &c. by P. Clare, Surgeon. Mr. Cruikſhank hath added an Appendix to Mr. Clare's publication, well deſerving the attention of every practitioner. The following are ſome of the many valuable inſtances of information communicated in a few pages. He obſerves, that there is no doubt of abſorption taking place on the inſide of the mouth, of the præputium, of the labia, &c. and that any fine powder, capable of being abſorbed there, will be more readily taken up when mixed with a watery fluid, as ſaliva —The particles of the blood, ſeen in the ſimple microſcope, are at leaſt ten times larger than thoſe of the levigated calomel, yet I have often ſeen the abſorbents turgid with red blood. The particles of quickſilver, in the beſt prepared mercurial ointment, are, in the ſame microſcope, as diſtant as the particles of the blood; and it is well known, they are very readily taken up by the abſorbents of the ſkin.—The particles of levigated calomel are not much coarſer than thoſe of its precipitate by the volatile alkali; but this precipitate, we are certain, may be abſorbed from the external ſurface of the body; why then may not calomel be abſorbed from the inſide of the mouth? Mr. Hunter hath frequently directed merc. dulc. to be rubbed on the ſkin along with the volatile liniment; and ſeen it have the effects of the ungt. cœrul. It is very probable that the merc. dulc. mixed with ſaliva might make a good mercurial ointment. The ſurface on the inſide of the cheek, is a better abſorbing ſurface, than perhaps any other acceſſible to friction in the body. Though every ſurface abſorbs, they do not all abſorb equally. Merc. dulc. taken into the ſtomach frequently gripes, &c. but this effect is not obſerved when it is abſorbed by the inſide of the cheek: probably it becomes milder in its operation this way, as it is known that the divided quickſilver becomes milder when abſorbed by the ſkin. Friction with merc. dulc. on the inſide of the cheek, is a leſs tedious, leſs laborious proceſs, than the common one of rubbing the ungt. cœrul. To rub half a dram of the ungt. cœrul. every night on the inſide of the thighs for half an hour, is almoſt intolerable; but what then muſt it be to rub on a larger quantity? The proceſs always tires the patient before it is half performed, and often on this account he omits it. From this circumſtance a cure is often miſſed of. Let us ſuppoſe fifteen grains of the ungt. cœrul. equal to one grain of merc. dulc. and that we can go on with the merc. dulc. for twelve or fifteen days with ſenſible advantage: we muſt acknowledge that when the ungt. is uſed, it becomes neceſſary long before the end of this period to increaſe the doſe, in order to keep up the effects. Beſides, the ungt. being more viſcid than the merc. dulc. mixed with ſaliva, will require a larger ſurface and a longer time before it can be ſufficiently rubbed in. The merc dulc. is ſufficiently rubbed in in a quarter of an hour. The friction of the ungt. cœrul. on the thighs and arms makes the ſkin look dirty. It hath an offenſive odour whilſt it is rubbed; as it is greaſy, it does not rub in ſo as to be dry, and thence the ſkin is clammy, and ſticks to every thing about it; many ſkins are inflamed by it, which retards the cure this way, by being a cauſe for its omiſſion. Some ſkins are diſagreeably affected with oil, ſo when the merc. dulc. is not admitted as above recommended, the quickſilver may be divided with the ſynovia of cows or ſheep inſtead of oil or lard, which in ſome ſkins produce eryſipelatous inflammation, &c. It is probable that affecting the glands on the mouth with mercury conduces more to cure the venereal diſeaſe, than a large quantity conveyed into the circulation. A warm bath may be entered into two or three times before anointing with the ungt. cœrul. after which, the patient being kept in a warm room, and having on a flannel ſhirt, the principal care is not to raiſe the *ſalivation* ſuddenly, or to any conſiderable height. A *ſalivation* ſhould riſe very gradually, and ſhould ſubſide as ſlowly; inattention to this hath been productive of many inconveniences. The body ſhould be prepared by a ſpare diet for a few days, and bleeding as well as uſing the warm bath. Except in ſtrong conſtitutions, from a pint to a quart is a ſufficient diſcharge of the ſaliva in twenty-four hours. Support the patient's ſtrength with plenty of light but nouriſhing diet; give him a pint of gruel, or of a decoction of mallows and liquorice in milk and water, almond emulſion, and barley-water, with gum arabic diſſolved in it, &c. repeat the above quantity every two or at the moſt every three hours; and if he is faint with it, give now and then a little wine whey, maced ale, or mulled wine. If the patient is a woman, and expects her menſes, defer the procedure until they ſettle. If the neceſſary precautions are taken to raiſe and to carry the *ſalivation* on gently, the many bad accidents mentioned by writers on this ſubject will be prevented; and as to avoid inconveniences is better than to remove them, it may here ſuffice to have put the practitioner on his guard againſt ills which otherwiſe muſt occaſion him much trouble and anxiety.

SALIX. The common white or the Dutch willow tree. It is not noticed in general practice; but ſome who have uſed it in agues have ſucceeded by giving a dram of its bark in powder, and repeating it every four hours during the intermiſſions. This ſpecies is diſtinguiſhed from the other by its oblong, pointed, ſerrated leaves, being hoary on both ſides, though moſt ſo on the lower, and in the branches being tough. See Raii Hiſt. Plant. Philoſ. Tranſ 1763. It is the *ſalix* fragilis, Linn.

SALPINGO PHARYNGÆUS. It ariſes from about the tuba Euſtachiana, and is inſerted into the pharynx. Valſalva and Douglas ſay it is one of the origins of the muſcle of the pharynx.

SALPINGO STAPHYLINUS. This muſcle ariſes fleſhy from the bony part of the tube of the ear, and is inſerted into the baſis of the uvula with its partner muſcle on the other ſide. They draw the uvula upward and backward.

SALPINGO STAPHYLINI INTERNI. See PETRO SALPINGO STAPHYLINI.

SALSAPARILLA, i. e. Sarſaparilla.

SALVATELLA VENA, from *ſalus*, *health*, becauſe it hath been thought that to open this vein, melancholy was cured. This vein runs on the back of the hand; it comes from the little finger and that next to it; or, according to ſome, it proceeds from betwixt the thumb and the fore finger, and runs up to the ulna.

SALVIA, from *ſalvus*, *ſound* or *healthy*. Sage. Botaniſts enumerate more than twenty ſpecies. It is a low ſhrubby plant, with ſquare ſtalks, obtuſe, wrinkled, dry leaves, and large bluiſh flowers, which are on looſe ſpikes on the tops of the branches. It is a native of the ſouthern parts of Europe, but bears the cold of our clime. It flowers in May and June.

SALVIA MAJOR. Greater or common garden ſage. It is the *ſalvia* officinalis, or *ſalvia major*, foliis lanceolato-ovatis integris crenulatis, floribus ſpicatis cœruleis, calycibus acutis, Linn. Common green *ſage*. The leaves are nearly oval, but pointed; ſome are green, others red, but both ſorts are on the ſame plant. The leaves and tops are moderately aromatic and corroborant, and are uſed in debilities and relaxations both of the nervous and vaſcular ſyſtem. From 3 ſs. to 3 i of a conſerve made with them cures weak ſtomachs, if repeated twice a day. Their ſmell is ſtrong, but not diſagreeable; their taſte is warm, biteriſh, and ſub-aſtringent; with a ſolution of chalybeate vitriol

vitriol they ſtrike an inky blackneſs. This ſpecies is more agreeable, but not ſo ſtrong as the leſſer *ſage*. The flowers of both are weaker but more agreeable than their leaves. The beſt preparations are, the watery infuſion, and a tincture or extract, made with rectified ſpirit of wine; theſe contain the whole virtue of the *ſage*. The watery infuſion, acidulated with the juice of lemon or of orange, is an agreeable common drink in fevers. By diſtillation with water a ſmall quantity of eſſential oil is obtained, which only poſſeſſeth the aromatic part of the herb. See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Lewis's Mat. Med.

SALVIA MINOR, alſo called ſalvia virtutis. Leſſer ſage, or ſage of virtue. *Salvia* auriculata, or *ſalvia minor* aurita, & non aurita, Linn. *Sage of virtue*. Its leaves are narrower than thoſe of the greater *ſage*, whitiſh, and never red: they are ſtronger, but not ſo agreeable as the above ſpecies, but in other reſpects their qualities are the ſame.

SALVIA SYLVESTRIS, alſo called ſcorodonia, ſcordium, ſcordotis. Germander ſage. Wood ſage. Teucrium *ſcorodonia*, or teucrium *ſylveſtre*, foliis cordatis ſerratis petiolatis racemis lateralibus ſecundis, floribus herbaceis, Linn. It grows in woods and hedges. In ſmell, taſte, and medical virtues, it comes nearer to *ſcordium* than to *ſage*; it is leſs diſagreeable than the former, and more ſo than the latter.

Among the ſpecies of *ſage* is the phlomis, or yellow *ſage*. Boerhaave reckons up eight ſpecies of it. It is aſtringent and vulnerary.

SALVIA VITÆ, i. e. Ruta muraria.

SAMBUCUS, alſo called acte. Common elder. *Sambucus* nigra, or *ſambucus* cymis quinque partitis, floribus umbellatis, fructu in umbella nigra, caule arboreo. Linn. Common black berried *elder*. It is a tree or ſhrub whoſe branches are full of fungus; it is covered with an aſh-coloured chapt bark, under which lies a thinner green one, and under it a white one. It flowers in May, and ripens its berries in September.

The young leaves, when budding, are ſaid to purge. The bark is recommended as a ſtrong hydragogue. Sydenham directs three hands full of the inner bark to be boiled in a quart of milk and water to a pint, half of which is to be drank every night and morning: he ſays it operates upward and downward. Some confine theſe effects to the ebulus or dwarf *elder*; but they have both been uſed without any remarkable advantage. An infuſion of the freſh flowers is gently laxative, and of the dried ones is perſpirative. The juice of the berries, when inſpiſſated to a rob, is a good diſſolvent and aperient; in colds juſt received, it gently looſens the belly and promotes urine, or perſpiration, or both. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Anatomia Sambuci per M. Blockwitz.

SANCTÆ HELENÆ [RAD.] It is a long knotted root, black without and white within; to the taſte it is like the galangal root. It is brought from St. Helena in the province of Florida. It is there uſed againſt pains in the ſtomach and in nephritic diſorders.

SANDARACHA. Sandarach. A name for a ſort of arſenic; alſo a gummy reſin, of a yellowiſh white colour, ſaid to flow from the cedrus Lycia major Dodon. It is in ſmall lumps, dry, brittle, of a pleaſant ſmell, of a reſinous and gently acrid taſte: it is brought from Africa. The gum of the juniper tree is generally ſold for it. See REALGAR.

SANGUIFLUXUS, i. e. hæmorrhagia.

SANGUINIS INOPIA. A tabes from loſs of blood. An inſtance of the atrophia inanitorum of Cullen.

SANGUIS. Blood. The fluid which is contained in the arteries and veins is called the *blood*. On a ſlight examination it may appear homogeneous, but it conſiſts of very diſſimilar parts. When *blood* is taken from the body immediately it loſes its volatile part, which flies off in the form of a vapour, and is of the nature of ſal ammoniac. When this vapour is diſſipated the remaining *blood* quickly congeals into a trembling maſs. The principal part of this coagulated maſs is in the craſſamentum, which hath the red colour to itſelf, and gives it to the other parts; when this craſſamentum is freed from its watery part, it is wholly inflammable. In a maſs of healthy human *blood* about one half is craſſamentum; in ſtrong laborious people the ſerum is not much more than one third part. The next part of the *blood* is the ſerum; from this is formed what is called the pleuritic cruſt on the ſurface of the *blood*, after taking it from a vein by the uſual method of bleeding; of this polypuſes and artificial membranes are alſo formed. In this ſerum, beſides the albumen, which hardens like the white of an egg, there is much water, and a ſmall quantity of ropy mucus. Beſides theſe parts, a portion of ſea-ſalt is found in the *blood*, and is manifeſt to the taſte, and oftentimes to the microſcope. By a chemical analyſis, a fine chalky earth is alſo found to exiſt in the moſt fluid parts of the *blood*; a portion of fixed air, to the amount of half a ſcruple in every ounce; and alſo a ſmall quantity of iron, which the loadſtone will attract. To theſe may be added the elementary fire.

The natural elements of the *blood* formed by the animal œconomy are, the albumen, and the globules. The albumen is the immediate matter of growth and nutrition. The globules never paſs the emunctories, except by exceſs or diſeaſe; as for the ſaline, acid, morbid, bilious, and other particles that are found in the circulating *blood*, they are rather heterogeneous than elementary parts of it.

In an healthy ſtate the *blood* is mild and gelatinous, but by ſome diſorders it is rendered very acrid.

On viewing the *blood* with a microſcope, whilſt it circulates in the veins, the globules are obſerved to be elaſtic, ſo as to change and recover their figure. Mr. Hewſon ſays that they are not ſpherical, but almoſt flat.

The uſe of the globules in the *blood* ſeems chiefly to be for the preſervation of heat in the body; and that of the ſerum for nutrition, and by the various ſecretions from it to moiſten the ſeveral ſurfaces in the body, to preſerve the flexibility of the ſolids, &c. A due proportion of the reſpective parts of the *blood* is neceſſary to health; a redundance of the globules diſpoſes to acute fevers, inflammations, &c. and their deficiency, to many chronical diſorders.

As to the red colour of the *blood*, Dr. Hunter thinks it is chiefly owing to the degree to which it is condenſed; but moſt writers attribute it to the acid to which it receives from the air in the lungs.

That life is a property of the *blood*, ſee what Mr. J. Hunter hath taught concerning it. And for an enlargement on what is ſaid above, beſides many other particulars reſpecting the *blood*, ſee Mr. Hewſon on the Properties of the *Blood*; Berdoe on the Nature and Circulation of the *Blood*; Fordyce's Elements, part 1; Haller's Phyſiology, in lect. vii.

SANGUIS DRACONIS, called alſo cinnabaris Græcorum. Dragon's blood. It is a reſin of a red colour, obtained from certain trees like palm-trees in the Eaſt-Indies. The Calamus var. Palmijuneus *Draco*. Rumph. Amb. lib. 7. t. 58. f. 1. & Linn. Sp. Pl. 463. The Calamus Rotang. Curtis's Cat. of the Lond. Bot. Garden. One ſort is in oval drops, wrapped up in flag leaves; another ſort is in large maſſes, which are often impure, but ſometimes as good as the firſt.

This reſin is of a deep red colour, and on being powdered is of a crimſon caſt. It readily melts, and catches a flame from a candle. It almoſt totally diſſolves by the help of heat in rectified ſpirit of wine, tinging a large quantity of this menſtrum of a deep red colour: it is ſoluble in expreſſed oils; but it gives out little or nothing to water. The beſt pieces break ſmooth, and free from viſible appearances; they have no remarkable ſmell or taſte, except when diſſolved, and then they ſeem to be ſomewhat acrid. The Dutch often adulterated this reſin with mixtures of gum arabic, Braſil wood, alum, &c. but theſe are diſcovered by their diſſolving in water, or by their crackling and not burning in the fire. It is not much uſed as a medicine, though it is recommended as a gentle incraſſant, deficcative, and reſtringent. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

SANICULA. Sanicle. It is ſo called from *ſanando*, *healing*.

SANICULA MAS, alſo called diapenſia, ſanicle, ſelf-heal. It is the *ſanicula* Europæa. Linn. It is an umbelliferous plant, with ſhining dark green, roundiſh, ſerrated leaves; the ſeeds are rough and ſtick to one's cloaths. It is perennial and ever-green: it grows wild in woods, on hilly grounds, and flowers in May. It is mildly aſtringent, taſtes roughiſh and bitter; and it hath an acrimony which

which chiefly affects the throat. Both the watery and ſpirituous extracts poſſeſs the virtues of this plant.

SANICULA EBORACENSIS, called alſo pinguicula, ſanicula montana flore calcari donato, viola paluſtris. Butter-wort, Yorkſhire ſanicle. It is the *pinguicula* vulgaris. Linn. It is a ſmall plant, with a few gloſſy unctuous leaves which lie on the ground. It is perennial, grows in elevated marſhy grounds, and flowers in ſpring. Its unctuous glutinous juice is uſed by ſome as a liniment for chaps, and as a pomatum for the hair: it is alſo purgative, but none of the *ſanicles* are much noted in general practice

SANIDODES, alſo, but improperly, Saniodes. Where the breaſt is ſtraitened or flattened like (σανίδος, the genitive caſe of σανις) *a table*. Flat cheſted.

SANTALUM. Saunders. There are three ſorts brought from the Eaſt Indies.

SANTALUM CITRINUM, alſo called ſantalum palidum. Yellow Saunders. *Santalum* album. Linn. It is a pale yellowiſh, or browniſh coloured wood, with a cloſe even grain, an agreeable ſmell, and a bitteriſh aromatic taſte, accompanied with a kind of pungency. Diſtilled with water, it affords an oil which thickens into the conſiſtence of a balſam, and ſmells like ambergriſe; the remaining decoction is bitteriſh. Rectified ſpirit extracts by digeſtion more than water does; and an extract from this tincture is ſix times ſtronger than the wood itſelf. Hoffman ſays its virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of ambergriſe. See SANTALUM ALBUM.

SANTALUM ALBUM. White Saunders. It is of the ſame nature as the yellow, but ſo weak that it is now neglected. The *ſantalum* citrinum, called *ſantalum album*, by Linnæus, is the medullary part of the ſame tree, of which the *ſantalum album* is the alburnum, or outward ſappy part.

SANTALUM RUBRUM. Red Saunders. Pterocarpus ſantolinus, vel pterocarpus foliis ternatis ſubrotundis retuſis glaberrimis petalis crenatis undulatis. Linn. This is of a dull red colour; it is ſaid to be aſtringent; it hath little or no ſmell, and as little taſte. It is chiefly uſed as a colouring drug; it tinges water with a yellowiſh hue, and rectified ſpirit with a deep red; but it does not diſſolve in expreſſed oil. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

SANTERNA. Borax.

SANTONICUM, alſo called ſem. cinæ, ſem. lumbricorum, ſemen ſanctum; ſem. zedoarie, ſementina, ſantolina, xantolina. Worm-ſeed. The plant from which theſe ſeeds are obtained is the artemiſia *ſantonicum*, or artemiſia abſinthium Siberienſis fruticoſa incana ramoſiſſima, linearibus breviſſimis obtuſiuſculis. Linn. In the Flora Auſtriaca, it is called artemiſia Auſtriaca. In Curtis Cat. of the Lond. Bot. Garden, it is called artemiſia Judaica. It is a ſmall, light, oval kind of *ſeed*, of a yellowiſh green colour, with a caſt of brown, eaſily friable. They are generally mixed with ſmall bits of ſticks and leaves. They are brought from the Levant, and are ſuppoſed to be the produce of a ſpecies of artemiſia. Miller ſays it is a ſpecies of wormwood. They have a ſtrong, and rather diſagreeable ſmell, and a bitter ſubacrid taſte, and are uſually employed for deſtroying worms in children. They give out their virtue to water and to ſpirit; the ſpirituous infuſion is the moſt agreeable. In evaporating the watery infuſion, all the ill-flavour is carried off, and only a ſimple bitter remains. As a bitter the watery extract is the beſt preparation; as an anthelmintic, the ſpirituous extract ſhould be preferred. Theſe *ſeeds* are ſeldom met with genuine; they are mixed with the *ſeeds* of ſouthern-wood. The marks of goodneſs are, their full body, their greeniſh colour, ſtrong ſmell, their bitter and aromatic taſte. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

SAPA, alſo called apochyliſma, ſuccago, robub. & rob. It is the juice of ſome vegetable boiled up with ſugar, or honey, into the conſiſtence of honey.

SAPHENA VENA MAJOR, ſo called becauſe it is almoſt σαφὴς, i. e. *viſible*. About an inch below the paſſage of the cruralis from out of the abdomen, it ſends off a large branch, called ſaphena; in all its courſe down to the foot, it is only covered with the integuments. It follows the direction of the Sartorius muſcle, until it arrives at the inner condyle of the thigh-bone; it then runs on the inſide of the tibia, ſending off branches as it paſſes along; at the lower part of the tibia it ſends off a branch, which runs over the joint of the tarſus to the outer ankle. The extremity of the ſaphena paſſes on the foreſide of the inner ankle, and runs betwixt the firſt two metatarſal bones, towards the great toe.

SAPHENA MINOR VENA. It is a branch from the ſaphena major, and ſeparates from it ſoon after its paſſing from the inguen; it runs down below the ham, and communicates with ſaphena major. Another branch, which proceeds from the cruralis, a little above the ham is thus named; it runs to the outer ankle. Some call it *ſaphena* externa.

SAPHERA. Zaffer.

SAPIENTIÆ DENTES. The laſt of the molares are thus called; they do not appear until after puberty, and ſometimes not before the twenty-ſixth year.

SAPIENTIÆ OLEUM. Oil of bricks.

SAPO. Soap. It is a compoſition of oils and fats, with alkaline ſalts, ſo incorporated as to diſſolve together in water, into a milky ſemi-tranſparent liquid. *Soap* may alſo be formed by a combination of oil and acids.

SAPO ALBUS, alſo called ſapo Hiſpanicus. Hard, or Spaniſh ſoap. It is made in Spain, with olive oil and the Spaniſh barilla, by a like proceſs as is directed for the *ſoap* of almonds. *Soap* is an uſeful mixture with reſinous pills, for it renders them more eaſily ſoluble, and more perfectly miſcible with our fluids; it diſſolves mucous matter in the body, and ſo is uſeful to reſolve obſtructions. It acts in the primæ viæ, as well as in the remote and minute veſſels, and by diſlodging viſcid phlegm from the bowels. It alſo carries off and deſtroys worms, for which end it may be given either by the mouth or clyſter-wiſe. The aſcarides are ſometimes rooted by clyſters in which are a dram or two of *ſoap*. By the diſſolving quality of *ſoap* it alſo proves diuretic, and is uſeful in gravelly complaints by lubricating, as well as by its gentle ſtimulus.

The common ſoft *ſoaps* are ſo acrid, that they are only fit for external uſes. The whiteſt of them are made with tallow, fat, or coarſe oils, the blacker, or greener ſorts, are made of whale oil.

All theſe *ſoaps* diſſolve in water, but more plentifully in proof ſpirit; but thoſe ſpirits have a degree of acidity in them which occaſions a milky hue in the ſolutions of *ſoap*. This may be corrected, as obſerved by Geoffroy, who ſays, that twenty-eight parts of good proof ſpirit, with the addition of one part of ſalt of kali, will diſſolve ten parts of good *hard ſoap* into a perfect limpid liquor.

SAPO VOLATILIS. Volatile ſoap. Of this there are three kinds; one is compoſed of fixed alkalies and *volatile* oils; another of *volatile* alkalies and groſs oils; the third of ſalt and oil that are both *volatile*: but none of theſe compoſitions, in which either the alkali or the oil is *volatile*, are ſo ſaponaceous as thoſe in which they are both of the fixed kind. See Dict. of Chem. Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

SAPO VITRI, i. e. Magalaize.

SAPONACEÆ PILULÆ. See OPIUM.

SAPONACEUM LINIMENTUM. Saponaceus liniment. Take of the ſpirit of roſemary, a pint; of hard Spaniſh ſoap, three ounces; of camphor, one ounce. Digeſt the ſoap with the ſpirit until it is diſſolved; then add the camphor. This hath been called opodeldoc. It is in much eſteem for rubbing on parts affected with old pains, the rheumatiſm, &c.

SAPONARIA, alſo called ſtruthium, lanaria, lychnis ſylveſtris. Bruiſe-wort, ſoap wort. It is the *ſaponaria* officinalis. Linn.

It is a ſmooth herb, with plantane like leaves, and cluſters of red, purple, and whitiſh flowers; the root is long, ſlender, ſpreading to a great diſtance, of a browniſh colour on the outſide, and white within, with a yellowiſh fibre in the middle. It grows in moiſt grounds, and flowers in July.

This plant is called *ſaponaria*, becauſe its juice takes out greaſe from cloaths. The roots and leaves are glutinous and ſweet to the taſte, but in the roots there is alſo a ſlight pungency, and in the leaves a bitteriſhneſs. The ſoapy matter diſſolves either in water or in ſpirit of wine. The Germans uſe the root, and ſay it is preferable to the ſarſaparilla. M. Andry, M. D. of Paris, gives the inſpiſſated juice of the *ſaponaria* officinalis, with great ſuc-

teſs, in caſes of gonorrhœa. The patients take about half an ounce of this medicine daily; and in general a cure is effected in about a fortnight, without the aſſiſtance of any other remedy. And —— Segey, M. D. of Paris, hath ſucceeded with this plant in the moſt obſtinate caſes of lues venerea. He directs it in the following manner: R. rad. ſaponaria offic. ſicc. ℥ iſs. ſol. ejuſdem ſicc. ℥ ſs. coque in aq. pur. ℔ vj. ad iv. From two to four pints of this decoction are to be daily taken; and in bad caſes, the patient is to take at the ſame time the plant in powder, or in the form of an extract. This plant is alſo ſaid to be uſeful when applied externally to venereal ulcers, either in fomentation, or in a dry form, by ſprinkling it in powder over the ſores. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

SAPONARIÆ NUCULÆ, alſo called baccæ Bermudenſes. Soap berries, Bermudas berries. This is a ſpherical fruit about the ſize of a cherry. Its cortical part is yellow, gloſſy, and ſo tranſparent as to ſhew the ſpherical black part which rattles within, and which includes a white kernel. It is the produce of a ſmall tree in Jamaica, and other parts of the Weſt Indies. The kernel when ſteeped in water, raiſes a froth like ſoap ſuds.

Theſe *berries* are powerful in removing obſtructions in the liver and ſpleen; they mend an ill habit of body, and are a ſpecific in the chlorоſis; they help digeſtion. The beſt preparations are, a tincture made with white wine, a tincture in ſpirit, and the extract from the ſpirituous tincture. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Med. Muſ. vol. iii. p. 538.

SAPPHIRUS. The ſapphire. It is one of the precious ſtones, and is of a fine blue colour; but there are ſpecies that are white, &c. The beſt come near to diamonds in ſplendor, tranſparency, and hardneſs.

SARCOCELE, from *σαρξ*, *fleſh*, and *κηλη*, *a tumor*. It is a firm, fleſhy kind of enlargement of the teſticle, or the ſcirrhous teſticle. The *ſarcocele*, or hernia carnoſa, Mr Pott ſays, taken in a general ſenſe, means any induration or diſeaſed *fleſh*, though here confined to the teſticle; and further obſerves that the *ſarcocele*, which is diſtinguiſhed by the ancient writers into the *ſarcocele*, the hydro-*ſarcocele*, the ſcirrhus, the cancer, the caro adnata ad teſtam, and the caro adnata ad vata, are really little more than deſcriptions of different ſtates and circumſtances of the ſame diſeaſe. The caro adnata ad teſtam is a ſcirrhus begun in the epididymis. The caro adnata ad vaſa, is a ſcirrhus of the epididymis ſomewhat increaſed, when it ſeems as if it ſprung from the ſpermatic veſſels. The hydro-*ſarcocele* is when the teſticle is enlarged or hardened; there is alſo a palpable accumulation of fluid in the vaginal coat. The *ſarcocele* is a diſeaſe of the body of the teſticle; and, as the term implies, conſiſts, in general, in ſuch an alteration, made in the ſtructure of it, as produces a reſemblance to a hard fleſhy ſubſtance, inſtead of that fine ſoft, vaſcular texture, of which it is, in a natural and healthy ſtate, compoſed. Many paſs ſeveral years with this diſeaſe, under its moſt favourable appearances, and without encountering any of its worſt; but, on the other hand, there are many who, in a very ſhort time, run through all its ſtages. Sometimes the firſt appearance is a mere ſimple enlargement and induration of the body of the teſticle; void of pain, without inequality of ſurface, and producing no uneaſineſs, nor inconvenience, except what is occaſioned by its mere weight. And in ſome few inſtances it remains thus for a conſiderable time, without viſible or material alteration; but, in other inſtances, very ſoon after its appearance in this mild manner, it ſuddenly becomes unequal and knotty; and is attended with very acute pains, darting up to the loins and back; but ſtill remains entire; that is, it does not burſt through the integuments. In ſhort, ſuch is the variety of the appearances of this diſeaſe, that deſcription can hardly afford an adequate idea of it. Sometimes the diſorder ſeems to be merely local, that is, confined to the teſticle; at other times there is a pallid or leaden countenance, indigeſtion, nauſea, colic pains, ſudden purgings, &c. ſufficiently indicating a vitiated habit and diſeaſed viſcera. The progreſs alſo which it makes from the teſtis upward, is very uncertain; the diſeaſe affecting the ſpermatic proceſs, in ſome ſubjects, for a great length of time; while, in others, it totally ſpoils the teſticle very ſoon, and almoſt as ſoon ſeizes the ſpermatic cord.

Amongſt the miſtaken cauſes of a ſcirrhous teſticle, Mr. Pott reckons the hernia humoralis. He does not ſay that a *ſarcocele* never follows an hernia humoralis, but that it does not at any time neceſſarily cauſe or produce it. Mr. Bell, in his Syſtem of Surgery, ſays, that a hardened ſtate of the teſtis and epididymis, produced originally by a venereal taint, does in ſome inſtances degenerate into the worſt ſpecies of *ſarcocele*. However, in general, the hernia humoralis is one of the diſeaſes which ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the *ſarcocele*. A quantity of water is ſometimes collected in the vaginal coat of a ſcirrhous teſtis, and ſome have ſuppoſed that this water renders the teſtis ſcirrhous; but this not being true, the hydrocele and the ſcirrhous teſticle ſhould alſo be diſtinguiſhed.

The only remedy from which any advantage is expected, is, the removal of the diſeaſed parts by extirpation. But before the operation is attempted, a conſideration of the manner of the *ſarcocele's* having been formed, and the ſtate of the ſpermatic cord from the ring to the teſticle, are objects of neceſſary conſideration. When it proceeds from a blow on the part, ſucceſs is more likely to follow, than when it is cauſed by a cancerous or ſtrumous acrimony attending on that gland; when theſe laſt are cauſes, they will generally be found to exiſt on other parts alſo; therefore though the diſeaſed teſticle be removed, yet from the ſame cauſe exiſting in the habit, other parts ſoon after become diſeaſed in the ſame manner. In ſtrumous habits the glands of the meſentery, the lymphatics, &c. are generally obſtructed; therefore external applications ſignify very little; but ſuch medicines muſt be uſed as firſt act on the primæ viæ, and then on the lymphatics; for in children they are ſeldom ſeen with this diſorder without an enlarged belly, which before any further attempts are made muſt be leſſened.

Mr. Pott obſerves, that ſome writers direct with reſpect to the ſpermatic cord as follows: firſt, if it is ſoft, and of its natural ſize, caſtration may be ſafely performed; which is right. Secondly, if it is much enlarged, the operation is not vindicable. But this is going too far; for though it may be conſiderably enlarged, yet if it has no unequal feel, is not painful, or manifeſts no tendency to ſcirrhus; its being enlarged is of no conſequence, for obſtruction in a diſeaſed gland will frequently occaſion an enlarged varicous ſtate of its veſſels. Lymphatics alſo, from the ſame cauſe, may be dilated or ruptured, which muſt conſequently occaſion an extravaſation in the cells of the ſpermatic proceſs, both which frequently happen in the *ſarcocele*, and muſt certainly give the ſpermatic cord an enlarged feel; but it is not either of them that can be the leaſt objection to the operation; the ſpermatic cord not being diſeaſed, only enlarged, which is a circumſtance worth regarding; for when it is only enlarged, the operation may be of uſe; but, when in an enlarged, ſcirrhous, painful ſtate, too high to be able to make a ligature fairly above the part diſeaſed, the operation can be of no uſe, but is moſt likely to prove fatal. Many adviſe to defer the operation until ſuch ſymptoms come on, as darting pains in the teſticles, pains in the loins, &c. which, in truth, inſtead of being a proper time, is too late, the ſpermatic proceſs becoming affected, when a teſticle is become truly ſcirrhous, ſo as never poſſibly after to be of any uſe to the patient. By carrying ſcirrhi too long, though at firſt the diſorder be local, a ſcirrhous habit will be brought on; for before the ſpermatic proceſs becomes affected with ſcirrhous teſticles, the patient's habit is often found affected, and he is attended with colicky pains, and other conſequent ſymptoms.

After a venereal gonorrhœa, Dr. Swediar obſerves, that from improper treatment it ſometimes happens that one or both teſticles grow hard, i. e. become ſcirrhous. In ſome of theſe inſtances the diſorder is accompanied with a ſenſation of a painful preſſure; but frequently without any pain at all. He adds, that, in theſe caſes, mercury given internally, or rubbed in externally, into the perinæum and ſcrotum, twice a day, with the conſtant application of a warm poultice made of the root of atropa mandragora, Linn. are often uſeful. Alſo that the cicuta, applied internally and externally, may be tried, with

proſpect

proſpect of advantage. An emetic has been ſometimes found effectual. The decoction of the bark of the root of Daphne Mezereum, Linn. internally, and a poultice of it externally, has lately been very much recommended; but whatever means are uſed, it too generally happens that theſe ſwellings remain unaffected, except we can bring on the running again from the urethra; one method of effecting which, is to inoculate the venereal virus by means of a bougie introduced a little way into the urethra. However the ſingularity of this laſt propoſition may ſtrike, Dr. Swediar aſſures us, that ſucceſs hath followed ſuch practice: and we have only to conſider, that an undoubted authority bids us to chuſe the leaſt evil of two that preſent or attend. Mr. Bell ſays that, when a hardneſs of the teſticle does not yield to the means commonly employed, ſuch as moderate evacuations of blood, when theſe are indicated; a ſoft eaſy diet; a lax belly; the uſe of a ſuſpenſory bandage; and eſpecially when mercury, which, on the chance of the diſorder being venereal, is very commonly tried, are all uſed without any effect; we may in ſuch circumſtances always have great cauſe to ſuſpect that the diſeaſe is of a real bad nature; and when to this is joined an acceſſion of more inveterate ſymptoms, and if the diſorder, from the ſtate of an indolent hard tumour, becomes painful, &c. no farther delay ought then to be adviſed. Caſtration muſt be proceeded to. See Sharp's Operations; Pott's Chirurgical Works; Bell's Syſtem of Surgery.

SARCOCOLLA. Sarcocol, or fleſh glue. It was thus called, becauſe of its ſuppoſed power of conglutinating wounds. It is a gummy reſinous juice, from the penæa mucronata, Linn. according to Curtis, in his Catalogue of the London Botanic Garden: and from the penæa *ſarcocolla*, according to Weſton in his Univ. Bot. and is brought from Perſia and Arabia, in ſmall ſpongy grains, of a whitiſh yellow colour, and a few of a reddiſh, and ſometimes of a deep red colour; theſe grains, when entire, are about the ſize of a pea. The whiteſt and moſt bitter is preferred as being the beſt. Its bitteriſh ſubacrid taſte is followed by a ſweetiſhneſs; it ſoftens in the mouth, bubbles and catches flame from a candle: it diſſolves freely in water, and a great part of it diſſolves in ſpirit of wine. Its medical qualities are not much known. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

SARCOEPIPLOCELE. A kind of compound rupture, conſiſting of a deſcent of the epiploon, and a ſarcocele. Or a rupture of the indurated epiploon, either umbilical or ſcrotal.

SARCOLOGIA. Sarcology. It includes myology, ſplanchnology, angiology, neurology, and the doctrine of the integuments.

SARCOMA, from σαρξ, *fleſh*. Thus a fleſhy tumour on any part of the body is named. It is occaſioned by an effuſion of the nutritious juices out of their tubuli. Theſe tumours have no cyſtis; they do not yield to the impreſſion of a finger, nor are they moveable. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order tumores. Extirpation is the only remedy; and if the baſis is narrow, a ligature may be uſed, but if it is broad, the knife will be neceſſary. See Turner's Surgery, vol. i. p. 201.

SARCOMA. A name for a polypus of the noſe.

SARCOMPHALON, from σαρξ, *fleſh*, and ομφαλος, the navel. A fleſhy excreſcence at the navel.

SARCOPHYIA. A ſarcoma.

SARCOTICA. Sarcotics. Medicines which generate fleſh in wounds. From σαρκοω, *to heal*.

SARDA, or Sardius. The cornelian ſtone.

SARDIASIS. Involuntary convulſive laughter; or rather the cynic ſpaſm.

SARDONIUS RISUS. Sardonian laughter. A convulſive involuntary laughter, and is thus named from the herba Sardonia, which is a ſpecies of ranunculus, and is ſaid to produce ſuch convulſive motions in the cheeks as reſemble thoſe motions which are obſerved in the face during a fit of laughter. This complaint is ſometimes ſpeedily fatal. If the ranunculus happens to be the cauſe, the cure muſt be attempted by means of a vomit, and frequent draughts of hydromel with milk. See Ætius Tetrab iv. ſerm. i. cap. 66.

SARDONYX. It is a precious ſtone, of a nature betwixt the ſardius and onyx. The cornelian is alſo thus named: alſo the onyx, when its colours are red and white. The *Sardonyx* is of the agate kind, and an individual of the ſpecies of agate, called onyx.

SARSA, i. e. Sarſaparilla.

SARSAPARILLA, alſo called zarza, zarzaparilla, ſmilax aſpera Peruviana, ſalſaparilla, zarcaparilla. It is called ſarſaparilla from the Spaniſh words zarſa, a bramble, and parilla, a little vine. This plant is a ſmall kind of vine, which reſembles a bramble. Some call it a ſpecies of bind-weed. It is brought from the Spaniſh Weſt Indies; the ſlenderer pale ſort comes from New Spain, the dark and thick from Honduras, the darkeſt and thickeſt from Quito. The ſort moſt eſteemed is the ſmilax aſpera Peruviana, C. B. the ſmilax ſarſaparilla, or ſmilax Virginiana hederæfolia, foliis inermibus ovatis retuſo mucronatis trinerviis, Linn. Virginian ivy-leaved rough bind-weed. It is light, white within, but is not eaſily powdered. The root conſiſts of a number of ſtrings, which are as thick as a gooſe-quill, flexible, free from knots, and compoſed of fibres which run their whole length, ſo that they may be ſlipped from one end to the other. On their outſide is a thin, brown, or yellowiſh aſh-coloured ſkin; under this is a thicker, white, friable ſubſtance, and in the middle is a woody pith.

Theſe roots have a farinaceous bitteriſh taſte, and no ſmell. In 1563, the Spaniards brought a parcel of them into Europe, as a ſpecific in the lues venerea, and, indeed, a decoction of them in water is an excellent auxiliary to mercury. When children are infected with the pox from their parents or nurſes, the powder of this root may be put into their food. It is reſolvent, attenuant, reſtores the appetite and digeſtion, even when the patient is hectic from a venereal cauſe. It promotes perſpiration, attenuates viſcid humours; it relieves venereal head-achs and nocturnal pains; it is peculiarly uſeful when the bones are carious, or any way diſordered from the venereal diſeaſe.

The beſt preparation is a decoction as follows; ℞ Rad. ſarſaparil. ℥ iii. aq. fluv. ℔ vi. coq. ad. ℔ ii. & cola. If a little liquorice root is added at the end of the boiling, the decoction will be more palatable. The doſe is half a pint four times in twenty-four hours, or ſo as that two pints are taken in at that time; it muſt be made freſh every ſecond day. It is the long ſtringy part only that is uſeful. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works; Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. i. p. 149, &c.

SARTORIUS. Some call this muſcle faſcialis. It is called *ſartorius*, or the taylor's muſcle, becauſe taylors croſs their legs with it. It riſes from the anterior ſuperior part of the os ileum, runs inwards contiguous to the blood veſſels, and is inſerted into the inner condyle of the thigh bone. It partly rotates the thigh.

SASSAFRAS. It is the root of a large tree of the bay kind, the laurus ſaſſafras, or laurus fol. integris trilobiſque. floribus flavis, baccis cœruleis, Linn. The ſaſſafras tree. It is light, and covered with a rough and ſungous bark, outwardly of an aſh colour, and inwardly of the colour of ruſty iron. It is brought from Virginia and other parts of America. It hath a fragrant ſmell, a ſweetiſh ſub-aſtringent aromatic taſte; the bark is ſtronger than the internal woody part, and the ſmall twigs than the larger pieces. Spirit of wine takes up all its virtues, and water extracts a large portion of them. Diſtilled with water it affords an eſſential oil, which is limpid at the firſt, but afterwards grows yellow, or of a reddiſh brown; the remaining decoction when evaporated, affords a bitteriſh ſubaſtringent extract; but an extract made from a ſpirituous tincture poſſeſſes all the virtues of the root.

Saſſafras is uſed chiefly in infuſion as a mild diaphoretic and corroborant in ſcorbutic, catarrhal, and cachectic diſorders; but for theſe purpoſes the ſpirituous extract is the beſt preparation See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Lewis's Mat. Med. Newmann's Chem. Works.

SATUREIA SATIVA, alſo called cunila ſativa, thymbra, and ſummer's ſavory. It is the ſatureia hortenſis, Linn. It is a low ſhrubby plant, ſomewhat hairy, with ſmall oblong narrow leaves ſet in pairs. Its flowers are in cluſters in the boſoms of the leaves, and are of a purpliſh colour. It grows wild in the ſouth of Europe, and

is ſown annually in our gardens. The leaves are warm, aromatic, and to the ſmell are like thyme, but much milder. Rectified ſpirit takes up all their active matter. Water takes up the ſmell but not the taſte. By diſtillation with water, a ſmall quantity of eſſential oil is obtained. They are heating, ſomewhat diuretic, and promote the menſes.

SATUREIA MONTANA, alſo called thymbra, winter ſavory. Its virtues are much the ſame as thoſe of the above ſpecies. See Raii Hiſt.

SATURNUS. Lead. Sometimes antimony is thus named.

SATYRIASIS. It is a violent deſire of venery, even ſo that reaſon is depraved by it. Dr. Cullen places it as a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſorexiæ. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies. 1. Satyriaſis juvenilis, when beſide the exceſs of deſire, the body is otherwiſe but little diſturbed. 2. Satyriaſis furens, when with the exceſs of venereal appetite, the body is much diſturbed, as with fever, &c. The pulſe is quick, the breathing ſhort, the patient is ſleepleſs, thirſty, and loathes his food; the urine is evacuated with difficulty, and a fever ſoon comes on. The nature and cure are much the ſame as are thoſe of the furor uterinus. See Cœlius Aurelianus, lib. iii. c. 18, acut.

SATYRION. A name for ſeveral ſpecies of orchis, which ſee.

SATYRISMUS. The ſame as ſatyriaſis.

SAURURUS. A plant called the lizard's tail. Boerhaave mentions four ſpecies. Their virtues are ſimilar to thoſe of arum.

SAXIFRAGA ALBA, alſo called ſanicula ſedum. White ſaxifrage. It is the ſaxifraga granulata, Linn. It is a plant with kidney-ſhaped, yelloviſh green leaves, round, purpliſh, branched ſtalks, on the tops of which are ſhort looſe ſpikes of white flowers. The root is compoſed of ſmall fibres, intermixed with little tubercles. It is perennial, grows wild in ſandy paſtures, and flowers in May. The tubercles of the roots have a ſweetiſh and lightly acrid taſte, and they are aperient and diuretic. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

SAXIFRAGA ANGLICA. Engliſh, or meadow ſaxifrage. It is the pucedanum ſilaus, Linn. It is an umbelliferous plant with winged leaves; the flowers are of a yelloviſh white colour; the root is long, and about as thick as a finger, brown or blackiſh on the outſide, and white within. It is common in meadows and paſture ground, and flowers in June. The root, leaf, and ſeeds, are diuretic, aperient, and carminative, and are far preferable to thoſe of the white *ſaxifrage*. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

SAXIFRAGA. It is a name for a ſpecies of paronychia, filipendula, apium, &c.

SAXIFRAGA, from *ſaxum a ſtone*, and *frango, to break*. An epithet for medicines which diſſolve or break the ſtone in the bladder.

SAXUM. In foſſilogy, it is an order in the claſs of ſtones. The characters are, ſtone of a granulated ſtructure; and wanting the characters of the other orders of this claſs. Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

SCABIES. The itch; alſo a diſorder of the bladder mentioned by Ætius. If after a painful diſcharge of the urine, branny ſcales appear in it, with plenty of ſlender filaments, which ſubſide, the ancients call it a *ſcabies*, becauſe it indicates a corroſion of the mucous and villous membranes thereof. In order to the cure, Ætius orders an abſtinence from heating things, and recommends milk, broth, &c. In Linnæus's noſology, it is an order in the claſs of vitia, and ſignifies cutaneous diſeaſes.

SCABIOSA. Common field ſcabius. Scabioſa arvenſis, Linn. It is a rough hairy plant; it grows wild in paſture ground; it is of a nauſeous bitter taſte; it flowers in June. It is aperient, ſudorific, and expectorant. Externally it hath been uſed as a cure for the itch, whence its name ſcabioſa. Boerhaave enumerates forty-eight ſpecies, but they are not noted for medicinal qualities.

SCABIOSA. It is a name for ſeveral other plants.

SCALENUS MUSCULUS, (σκαληνος, a figure with three unequal ſides.) Some call it triangularis. It takes its origin from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the vertebræ colli; it grows larger as it deſcends, and is then collected into two maſſes, the anterior and poſterior; the anterior is inſerted into the inner edge of the firſt rib; on each ſide of this portion, the ſubclavian vein and artery, and the bronchial nerve paſs out; the poſterior part is attached to the poſterior part of the firſt rib, and partly runs to the ſecond; its office is to raiſe thoſe two ribs, and to move the vertebræ colli to one ſide.

SCALPO. To ſcalp. To lay the ſkull bare is called ſcalping. The operation is performed by making an inciſion through the integuments and pericranium equally and at once: in doing this, uſe the edge of the knife rather than the point, eſpecially if a fracture is ſuſpected. After making the inciſion, raiſe the pericranium a little from the bone with the edge of the knife, and to clear the bone uſe the ſcalprum.

In purſuing a fiſſure, a rectilinear inciſion is the beſt; and in moſt other caſes, an oval one is to be preferred. Arnaud and Gooch both give inſtances of their having made a crucial inciſion upon the temporal muſcle with good ſucceſs, the muſcle ſtill continuing its action. See Gooch's Treatiſe of Wounds, p. 253.

SCALPRUM, from *ſcalpo, to raſp or raiſe*. A denticular, or raſpatory; it is alſo called a rugine. It is any kind of iron inſtrument with which you may raſp or ſcrape a rotten bone, &c. Sometimes the word *ſcalprum* means a little chiſſel for amputating the fingers with.

SCAMMONIUM. Scammony. The natives of Aleppo call it mahmoody. The beſt is brought from Aleppo, an inferior ſort from Smyrna. It is the produce of the convolvulus foliis ſagittalis poſtice truncatis, pedunculis biſloris. Roy. Lugd. b. 427, Mat. Med. Convolvulus ſcammonia vel Syriacus, or convolvulus Syriacus, ſeu ſcammonia Syriaca, foliis ſagittatis poſtice truncatis, pedunculis teretibus ſubtriſloris, floribus pallidi luteis, Linn. Syrian bind-weed, or *ſcammony*. The root is very long, and about three or four inches thick. In the month of June they cut the tops of the roots, as they are in the ground, and from this inciſion there flows a milky liquor, which is received in ſhells, &c. and which growing hard by its thinner parts being exhaled in the warm air, is the gummy reſin, called *ſcammony*.

The gummy reſin is brought to us in light ſpongy maſſes, gloſſy, of different ſhades from a grey or yellow white, almoſt to a black; when broken it appears bright and ſhining; it eaſily crumbles between the fingers; if it is touched with a wetted finger it becomes milky; and if it is broken, and put into a glaſs of water, it diſſolves into a milky liquor of a greeniſh caſt. An inferior ſort is brought from Smyrna, which burns the mouth more than that from Aleppo does. Though different parcels of *ſcammony* vary ſo much in their colour whilſt in the lump, when powdered they are all of them of a browniſh white colour.

Chuſe ſuch as eaſily crumbles between the fingers, is pellucid, grows inſtantly white on being wetted, and that leaves but little feces when diſſolved.

It is adulterated with wheat flour, ſand, aſhes, &c. to diſcover which, the beſt method is to diſſolve it in water, and let it ſtand a while; thus the *ſcammony* will be ſuſpended in the water, and the impurities will ſink. The ſooner it diſſolves, and the leſs there is of ſediment, the purer it is.

It loſes its virtue by being carcleſsly kept.

It is a very briſk purge, and uſually given to carry off redundant ſerous humours in cold phlegmatic conſtitutions. Like aloes, it ſeems to act more by ſuſing the humours, than by a ſtimulus in the firſt paſſages.

Inflammatory diſorders are increaſed, and very irritable habits are injured by it. It is given from gr. iii. to ʒ i. for a doſe. It needs no corrector, though ſome expoſe it to the fumes of burning ſulphur, but thus they render it inert. It conſiſts of about equal parts, reſin and gum; whence it diſſolves equally in water and in ſpirit.

The London college directs a compound powder, and an electary, in which *ſcammony* is the principal ingredient; it is called e electo ſcammonio, but formerly it was named electo. caryocoſtinum. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works. Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. i. p. 13, &c.

SCAPHA. In anatomy it is the external circumference of the ear, oppoſite to the helix.

SCAPHA. It is a double headed roller, of about two fingers breadth, for ſecuring the compreſs after bleeding any part of the head.

SCAPHOIDES. (Os). from σκαφη, a *ſkiff*, or *little veſſel*, and εἶδος, *form*. The firſt bone of the firſt row in the wriſt is thus called by the Greeks; the Latins call it naviculare. It is articulated to the thumb. In infants it is wholly cartilaginous; ſome call it os cymbæ, and os cymbiforme; alſo the third bone of the tarſus.

SCAPULA. The ſhoulder-blade. It is a triangular bone, ſituated on the outſide of the ribs, extending from the ſecond to the ſeventh; its ſides are unequal; the poſterior ſide or baſis is the longeſt, the inferior coſta is ſhorter, and the ſuperior coſta is the ſhorteſt. The body of this bone is concave towards the ribs, and convex behind, where it is called dorſum. Three proceſſes proceed from the ſcapula, 1. The Corocoid, which ſee. 2. The ſpine; it ariſes from the poſterior convex ſurface, and divides it unequally; it riſes ſmall at the baſe, and becomes higher and broader as it advances. The extremities of it are broad and flat, and hang over the cavity of the os humeri. To this part of the ſpine, which is called acromion, the clavicle is articulated. 3. The third proceſs is produced from the neck of the bone; this is hollowed on its anterior part by a glenoid cavity, which hath an acute extremity above, and an acute one below.

SCAPULARIA. The ſcapulary. See Deligatio.

SCAPULARIÆ ARTERIÆ. The ſcapulary arteries. The external *ſcapulary artery* paſſes through the notch in the ſuperior coſta of the ſcapula, to the muſculus ſupra ſpinatus & infra ſpinatus, teres major & minor, alſo to the articulation of the ſcapula with the humerus.

The internal *ſcapulary artery* ariſes from the axillary, near the axilla, and runs backward to be diſtributed to the ſubſcapularis, giving branches to the ſerratus major, the axillary glands, the teres major, &c.

The ſuperior *ſcapulary artery* is a branch from the ſubclavian; it runs downwards to the inſide of the clavicle; it follows the tract of that bone, and goes to the adjacent muſcles.

SCARIFICATIO, from σκαριφος, a *little knife*. Scarification. The word generally ſignifies thoſe inciſions that are made with the inſtrument, called a ſcarificator, and which is uſed in the operation called cupping. See Cucurbitula, and Anasarca.

SCARLATINA ANGINOSA. A ſymptomatic kind of quinſy. By different writers it is named angina mucoſa, the mucous quinſy, febris *anginoſa*, cynanche exanthematica, angina eryſipelatoſa, amphimerina *anginoſa*, &c.

It chiefly affects young people, and women; ſometimes it attacks the aged of both ſexes. In large families and ſchools, when it begins, it ſeldom paſſes any one there except the robuſt.

In this kind of *quinſy* the tumour is leſs than in the inflammatory *quinſy*; there is great redneſs in the part; when ulcers appear they are very ſlight and free from all the malignant ſymptoms of the putrid ſore throat; it is more of the inflammatory kind than of the putrid, and the inflammation is of the erythematous ſpecies. Dr. Grant obſerves, that uſually the pain in the throat is a very early ſymptom, attending before the rigor, though now and then inſtead of pain in the throat there is perhaps a foreneſs of the tongue, or a degree of ſalivation in the courſe of the diſeaſe; an efflorescence often appears on the arms, but ſometimes they ſwell without the efflorescence. For the moſt part the appearance of ulcerous ſloughs, is no more than an inflammatory exudation on the parts about the fauces, and may eaſily be waſhed off. The tongue often appears as if glazed, and is tender, ſwelled, and affected with pain. Uſually it arrives at its height in about ſeven days, and in a fortnight the patient is perfectly recovered.

It ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from a catarrh; from the inflammatory *quinſy*; from the putrid *quinſy*, and from the thruſh.

If the pulſe is large, ſoft, and not above one hundred in a minute, the danger is not conſiderable. The ſalivation is very ſalutary; as ſoon as it is well eſtabliſhed, the danger is over.

This fever is cauſed and kept up by contagious particles; to attempt their expulſion by opening all the natural emunctories is the principal curative intention.

When the habit is good and ſymptoms ſlight, a few doſes of R. rhab. and cr. tart. with a draught now and then of weak wine whey, is all that can be uſeful. The degree of the diſtemper demands the firſt attention. If inflammation is conſiderable, bleed, more or leſs freely as circumſtances determine; and this at any period of the diſeaſe. Emetics and purgatives are of principal uſe, when the ſeaſon is favourable to bilious and putrid diſeaſes. In the early part of the diſeaſe, a kindly perſpiration is peculiarly ſalutary, which ſhould if poſſible be kept up at leaſt to the fifth day, when it uſually is convenient to open the bowels a little. When the ſalivation commences, improve the diet; a little wine ſhould be added to the ſuppings. Mild antiſeptics are often now required, which may be accompanied with ſome light preparation of the bark; it may be proper to be cautious of an early uſe of the bark, as it checks thoſe diſcharges that are obſerved to be ſo ſalutary, and rather increaſes the ſwelling of the parts affected. At any period of the diſeaſe, if the ſwallowing is difficult, apply a bliſter round the throat.

Sometimes bleeding is improper; when warm ſuppings, moderate diaphoretics, and gentle purgatives are to be preferred. Sometimes the parotid and maxillary glands ſwell, and are hard; if bleeding can be admitted, it may be recommended; if not, repeat proper purging once in two or three days. Sometimes the noſe bleeds; in which caſe, if the head is much affected with pains, the ſkin hot and dry, the breathing difficult, the pulſe hard, and not immoderately quick, bleeding will be a moſt neceſſary ſtep.

When from the ſeaſon, &c. bleeding cannot be prudently encouraged, the tart. emet. is ſingularly uſeful, given ſo as to vomit and purge. When the pulſe is ſmall and ſoft, the rigor great at the firſt attack, the conſequent heat conſiderable, be careful early to clear the primæ viæ; thus, the pulſe riſes, a kindly perſpiration comes on, which may be ſupported to thirty-ſix or forty-eight hours, or as required; then give a gentle purge as above noticed, when the ſalivation appears.

A relapſe ſometimes approaches with pain in the feet and hands; in which caſe wrap the parts pained in flannels, and promote a gentle perſpiration. Antimonials are efficacious when perſpiratives are required in any period of this diſeaſe: but the ſp. Mind. ſeems generally to deſerve the preference.

Emollient and gently detergent gargles are valuable aids for relieving the uneaſineſs, &c. in the throat.

Bliſters on the throat are often objected to on account of the mark they leave in the ſkin; in thoſe caſes firſt apply a bliſter between the ſhoulders, and when its diſcharge begins to decline, apply one behind each ear, and down the ſides of the neck.

Huxham treats on this diſeaſe, under the name of Febris *anginoſa*. See alſo Dr. Wm. Fordyce's New Enquiry into the Cauſe of Fevers; Dr. Wm. Grant's Obſervations on the *Angina* maligna Ulceroſa.

SCARLATINA, vel SCARLATINA FEBRIS. The ſcarlet fever. It is ſo called from the colour of the patient's ſkin, which appears as if tinged with red wine. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order exanthemata. He diſtinguiſhes two ſpecies. 1. *Scarlatina* ſimplex; that is when not accompanied with any ſpecies of quinſy. 2. *Scarlatina* cynanchia; when accompanied with the ulcerated quinſy. Sydenham obſerves, that children are its moſt frequent ſubjects, and that when it is epidemical, it is uſually ſo at the cloſe of the ſummer. It begins with a chilline ſs and ſhivering; after which the whole ſkin is covered with red ſpots, which are more numerous, larger, and redder, but not ſo uniform as thoſe of the meaſles. Theſe ſpots continue two or three days, and after they vaniſh, and the ſkin is ſcaled off, there remains a kind of branny ſcales diſperſed over the body, which fall off, and come again, two or three times ſucceſſively.

It ſeldom requires much aſſiſtance from art, except there is an approach to that putrid ſtate to which it inclines in the advanced degrees. Bleeding is rarely required. The patient may be kept in his room, but not much in bed; his drink may be acidulated with the ſpirit of vitriol, or with Clutton's febrifuge ſpirit; and if a ſtool is required, rhubarb will be the moſt convenient; when the ſkin peels off a more active purge may be given.

Sometimes a coma, or an epilepſy, happens in the beginning of the diſeaſe, in which caſe apply a bliſter to the back. When it is attended with more malignant ſymptoms, its tendency is to the putrid kind of fever, with ulcers, &c. in the throat. Here bliſters, which may be applied to the back and throat, with the bark, are the chief dependencies, and, as in the putrid ſore thrort, acids and cordial perſpiratives may accompany the bark. Antimonial preparations, which are ſo generally uſeful in fevers, in this caſe are apt to occaſion a purging.

See Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham's Works; Obſ. on a late particular Scarlet Fever, by N. Cotton, M. D.

SCARLATINA URTICATA Acute nettle raſh.

SCELETOS, from *σκέλλω, to make dry.* A ſkeleton. All the bones of an animal freed from the teguments, veſſels, muſcles &c. and properly connected, have the general name of ſkeleton. There are two ſorts, viz. the natural, and the artificial; the firſt of theſe is when the bones are kept together by their own ligaments; the ſecond is when they are joined with wire.

SCELOTYRBE. It ſignifies thoſe pains in the legs that generally attend ſcorbutic habits; whence it is frequently uſed for the ſcurvy itſelf; and alſo applied to ſome medicines contrived againſt ſuch diſorders. It is often expreſſive of the chorea ſancti viti.

SCELOTYRBE FESTINANS. Idiopathic convulſion.

SCELOTYRBE VERMINOSA. A kind of ſymptomatic convulſion.

SCIRRUS. See SCIRRHUS.

SCIATICA. See RHEUMATISMUS. It is the rheumatiſm when ſeated in the hip.

SCIATICA ARTERIA. It is a branch of the hypogaſtrica; it runs under, and gives branches to the muſculus pyriformis, quadrigemini, and the os ſacrum, and to the inner ſide of the os iſchium; it paſſes obliquely over the ſciatic nerve; and as they both go through the great poſterior ſinus of the os ileum, it detaches ſmall arteries, which are diſtributed to the inner ſubſtances of the nerve: afterwards it runs up in a radiated manner, on the outſide of the os ilium, and is diſtributed to the inner ſubſtance of that bone, and to the muſculi glutæi, eſpecially to the medius and minimus.

SCIATICA VENA. When the crural vein hath deſcended to about the upper extremity of the muſculus vaſtus internus, it produces a branch which runs down on the ſide of the trunk, covering the crural artery almoſt down to the ham, where it is again united to the trunk by an anaſtomoſis; and ſometimes it is continued a little way down on the leg. It is called the ſciatic vein, from accompanying the ſciatic nerve.

SCIATICUS NERVUS. See LUMBARES.

SCILLA. The ſquill, or ſea onion. Scilla maritima, or ſcilla Hiſpanica, foliis lanceolatis ſtrictis, ſcapo longiſſimo multiflоro, floribus albis & nudis, bracteis refractis. radice alba, Linn. It is a plant with a large bulbous root, like that of an onion, which is very acrid. The leaves are broad, the flowers are like thoſe of the ornithogalus, and grow in a ſpike before the leaves appear. There are two ſpecies which are uſed indifferently, viz. the red and the white, Boerhaave mentions a third ſort.

Epimenides taught Pythagoras the uſe of *ſquills*, and the vinegar prepared with them; and Pythagoras made the vinegar into an oxymel.

This plant grows on ſandy ſhores in Spain and the Levant, from whence we have them. Chuſe ſuch roots as are large, plump, freſh, and of a clammy juice. To the taſte they are naufeous, bitter, and acrid; if much handled they exulcerate the ſkin. Internally they are a powerful attenuant and aperient; in doſes of a few grains they promote expectoration and urine; indeed when ſquills are given as a diuretic, the doſe is a true one that will ſit eaſy on the ſtomach, but ſmall doſes excite expectoration moſt effectually; in larger doſes it is purgative or emetic. They powerfully diſſolve tough phlegm, and promote its diſcharge; whence their ſingular uſefulneſs in the humoural aſthma; but if the lungs are inflamed, the ſquills muſt be omitted until after bleeding and cooling antiphlogiſtics are uſed. In dropſies, begin with a ſmall doſe, and gradually increaſe it, but ſo as not to paſs off by ſtool.

On account of their offenſive taſte, the beſt form is pills; and to prevent the naufea which they excite, when not intended either as an emetic or an expectorant, a few grains of ſome agreeable aromatic may be added to each doſe, or it may be made up with the freſh root of elecampane.

Water, wine, proof ſpirit, rectified ſpirit, and vinegar, extract the virtues both of the freſh and the dry *ſquills*; but none of them carry any thing with them by diſtillation; ſo that in the extract made from the decoction, the whole of the active parts are retained. Alcalies abate both their bitterneſs and acrimony; vegetable acids make very little alteration in either, but they improve their expectorating quality.

The London college directs the two following preparations: Acetum ſcilliticum, and the oxymel ſcilliticum. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

SCINCUS. The ſcink or ſkink. It is a ſmall amphibious animal of the lizard kind; it is caught about the Nile. The fleſh of this animal hath been in much eſteem as a diuretic, alexipharmic, &c. but it is now neglected.

SCIRRHUS, from *σκίρρος*, to harden. A *ſcirrhus* is a hard tumor, with little or no ſenſation remaining in it. Galen Comment in Aph. xxxiv. ſect iv. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales and order tumores. Dr. Aitkin reckons the phyſconia (a genus in Dr. Cullen's ſyſtem) a ſpecies of *ſcirrhus*. The ſarcocele he includes as another ſpecies. The ſeat of this kind of tumor is uſually ſome glandular part; not but ſome other may alſo, and ſometimes is thus diſordered. Dr. Cullen defines a *ſcirrhus* to be a hard tumor, of a part for the moſt part of a gland, not painful, and difficultly ſuppurating. The fluids in the glands being inſpiſſated, increaſe in hardneſs, and form a *ſcirrhus*; or the contents of the lymphatic veſſels in the liver, or other parts coagulating, gradually harden, and form the like. It is probable that *ſcirrhuſes* are formed by too free bleeding; for thus the circulation may be ſo diminiſhed in its force as not duly to affect the ſmaller veſſels, and thus obſtructions may be formed, which end in *ſcirrhuſes*.

All perſons, and at any age, may be the ſubjects of this diſorder; but the ſedentary, and more particularly women, when their menſes decline, and ſometimes indeed at their approach, are moſt frequently thus diſordered.

From the moſt attentive examination, it appears that the matter of theſe tumors is inſpiſſated lymph. They often ariſe without any previous inflammation from the proper fluid ſtagnating in the gland, or extravaſation from contuſion, &c. Sometimes it happens when a gland is the ſeat of an inflammation, and the inflammation terminates without coming to ſuppuration.

Externally they are perceived by the touch. Internally the evidences are obſcure, but if the cauſes of a *ſcirrhus* have occurred, and if ſome defects attends to which we may impute a *ſcirrhus* as the cauſe, the exiſtence of one may be ſuſpected.

Though a *ſcirrhus* does not always become cancerous, yet cancers are moſt frequently only *ſcirrhuſes* in their beginnings. The effects of a *ſcirrhus* will be various, and very different, according to the part it affects, and the functions which it injures. By preſſing on the vena cava, a mortification in the legs has been produced; by preſſing on certain nerves, epileptic fits have been produced. If all the glands in the neck are indurated, thoſe of the meſentery will be ſo too, in which caſe a cure is not to be expected. A *ſcirrhus* in the liver produces a jaundice, which is difficult, and often impoſſible to cure, and this jaundice is followed by a dropſy. A *ſcirrhus* may ſo preſs upon the thoracic duct as to occaſion a fatal atrophy. Whether a *ſcirrhus* is ſeated internally or externally, if it is affected by acrid humours, or inflammation, being thereby heated, it becomes cancerous.

If an attempt is made towards the cure of a *ſcirrhus*, we ſhould be certain that it is recent and not yet quite hardened, and that it is in its benign ſtate, i. e. that it is free from itching, heat, or pain; for, after the appearance of any of theſe circumſtances, nothing but a palliative cure can be admitted of, except the knife can be prudently uſed. In the earlier ſtate of an external *ſcirrhus*, gentle

mercurials

mercurials are uſed internally, but with caution not to irritate; externally, cooling and anodyne applications only are to be employed; ſuch as the aq. ſaturn. of Goulard; the *ſcirrhous* part ſhould be covered with ſoft leather to prevent the cloaths from irritating it; whatever heats, ſoftens, or can tend to produce a ſuppuration muſt be carefully avoided; a ſolution of ſal ammoniac in vinegar is applied externally as a reſolvent; ſome apply the vapours of vinegar to the tumid part. If a *ſcirrhus* is ſmall, and continues of the ſame ſize, do nothing; if it ſuppurates, increaſes, and is detached, extirpate it with the knife. Some good practitioners adviſe to extirpate theſe tumors as ſoon as they ſeem to reſiſt the effect of gentle means made uſe of for reſolving them, and that before any ſymptoms of their becoming cancerous appear. For correcting the faulty ſtate of the fluids, and for reſolving *ſcirrhous* obſtructions, the merc. cor. A. given ſo as not to ſalivate, contributes much, if the bark, and the extr. cicutæ, accompany it; their united efficacy is ſometimes ſuch as cannot be produced by any two of them without the third.

What is here ſaid of a *ſcirrhus* in general is applicable to a *ſcirrhus* in any external part; however, as there are ſome peculiarities from their ſituation, it may be proper to take notice of ſome of them.

A *ſcirrhus* may affect the ſebaceous glands of the ſkin, particularly about the face and lips, where it is ſo very irritable, that whatever is applied occaſions great pain, and therefore is called noli me tangere. Here Mr. Plunket's medicine (ſee CANCER) may do well if the caſe be recent; but it ſhould never be uſed unleſs we can remove the whole tumor. If we cannot affect this, we are at firſt flattered with the hopes of a cure, but the diſeaſe ſoon re-appears in another ſtate, which carries off the patient. In ſhort, whilſt *ſcirrhous* tumors are looſe, entirely free from pain, and the figure of the tumid gland is unchanged, whether the cauſtic or the knife are uſed, ſucceſs may reaſonably be expected, whether the ſituation of the diſordered gland is in the face, or any where elſe in the reach of thoſe means of relief.

A *ſcirrhus* in the breaſt. Whether the breaſts of women are glandular or not, their ſtructure is ſuch, that indurated tumors are formed in them. Some tumors in the breaſt reſemble a true *ſcirrhus*; but in time they inflame, ſuppurate, and end favourably; and it is not eaſy to give the diſcriminating ſigns with preciſion enough to be depended on in the beginning. It may be obſerved that a genuine *ſcirrhus* ſeldom occaſions uneaſineſs, except it becomes cancerous; and when an inveterate *ſcirrhus* ſeizes the breaſt, the ſubaxillary glands are generally indurated too. The breaſts are ſometimes rendered *ſcirrhous* by the imprudent application of the ſpirit of wine to them; about the ceſſation of the menſes, the breaſts of many women are thus affected.

A *ſcirrhus* in the inteſtines. After an inflammation in theſe parts, a *ſcirrhous* may be formed, in which caſe there will be a ſtupor, a ſenſe of weight, and a conſtant diſtraction perceived where it is ſeated. There will be a leſſening of the cavity of the inteſtines as the bulk of the tumor increaſes; the chyle and the fæces ſtagnate there; at length the iliac paſſion, or ſome other violent ſymptom, puts an end to the patient's miſery. In ſuch a caſe, if any palliative remedy moderates the uneaſineſs and retards the growth of the tumor, that will be all that medicine can effect.

A *ſcirrhus* liver. A part of the liver, or its whole ſyſtem, may become *ſcirrhous*. Theſe tumors in this part generally are ſmall in their beginning, and are gradually increaſed; when they inflame they occaſion feveriſhneſs, and the general health is much diſordered; but theſe ſymptoms vaniſh, and for a time the health ſeems to be reſtored; the intervals of theſe inflammations become ſhorter, and then the appetite and fleſh fail, a little cough comes on, and a hiccough, ſometimes with, ſometimes without, bring on death; in ſome all this happens in a few months; in others it takes up ſeveral years. If the inflammation is in the internal parts of the liver, the pain is ſometimes too little to be regarded; but happening on the external parts, it extends to the diaphragms, or other adjacent parts, and in this caſe the patient generally lies on his right ſide. In the advanced ſtate of theſe *ſcirrhi*, the blood will guſh out freely from the noſe, ſtomach, navel, and with the ſtools; in the worſt of theſe caſes, though the countenance is of a leaden colour, yet ſometimes there will not be any ſigns of a jaundice; for this ſymptom does not happen except the ducts are compreſſed by the *ſcirrhus*, ſo as to hinder the paſſage of the ſecreted gall through the common gall duct. An indurated liver is often very evidently diſtinguiſhable by applying the hand to the region of it. As to other ſigns that attend a *ſcirrhus* liver, they alſo accompany other diſorders, ſo determine nothing in this caſe.

But whether it happens that a *ſcirrhus* is ſeated in the liver, ſpleen, or the pancreas, certainly to diſtinguiſh them ſeems to be but of little moment, as little or nothing more can be done towards relief than what the common cure of the hectic fever requires, whether it ariſes from this, or from any other cauſe. In the beginning, and whilſt the diſorder is ſlight, perhaps a free uſe of graſs roots, endive, ſuccory, and whey, uſed as a diet, might be of ſome uſe; but in the more advanced degree, no cures are performed, except by an inflammation ending in ſuppuration, and the abſceſs burſting where the matter can be carried directly out of the body, as when the matter is emptied into the hæpatic duct, or through the ſide of the belly, which laſt may happen when the liver adheres thereto.

A *ſcirrhus* in the tongue. A tumor of this kind ſometimes happens in this part, and remains many years indolent; in which caſe avoid all attempts to remove it, as it may eaſily be made to become cancerous. If it ſhould become painful, and is moveable, diſſect it out; but if immoveable, cut away a part of the ſound fleſh with it; dreſs the wound with the honey of roſes and balſam of Peru.

A *ſcirrhous* tonſil. This can no way be managed with advantage, except by means of the ligature, as recommended by Mr. Sharp. See his Operations and his Critical Enquiry.

A *ſcirrhous* womb. This is one of the opprobriums of medicine; it always degenerates into a cancer, and deſtroys the patient.

See Aretæus de Method. Medend. l. 14. c. 4. Galen's Meth. Med. l. 14. c. 5. Abraham Kaau's Diſſert. de Scirrho. Boerhaave's Aph. with Van Swieten's Comment. Heiſter's Surgery. Riverius's Prax. Med. Dr. Heberden's Obſ. in the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 143.

SCLEROPHTHALMIA. See XEROPHTHALMIA EROPHTHALMIA.

SCLEROTICA, from *σκληρος, hard*. Of the proper coats of the eye, the tunica *ſclerotica* is the outermoſt. This, in the poſterior and far greater part of its circumference, is white and opake; but in the anterior is tranſparent, and takes the name of cornea. The remarkable whiteneſs which this coat appears to have, is from the expanſion of the tendons of the muſcles, which move the eye over its fore part; this tendinous expanſion, though called tunica albuginea, is not properly a coat of the eye; for it, like the conjunctive, is only partially ſpread over its forepart. See CORNEA.

SCLOPETOPLAGA, from *ſclopetum, a gun*, and *plaga, a wound*. It is a ſpecies of vulnus, though ſome writers make it a genus of diſeaſe. This kind of *wound* is a contuſed *wound* in the higheſt degree. The ancients ſuppoſed theſe to be of a malignant, poiſonous nature from gunpowder; hence warm antiſeptics, &c. were uſed; but the ill effects of *gun*-ſhot *wounds*, are owing to contuſion, laceration, &c. and require the moſt lenient methods to be purſued; ſuch as relaxing the parts by an emollient cataplaſm; and if there is but one ſmall opening, to enlarge it for a free diſcharge of matter, or to be able to extract foreign bodies, if it can be done eaſily; but, if by endeavours to remove them, you are likely to irritate, or give great pain, it will be beſt to wait until the inflammation, &c. is gone, and ſuppuration eſtabliſhed; by which means you will have a larger opening, and extract any extraneous body more eaſily; for, at firſt, the orifice of a *wound* through which a ball hath entered by its contraction, is always exceeding ſmall before ſuppuration commences.

Amongſt the many peculiarities from *gun*-ſhot *wounds*, ſee a remarkable one in the article FRACTURA, and the diviſion, a fractured leg.

Moſt limbs are taken off in the field of battle, and few

of them recover. It is beſt to perform as few operations as poſſible in theſe caſes; and, if you can, leave thoſe few until ſome time after they have been wounded, as moſt of theſe, where amputation is performed immediately, die of the operation, as indeed they do in all caſes where it is performed in high health. Limbs ſhould not be amputated in the field if they can poſſibly be avoided. The inflammation ſhould firſt be allowed to go off; and if ever from the nature of the *wound*, the inflammation that we ſuppoſe ſhould attend it, ſhould be imagined to hazard the patient's life, this ſhould not be a ſufficient reaſon for amputation, becauſe the operation will more than hazard his life in ſuch a ſituation, and in ſuch a ſtate, as experience evinces.

The joints having been maſhed by external force, or a ball having paſſed through them, ſeldom do well without amputation, eſpecially if there is a great laceration of the ligaments, and a diſcharge of the ſynovia, with the admiſſion of the external air; for the violent inflammation, ſloughing, and diſcharge, bring on a hectic fever, which with colliquative ſweats, from the abſorption of matter, will carry him off.

It may be further obſerved, that injuries from ſmall ſhot are rarely ſo prejudicial to the bones, as thoſe from larger ſhot; from theſe laſt, the bones are generally ſplit or ſplintered, and require that amputation be performed above the joint of the part where the injury is received, if poſſible.

Thoſe who aſſert, that amputation ſhould be quickly performed, when rendered neceſſary from *gun-ſhot wounds*, advance the following reaſons: 1. When the injury is from large ſhot. 2. When violent ſymptoms comes on. 3. When violent ſymptoms are overcome by medicines, yet there is ſtill a neceſſity for amputation; theſe form the three ſtages from this kind of injury: and when it happens that a patient paſſes through the firſt and ſecond, except perhaps one in one hundred, he is taken off in the third ſtage.

SCOLOPENDRIUM, alſo called lingua cervina. Harts tongue. It is the aſplenium *ſcolopendrium*, or aſplenium frondibus ſimplicibus cordato-lingulatis integerimis, ſtipitibus hirſutis. Linn. See LINGUA CERVINA.

SCOPULA. A bruſh. The fleſh *bruſh* promotes a briſk circulation, and free perſpiration. Perſons with weak nerves, the ſedentary and paralytic, ſhould ſupply the want of exerciſe with half an hour's rubbing every night and morning.

SCORBUTUS. The ſcurvy. By the ancients it is called ſtomacace, and ſcelotyrbe, becauſe of theſe ſymptoms that attend it. Hippocrates deſcribes it under the name of the diſeaſes of the ſpleen, in his De Intern. Affect. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs cachexiæ, and order impetigines.

The *ſcurvy* is a chronical diſorder of the putrid kind, and when a fever attends it, is called the putrid fever, which ſee.

The immediate cauſe is the ſame wtih thoſe that produce the putrid fever, that is, putreſcence. The mediate and more remote cauſes are whatever leſſen the vis vitæ, too little or an improper kind of food, a damp air, living in marſhy countries, various kinds of acrid matter in the blood, a long uſe of mercury; in the navy, a ſolution of copper from want of care to clean the veſſels in which their food is boiled; animal diet which is not well preſerved with ſalt; infection, &c.

The preſence of this diſorder is known by a pale, or a yellowiſh complexion, which gradually grows darker; a melancholy dejection of ſpirit, a laſſitude, a ſtiffneſs in the joints, a feebleneſs in the knees, and on uſing the leaſt exerciſe there is great weakneſs, with a difficulty of breathing; the gums ſoon after begin to itch, ſwell, and bleed, on gently being rubbed, and have an unuſual livid redneſs; they are ſoft, ſpongy, putrid and fungous; this change in the gums, Dr. Lind ſeems to think, is the pathognomonic ſymptom of the diſeaſe. Hæmorrhages alſo happen in other parts: the ſkin feels dry, except in the laſt ſtage of the diſeaſe, when a cold clammy moiſture may be obſerved on the ſkin. In ſome the ſkin is rough, but generally it is ſmooth and ſhining, and covered with many ſpots, as if bruiſed; theſe are of a yellow or reddiſh colour, and as the diſeaſe increaſes they become blacker. In ſome the ankles ſwell towards the evening, and are ſettled again in the morning. Many other ſymptoms occur, but they are accidental. If a ſcorbutic diarrhœa comes on, and there is a pain in the breaſt, it is generally fatal. Ulcerated lungs are a frequent conſequence of the *ſcurvy*: the ſtools are very offenſive: the urine ſpeedily becomes putrid. In the ſecond ſtage, the patient ſometimes loſes the uſe of his limbs, the flexor tendons in the hams are contracted, the patient frequently faints upon the leaſt motion; and on being ſuddenly moved into the freſh air, it ſometimes happens that he expires. Hæmorrhages from the lungs, inteſtines, &c. now are frequently happening: but the appetite is often good, though the ſpirits are low. The third ſtage hath many violent, and uſually fatal ſymptoms.

The *ſcurvy* ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from the ileum cruentum, the black jaundice, hypochondriac and melancholic diſorders, ſome ſymptoms of the lues venerea, and ſcorbutic cachexy.

The indications of cure are, to ſtop the progreſs of putrefaction, and totally to remove it; ſecondly, to ſtrengthen the habit in general.

If bad waters are the cauſe, or improper food, they muſt be changed for that which is more ſalutary; the air in the patient's room muſt be regulated by ſuch methods as will render it dry and warm. Fixed air communicated to the water which the patient drinks; an infuſion of malt, as recommended by Dr. Mac Bride; the bark in doſes as large as will be eaſy in the ſtomach, and repeat them two or three times a day. The elixir of vitriol may be given frequently in the patient's drink; theſe and other antiputrefcents, or ſuch means as are uſed in the putrid fever, will be the principal ones here.

If the patient is cold, pale faced, and hath ſwelled legs; if his thirſt is not great, he may take four or ſix ſpoonfuls of the following three or four times a day: ℞ rad. raph. hort. ʒ iv. fol. cochl. trifol. palud. ā m. ii. ſalvia. m. i. vin. alb. ℔ vi. m.

If, on the contrary, there is a feveriſh heat, thirſt, ſome difficulty in breathing, and the gums are putrid: ℞ rad. lapath. acut. ʒ i. crem. tart. ʒ iii. coq. per hora ſs. in lact. vac. ℔ iii. & colaturæ adde mel. brit. ℥ i. m. cap. ʒ iii. ter. die.

The roots of the herba Britannica, or the great water-dock, is much extolled in this diſorder.

Particular care is required to promote the diſcharges through the ſkin, and by the kidnies. And as to particular ſymptoms, ſome of the chief of which are as follow, they may be managed by theſe or ſuch like methods: the ſpongy gums may be waſhed with a decoction of the bark acidulated with the ſp. ſal. marin. and ulcers ſpread in the mouth, touch them now and then with the mel roſar. acidulated with the ſp. ſal. marin. If a ſalivation comes on, divert it by bliſters on different part of the body, ſinapiſms to the ſoles of the feet and hams, and, if poſſible, excite a perſpiration; for the ſtricture of the ſkin is the chief cauſe of this ſymptom, and here boluſes of camphor and theriaca may be repeated every four or ſix hours. If the legs are œdematous, uſe gentle frictions. Ulcers in the legs, &c. may be treated as thoſe in the mouth are. In caſe of hæmorrhages, the mineral acids may be given at proper intervals. When a fever attends, the dulcified mineral acids, or Clutton's febrifuge ſpirit, may be joined with ſuch other medicines as the peculiarity of the caſe requires. But though ſome advantage may be obtained by theſe particular adminiſtrations and applications, yet all theſe and the reſt of the ſymptoms diſappear in proportion as ſucceſs follows the general method of cure.

Dr. George Fordyce obſerves, that the *ſcurvy* is taken off or prevented by ſuch food as is capable of being digeſted properly. Putrefaction of the fluid never produces a diſeaſe of itſelf, but only ſymptoms depending upon this; for when theſe ſymptoms are taken off, the patient recovers; and we ſometimes ſee in putrid fevers, where the patient is conſiderably weakened, ſo that in all probability he could not ſurvive many hours, yet there hath been a ſudden alteration take place: the ſymptoms of putrefaction immediately ſubſide, and the patient recovers; if then we could give proper food, we might be able to prevent it, and could always cure it, when it hath taken place. In order to the cure, any ſuch looſe food that hath no medical pro-

perty is of great ſervice; and the moſt powerful are thoſe of the tetradynamia claſs, ſuch as cabbages, turneps, &c. for, firſt, they produce a fermentation in the ſtomach, and become acid. Secondly, they contain a quantity of eſſential oil, which makes the matter ſoon evacuated out of the body. We ſhould then make choice of ſuch food as this. Beſides theſe, there are native vegetable acids or aceſcent fruits to be got, which likewiſe prove uſeful; but then the difficulty is to find out any vegetable food, that will give a tendency to become acid, that may be kept on board of a ſhip for the uſe of ſailors: there are but few which we can preſerve, and theſe are oranges, lemons, limes, &c. any of theſe, given with animal food, will be of uſe. Sugar is an antiputreſcent, though not ſo powerful as the vegetables; but it was much uſed with food, &c. before vegetables came into uſe. Theſe then are the methods to prevent and to cure putrefaction. Many have uſed remedies as antiputreſcents, to ſtop putrefaction, hence they have given acids, &c. for that purpoſe, but they will not produce that effect. They have a tendency to prevent the peculiar fermentation taking place in the ſtomach, as well as to check putrefactive fermentation; hence vegetable food will not ſtop fermentation, but only tend to alter the mode of the fermentation, and rather tend to convert the ſubſtance into an acid than ſuffer it to putreſy. Another method to relieve from the *ſcurvy*, is to keep up the ſtrength of the ſtomach, which has been of conſiderable ſervice; hence, bark, &c. have been uſed, which are powerful remedies for that purpoſe.

Sir John Pringle, in his Diſcourſe on the Improvements for preſerving the Health of Mariners, ſays, that to know the nature and cauſe of the *ſcurvy*, is an eſſential ſtep to the knowledge of the cure. He ſays, that on examining all the articles which of old have been uſed, and approved of, as well as thoſe which of late have been introduced into the navy, however they vary in their mode of operating, they all ſome way contribute towards preventing or correcting putrefaction. He directs that the men be put to watch at three watches inſtead of two; to this end divide the crew into three companies, and put each company upon the watch by turns, four hours at a time; thus every man hath eight hours free, for four of duty: whereas, when half the men take watch every four hours by turns, they can have but broken ſleep; and when expoſed to wet, they cannot get dry before they lay down. 2dly, To preſerve the men from the injuries of the weather, in hot climes defend them by an awning over the deck; in cold ones, allow extraordinary jackets with a hood; and in wet weather, proper means for drying and ſhifting themſelves. 3dly, Make a point of cleanlineſs; this guards from putrefactions: keep the men's perſons, cloaths, bedding, and births, clean; review the men, and all things belonging to them, and the ſhip, and ſee that all is as clean as can well be. 4thly, Ships ſhould have the means of a conſtant ſupply of freſh water to waſh the men's linen, for ſalt water neither mixes well with ſoap nor dries readily. 5thly, Dry and air the hammocks, bedding, and all bundles, every day that is fair: by the perſpiration of many men, every thing below deck will in twenty-four hours contract an offenſive ſmell. 6thly, Purify the ſhip; ſcrape and waſh the decks; purify the holds, and wells of the pumps; and where the bilge-water is, with fire as follows: light a good quantity of wood, and put it into a proper grate, then carry it ſucceſſively to every part of the ſhip below deck. Wherever fire is, the air neareſt it being heated, becomes ſpecifically lighter; and, by being lighter, riſes and paſſes through the hatch ways into the atmoſphere. The vacant ſpace is filled with the cold air around, and that being heated in its turn, in like manner aſcends, and is replaced by other air as before. Thus by continuing the fire for ſome time in any of the lower apartments, the foul air is in a good meaſure driven out, and the freſh admitted. And probably the acid ſteams of the wood in burning act here as an antiſeptic, and correct the putrid remains of the air. When fire cannot be put down into the well, and carried in other places, it, and the ſhips may be fumigated by gunpowder to remedy the corruption of the air; or burning tar, or other reſinous ſubſtances.

Dr. Hulme communicates fixed air to the ſtomach, &c. as follows: ℞ ſal tart. gr. xv. aq. puræ ℥ iij. f. hauſt. As ſoon as this is ſwallowed, mix and take the following: ℞ aq. puræ ℥ iij. ſpt. vitr. q. ſ. ad ſaturat. ſalis ut in hauſt. precedent. Repeat this four times a day.

The *ſcorbutic* ulcer is alſo called the putrid ulcer. Its diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics are: it affords no good digeſtion, but a thin, fetid, ſanious ſtuff, mixed with blood, which at length hath the true appearance of coagulated gore, lying caked on the ſurface of the ulcer, and is with difficulty wiped off. The fleſh underneath the ſlough is ſoft and ſpongy: if theſe ſloughs are removed by eſcharotics, or the knife, they ſoon return; the edges are generally of a livid colour, and puffed up with excreſcences of proud fleſh, ariſing from below under the ſkin. From compreſſion, the fungus is apt to mortify; and the member always becomes œdematous, painful, and for the moſt part ſpotted. As the *ſcurvy* increaſes in the general habit, the ulcer ſhoots out a ſoft, bloody fungus, which the ſailors call by the name of bullock's liver, which indeed it much reſembles when boiled; it often riſes in a night's time to a great ſize, and, if deſtroyed, will be re-produced to the ſame ſize in twenty-four hours. Theſe ulcers do not ſpeedily affect the bones. The ſlighteſt wounds or bruiſes in ſcorbutic patients degenerate into ſuch ulcers. By their remarkable putridity, they are eaſily diſtinguiſhed from all other kinds of ſores. In ſome inſtances theſe ulcers are attended with ſoft, ſpongy gums.

As an internal medicine when *ſcorbutic* ulcers attend, Dr. Kirkland highly recommends the ſp. ſal. marin. given in water, or mixed with the bark.

Mr. Bell, in his treatiſe on ulcers, obſerves, that the cure of the *ſcorbutic* kind depend much upon the correction of the putrid diatheſis in the ſyſtem: for which purpoſe, vegetables, particularly the aceſcent ones, with milk and whey, are almoſt certain remedies. The different ſecretions, particularly thoſe of the ſkin and bladder, ſhould be gently promoted. In the *ſcurvy*, perſpiration is almoſt quite checked. Gentle laxatives are of uſe, particularly tamarinds, cream of tartar, &c. The beſt external applications are the ungt. Ægyptiac. vel, mel roſar. cum paucul. ſp. vitriol. In the milder inſtances, ſuch as uſually happen in England, the cauſe is more frequently from the want of due nouriſhment; hence what is called the antiſcorbutic courſe will not be required; but in its ſtead, better food and greater plenty of it; a little good wine is a powerful aid. The bark is more uſeful in this than in any other kind of ulcer; it ſhould be given as freely as the ſtomach will admit it. As a dreſſing, pledgits of lint dipped in a ſtrong decoction of the bark will be uſeful in correcting the fætor of the diſcharge, &c. though doubtleſs the carrot poultice by far excels this decoction as a dreſſing. When the fætor from the diſcharge is removed, and the ſloughs only are to be removed, the ungt. Baſil. flav. with merc. cor. rubr. will be the moſt convenient. Generally the cure is finiſhed by means of gentle preſſure. Sometimes an iſſue becomes uſeful. What is ſaid with regard to the treatment of *ſcorbutic* ulcers, is applicable to all ſuch ſores as are in the leaſt connected with a putreſcency of the fluids, from whatever cauſe: thus ſuch as remain after critical abſceſſes that ſucceed to putrid fevers, require the ſame general method of treatment.

See Lind on the *Scurvy*; Shebbear's Theory and Practice of Phyſic; Macbride's Eſſays, eſſ. 4. Boerhaave's Aphoriſms; Sennertus's Tract. de *Scorbuto*; Horſtius's Tract. de *Scorbuto*; Reuſnerus's Exercitat. de *Scorbuto*, Med. Muſ. vol. i. & ii. Hulme on the *Scurvy*; Lewis's Tranſlation of Hoffman's Pract. of Medicine, vol. ii. p. 421. &c.

SCORDIUM, alſo called Triſſago Paluſtris, chamædrys paluſtris caneſcens, water germander. Teucrium ſcordium, or teucrium foliis oblongis ſeſſilibus dentato ſerratis floribus geminis axillaribus pedunculatis, caule diffuſo, odore allii. Linn. Water germander. The flowers are like thoſe of the chamædrys, one or two proceeding from the ala of each leaf. The calyx is tubulated, and the ſmell is like that of garlic. The plant is a trailing one; the leaves are hoary. If the leaves are rubbed betwixt the fingers they yield a moderately ſtrong ſmell of the garlick kind; they are bitter to the taſte; by keeping the herb for ſome

panded fibres of the cremaſter muſcle on each ſide. Betwixt the cuticle and the cutis is the rete mucoſum, as in other parts of the body. Adjoining to the internal ſurface of the ſkin, is a thin covering of a looſe, hollow texture, void of fat, and is the cellular membrane: next, within this cellular ſubſtance is, an apparently thin, muſcular or fleſhy body, called by the Greeks, dartos: a name which it derives from its raw, or excoriated appearance, and not from its uſe of contracting the *ſcrotum*. Immediately within the dartos, is a ſecond cellular ſubſtance, which is more conſiderable than the firſt named portion. The membrana cellularis externa *ſcroti* admits of a paſſage to the fleſhy fibres of the dartos muſcle; which fibres are attached to, or connected with, the internal ſurface of the cutis; the dartos likewiſe admits of a paſſage to the filaments of the internal cellular membrane; ſo that the two cellular membranes are obſerved to communicate. Upon the external ſurface of the *ſcrotum* is a prominent line or ridge, termed raphe. The direction, or courſe of the raphe is perpendicular or longitudinal, and it is continued from the anus to the extremity of the penis on its inferior part. The raphe divides the external ſurface of the *ſcrotum*; pretty nearly into two equal portions. The *ſcrotum* forms two diſtinct bags; one for each teſticle, and its immediate tunics, or coats. Theſe bags are formed by a duplicature of the part called the dartos; and they are ſituated on each ſide of the raphe of the *ſcrotum*. The bags being thus formed, are laterally connected to each other, by the intervention of a cellular membrane. This union or connection of the ſides of the dartos conſtitutes that partition, which by anatomiſts is denominated ſeptum *ſcroti*. The ſeptum *ſcroti*, on its inferior part, is connected to the internal ſurface of the cutis, immediately under the raphe; on its ſuperior part, this ſeptum is connected to the inferior and external ſurface of the urethra, after having been expanded upwards betwixt the tunica vaginalis of each teſticle. Upon a removal of the ſeveral parts which unite in forming the *ſcrotum*, the tunics or proper coats of the teſticles, next preſent themſelves to view.

The *ſcrotum* is liable to inflammation and abſceſs, which ſometimes are attended with a conſiderable degree of fever, and that not without danger of life. If poſſible endeavour to remove the inflammation without permitting ſuppuration to take place: to this end, bleeding and other antiphlogiſtics muſt be directed; diſcutient cataplaſms applied cold, and renewed as often as they become warm; and if poſſible, confine the patient to his bed. The *ſcrotum* ſhould be ſuſpended in a bag-truſs, ſo as that it may be kept near the belly; and if it is thought proper to encourage a ſuppuration, let a fomentation be uſed warm, at leaſt twice a day, and after each time of fomenting, a poultice applied warm, and renewed as often as it becomes cool. In this caſe the patient muſt be ſupported with a generous diet and proper cordials, ſuch as the cort. Peruv. rad. ſerp. rad contray. in ſubſtance or in form of decoction as may ſeem moſt eligible, the conſ. card. is alſo to be added, and if pain requires it an opiate occaſionally.

When by the ſize and prominence of the ſwelling, the ſoftneſs of the integuments, their ſhining red colour, the peeling off of the cuticle from the cutis, the mitigation of pain in the part itſelf; an œdemetous appearance of the integuments upon being preſſed; but above all, the fluctuation of matter under the fingers, it appears that maturation is perfected, then open the tumor on its moſt depending part. If the tumor be large, and the integuments thin and much diſcoloured, remove an oval piece; thus you will be able more effectually to apply thence the full dreſſings. As ſoon as the matter is diſcharged, fill the wound with ſoft lint, and over it apply the poultice, or apply a pledgit of ſoft tow with ſome emollient ointment ſpread on it. The future dreſſings may be the ungt. Baſil. or other digeſtive. At the end of the two firſt days, the dreſſing ſhould be renewed twice in twenty-four hours, and thus continue on account of the acrimony and quantity of the diſcharge, ſo long as may be thought neceſſary, not forgeting to uſe an emollient fomentation, for the ſpace of ten or fifteen minutes previous to each dreſſing. If the diſcharge is thin, ſanious, or corroſive, ſprinkle ſome brandy or camphorated ſpirit of wine upon each fomentation cloth. If after the operation any conſiderable hardneſs of the integuments ſhould ſtill remain, continue to apply the ſuppurating poultice, at each time of dreſſing over the pledgits of digeſtive, until the hardneſs is removed. The uſe of the bark alone, or with the rad. ſerp. V. or rad. contray. or a decoction of theſe; as alſo the elix. vitr. in the patient's drink will generally greatly ſupport the patient's ſtrength, and alter the matter in its quality.

Another afflictive diſeaſe is too often met with in the *ſcrotum*, viz. the cancer. It ſeems peculiar to chimney-ſweepers; hence is called the chimney-ſweepers cancer, the chimney-ſweepers wart, and the ſoot wart. From whatever cauſe it may be, it is evident beyond a doubt that chimney-ſweepers are peculiarly liable to this diſeaſe in this part. Mr. Pott ſeems to be the firſt writer who hath noticed it; he thinks it may be owing to a lodgment of ſoot in the rugæ of the *ſcrotum*, and at firſt not be a diſeaſe of the habit.

He further obſerves, that it always makes its firſt attack on, and its appearance in, the inferior part of the *ſcrotum*; when it produces a ſuperficial, painful, ragged, ill-looking ſore, with hard and riſing edges. It does not uſually appear before, whence it is often taken both by the patient and the ſurgeon for venereal; and being heated with mercurials, is ſoon and much exaſperated: in no great length of time, it pervades the ſkin, dartos, and membranes of the *ſcrotum*, and ſeizes the teſticle, which it enlarges, hardens, and renders truly and thoroughly diſtempered; from whence it makes its way up the ſpermatic proceſs into the abdomen, moſt frequently indurating and ſpoiling the inguinal glands: when arrived within the abdomen, it affects ſome of the viſcera, and then very ſoon becomes painfully deſtructive.

The only chance of putting a ſtop to, or of preventing this miſchief, is immediately to remove the part afflicted, i. e that part of the *ſcrotum* where the ſore is. If it be ſuffered to remain until the virus hath ſeized the teſticle, it is generally too late, even for caſtration. If ever extirpation bids fair for the cure of a cancer, it ſeems to be in this caſe; but then the operation ſhould be immediate, and before the habit is tainted. When it reaches the teſticle, it is rapid in its progreſs, and moſt certainly deſtructive in its event: ſo, early to extirpate is the only cure.

Fiſtulous ulcers are ſometimes met with in the *ſcrotum*; if theſe communicate with the urethra, a particular attention thereto will be required in attempting to relieve. The cauſes may be an abſceſs in the *ſcrotum*; a wound made through the *ſcrotum* into the urethra; the venereal diſeaſe firſt affecting the urethra, and from thence producing the ulcer in the *ſcrotum*, &c. The external ſore is generally very ſmall and ſinous; the lips grow callous; the diſcharge is thin, copious, and almoſt continual; and if there is a communication with the urethra, the urine will more or leſs eſcape through the external wound at the times of making water; it will alſo inſinuate itſelf into the cellular membrane of the *ſcrotum*, and its neighbouring parts, and be therein confined; whence many inconveniences ariſe that cannot be removed until the orifice made through the urethra is healed.

When this diſorder originated in the urethra, it may be known by introducing a catheter or bougie; for an obſtruction will be met with there: when it is cauſed by an abſceſs forming itſelf within the cellular membrane near the urethra, or in the corpus cavernoſum urethræ, there will be little or no reſiſtance met with from the bougie. As to fiſtulous ſores, calloſities, enlargements, and diſtenſions in theſe parts; it is worth remembering, that although the diſeaſe ſhould appear to be not confined to the *ſcrotum*, but that it extends to the perinæum and nates, and there be many external fiſtulous openings through the integuments of theſe parts, yet theſe ſhall in ſome inſtances be diſcoverable only on opening into the urethra; to remove which ſhould be the primary attempt of the ſurgeon, as the cure of the whole very much depends, if not altogether, upon this very circumſtance; and of this be aſſured, that the permanency of the cure of every wound, however circumſtanced, depends upon the roundneſs and firmneſs of its foundation at the bottom.

When a venereal cauſe gave riſe to this diſorder, the judicious

judicious introduction and uſe of bougies, made of a proper compoſition, ſize, and ſtiffneſs, joined with mercurial frictions, applied near to, or immediately upon, the diſeaſed parts, in proper quantities, at proper intervals, and continued for a due length of time, joined with ſoft, oily purges, occaſionally adminiſtered, and ſoft, diluting drinks, will often render every ſevere operation unneceſſary; though the circumſtances attendant upon the complaint be of a bad and complicated kind.

See Pott's Chirurgical Works; Warner's Caſes in Surgery; Warner on the Teſticles.

SCRUPULUS. A ſcruple. A weight with us, which is equal to twenty grains; but in France, Germany, &c. it contains twenty-four grains. Three ſcruples, however, is a dram, and eight drams an ounce, in all theſe countries.

SCYTHICUS LATEX, alſo called *ὑπνῶμα, a divine water.*

SEBACÆ GLANDULÆ. Many of theſe are about the noſe, where their contents are often hardened, and at the extremities of their ducts there appear black ſpots, and when the matter is ſqueezed out it reſembles a worm with a black head. Theſe glands are ſeated in the cellular membrane, under the ſkin, and in various parts of the body they are enlarged and form encyſted tumors. Theſe glands are called the miliary glands by ſome. But as to miliary glands, diſtinct from theſe, the moderns deny their exiſtence, not being able to diſcover them.

SEBACEOUS HUMOUR. The *ſebaceous humour* is ſupplied by the ſebaceous glands, to preſerve the ſenſibility of the ſkin, and to keep it moiſt by preventing too copious a perſpiration. When this glutinous *humour* is wanting, as in eryſipelas, the ſkin is dry and parched, and little or no ſwelling can be brought on there by inflammation, becauſe the erethyſm of the veſſels is but ſmall, and the morbific *humours* having nothing in their way to retard their egreſs, they exhale through the expiring veſſels of the ſkin. All the inner membranes of the body are ſupplied with an *humour* ſimilar to this.

SEBESTEN, alſo called myxa, myxara, ſebeſtina, vidamaram, ſebeſten. That uſed in medicine is the cordia *ſebeſtina*, Linn. It is a fruit the ſhape of a plum, black on the outſide, with a flattiſh wrinkled ſtone. It is produced in Egypt and Aſſyria. It is cooling and moiſtening; but is not uſed as a medicine, though it is ſaid to obtund ſharp humours which fall on the lungs.

SECALE, alſo called ſiligo, rogga. Rie. It is a kind of grain: it nouriſhes leſs than wheat, and ſome people find that the bread made of it gripes and gently purges them. Sometimes this grain is corrupted, and then it occaſions painful and convulſive diſorders, and death.

SECRETIO, from *ſecerno, to ſeparate.* Secretion. The various *ſecretions* are all from the blood, but how it happens that each *ſecretory* veſſel at firſt ſeparated a particular part from the general maſs, and always continues to do the the ſame, is perhaps not ſo clearly underſtood as is ſuppoſed. See Haller's Phyſiology, ſect. 8. Pemberton's Phyſiology, ſect. 7.

SEDANTIA. Sedative medicines. In general, by *ſedatives* are underſtood ſuch as ſoothe, compoſe, check, or allay any irregular motion in the ſolids or fluids. They ſeem to ſtand oppoſed to what irritates, and are the loweſt claſs of antiſpaſmodics, as anodynes are of the moſt powerful claſs.

SEDATIVA SAL. Sedative ſalt. The acid of borax hath, until very lately, been unknown as to its peculiar nature and origin. Mr. Hœffer found it in an uncombined ſtate, but diſſolved in the laguni, or lakes of hot mineral water near Monte Rotundo, Berchiaio, and Caſtelnuovo, in Tuſcany, in the proportion of nine grains in one hundred of water. Mr. Maſcagni hath found it adhering to ſhiſtus on the borders of the lakes, of a dirty white, yellow, or greeniſh colour, and cryſtallized in the form of needles. This acid, i. e. the acid of borax is called *ſedative ſalt.* See Borax and Tincal. Kirwan's Elem. of Mineralogy.

SEDENTARIA OSSA. So Daventer calls the protuberances of the os coxendicis upon which we ſit.

SEDUM. So called from *ſedendo*, ſitting, becauſe of its poſture on walls, &c. where it grows; or from *ſedando*, becauſe it allays when applied to parts that are inflamed. It is alſo called ſempervivum, becauſe, as its name expreſſes, it is always green; and vermicularis, becauſe its leaves reſemble worms. In Engliſh it is called ſengreen and houſe-leek. Boerhaave mentions twenty-eight ſpecies. The ſort uſed in medicine is the *ſempervivum* tectorum, Linn. The greater houſe-leek. They are ſmall plants, whoſe ſhort and thick ſtalks are covered with little fleſhy conical leaves, ſet thick together in the manner of ſcales; on the tops appear pentapetalous flowers, which are followed by a pod full of ſmall ſeeds. They are annual, grow on old walls and dry ſtony grounds. They flower in June and July.

The leaves have an acrid taſte, but no remarkable ſmell: applied externally ſome of them veſicate the parts, and if taken internally, in no great quantity, they are ſtrongly emetic; whilſt the common ſort, and ſome other ſpecies abate external inflammation, and if taken inwardly, are emollient and laxative, and have ſomething of acrid, auſtere and aſtringent; but they are not of any note in the preſent practice.

SEDUM. It is a name for ſeveral ſorts of cotyledon and ſaxifraga.

SEIGNETTE [Sal. de]. See Rupeliænsis Sal. It is thus named from Dr. Seignette, of Rochelle, who invented it.

SELENITES. It ſometimes reſembles the lapis ſpecularis, and ſometimes cryſtal; but it wants the leafy ſtructure of the one and the leafy hardneſs of the other. It is tranſparent, but not always free from cloudineſs. It calcines into gypſum or plaſter of Paris. This name is given to a combination of the vitrolic acid with calcareous earth. See the Dict. of Chem. Neumann's Chem. Works.

SELINUM, i. e. Apium.

SELLA TURCICA. It is a depreſſion between the clinoid apophyſes of the ſphenoid bone.

SELTZER WATER. It is a mineral water which ſprings up at Lower Seltzer, a village in the electorate of Triers, about ten miles from Frankfort on the Mayne. It is a very uſeful medicinal water: it contains a very ſmall portion of calcareous earth, of a native mineral alcali, and an acid; but of theſe the quantity is too ſmall to attribute any medicinal virtues to; but it contains alſo near 1-7th of its bulk of fixed air, which is more than is found in any other mineral water, and to this it owes its principal virtues. See Dr. Brockleſby's Experiments on *Seltzer Water*, in the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv.

SEMEIOTICE. That part of medicine which treats of the ſigns of health and diſeaſes. See Dr. Wynter's Tranſlation of Lommius's Obſ.

SEMEN. Seed. In botany it is a body perfected by the mutual operation of both ſexes, containing the rudiment of ſuch plant as that from which it was taken, ſo may properly be judged to be analogous to the egg of an animal.

SEMIFIBULÆUS, i. e. Peronæus ſecundus.

SEMILUNARES [Cartilagines]. They are placed upon the upper part of the tibia; they are thick on the outſide, and ſerve to deepen the cavity; they likewiſe ſerve to give ſome degree of rotation to the joint, being moveable and variable, to adapt themſelves to the condyls in the various motion of the joint.

SEMIMEMBRANOSUS MUSCULUS. It riſes tendinous from the poſterior part of the tuberoſity of the iſchium, cloſe to the origin of the muſculus quadratus femoris, and is inſerted into the back part of the internal condyle of the tibia.

SEMINERVOSUS MUSCULUS. It is alſo called ſemitendinoſus. It lies upon the outſide of the ſemimembranoſus: at its origin it is one maſs with the head of the biceps; when they have run together a little way they part, and the *ſemitendinoſus* runs to the internal condyl and upper part of the tibia, making conjointly with the ſartorius and the gracilis, a ſort of faſcia.

SEMI-ORBICULARES. The orbicular muſcle of the lips, if conſidered as two, are called ſemi-orbiculares ſuperior and inferior.

SEMISPINALIS. See Multifidus Spinæ.

SEMITENDINOSUS, i. e. Seminervoſus.

SEMITERTIANA FEBRIS. The Greeks call it hemitritæus. It is a kind of fever, compounded of an intermitting tertian and a continual quotidian. Some call

it a continual tertian. It is one of thofe tertians which return every day. Some rank it as a remittent fever.

There is nothing peculiar in the management of this diforder which the practitioner will not naturally fuggeft from his acquaintance with the nature and general methods of relief in fevers. See Spigelius and Hoffman on the Semitertian Fever, and Lommius's Med. Obf.

SENEGAL [GUM], i. e. Gum rubrum aftringens.

SENEKA, alfo called fenega, polygala Marilandica, fenegaw, American milk-wort, and fenekka, rattle-fnake root. *Polygala fenega*, or *polygala Marilandica*, floribus imbetibus fpicatis albis, caule erecto fimpliciffimo, foliis lato-lanceo-latis. Linn. *Senega, rattle-fnake root.* The leaves are pointed and fomewhat oval; the ftalks are upright and branched; the flowers are white: the root is variouſly bent and jointed; it is about the thickneſs of a little-finger, and refembles the tail of a rattle-fnake; it hath a membranous margin, which runs its whole length on each fide; outwardly it is of a yellowifh or a pale browniſh colour, internally white. It is a native of Virginia, Penſylvania, and Maryland, and is cultivated in our gardens. This root is a ſpecific againſt the poiſon of the rattle-fnake: the powdered root, or the freſh root beat into a cataplaſm, is applied outwardly, and a decoction is taken inwardly. In inflammatory fevers it promotes perſpiration, and it aſſiſts the expectoration in pleuriſies and peripneumonies; it is cathartic, and often proves emetic, to prevent which it is given in weak cinnamon water. In pleuriſies, whether inflammatory or ſpurious, in the rheumatiſm, gout, gouty rheumatiſm, and the humoral aſthma, it is ſingularly uſeful. The powder is preferred to any other preparation, and the doſe is from ℈ i. to ʒ i. but a decoction of three ounces of the root in water enough to ſtrain off a pint, is uſually given from two to four ſpoons full three or four times a day. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

SENNA. It is a ſhrub with a roſaceous flower, which is followed with a pod with ſeeds like grape-ſtones. Botaniſts enumerate nine ſorts, but the following is that which is preferred in practice.

SENNA ALEXANDRINA, alſo called folia Orientalia. Alexandrian ſenna. Caſſia ſenna, or caſſia Alexandrina, foliis trijugis quadrijugiſive acutis, floribus luteis. Linn. Alexandrian acute, ſix leaved ſenna. It is called *Alexandrian* not becauſe it grows there, but becauſe it is from thence chiefly that it is ſent into Europe. The leaves, which are the parts in uſe, are of a lively yellow green colour, an oblong ſomewhat oval figure, ſharp pointed at the end, about a quarter of an inch broad, and not an inch long. Chooſe thoſe which appear bright, freſh, free from ſtalks and ſpots, that are well and ſtrongly ſcented, that are ſmooth and ſoft to the touch, thoroughly dry, ſharp pointed, bitteriſh and ſomewhat naufeous to the taſte. There are inferior ſorts, but they are generally diſtinguiſhed by their not being pointed, but more or leſs broad at the end.

The Arabians firſt brought theſe leaves into uſe; they are moderately ſtrong, and in general a ſafe cathartic; they enter the blood and attenuate it. Dr. Aiſton preſcribed it in ardent fevers, and frequent experience manifeſts its ſafety and advantage even in the moſt delicate habits, and the moſt robuſt it operates on ſufficiently. Largely diluted, as when a dram of theſe leaves are infuſed in four ounces of ſoft cold water, is the moſt agreeable method of taking it; the addition of acids takes off the naufea which it excites, and as the griping quality depends upon its reſin, the dilute infuſions will be the freeſt from this effect. From ʒ i. to ʒ iii. are uſually ſufficient for one doſe.

Senna gives out its virtues both to water and to ſpirit. Long boiling deſtroys the purgative quality. If the *ſenna* is infuſed in an infuſion of bohea tea, its naufeous quality is as well covered as though the famed fig-wort was uſed, and if it is infuſed in a decoction of guaiacum its purging quality will be increaſed, and the griping which it generally occaſions will be prevented.

The London college directs ſeveral elegant preparations from this article. See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

SENSIBILIS. Senſible. It is applied to whatever is capable of making an impreſſion on the ſenſes.

SENSIBILITAS. Senſibility. The quality of being ſenſible, or the perceiving of any viſible thing, affecting or cauſing ſome alteration in the organ of ſenſe. The brain is the only ſenſible part of the body; all other parts are ſaid to be ſenſible, becauſe a portion of the medullary part of the brain is diffuſed over them, but they loſe this quality as ſoon as it is rubbed off or becomes dry. As the brain is the only ſenſible part, ſo it is alſo the only irritable part, the muſcular fibres contracting in conſequence of the irritation received by that portion of brain which covers them; theſe fibres are the only parts which perform their office by ſhortening themſelves, and thus it happens that they are the only parts which contract, and which have tremulous motions upon involuntary irritations. Every part of the body is capable of ſenſation in a ſound or in a morbid ſtate. See IRRITABILITY. See alſo Fordyce's Elements, part i. Medical Commentaries by Dr. Hunter.

SENSUS EXTERNI. The external ſenſes. Theſe are generally reckoned to be the ſenſe of ſeeing, hearing, taſting, ſmelling, and feeling, each of which ſee. Theſe five ſenſes agree in the following particular; viz. that nothing is perceived until it firſt makes an impreſſion upon the organ of ſenſe; but they differ as to our conſciouſneſs of that impreſſion: in touching, taſting, and ſmelling, we are conſcious of the impreſſion, but not ſo in hearing and ſeeing; on which account theſe latter are conſidered as more refined; the former ſeeming to exiſt externally at the organ of ſenſe, are conceived to be merely corporeal. See Haller's Phyſiology; Shebbeare's Theory and Practice of Phyſic.

SENSUS INTERNUS. The internal ſenſes are thoſe affections of the mind which are excited in it by its perception of ideas; theſe are generally reduced under theſe four heads, viz. imagination, memory, attention, and the paſſions of the mind. Their influence on health is noted in many particulars taken notice of in the different parts of this work. See Haller's Phyſiology.

SEPARATORIUM. A ſeparatory. The name of an inſtrument for ſeparating the pericranium from the cranium; alſo a chemical veſſel for ſeparating liquors, but particularly for the ſeparation of the eſſential oil of any vegetable ſubject from the water that is diſtilled therefrom.

SEPIUM OS, alſo called ſepia os, ſepiæ os. Cuttle-fiſh bone. The *cuttle-fiſh* is a kind of polypus. It hath two *bones*, one which is like a knife, the other is like a quill; the latter of theſe, when calcined in the ſun, is uſed as a dentifrice ſometimes, but the preſent practice rarely notices it.

SEPTANA. A ſeptinary fever, that is, a fever which performs its period in ſeven days. Alſo an erratic intermitting fever which returns every ſeventh day.

SEPTICA. Septics. Medicines which promote putrefaction; alſo corroſive ones.

SEPTICUS LAPIS, i. e. Cauterium potentiale.

SEPTIMANA. It is a kind of febris erratica.

SEPTUM CORDIS. The partition between the two ventricles of the heart. *Septum*, i. e. *an incloſure*, from *ſepes, a hedge.*

SEPTUM LUCIDUM. The thin partition which divides the two lateral ventricles of the brain. It is a kind of duplicature of a continuation of the corpus callofum. It is united on its lower part with the fornix.

SEPTUM NARIUM. The partition betwixt the noſtrils. It is formed by the deſcending laminæ of the os ethmoides, and by the vomer, and it is placed in the groove framed by the criſtæ of the oſſa maxillaria, and riſing edges of the oſſa palati. The cartilage which forms the lower part of this *ſeptum*, is joined to the anterior edge of the middle portion of the os ethmoides, to the anterior edge of the vomer, and to the anterior part of the groove formed by the oſſa maxillaria, as far as the naſal ſpines of theſe bones.

SEPTUM PALATI, i. e. Palatum Molle.

SEPTUM TRANSVERSUM, i. e. Diaphragma.

SERAPION. A phyſician of Alexandria. He, and Philinus, of the iſle of Cos, were both ſcholars of Herophilus, and were founders of the empiric ſect, which happened about two hundred and eighty-ſeven years before Chriſt. One of the moſt eminent among the followers of this ſect, was Heraclides Tarentinus, whom ſee.

SERICUM. Silk. Raw *ſilk* prepared in the manner of ſponge when it is calcined, excels the ſponge in its medical effects; it alſo yields more volatile ſalt than any other animal ſubſtance yet tried. In Switzerland, the volatile ſalt of raw ſilk is called the Engliſh ſalt: they alſo give the ſame name to the volatile ſalt of vipers.

SERIFLUXUS. A ſerous diſcharge, or flux of ſerum.

SERPENTARIA VIRGINIANA, called alſo ariſtolochia, piſtolochia, viperina, colubrina, Virginiana, contrayerva Virginiana. Virgin ſnake-weed. It is the *ariſtolochia ſerpentaria*, or *ariſtolochia Virginiana* foliis cordato-oblongis planis, caulibus infirmis ſuperne flexuoſis teretibus, floribus recurvis ſolitariis, fructu parvo pentangulari. Linn. It is brought from Virginia and Carolina; it is ſmall, light, buſhy, and compoſed of a number of ſtrings or fibres iſſuing from one head, and matted together, of a browniſh colour on the outſide, and pale or yelloviſh within. It hath an aromatic ſmell, ſomewhat like that of valerian, but more agreeable, and warm, bitteriſh, pungent taſte, not eaſily covered by a mixture with other ſubjects.

Snake-root gives out its active matter to water or to ſpirit. The greateſt part of its flavour is carried of either by water or by ſpirit in diſtillation; and if the quantity diſtilled be large, there ariſes with water a pale coloured eſſential oil, of a ſtrong ſmell, but not a ſtrong taſte, the greateſt part of the camphorated pungency and bitterneſs of the root remains in the inſpiſſated extract. The ſpirituous extract is ſtronger than the watery, not from its having loſt leſs by evaporation, but from its containing the active parts of the root concentrated in a ſmaller volume, its quantity amounting only to one half of the other.

The Virginian *ſnake-root* is a warm diaphoretic, of excellent uſe in low and putrid fevers; it raiſes the pulſe, promotes perſpiration, reſiſts putrefaction, and corrects a putrid diſpoſition which is already begun. Dr. Alſton ſays it reſembles the ariſtolochia in virtues, but that he prefers the ariſtolochia tenuis to the ſerpentaria on all accounts. The doſe may be from gr. iii. to ʒ ſs.

The Virginian aſarum is ſometimes ſold for the *ſnake-root*, but the aſarum is blacker.

The London College directs a tincture of *ſnake-root* which is made with proof ſpirit. In this tincture, if the *ſnake-root* with which it is made be powdered fine, is the whole virtue of the root. It may be taken from two teaſpoonfuls, to a table ſpoonful, three times a day. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

SERPIGO. This word is uſed both for the herpes and impetigo. Linnæus ſignifies by it tettars and ringworms.

SERPYLLUM. Boerhaave takes notice of ſix ſpecies of this plant.

SERPYLLUM VULGARE MINUS. Common mother of thyme, or wild thyme. Thymus ſerpyllus, or thymus ſerpyllum vulgaris minor, foliis planis obtuſis baſi ciliatis, floribus capitatis caulibus repentibus, Linn. Common ſmall wild thyme. It grows wild on heaths and dry paſture ground; it flowers in June and July; it is an agreeable aromatic, ſimilar to that of the other ſpecies, but milder, and in flavour it is rather more grateful. Its eſſential oil is both in ſmaller quantity, and leſs acrid, and its ſpirituous extract comes ſhort of the penetrating warmth and pungency of that of the common thyme.

SERPYLLUM CITRATUM, alſo called thymus citratus. Lemon thyme. It differs but little from the mother of thyme in its appearance, except that it is upright and buſhy. It is a native of dry mountainous places, common in gardens, and flowers in July. It is leſs pungent than the common thyme, and more ſo than the mother of thyme, and more grateful than either. Its ſmell is like that of lemon peel; diſtilled with water, it yields a larger quantity of eſſential oil than the other ſorts do. This oil contains nearly all the medicinal parts of the plant. Spirit of wine alſo takes up the finer parts.

SERRATUS ANTICUS MAJOR, (from *ſerra*, a *ſaw*.) The fore, or greater ſaw-like muſcle. It riſes by digitations from the nine ſuperior ribs, then paſſes backwards, and is inſerted into the whole length of the ſcapula. Its largeſt portion is inſerted into the lower angle of the ſcapula, which it rotates and brings forwards. Between every portion of this muſcle, there is a quantity of cellular membrane interpoſed, eſpecially about the middle, where it ſeems to divide it into two diſtinct muſcles. If the pectoralis minor is called ſerratus anticus minor, this muſcle is called major, otherwiſe it is ſimply called ſerratus anticus.

SERRATUS ANTICUS MINOR. See SERRATUS ANTICUS MAJOR.

SERRATUS POSTICUS SUPERIOR. It riſes by a thin broad tendon, from the two upper vertebræ of the back, and the two lower of the neck, and runs to be inſerted into the ſecond, third, and fourth ribs.

SERRATUS POSTICUS INFERIOR. It riſes from the faſcia of the loins, and is inſerted into the three laſt ribs, ſerving to bring them down.

SERTULA CAMPANA, i. e. Melilotus.

SERUM. Whey. The thin part of the blood is alſo called its ſerum. The ſerum of the blood contains a coagulable matter, which forms what is called the buff upon the blood after taking it from a vein. Dr. Fordyce obſerves, in the firſt part of his Elements, that the ſerum is fluid in any degree of heat between thirty and one hundred and ſixty of Farenheit's thermometer; that it conſiſts chemically of a coagulable matter and water, in which common ſal ammoniac, phoſphoric ammoniac, and generally common ſalt, and frequently ſelenites, and fixed ammoniac ſalt are diſſolved; that it contains a ſuperfluous water, which may be ſeparated from it by filtration in the body, but that water which is chemically combined with the other parts cannot; that the ſeparation, or addition of ſuperfluous water, does not affect its viſcidity ſo far as it is of any conſequence in the circulation, but the ſeparation of that water which is in chemical combination may render it more viſcid; that the water which is chemically combined with it is never ſeparated whilſt it is contained in the blood veſſels, conſequently this part of the blood is always equally viſcid, ſo far, at leaſt, as its viſcidity can effect the circulation, or the ſecretions; and that it may be coagulated by a juice ſecreted in the ſtomach, or by injections thrown into the blood veſſels.

SESAMOIDEA, from σησαμον, and ειδος (Ossa.) The ſeſamoid bones. Theſe are the little bones moſt frequently found at the articulations of the toes and fingers; thoſe two at the firſt joint of the great toe are much larger than any other, and allow the flexors to ſend their tendons along this joint ſecure from compreſſion, and, beſides, giving them an angle at their inſertion, the force of the muſcles is augmented. They have their name from their ſuppoſed reſemblance to the ſeed of the ſeſamum, yet they are of very different figures and magnitudes. They are generally moſt numerous in old people, and Winſlow thinks they are often formed of the ligaments, or tendons, about the articulations where there is much ſtrong compreſſion on them. Cheſelden obſerves, that the *ſeſamoid bones* are reckoned to be forty-eight in number; but that there is commonly found, but two under the ball of each great toe, two at the middle joint of each thumb; and ſometimes one at the lower end of each thigh bone, at the beginning of the plantaris muſcle. He adds that, he found in ſome bodies, the little cartilages at the receiving ends of the bones of the fingers oſſified; and concludes, that thoſe who enumerate forty-eight *ſeſamoid bones*, have miſtaken theſe oſſifications for them.

The great toe hath the largeſt *ſeſamoidea*; the inner one is the largeſt; the Arabians call it albadara, and ſay that, of this bone, as it were of ſeed, a man receiveth the new body wherewith he riſeth at the reſurrection.

Dr. James, in his Med. Dict. art. Albadara, relates a caſe of frequent fits troubling a young lady, which after reſiſting various means of relief, were effectually cured by amputating the great toe: this operation was propoſed on a ſuppoſition that the *ſeſamoid bone* there, was diſlocated; and from thence the fits were produced. He further adds a caſe that ſeems to have been the object of his own attention, and which he apprehends aroſe from an injury done to the *ſeſamoid bone* of the great toe. On the patient's firſt reception of the hurt, he was ſeized with a fit, and whenever he moved that toe, he fell into another. Theſe fits much reſembled the epileptic kind, except that no froth was diſcharged at the mouth: the injured foot firſt began to be convulſed, then the leg, and from thence a very uneaſy ſenſation aſcended to his head, and

and then the convulſions began to be univerſal. This caſe proved fatal.

SESAMUM VERUM, alſo called ſeſamum veterum, digitalis Orientalis. Oily purging grain. The ſeſamum Orientale, Linn. It is an Egyptian plant, the ſeeds of which afford a great quantity of oil by expreſſion, but hath no right to the title of purging.

SESELI VULGARE, alſo called ſiler montanum, liguſticum, ſermountain. Common hartwort. That which is ordered by the London College is the laſerpitium ſiler. It is a ſmall umbelliferous plant, with large leaves ſet in pairs; the root is large, thick, and branched. It is perennial, grows wild in the ſouth of Europe, is raiſed in our gardens, and flowers in June.

All the parts of this plant are aromatic, of an agreeable ſmell, and warm ſweetiſh taſte; the roots are the moſt warm and pungent, the ſeeds are moſt pleaſant and ſweet. A ſpirituous extract of the ſeeds is an elegant aromatic ſweet. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

SESELI MASSILIENSE, called alſo fœniculum tortuoſum, Italian hartwort, French hartwort, hartwort of Marſeilles. It is the ſeſeli tortuoſum, Linn. It is perennial, and a native of the ſouth of Europe, from whence the ſeeds are brought.

The ſeeds are aromatic, warm, and biting to the taſte, more pungent than thoſe of the common hartwort, but want their ſweetneſs. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

SESELI ETHIOPICUM, alſo called bupleurum arboreſcens ſalicis folio. Shrub hartwort of Ethiopia. This ſpecies is met with in the gardens of the curious; it flowers in Auguſt; its ſeeds are ſomewhat acrid.

SETACEUM. A ſeton, ſo called from ſetæ equinæ, horſes hairs, becauſe horſes hairs were firſt uſed for keeping the wound open; but now thread is uſed, becauſe it is leſs painful. Camanuſali, a phyſician of Bagdat, who lived before that city was taken by the Tartars in 1258, mentions a *ſeton* in the cure of a diſorder of the eye. Rhazes alſo ſpeaks very particularly about *ſetons*. Originally, an actual cautery was uſed for making a ſeton with. Hollerius firſt made it with a needle unheated.

This operation is performed by elevating the ſkin with the finger and thumb, an aſſiſtant doing the ſame at about an inch from where the operator holds it, and having armed a large broad crooked needle with as many threads as the operator thinks needful, paſs the needle through the ſtretched ſkin, and bring the threads a little way through, and there leave them; rub a little of the thread, as much as will paſs into the *ſeton* at each time of dreſſing, with the ung. baſil. flav. move the thread backward and forward every morning and evening, and thus the diſcharge will be promoted, and may be continued at pleaſure.

Setons are commended in diſorders of the head and eyes; but iſſues, or perpetual bliſters, are more agreeable, and equally uſeful methods. See Heiſter's Surgery.

SEXTANA. Erratic, intermitting fevers, which return every ſixth day.

SIALOGOGA, medicines which excite a ſalivation. Of this kind, mercury is the moſt powerful, and next to it is the metallic part of antimony.

SIBBENS. This name is given to the venereal diſeaſe in ſome parts of Great Britain. In the year 1773, Mr. Hill, a ſurgeon in Dumfries, publiſhed his Caſes in Surgery; to which he hath added an account of this diſorder, and that with a view to the confutation of a theſis which had been publiſhed, and erroneouſly aſſerted the *ſibbens* to be different from the pox.

SICYEDON. A tranſverſe fracture.

SIDERATIO. An apoplexy, a ſphacelus, alſo a ſpecies of eryſipelas, which is vulgarly called a blaſt.

SIGILLATA TERRA, ſealed earths. Theſe take no place amongſt foſſils, being artificial. Their virtue and uſes the ſame as the terra Lemnia, and other bolar earths.

SIGILLUM HERMETICUM. An hermetic ſeal. A glaſs veſſel is ſaid to be hermetically ſealed, when the glaſs is melted, and the veſſel by this means is cloſed.

SIGILLUM SOLOMONIS. See POLYGONATUM.

SIGMOIDES PROCESSUS, i. e. Proceſſus Coracoides. It is called ſigmoides from its reſemblance to the Greek letter ſigma. Three valves of the heart have this epithet, viz. of arteriæ pulmonalis, and aorta. The ſemicircular cavity of the cubit, at the articulation of the fore-arm with the humerus, is ſometimes called the ſigmoidal cavity; and the cartilages of the aſpera arteria have the epithet ſigmoidal applied to them by ſome authors.

SIGNUM. Signum, a ſign. Signs are univerſal; univocal or pathognomonic; equivocal or doubtful; commemorative. Galen defines it to be, "that which diſcovers, or makes known, what was formerly unknown."

Signs are thoſe appearances which manifeſt the loſs of health, or the preſence of diſeaſe, and relate to the general cauſes thereof. Symptoms are thoſe diſorders which are produced by the continuance, or other circumſtances of a preceding diſorder. *Signs* ſhew the nature of the diſtemper, and ſymptoms point out its effects, or what may be expected as to health, life, or death. *Signs* always attend a diſeaſe, but ſymptoms do not. Some divide *ſigns* into diagnoſtic, prognoſtic, commemorative, equivocal, and pathognomonic.

SIGNETTE, (SAL DE) i. e. Sal Rupellenſis.

SILEX. Flint. Many have been the pretences to preparations of an extraordinary medical efficacy from flints, but experience hath not ſupported their credit; ſo that at preſent their uſe is chiefly confined to the making of glaſs, and of artificial gems, in which they are preferred to all other materials which have been uſed for thoſe ends. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Dict. of Chem. In Foſſilogy, *flint* is a genus in the order of quartzoze ſtones; its characters are, quartzoſe ſtone, very hard and compact; of a ſolid ſtructure; always inveſted with an outward cruſt; and either tranſparent, or ſemitranſparent. Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

SILIQUA. An ancient weight equal to three grains and one-twenty-eighth. The carob-tree, alſo a pod, which is a membranaceous veſſel, containing the ſeeds of ſome plants, and a name of ſeveral different plants.

SILIQUA HIRSUTA. The cowhage.

SILIQUA DULCIS, alſo called caroba, ceratia, ceratonia, ſiliqua edulis. The carob-tree. It grows in Sicily and Naples; the fruit is cooling, and moderately laxative. At Venice they are much uſed.

SILIQUA PURGATRIX. It is a large tree, a native of Guinea; its pod is much more purgative than that of the common carob. See Raii Hiſt.

SILPHIUM. Aſſafœtida, alſo the ſtalk of the plant which affords it.

SIMAROUBA, alſo called euonymus, and the bark, which is the part in uſe, is called ſimarouba, ſima ruba, and Guiana bark. It is the bark of an unknown tree in Guiana. Some think it to be the bark of the piſtachia terebinthus, Linn. The Edinburgh College, in their Pharmacopœia, ſay, that it is the quaſſia ſimaruba, vel quaſſia floribus monoicis, foliis abrupte pinnatis: foliolis alternis ſubpetiolatis, petiolo nudo, floribus paniculatis. Linn. Suppl. 234. Curtis, in his Catalogue of the Medicinal Plants in the London Botanic Garden, calls it quaſſia dioica. It is brought to us in long pieces, of a yellow white colour, light, tough, and fibrous. It reſembles that which the ancients deſcribe under the name of macer. It was brought into Europe in the year 1713. Dr. James ſays, in his Medicinal Dictionary, that it is the bark of a Weſt Indian tree, viz. of the tree from which we have the Cayan wood. It is a ſpecific in dyſenteries, particularly the feroſo-bilious, bloody, and mucous kinds; it removes theſe diſorders when there is no fever, and when the ſtomach is unhurt, without the uſual inconveniencies of aſtringents; it abates ſpaſms, and hyſteric affections. If any ſymptom ſeems to require an emetic, let it precede the uſe of this bark.

The beſt preparation is the following decoction, four table ſpoonfuls of which may be given every three, four, or ſix hours. ℞ Cort. ſimaroub. craſſ. contuſ. ʒ ii. coq. in aq. font. ℔ i. ℥ iv. ad ℔ i. & cola.

It hath been obſerved, that if this decoction is made ſtronger it excites ſickneſs, but in proportion thereto it fails as an antidyſenteric. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences 1729, par M. de Juſſieu.

SIMPLEX OCULUS. It is a bandage for the eye, being only a ſingle headed roller applied to the cheek, then paſſed over the eye, and the offa parietalia running down behind the head, and paſſing by the nape of the neck, it riſes to the place it began at, and ſo is continued till the whole is taken up. It is called ſimplex oculus for

both eyes, when it is a little longer, and made to pafs over both eyes; for both eyes it is rolled up into two heads, and the middle is applied to the nape of the neck.

SINANCHICÆ. Italian ruſhy horſe-tail.

SINAPELŒON. Oil of muſtard-ſeed.

SINAPI. Muſtard. It is an annual plant, with long rough leaves, divided to the rib into irregular ſegments, of which the extreme one is the largeſt, producing at the tops of the branches tetrapetalous yellow flowers, followed each by a ſhort, ſmooth, quadrangular pod, divided longitudinally by a membrane, which projects at the ends, containing ſmall roundiſh ſeeds, of a reddiſh brown colour. Both the colleges of London and Edinburgh, order, in their Pharmacopœias, the *ſinapis* alba, or *ſinapis* floribus luteis, ſiliquis hiſpidis, roſtro obliquo longiſſimo, ſeminibus albis, Linn. White muſtard-ſeed. That with the dark brown ſeeds, is the *ſinapis* arvenſis, or *ſinapis* floribus luteis, ſiliquis multanguiis toroſoturgidis roſtro longioribus, Linn. Commonly called Durham *muſtard*, and *ſinapis* nigra, Linn. It is a native of England, but commonly cultivated for dietetic and medicinal uſes. Botaniſts enumerate fifteen ſpecies.

Muſtard-ſeed yields upon expreſſion much oil; this oil is as inſipid as that from olives, the pungency remaining entire in the cake which is left after the expreſſion. For table *muſtard*, this cake is better than the whole *muſtard*. Spirit of wine takes up but very little of the pungency of *muſtard*; but water takes up from the bruiſed ſeeds nearly the whole of their active matter. If *muſtard* is added to boiling milk, the whey will be ſeparated from the curd, and poſſeſs much of the virtue of the ſeeds. Diſtilled with water, they yield a limpid eſſential oil, which is extremely pungent and penetrating both to the ſmell and taſte, and ſo ponderous as to ſink in water. The remaining decoction, on being inſpiſſated, becomes a ſweetiſh, brisk, mucilaginous extract.

Muſtard is one of the ſtrongeſt of the pungent ſtimulating diuretics, that operates without exciting much heat. In paralytic, cachectic, and ſerous diſorders, a large ſpoonful of the unbruiſed ſeeds have been taken two or three times a day. The bruiſed ſeeds prepared as for the table is rubbed with advantage on parts affected with numbneſs, or with rheumatic diſorders. In all diſeaſes where an acid in the primæ viæ attends, *muſtard* ſhould be freely uſed; if eaten plentifully with the victuals it aſſiſts digeſtion; mixed with horſe-radiſh, it is infuſed in wine as a ſtimulant and diuretic in languid conſtitutions; and when beaten up with vinegar into a cataplaſm, it is applied to the feet to remove deliriums in fevers, and to bring down the gout from the head or the lungs to the feet. Theſe cataplaſms act more quickly than bliſters; they are alſo uſeful applications to the feet for raiſing the pulſe in low fevers, and for relieving the head in thoſe diſorders. If *muſtard* is mixed as for the table, and of this mixture a table ſpoonful or two is added to a pint of tepid water, and drank on an empty ſtomach, it operates as an emetic; and, if repeated once or twice in a week, is of ſervice in nervous diſorders. *Muſtard*-whey is a uſeful drink in all low fevers. Lewis's Mat. Med.

SINAPI. A name of the turritis, rapiſtrum, erucago, and ſiſymbrium.

SINAPISMUS. A ſinapiſm. It is the ſecond degree of irritating external applications. See EPISPASTICS. It is ſo called becauſe of the muſtard, which is generally a part of the compoſition, and which produces a redneſs, itching, heat, and tumor in the part to which it is applied.

SINCIPUT, i. e. Bregma.

SINE PARI. The vein ſo called, ſee AZYGOS. The empl. ſine pari, or matchleſs plaſter. A pompous name for a plaſter, which is now not noticed.

SINGULTUS. The hiccup. It is a ſpaſmodic affection in the ſtomach, œſophagus, and muſcles ſubſervient to deglutition. Hippocrates ſays, that the ſtomach is its alone ſeat; Hoffmann ſays, that the diaphragm is that part principally affected; but others ſince him, aſſert the ſtomach to be the principal ſeat. The diſorder is primary, or ſymptomatic. The immediate cauſe is generally allowed to be an irritation in the ſtomach. When attending acute diſorders, it is called the acute; and when a companion of chronical diſorders, it is called the chronical *hiccup*. The occaſional cauſes are errors in diet, a wound or other injury done to the ſtomach, an inflammation there, acrid poiſon, inflammation in the diaphragm, or any of the abdominal viſcera, ſour juices, and flatulence in the ſtomach, &c.

The ſymptomatic kinds are attended with flatulence, and are uſually relieved by the ſp. vol. fœtid. to which a ſmall quantity of the tinct. Theb. may be added. The julap. e moſch. is of excellent ſervice. And when this diſorder is obſtinate, muſk ſhould be given in doſes from gr. ten to twenty, made up into the form of a bolus. The ſp. nitri D. may be often given in ſmall doſes.

When it happens in weak ſtomachs from a full meal, or hard flatulent aliment, relief is generally obtained by a glaſs of good wine, or of tepid water, with an equal quantity of ſome ſpirituous liquor.

If acid crudities in the ſtomach are the cauſe, give abſorbents and the bark, with warm bitters.

When irritating poiſons are the cauſe, beſides emetics, plenty of warm milk, and frequent doſes of ſweet oil, will be uſeful.

If indigeſted aliment is the cauſe, a table ſpoonful of ſharp vinegar will often relieve.

Emetics and ſternutatories often effect a cure.

When the diſorder is idiopathic, purgatives mixt with opiates, ſo that a moderate doſe of the compoſition may looſen the belly, are the moſt efficacious.

SINUS. A *ſinus* in a bone is a cavity which receives the head of another bone. In ſurgery, it is a collection of matter with only a ſmall orifice for its diſcharge; and this orifice is not callous. See FISTULA. In anatomy, the vagina is called ſinus muliebris, or *ſinus* pudoris.

SINUS COXÆ, i. e. Acetabulum coxendicis.

SINUS MAXILLARIS, i. e. Antrum Highmorianum.

SINUS VENÆ PORTARUM. The trunk of the vena portæ hepaticæ ſuperior vel minor.

SIPHILIS. The pox.

SIRENES. A ſort of worms. See BOVINA AFFECTIO.

SIRIASIS. A diſtemper to which children are ſubject; it conſiſts of an inflammation of the brain and its membranes, attended with a depreſſure of the fontanella, a cavity of the eyes, a burning fever, a paleneſs and dryneſs of the whole body, and a loſs of appetite. Dr. Cullen ranks it as ſynonymous with phrenitis.

SISARUM. Skirrets, or their worts. They are well known in our gardens, and are chiefly cultivated for culinary purpoſes. If plentifully eaten they are diuretic. Raii Hiſt. Plant.

SISYMBRIUM. It is a plant with thin pods, of which Boerhaave reckons up thirteen ſpecies, one of which is the

SISYMBRIUM AQUATICUM, alſo called raphanus aquaticus. Water radiſh. It grows in marſhy ditches, flowers in June and July, and is ſuppoſed to agree with the horſe radiſh in its virtues

SISYMBRIUM. A name of ſeveral ſpecies of mint, of water-creſſes, and ſome other plants.

SITIOLOGICE, from σῖτος, *aliment*, and λέγω, *to ſpeak*. That part of medicine which treats of aliments.

SITIS. Thirſt. It is excited by a defect of moiſture; a thickneſs of the humours; redundant heat; muriatic, alcaline, ammoniacal ſalts; aromatic, oleous, and rancid acrimony; or from poiſons. See POLYDIPSIA.

Thirſt is beſt allayed by acids; water kept a while in the mouth, then ſpit out, and repeated as required; a bit of bread chewed with a little water, which latter may be gradually ſwallowed; if the perſon is very hot, brandy is the beſt for holding in the mouth, but ſhould be ſpit out again: except in fevers, large draughts of cold water are hurtful.

SIUM. The root is like that of colewort, fibrous and ligneous; the leaves are pinnated, growing by pairs to one rib, and ending with an odd one; the petals of the flowers are bifid, the ſeeds are roundiſh, gibbous, and ſtriated.

SIUM LATIFOLIUM, alſo called paſtinaca aquatica. Great water parſnep. It grows in rivers and marſhy places, it flowers in July. The leaves are ſaid to break the ſtone in the bladder, and have other virtues attributed to them, but they are not noticed in the preſent practice.

SIUM ANGUSTIFOLIUM, alſo called berula Gallica, laver verum Matth. apium paluſtre foliis oblongis. Common upright water-parſnep. It grows in moiſt wet places, and flowers in June. Its leaves are ſaid to have the ſame effect as thoſe of the great water-parſnep.

SMALTUM. Smalt. It is made of flints and potaſh, which are melted into an imperfect kind of glaſs, coloured with cobalt, and when cold, is reduced to a powder.

SMARAGDUS. The ſmaragd, or emerald. It is a precious ſtone, of a green colour. The fineſt are brought from Abyſſinia. They are the fourth in hardneſs from diamonds.

SMILAX ASPERA. Rough bind-weed. It is cultivated in gardens, and flowers in ſummer. The leaves, tendrils, berries, and roots, are uſed as perſpiratives, to cure ſkin diſeaſes and pains in the joints. It is a ſuccedanum for ſarſaparilla, and is celebrated againſt venereal diſorders. See Raii Hiſt.

SMIRIS, or Smyris. Emery. It is a hard mineral, which contains a ſmall portion of iron. It is uſed for poliſhing of metals, glaſs, and hard ſtones. There are three kinds, the firſt is blackiſh; the ſecond is hard, uneven, reddiſh, and does not, like the other, ſtain the hands; the third is of a blackiſh red colour, with gold veins: it is found in the gold mines. Some reckon it amongſt the iron ores.

SODA. A burning uneaſineſs in the throat, with rancid or hot eructations It is ſynonymous with dyſpepſia, and pyroſis. It is uſed to expreſs the heart-burn; and by ſome a ſort of head-ach. It is a name for pot-aſh, and for the mineral fixt alkaline ſalt.

SOLANOIDES. Baſtard night-ſhade. It hath a roſe ſhaped flower, which is followed by a ſort of berry. Miller takes notice of two ſpecies, but they are not noted in medicine.

SOLANUM. Night-ſhade. It is a plant with a monopetalous flower, divided into five ſegments, having its cup divided in the ſame manner, with the ſame number of ſtamina in the middle, and followed by a juicy berry.

SOLANUM LETHALE, called alſo ſolanum maniacum, belladona, ſolanum ſomniferum, ſolanum furioſum. Deadly night-ſhade. It is the atropa belladonna of Linnæus.

It is one of the poiſonous plants that are indigenous in Great Britain; it is poiſonous in all its parts.

The root is long, large, and creeping. The ſtalks are purpliſh, upright, firm, numerous, branched, and herbaceous. The leaves are egg-ſhaped, entire, very large, ſmooth at the edges, pointed a little at the extremities, and of a beautiful green colour, hairy and ſoft. The flowers ſtand on ſingle foot-ſtalks: they are formed of one petal; bell-ſhaped, and very lightly divided into five ſegments at the edge. Their colour is a dark dead purple. The berries which ſucceed the flowers are globular; they are firſt of a red colour, and afterwards become black. This plant flowers in July, and its fruit is ripe about Michaelmas.

It is found in woods and hedges, amongſt lime-ſtone and rubbiſh; and alſo where the ground is rich from manure. The plant hath a faint ſmell, ſomewhat of the poppy kind, which is loſt when it is dry; whether freſh or dry there is no peculiar ſenſation conveyed, when the leaves are applied to the organs of taſte.

The ſymptoms produced by this plant are, giddineſs as if intoxicated, great thirſt, pain in and tightneſs acroſs the breaſt, difficulty of breathing, raving but with ſhort intervals of relief, at times faintneſs, and inſtead of raving, a kind of fooliſhneſs is obſerved to take place, ſtaring, flabbering, and giving anſwers foreign to the queſtions aſked In ſome a violent ſtrangury comes on. When adults have been injured with this poiſon, they have related that they had felt themſelves as if drunk, but ſaw and underſtood all that was doing, even when they gave the wildeſt anſwers. Some are ſaid to have continued in a ſtate of madneſs for ſome days; others loſe their ſight for a time, the iris being ſo much relaxed as to become paralytic, and dilated to a very conſiderable ſize. In children the belly ſwells, and convulſions ſometimes follow. To children it is generally fatal. When adults die of this poiſon, it uſually proves fatal in leſs than twenty-four hours. Theophraſtus called this plant ſtrychnos, and the ſymptoms produced by it were called ſtrychnomania.

In caſe of injury from this plant, uſe the ſame means as are recommended in the article AMANITA, which ſee.

Notwithſtanding the above effects of this *nightſhade*, a prudent uſe of it has been recommended as follows: the leaves applied in the form of a cataplaſm are uſeful for relieving cancers; an infuſion of the leaves is extolled as an internal medicine in cancerous caſes; but on trial it does not appear to deſerve the encomiums that have been paſſed in its favour. The doſes are very ſmall, and their effects various and uncertain; ſometimes it purges, at others runs off by the kidnies, or through the ſkin, and often no evacuation of any kind is obſerved. Thoſe who took the infuſion ſuffered by giddineſs, throbbing pain in the eyes, a diſcharge of tears, and in all there was a dilatation of the pupil. Mr. Gataker obſerves that it is a medicine not ſo much calculated for general uſe, as for particular caſes where the common remedies have failed, and where this ſeems upon trial, to be free from the principal inconveniences which ſo often attend the uſe of it.

See Gataker's Eſſays; Bromfield on *Nightſhade*; Wilmer's Obſ. on Poiſonous Vegetables; Withering's Bot. Arrang.

SOLANUM HORTENSE, alſo called ſolatrum, ſolanum vulgare, ſolanum officinarum, ſolanum nigrum, Linn. Common, or garden night-ſhade. Its leaves are oval, pointed, and irregularly indented; the flowers are white, and in cluſters; the berries are black. It is annual, grows in uncultivated grounds, and flowers in Auguſt.

Either of theſe two ſpecies may be indifferently uſed; their leaves have been found to be uſeful in cancerous diſorders, foul ulcers accompanied with pain, obſtinate pains in particular parts, ſcorbutic and ſcrophulous diſorders. It is ſaid to be particularly purgative of the bile; in theſe caſes it is taken in the form of an infuſion. Its uſefulneſs hath been alſo obſerved as an external application; beat into a poultice, or mixed with the white bread poultice, it hath abated the violence of inflammations in the eyes, head-achs, pains in the ears, acrid defluxions, inflammations of the venereal kind, pains from ſcirrhous tumors, and thus applied on ſcrophulous and cancerous tumors, it hath been followed with conſiderable advantages.

The moſt common effects obſerved on taking the infuſion of the leaves are, a warmth diffuſed in a few hours over the body, a plentiful ſweat ſucceeding this heat, and a lax belly the next day; if a ſweat did not break out, a conſiderable diſcharge of urine, or looſe ſtools, was the conſequence. One or other of the excretions are uſually increaſed by it; if this does not happen, it ſeldom is of ſervice, and if benefit is not obſerved ſoon, its further uſe will not avail much. In ſanguine habits, bleeding and purging ſhould precede its uſe, and if the ſtomach ſeems affected with crudities, an emetic ſhould be given before the *night-ſhade* is uſed. Feveriſhneſs is no objection to its uſe.

The leaves may be uſed either freſh or dry. Infuſe half a grain in an ounce of boiling water to be taken at bedtime; gradually increaſe the doſe, which may be repeated every night, and continue that quantity, which produces giddineſs, or ſickneſs, or a lax belly, or ſome other ſenſible effect; ſometimes one doſe is enough in two or three days. The doſe hath been gradually increaſed to twelve grains. See Storck on the *Solanum*.

SOLANUM LIGNOSUM, alſo called dulcamara, amara dulcis, ſolanum ſcandens. Bitter-ſweet, woody night-ſhade. It is called bitter-ſweet, becauſe it is firſt ſweet then bitter. It is the *ſolanum* dulcamara, or *ſolanum* caule inermi fruteſcente flexuoſo, foliis ſuperioribus haſtatis, racemis cymoſis, Linn. Purple flowering, woody *night-ſhade*. Many of its leaves are deeply cut, or are furniſhed with two ſmall appendages at the bottom. The flowers are in cluſters of a blue colour; the berries are red. It grows on the ſides of ditches, and in moiſt hedges, climbing upon the buſhes with winding, woody, but brittle ſtalks. It is perennial, and flowers in June and July.

Their ſenſible operation as a medicine is by ſweat, urine,

urine, or ſtool. A tincture may be made by digeſting four ounces of the twigs in two pints of white wine, and of this the doſe will be from ʒ ii. to ʒ vi.

This ſpecies is not ſo deleterious as the above two, and it acts more uniformly.

Dr. Hulſe ſays it is one of the moſt powerful diſcutients; he directs four handfuls of the leaves, and four ounces of linſeed, to be boiled together in wine, or in hog's fat, to a cataplaſm, and to be applied warm.

Boerhaave enumerates twenty-four ſpecies of *ſolanums*, but theſe are the moſt noted.

SOLEN, σωλην, *a cradle for a broken limb.* Any tube or channel.

SOLIDA. A ſolid. Haller obſerves in his Phiſiology, that the *ſolid* elementary parts of our fibres (and fibres conſtitute all our *ſolids*) are a calcareous earth kept together by a gluten. That in a natural ſtate when bones loſe their gluten, this earth falls into powder; and that in this earth there is a portion of iron. In a fœtus the gluten forms about two thirds of the ſubſtance of the bones; and in an adult, nearly half of the bone is gluten. The *ſolids* contain much air, and the more *ſolid* a part is, the more air it contains. The bones contain a quantity, which, when ſet at liberty, is two hundred times the bulk of the bone. Air ſeems to be the primary band of the elements, for until the air is expelled, the other parts do not ſeparate.

SOLEUS. A muſcle ſo called from its likeneſs to a ſole fiſh. This muſcle is a biceps, riſing on the outſide from the upper part of the tibia, internally from the outſide of the fibula, it leaves a notch for the paſſage of the veſſels, it joins the gaſtrocnemius to form the tendo Achillis. Brown calls it gaſtrocnemius internus.

SOLITARII, diſeaſes affecting only one part of the body.

SOLUTIO. Solution. It is the dividing of a ſolid body into particles ſmall enough to ſwim in the menſtruum, without being viſible. The diſſolving fluid is called a menſtruum, or ſolvent.

Solution is alſo defined to be an union formed by the integrant parts of one body with the integrant parts of another body of a different nature. Thus, as a new compound is the reſult of this union, we hence ſee that *ſolution* is nothing elſe than the act of combination.

Solution is an uſeful operation in chemiſtry, and in that art hath various intentions; it is neceſſary for the producing of new combinations, and thereby obtaining new kinds of medicines, as is inſtanced in the union of acid with alkaline ſalt, in making the ſal diureticus, the ſp. Mindereri, &c. it is uſeful for the purifying and cryſtallizing of ſalts, &c.

As the nature of ſolvents and things to be diſſolved are different, ſo the manner of effecting *ſolutions* differ. In ſome caſes it is effected by ſimple commixture, and frequent agitation; ſometimes the aſſiſtance of heat is required. There is a kind of *ſolution*, called *ſolutio* per deliquium; it is performed by expoſing the matter to the air, from which attracting water, it collects, in time, enough to diſſolve itſelf; ſome ſubſtances not ſoluble in water will diſſolve when expoſed to the air, and in thoſe inſtances, the proceſs is called deliquation. See Dict. of Chym.

SOLUTIONES. In Sagar's Noſology, it ſignifies freſh wounds, whilſt as yet bleeding.

SOLUTIVA. Laxatives.

SOMNAMBULISMUS, i. e. Somnambulo.

SOMNAMBULO. One who walks in his ſleep. It is a ſpecies of oneirodynia.

SOMNIUM, i. e. ſomnambulo. More properly dreams and viſions in ſleep; ſo an inſtance of oneirodynia

SOMNUS. Sleep. Action is deſtructive of our frame, and reſt repairs its decays. During *ſleep*, the nouriſhment received from food in our waking hours is applied to the decayed parts, the blood is recruited, and the ſecretions perfected; whence the impropriety of diſturbing the order of nature by employing the functions with any other work: and hence the neceſſity of ſome time for digeſtion to be performed before going to reſt.

See Cheyne on Health, alſo on Regimen; Fordyce's Elements, part the firſt; Haller's Phyſiology; Med. Muſ. vol. i. p. 11—14.

SONUS. Sound. That air, though concerned in propagating *ſound*, is not *ſound* itſelf, is evident from ſound running almoſt as faſt againſt the wind as with it.

As the diverſity of *ſounds* depends on the different natures and colliſions of ſonorous bodies, an acute tone proceeding from a body whoſe parts are ſo diſpoſed as to render them fit for producing only the moſt inſtantaneous vibrations, which they convey to the ambient air; and a grave tone proceeding from a body which is only capable of ſlow and protracted vibrations, it muſt of courſe follow, that the membrana tympani does, in its various degrees of tenſion and relaxation, adapt itſelf to the ſeveral natures and ſtates of ſonorous bodies; for inſtance, it becomes tenſe for the reception of acute *ſounds*, becauſe, in ſuch a ſtate, it is ſuſceptible of quick, and inſtantaneous tremulous motions; on the contrary, it is relaxed for the admiſſion of grave *ſounds*, becauſe, during ſuch relaxation, it is qualified, and diſpoſed, for the reception of the more ſlow and languid undulations of the air.

The external air impreſſes the membrana tympani, moves it with the malleus, which moves the incus, and this the ſtapes which impreſſes the auditory nerve.

Further, in order to *ſound* being perceived, the ſpiral laminæ in the cochlea, being compoſed of fibres of various lengths and ſizes, each receives the particles ſhaken off from ſounding bodies, which anſwer in uniſon to theſe fibres in the ſpiral laminæ, and the motions in the fibres of theſe laminæ ſhake off the ſame particles which are ſent to them, and thence they paſs to the ſenſorium by the nerves. It is probable that all the different organization of the ear was originally deſigned to put theſe fibres of the ſpiral laminæ in due tenſion, and in tune; and from the different degrees of perfection in the formation of this organ, ariſes the different accuracy which one ear hath above another, in diſtinguiſhing the concord of different inſtruments, or ſtrings of the ſame inſtrument.

SOPHIA, called alſo ſophia chirurgorum, thalictrum, naſturtium ſylveſtre, ſeriphium Germanicum, eryſimum, ſiſymbrium. Flix-weed. It is the ſiſymbrium ſophia, Linn. It is a plant with a hard woody root, full of ſmall fibres at the bottom; the leaves are long, winged, neatly divided, reſembling thoſe of Roman wormwood, and beſet with ſhort hairs; the flowers are at the ends of the branches, and are of a yellow colour; they are ſucceeded by ſlender ſeed veſſels, of about one inch long; the ſeeds are red. It grows in ſandy ground, and amongſt rubbiſh, and bears flowers in June.

The ſeeds only are uſed; in Paris they are ſold under the name of talitron. Boerhaave ſays, that their inward uſe aſſiſts the healing of ill-conditioned ulcers. Their taſte is ſomewhat aſtringent, but acrid like that of muſtard; they are alſo ſaponaceous and diuretic. See Miller's Bot. Off.

SOPOR, i. e. Caros.

SOPORALIS. The ſleepy vein. So the ancients called the jugular vein.

SOPORARIÆ ARTERIÆ. The carotid arteies.

SOPOROSI. Soporoſe affections, or diminution of ſenſe and motion.

SORA, i. e. Effere.

SORANUS. He was the moſt ſkilful of the methodic ſect, and he put the laſt hand to its improvement. He lived under Trajan and Adrian. Cœlius Aurelianus contains ſome of the works of Soranus. There were other Soranus's; this was born at Epheſus, he ſettled at laſt at Rome. The next celebrated phyſician, after Soranus, was Cœlius Aurelianus.

SORBUS. The ſervice tree. That uſed in medicine is the *ſorbus* aucuparia. Linn. It reſembles the pear and the cratægus in all reſpects, except that the leaves are pinnated, as in the fraxinus. The fruit is reſtringent before it is ripe; but when ripe, it is very agreeable. Raii Hiſt.

SORDES AURIUM. Ear wax.

SORY. It is a mineral that is blackiſh, hard, heavy, of a cavernous ſpongy texture, a diſagreeable ſmell, a nauſeous vitriolic taſte; it is compoſed of vitriol, ſulphur, and an earth. It is found in the mines in Devonſhire. It contains a cupreous vitriol; hence it is emetic. The Greeks uſed it as a depilatory.

SOUDE, alſo called ſoude blanche. See KALI.

SPA WATER. It is one of the beſt of the chalybeate kind in Europe.

SPANOPOGON. Thinly bearded.

SPARGONOSIS. A milk abſceſs.

SPASMA, from *σπάω, to draw.* A ſpaſm, a convulſion, a ſtrain. A *ſpaſm* may be ſaid to be preſent when any part of the human body, by the influence of the muſcular, membranous, or nervous fibres is contracted involuntarily. This ſpaſtic affection particularly affects the nervous and membranous parts, ſuch as the ſtomach, and the whole volume of the inteſtines: whence proceed the hyſteric and hypochondriac paſſions. A *ſpaſm* is alſo preſent when there is an hæmorrhage, a congeſtion of blood, unequal flux of the fluids, anxieties, and ſuppreſſed excretions. A *ſpaſm* affecting the dura mater conſiderably occaſions contractions of the whole nervous and membranous ſyſtem, whence an epilepſy, or univerſal convulſion. *Spaſms* in the medulla ſpinalis produce convulſions in particular parts. Many diſorders are the effects of *ſpaſms*, viz. obſtructed perſpiration, hæmorrhages, coſtiveneſs, ſtrangury, aſthma, &c. See SPASMI below.

SPASMI. Spaſmodic diſeaſe. In Dr. Cullen's Noſology, this is an order in the claſs neuroſes. The term *ſpaſm* hath been variouſly uſed; in the moſt common ſenſe, it hath ſignified any preternatural contraction of any particular part of the body, either without any ſtimulus immediately applied to the part, or which remains after its cauſe is removed. More properly ſpaſms are thoſe preternatural contractions, which are attended with conſiderable mobility of the ſyſtem. Dr. Cullen defines *ſpaſm* to be preternatural motions of the muſcles, or of the muſcular fibres; and under the title of *ſpaſmodic* affections, he includes all the diſeaſes which conſiſt in the preternatural ſtate of the contraction and motion of the muſcular or moving fibres in any part of the body. The *ſpaſmi* have generally been divided into the tonici and clonici, ſpaſtici and agitorii, or motorii, and *ſpaſms*, ſtrictly ſo called, and convulſions. But moſt of the *diſeaſes* called *ſpaſmodic*, are in reſpect to tonic or clonic, of ſo mixed a nature, that it ſeems preferable to arrange *ſpaſmodic* diſorders according as they effect the ſeveral functions, animal, vital, or natural. Cullen's Firſt Lines, v. iii.

SPASMUS. A ſpaſm, the cramp, or convulſion, from *σπαω, to draw.*

SPASMUS CLONICUS. Clonic ſpaſm. In a morbid ſtate, the contraction of the muſcles, or of the muſcular fibres, are involuntary, and are excited by unuſual and unnatural cauſes. When the contractions are ſucceeded by a relaxation, but at the ſame time, are repeated without the concurrence of the will, or the repetition of the natural cauſes, and are, at the ſame time, repeated more frequently, and commonly more violently, than in a healthy ſtate; this ſtate of morbid contraction hath been named *clonic ſpaſm*, and is what Dr. Cullen, in his Noſology, names *convulſion*. See Cullen's Firſt Lines, v. iii.

SPASMUS CYNICUS, alſo called riſus ſardonicus. See SARDONICUS RISUS.

SPASMUS TONICUS. Tonic ſpaſm. In a morbid ſtate, the contraction of the muſcles, or of the muſcular fibres, are involuntary, and are excited by unuſual and unnatural cauſes. When the contractions are to a violent degree, and are neither ſucceeded by a ſpontaneous relaxation, nor readily yield to an extenſion, either from the action of antagoniſt muſcles, or from other extending powers applied; this ſtate of contractions is what hath been called a *tonic ſpaſm*, and what Dr. Cullen names ſtrictly and ſimply, a *ſpaſm*. See Cullen's Firſt Lines, v. iii.

SPECIFICA. Specifics. By *ſpecifics* is not meant ſuch as infallibly and in all patients produce ſalutary effects. Such medicines are not to be expected, becauſe the operations and effects of remedies are not formally inherent in them, but depend upon the mutual action and reaction of the body and medicine upon each other; hence the various effects of the ſame medicine in the ſame kind of diſorders in different patients, and in the ſame patient at different times. By *ſpecific* medicines we underſtand ſuch medicines as are more infallible than any other in any particular diſorder.

SPECILLUM. A probe. Æſculapius is ſaid to have been the firſt who invented its uſe. Quo aliquid ſpecimus, i. e. obſervamus.

SPECULARIS LAPIS, alſo called glacies Mariæ. Muſcovy glaſs. It is a tranſparent concrete, commonly found in pretty large maſſes, which may be eaſily ſplit into a number of thin plates or leaves. Sometimes theſe plates are ſo broad as to be uſed for lanterns. Neumann ſays it is erroneouſly taken for the *glacies Mariæ*, and that it is not, as is generally ſaid, a ſpecies of talc.

SPECULUM. A probe, or an inſtrument for dilating the natural paſſages, or cavities with, of which there are the *ſpeculum* ani, *ſpeculum* oculi, *ſpeculum* oris, *ſpeculum* uteri. *Speculum* is alſo a name for the tunica aranæ of the eye.

SPERMA CETI, improperly called parmy citty. Indeed the name *ſperma* is not a juſt one, for this ſubſtance is a kind of fat, taken from the head of a ſpecies of whale, and which is artificially purified by long boiling with alkaline ley. This fat is found in other parts of this kind of whale, but the beſt is in the head. It differs from other animal fats in not being diſſoluble by alkalies, or combinable with them into a ſoap, and in riſing almoſt totally in diſtillation, not in form of a fluid oil, but in that of a butyraceous matter, reſembling the butter of wax. By long keeping it becomes yellow, or rancid; this rancid part, like other fats, diſſolves in alkaline ley, and the remainder is left ſweet and white.

This concrete is without any remarkable ſmell, and hath a butyraceous taſte. It is much uſed in coughs, dyſenteries, eroſions of the bowels, and in ſuch caſes in general as require that the ſolids ſhould be relaxed or ſoftened, alſo in which acrid humours are to be obtunded. It readily diſſolves in oils, and unites with wax by the aſſiſtance of heat, and thus it is uſed externally. For internal uſe, it may be diſſolved with water, and ſo formed into an emulſion, by the intervention of the mucilage of gum arabic, or by the help of almonds, which are to be rubbed with it.

Sperma ceti is an admirable ſubſtitute for oils, when they do not reſt eaſy on the ſtomach. Sir Richard Manningham extols the mixture of *ſperma ceti* with diaphoretics in the cure of internal inflammations; and he ſays that when bleeding cannot be prudently ventured on in inflammatory fevers, the *ſperma ceti* mixed with contrayerva root, and the volatile ſalt of hartſhorn, may be depended on, if means can be expected to produce any good effect. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

SPERMATICA ARTERIA. The ſpermatic artery. There is one in each ſide. Each of theſe *arteries* riſe from the aorta, but are not, as ſome aſſert, ſmall at their origin, and larger in their proceſs, nor do they anaſtomoſe with the *ſpermatic* veins. For the moſt part theſe *arteries* riſe from the anterior part of the aorta, between the emulgent and the inferior meſenteric *arteries*; their courſe is obliquely downwards and outwards, they run upon the ſoas muſcle to the brim of the pelvis, and then through the aperture in the external oblique muſcle; they run behind and contiguous to the peritoneum, and do not lie in the cavity of the belly. They are connected by the cellular membrane to each other, and to their coreſponding veins, all which run in a ſerpentine manner, and form the *ſpermatic* cord.

SPERMATICA CORDA. The ſpermatic cord. It is compoſed of the *ſpermatic* artery and vein, of nerves, lymphatics, the vas deferens, the cremaſter muſcle, and aponeurotic membrane, derived from the opening of the external oblique muſcle of the belly; they are all connected by the cellular membrane.

This *cord* is alſo called corpus varicoſum, corpus pyramidale, corpus pampiniforme, vaſa ſpermaticæ, vaſa preparantia, and capreolaris.

SPERMATICÆ VENÆ. Spermatic veins. A little below the emulgent *veins* the vena cava ſends out the right *vena ſpermatica*. The left *ſpermatic vein* commonly ſprings from the left emulgent *vein*, the reaſon of which is ſaid to be, the avoiding the aorta in its paſſage, by which the motion thereof might be retarded. But this does not ſeem to be the cauſe, as the ſame caution is not obſerved with reſpect to the emulgent.

SPERMATOCELE, from *σπερμα, ſemen,* and *κηλη, a tumor.*

tumor. It is a morbid diſtenſion of the epididymis and vas deferens, produced by a ſtagnation of *ſemen*. This may be produced by *tumors*, ſtricture, or inflammation, about the caput gallinaginis, or in the courſe of the vas deferens; but there is reaſon to think that it is more frequently induced by the laſt, viz. by inflammation, than by either of the other two.

When an inflammatory affection of the parts is diſcovered to be the cauſe of the diſeaſe, general and topical bloodletting, gentle laxatives, a low cooling diet, and reſt of body, will commonly be found the moſt effectual remedies. And again, when *tumors* are diſcovered to preſs upon the vas deferens, they ought either to be brought to ſuppurate, or their extirpation ſhould be attempted when that can be done with propriety. At other times theſe *tumors* are found to depend on a venereal cauſe; and in ſuch inſtances a well directed courſe of mercury hath been known to remove them.

On ſome occaſions, it is ſaid, that all the other means having failed, caſtration has at laſt been found requiſite. But this cannot be ſuppoſed to be a very neceſſary ſtep. See Bell's Syſtem of Surgery, vol. i. p. 495.

SPHACELUS. A mortification. See MORTIFICATIO.

SPHACELUS OSSIS, i. e. Spina Ventoſa.

SPHACELISMUS, the ſame as phrenitis.

SPHÆNOIDES OS. The ſphenoid bone, from σφὴν, a *wedge*. It is alſo called os cuneiforme. See SPHENOIDES OS.

SPHENOIDES OS. The ſphenoid bone. It is an irregular *bone* which runs into the baſis of the ſkull, from one temple to the other. Externally it hath five proceſſes, which are all ſubdivided. The firſt and ſecond are the two lateral apophyſes, the upper part of each of which is called the temporal proceſs; that part of them which jets out towards the inſide, lower than the temporal, and which makes up part of the orbit, is called the orbitar proceſs; the loweſt and back part of theſe proceſſes is called the ſpinous proceſs. The two external proceſſes which get out nearly perpendicular to the baſe of the cranium, with each a foſſa behind, are called the pterygoid proceſſes. The azygous proceſs is that ſharp middle ridge which is in the baſe of the bone.

SPHENO-MAXILLARIS ARTERIA. It is the firſt branch of the *maxillaria* interna *arteria*; it goes to the inferior orbitary, or *ſpheno maxillary* fiſſure, and to the orbit, through the foramen *ſpheno* palatinum.

SPHENO-MAXILLARIA FISSURA. So Winſlow calls the inferior orbitary fiſſures formed by the edges of the maxillary notches in the os ſphenoides. They are continued in the maxilla ſuperior, and are there called the inferior orbitary fiſſures.

SPHENO-PALATINUS. Theſe muſcles riſe (one on each ſide) from the os ſphenoides, and are inſerted into the ſides of the glandula palati, and back part of the uvula.

SPHENO-PALATINUS. It is the name of a branch from the upper maxillary branch of the fifth pair of nerves. It is diſtributed to the muſculus pterygoideus internus, to the back part of the nares, to the ſinus ſphenoidales, and to the tuba Euſtachiana.

SPHENO-PHARYNGÆUS. This muſcles riſes (one on each ſide) from the alary proceſſes of the ſphenoid bone, and runs to the ſides of the pharynx.

SPHENO-PTERYGO-PALATINUS. Valſalva diſcovered that this muſcle does not belong to the uvula, but to the tuba Euſtachiana. It riſes from the os ſphenoides, and is inſerted into the fore-part of the palate.

SPHENO-SALPINGO-PHARYNGÆI. Theſe muſcles are fixed by one extremity partly to the ſphenoidal ſide of the bony portion of the Euſtachian tube, partly to the neareſt ſoft portion of the ſame tube; thence it runs towards the external wing of the apophyſis pterygoides, into which one portion of the muſcle is inſerted; the other portion runs to the end of the wing, and turns round to the forked extremity thereof as over a pully, and is afterwards inſerted in the ſeptum palati near the uvula.

SPHENO-SALPINGO-STAPHILINUS, i. e. circumflexus palati.

SPHINCTER ANI. The ſphincter of the anus, from σφίγω, *conſtringo*, *to ſhut*. The extremity of the *anus* is ſurrounded by the *ſphincter* which ariſes from the bottom of the os coccygis, and its fibres ſeparating, ſurrounds the *anus*, and terminates in the lower part of the bulb of the urethra.

SPHINCTER GULÆ, i. e. Sphincter œſophagi.

SPHINCTER LABIORUM. The ſphincter of the lips. This muſcle ſurrounds the *lips* with orbicular fibres, and when it acts it corrugates them. It is an antagoniſt to all the other muſcles of the *lips*, keeping them in order, and allowing them an equal balance.

SPHINCTER ŒSOPHAGI. The ſphincter of the œſophagus. See ŒSOPHAGUS.

SPHINCTER VAGINÆ. The ſphincter of the vagina. Juſt within the *vagina* we obſerve this *ſphincter* muſcle; it is two planes of circular fibres that come partly from the perinæum and partly from the *ſphincter* ani; they ſurround the *vagina*, and are loſt in the fibres of the crura clitoridis. Its office is to bring the perinæum cloſer to the bones, and ſo embrace the penis in coitu.

SPHINCTER VESSICÆ. The ſphincter of the bladder is a ſeries of tranſverſe fibres running croſs-wiſe under the ſtraight fibres of the neck of the bladder in a circular manner.

SPICA. A ſpike. It is a part of a ſtalk thick ſet with flowers or fruit, ſo as to form an acute cone. *Spica* is the name of a bandage, which is of three kinds; and ſo called from their reſemblance to an ear of corn.

SPICA INGUINALIS. It is a bandage uſed for the cure of an inteſtinal hernia, a diſlocation of the thigh, and a fracture of the os ilei. It is either ſingle or double headed; the ſingle is twenty-four feet in length and three fingers broad; the end is placed on the os ilei of the ſound ſide; hence the head of the roller paſſes round the bottom of the belly and the hip, then to the back part of the thigh, comes up between the thighs, and is conveyed to the groin, and ſo over the back where it begun; pin the bandage to the compreſs on the groin, and finiſh by a turn or two round the belly. When applied to one groin only it is called *ſpica inguinalis* ſimplex. When the ſimple *ſpica* hath two heads, place the middle part at the perinæum, from whence the heads aſcend obliquely to the hip, from whence they paſs behind and before to the other hip.

SPICA INGUINALIS DUPLEX. The double inguinal ſpica. It is uſed when a rupture, &c. is in both groins. It is *double* headed, twenty-four feet long, and three inches broad. Its middle is fixed on the loins, and brought round the belly, where the ends are changed; then they go round the outſide of the thighs, paſs under the buttocks, and aſcend on each groin; there, having ſecured the dreſſings, they aſcend over the oſſa ilia to their beginning, where the heads are again changed and brought round to the belly, where they are again changed, and then they deſcend on each ſide of the ſcrotum, and go round the buttocks to each groin, and ſo to the belly, where they are again changed, and then they aſcend to the oſſa ilia. This direction muſt be repeated often.

SPICA SIMPLEX. It is a bandage, ſo called from its reſemblance to an ear of a grain. Some call it geranium. It is a common roller, about five ells long, and three fingers breadth broad, rolled up with one head. When it is rolled up with two heads it is called *ſpica duplex*.

SPIGELIA, i. e. anthelmia.

SPINA. The ſpine. It is divided into true and falſe vertebræ. The true are twenty-four in number, viz. ſeven of the neck, twelve of the back, and five of the loins. Each vertebra is compoſed of its body and proceſſes. The body is the thick anterior part, which is convex before and concave behind, and moſt horizontal and plain both above and below. The ſurfaces of two contiguous vertebræ are covered with a cartilage. There is a ligament, compoſed of concentrical curved fibres, which is firmly attached to the horizontal ſurface of the vertebræ, beſides which there is a ſtrong ligament, which lies between the edges of the vertebræ, whoſe fibres decuſſate each other in the form of an X. From each ſide of the body of each vertebra, a bony ridge is produced backwards and to a ſide, from the poſterior extremity of which one ſlanting proceſs ariſes, and another deſcends: the ſmooth ſide of each of theſe four proceſſes (which are

called the oblique) is covered with a cartilage, and the two inferior oblique proceſſes of each vertebra are aticulated with the two ſuperior oblique proceſſes of the vertebra below. From between the ſuperior and inferior oblique proceſſes of each ſide the vertebra is ſtretched out laterally, and forms a proceſs called tranſverſe. From the poſterior root of the two oblique and of the tranſverſe proceſs, on each ſide, a broad oblique bony plate is extended backward; where theſe meet, the *ſpinal* proceſs riſes, and ſtands out backwards. Theſe ſeven proceſſes form the poſterior parts of the vertebræ, and are hollow at their anterior middle part, which cavity joined with that on the back part of the bodies, make a great canal which anſwers to another in the vertebra above and below, for the medulla *ſpinalis*. There are two ſemicircular notches belonging to each vertebra, which coincide with two ſimilar notches in the adjoining vertebra; through theſe foramina, (which are placed immediately behind the body of the vertebræ) the *ſpinal* nerves paſs out.

The cervical vertebræ are concave above and convex below; they are flat forward and behind. Their *ſpinal* proceſſes are bifid to allow a more convenient inſertion for the muſcles. The tranſverſe proceſſes are ſhort and generally bifid, the root having a hole for the ſecure paſſage of the vertebral artery and vein. The oblique proceſſes are quite horizontal. The rotatory motions of the head are not entirely performed by the firſt and ſecond vertebræ (as is moſtly imagined), but they are greatly aſſiſted by the reſt of the *ſpine*; for the rotation of any two vertebræ is inconſiderable, yet it is not ſo when we conſider them all together; beſides, if this rotation was betwixt the firſt and ſecond only, as we are capable of rotating the head a quarter of a circle, ſo great a degree of motion would have deſtroyed the *ſpinal* marrow of that part.

The dorſal vertebræ are of a middle ſize betwixt the cervical and lumbal, and are flattened laterally by the preſſure of the ribs, which are inſerted into ſmall cavities in the ſides of theſe vertebræ. The ribs are articulated betwixt two vertebræ, except in the firſt, eleventh, and twelfth, where the cavity for their reception is entirely formed in the ſaid vertebræ.

The lumbar vertebræ are larger than the others; the cartilages between them are thicker, and the *ſpinal* and oblique proceſſes ſtronger, which is neceſſary, as they have a greater quantity of motion, and are the moſt expoſed in injuries offered to the *ſpine*.

The falſe vertebræ are divided into two bones, viz. the os ſacrum and os coccygis.

Upon the *ſpine*, particularly in the cavities of the thorax and abdomen, are found a number of lymphatic veſſels and glands.

SPINA ALBA. The white thorn tree, alſo called oxyacantha, meſpilus apii folio ſylveſtris ſpinoſa. Hawthorn. It is the cratægus oxyacantha, Linn. It is common in hedges: its flowers have an agreeable fragrance, and have been uſeful in ſtrengthening weak ſtomachs by uſing them in the manner of tea or an infuſion.

SPINA ÆGYPTIACA, i. e. Acacia.

SPINA ARABICA. The Arabian thiſtle.

SPINA BIFIDA, alſo called hydrops medullæ ſpinalis. Sagar ſays that it is a true dropſy of the thecæ *ſpinalis*. It is a tumor of the colour of the ſkin, and is ſeated upon the vertebræ of the neck, back or loins, or on the ſutures of the ſkull. It receives its name from the proceſſes of the ſpine being wanting, where it is. It is known by its ſituation, its being always there at the birth of the patient, its watery contents, and the palſy, which uſually attends it. Dr. Cullen names it HYDRORACHITIS, which ſee.

This diſorder is incurable. For the moſt part thoſe children on whom theſe tumors are found, die in a day or two. If this tumor is opened, death is ſpeedily the conſequence. Dr. Mackenzie, profeſſor of midwifery in London, gave a drawing which was a caſe of this kind, and with which the child lived four months, but at length died in convulſions. Mr. Warner gives an inſtance of this diſorder in a young man of twenty years old. See his Caſes in Surgery.

SPINA CERVINA, i. e. rhamnus cathartieus, Linn.

SPINA VENTOSA, ſee HYDARTHRUS. Called alſo ſpinæ ventoſitas, ſideratio oſſis, cancer oſſis, gangræna oſſis, ſphacelus oſſis, teredo, and by ſome French authors exoſtoſis. When children are the ſubjects of this diſeaſe, M. Severinus calls it pædarthrocace. With us it is often called a white ſwelling. *Spina* ſeems to have been a term applied by the Arabians to this diſorder, becauſe it occaſions a pricking in the fleſh like the puncture of thorns, and the epithet *ventoſa* is added, becauſe that, upon touching the tumor, it ſeems to be filled with wind, though this is not the cauſe of the diſtenſion. The late Mr. Sharp ſays, that the *ſpina ventoſa* is a caries of a bone, attended with an internal corruption of its whole ſubſtance, and generally ariſing from a putrefaction of the marrow, by which the periofteum and ligaments, as well as the bone, are wholly deſtroyed.

Mr. Pott divides this diſorder into the hydrops articuli, the fungus articuli, or thickening of the ligaments of the joint, and the enlargement of the bone. The firſt of theſe, or the hydrops articuli, very often comes on ſuddenly, is of ſhort duration, and goes off as ſuddenly; it often happens in relaxed habits from a want of lymphatic abſorption, from relaxation, from an obſtruction in the lymphatic circulation in the joint; it ſometimes happens in rheumatic habits. The ſecond is generally known by the uniform ſwelling of the parts growing very hard, ſo as to deſtroy all diſtinction; and laſtly, by an inflexibility: this uſually ends in amputation.

There is a diſeaſe in the *ſpine* to which no name ſeems to be fixed; it is manifeſt by its becoming more or leſs curved, and by a loſs of the uſe (generally) of the lower limbs. It is ſometimes called the *curved ſpine*. Mr. Pott is the firſt who hath favoured the world with any juſt idea either of its nature or cure. In one of his publications he calls it a kind of palſy in the lower limbs; in another he ſpeaks of it as a uſeleſs ſtate of them. From his account of this diſorder, it hath a ſcrophulous origin; but as its moſt ſtriking ſymptoms are from the caries, which takes place in the bodies of ſome of the vertebræ, may it not be properly termed the *ſtrumous ſpinal caries*?

In this diſeaſe, there is a total or partial abolition of the power of uſing, and ſometimes of even moving the limbs, generally only the lower, but ſometimes the upper, or both, in conſequence of a diſeaſe in the *ſpine*, which is firſt manifeſted by a curvature taking place in ſome part of it. To this diſtemper, both ſexes, and all ages, are equally liable, though the majority of theſe patients are infants or young children.

When the attack is made on an infant of only one or two years old, the true cauſe is rarely diſcovered until ſome time after the effect has taken place; the nurſe or parents ſuppoſe that the child is weakly, or hath been hurt at its birth. When on the attack the patient hath been uſed to walk, the loſs of the uſe of his legs is gradual, though not in general very ſlow. At firſt he ſhews ſigns of being ſoon tired, he is languid, liſtleſs, and unwilling to move much, or at all briſkly; ſoon after this he is obſerved frequently to trip and ſtumble, although there is no impediment in his way; whenever he attempts to move quickly, he finds that his legs involuntary croſs each other, by which he is frequently thrown down ſuddenly, and that without ſtumbling; upon endeavouring to ſtand ſtill and erect, even for a few minutes, his knees give way, and bear forward. When the diſtemper is a little further advanced, it will be found that he cannot, without much difficulty, direct either of his feet preciſely to any exact point; on attempting to do ſo, they ſuddenly interſect, and very ſoon after, both thighs and legs loſe much of their natural ſenſibility, and become perfectly uſeleſs. When an adult is thus affected, the progreſs of the diſtemper is much the ſame, but rather quicker. Arrived at this ſtate, whatever be the age or ſex of the patient, complaint is made of twitching and frequent pains in the thighs, particulary when in bed, and of uneaſy ſenſation at the pit of the ſtomach; when he ſits on a chair or a ſtool his legs are almoſt always found acroſs each other, and drawn up under the ſeat; in a little time after theſe particulars have been obſerved, the power of walking is totally loſt.

The true curvature is invariably uniform in being from within outwards. This curve of the *ſpine* varies in ſituation, extent and degree, being either in the neck, back, or (more rarely) in the upper part of the loins; ſometimes comprehending one vertebra only, ſometimes two, three or more; by which the curve becomes neceſſarily more or

leſs

leſs extenſive; but whatever variety theſe circumſtances may admit, the lower limbs moſt frequently feel the effect; ſometimes the arms only are paralytic (as it is called,) and a few inſtances have occurred in which both legs and arms were alike affected. The effect is alſo different in different ſubjects; ſome are rendered totally and abſolutely incapable of walking in any manner, or with any help, and that very early in the courſe of the diſeaſe, that is, ſoon after the appearance of the curvature; others can move with the help of crutches, or by graſping their thighs juſt above their knees with their hands; ſome can ſit in an erect poſture or in a chair, without much trouble or fatigue, whilſt others are incapable of doing ſo, at leaſt for any length of time; ſome have ſuch a degree of motion in their legs or thighs, as to enable them to turn and move for their own convenience in bed; others have not that benefit, and are obliged to lie until they are moved by another.

When a naturally weak infant is the ſubject, the curvature is in the vertebræ of the back; it is not unfrequently productive of additional deformity, by gradually rendering the whole back what is vulgarly called humped; and by alterations which all the bones of the thorax ſometimes undergo in reſpect to ſituation, in conſequence of the flexure and weakneſs of the *ſpine*, by which, ſuch perſons are juſtly ſaid to be ſhortened in their ſtature; but in all caſes, where this effect has been gradually produced, to whatever degree the deformity may extend, or however the alteration made in the diſpoſition of the ribs and ſternum, may contribute to ſuch deformity, yet I think that it will always be found, that the curvature of the *ſpine* appeared firſt, and, if I may ſo ſay, ſingly, and that all the reſt was conſequential.

The general health of the patient does not ſeem, at firſt, to be materially, if at all, affected; but when the diſeaſe has been ſome time, and the curvature thereby increaſed, many inconveniences and complaints come on, ſuch as, when the incurvation is in the neck, and to a conſiderable degree, by affecting ſeveral vertebræ, the child finds it inconvenient and painful to ſupport its head, and is always deſirous of laying it on a table or pillow, or any thing to take off the weight. When in the dorſal vertebræ, there is a difficulty of breathing, loſs of appetite, indigeſtion, dry cough, quick pulſe, a diſpoſition early to an hectic pain, and what they all call tightneſs at the ſtomach, obſtinate conſtipations, or purgings, involuntary flux of urine and fæces, &c. with the addition of what are called nervous complaints, ſome of which are cauſed by the alterations made in the form of the cavity of the thorax, others ſeem to ariſe from impreſſions made on the abdominal viſcera.

An adult in a caſe where no violence hath been committed, or received, uſually complains, that his firſt intimation was a ſenſe of weakneſs in his back bone, accompanied with what he calls a heavy dull kind of pain, attended with ſuch a laſſitude as rendered a ſmall degree of exerciſe fatiguing; that this is ſoon followed by an unuſual ſenſe of coldneſs in his thighs, not accountable for from the weather, or any cauſe that can produce a diminution of their ſenſibility. That in a little time more, his limbs were affected with an unuſual ſenſibility, alſo were frequently convulſed by involuntary twitchings, particularly troubleſome in the night; that ſoon after this, he not only became incapable of walking, but that his power either of retaining or diſcharging his urine or fæces was conſiderably impaired, and his penis became incapable of erection. The adult as well as the child complains conſtantly of a tightneſs and pain at his ſtomach, and he finds all the offices of his digeſtive and reſpiratory organs much impeded.

The loſs of motion in the limbs, which generally accompanies a diſtorted *ſpine*, is ſuppoſed to proceed from the ſaid diſtortion. Until the curvature is diſcovered, it generally paſſes for a nervous complaint; but when the ſtate of the vertebræ hath been adverted to, recourſe is almoſt always had to ſome previous violence to account for it; ſome blow, fall, or other accident, which are ſuppoſed to have hurt the back, or derange the *ſpine*. In ſome few inſtances, theſe exertions may have been ſuch, as might be allowed to have been equal to the effect; but in the majority, theſe are ſo far from being the caſe, that if they are admitted to have any ſhare at all in it, ſome prediſpoſing cauſe, at leaſt, muſt be looked for, in which conſiſts the very eſſence of the diſeaſe. From many conſiderations reſpecting this ſubject, it appears, that when we attribute the whole of this miſchief to the mere accidental curvature of the *ſpine*, in conſequence of violence, we miſtake an effect for a cauſe; and that previous both to the paralytic ſtate of the legs, and to the alteration of the figure of the back-bone, there is a prediſpoſing cauſe of both, conſiſting in a diſtempered ſtate of the ligaments and bones, where the curve ſoon after makes its appearance. The primary and ſole cauſe of the miſchief, is a diſtempered ſtate of the parts compoſing, or in immediate connection with the *ſpine*, tending to, and moſt frequently ending in a caries of the body or bodies, of one or more of the vertebræ; from this proceed all the ills, whether general or local, apparent or concealed; this cauſes the ill health of the patient, and in time the curvature. The helpleſs ſtate of the limbs is only one conſequence of ſeveral proceeding from the ſame cauſe.

It has been ſuppoſed that there is a diſlocation of the vertebræ, but there is no diſplacement of them with regard to each other; the *ſpine* bends forwards only, becauſe the rotten bone or bones intervening between the ſound ones give way, being unable in ſuch a ſtate to bear the parts above. From every circumſtance in the living, and appearance in the dead, it is evident, that the complaint ariſes from what is commonly called a ſcrofulous indiſpoſition affecting the parts that compoſe the *ſpine*, or thoſe in its immediate vicinity: this morbid affection ſhews itſelf in a variety of forms, but they are always ſuch as ſooner or later determine the true nature of the diſtemper. Sometimes each of the diſtempered ſtates of theſe parts, is accompanied by a greater or leſſer degree of deformity and crookedneſs of the *ſpine*, without any apparent diſeaſe of the bones compoſing it; ſometimes the deformity is attended with eroſion or caries of the body or bodies of ſome of the vertebræ; and ſometimes the ſame bones are found to be carious, without any crookedneſs or alteration of figure. It may not be amiſs to remark, that ſtrumous tubercles in the lungs, and a diſtempered ſtate of ſome of the abdominal viſcera, often make a part of the attendants.

It is further to be obſerved, that when theſe complaints are not attended with an alteration of the figure of the back-bone, neither the real ſeat, nor true nature of the diſtemper are pointed out by the general ſymptoms, and conſequently that they frequently are unknown, at leaſt while the patient lives. When the ligaments and cartilages of the *ſpine* become the ſeat of the diſorder, without any affection of the vertebræ, it ſometimes happens that the whole *ſpine*, from the loweſt vertebra of the neck downwards, gives way laterally, forming one great curve to one ſide; and ſometimes a more irregular figure, and attended with many marks of ill health. The attack is ſometimes on the bodies of ſome of the vertebræ, and when this is the caſe, ulceration and eroſion of the bones is the conſequence; this eroſion or caries of the bones often produces the curvature peculiar to this diſeaſe, by waſting the body of each vertebra that is affected, and then the ſpinal proceſſes of the diſtempered vertebræ protuberate behind in conſequence of their fore parts falling down as above noticed. When the attack is made upon the dorſal vertebræ, the ſternum and ribs, for want of proper ſupport, neceſſarily give way, and other deformity, additional to the curve, is produced. As to the caſes of carious *ſpine* without curvature, it ſometimes happens that internal abſceſſes and collections of matter are formed near the *ſpine*; this matter affecting the *ſpine*, and alſo making its way outward, produce what are called pſoa abſceſſes, &c. and deſtroy the patient; the real and immediate cauſe of death in theſe inſtances are rarely known until the body is examined. The uſeleſs ſtate of the limbs is by no means a conſequence of the altered figure of the *ſpine*, or of the diſpoſition of the bones with regard to each other, but merely of the caries: of this truth there needs no other proof, than what may be drawn from the cure of a large and extenſive curvature, in which three or more vertebræ were concerned; in this, the deformity always remains unaltered and unalterable, notwithſtanding the patient recovers both health and limbs.

On

On diſſecting ſeveral of the patients who died under this diſeaſe, whoſe ſpines were curved in various degrees, and whoſe limbs were become uſeleſs, appearances as follow were obſerved: in infants and young children, alſo thoſe who had been afflicted but a ſhort time, whatever their age was, the ligaments connecting the vertebræ, which formed the curve, were in ſome degree altered from a natural ſtate, being ſomewhat thickened, relaxed and altered, and the cartilages between the bodies of the vertebræ much compreſſed and leſſened in ſize. Thoſe who had ſo long laboured under the diſeaſe as to have been deſtroyed by it, or by its conſequences, the corpora vertebrarum were completely carious, the intervening cartilages totally deſtroyed, and a quantity of ſanies lodged between the rotten bones, and the membrane inveſting the *ſpinal marrow*. In the body of one man who died of this diſorder, in its laſt and worſt ſtate, the bodies of three of the vertebræ were not only quite carious, but completely ſeparated from all connection with the other parts of the ſame vertebræ. The bodies of the vertebræ concerned are often affected, while the ligaments bear but little marks of diſtemper; but whether the ligaments be affected or not, the bodies of the vertebræ are always diſeaſed, and this diſeaſe erodes them (or renders them carious:) the ſtate alſo of the intervertebral cartilages are ſubject to great variety, they being ſometimes totally deſtroyed, while the caries is ſmall in degree, ſometimes apparently but little injured, where the caries has done conſiderable miſchief, and ſometimes totally deſtroyed or annihilated.

Mr. Pott obſerves that, in compliance with cuſtom, he hath called this diſeaſe a palſy; but that notwithſtanding the limbs be rendered almoſt totally uſeleſs, yet there are ſome eſſential circumſtances in which this affection differs from a common nervous palſy: the legs and thighs are rendered unfit for all the purpoſes of locomotion, and have loſt much of their natural ſenſibility; but notwithſtanding this, they have neither the flabby feel which a truly paralytic limb has, nor have they that ſeeming looſeneſs at the joints, nor that total incapacity of reſiſtance which allows the latter to be twiſted in almoſt all directions; on the contrary, in this diſeaſe, the joints have frequently a conſiderable degree of ſtiffneſs, particularly the ancles, by which ſtiffneſs the feet of children are generally pointed downwards; and they are prevented from ſetting them flat on the ground. In the true paralyſis, from whatever cauſe, the muſcles of the affected limb are ſoft, flabby, and unreſiſting, and incapable of being put into even a tonic ſtate; the limb itſelf may be placed in almoſt any poſition or poſture; and if it be lifted up, and then let go, it falls down, and it is not in the power of the patient to prevent, or even to retard its fall: the joints are perfectly and eaſily moveable in any direction; if the affection be of the lower limbs, neither hips, nor knees, nor ankles, have any degree of rigidity or ſtiffneſs, but permit the limb to be turned or twiſted in almoſt any manner. But, in caſes of uſeleſs limbs from the ſame cauſe as that of the curved *ſpine*, the muſcles are extenuated and leſſened in ſize; but they are rigid, and always in a tonic ſtate, by which the knees and ancles acquire a ſtiffneſs not very eaſy to overcome; by means of this ſtiffneſs, mixed with a kind of ſpaſm, the legs of the patient are either conſtantly kept ſtretched out ſtrait, in which caſe, conſiderable force is required to bend the knees, or they are by the action of the ſtronger muſcles drawn acroſs each other, in ſuch a manner as to require as much to ſeparate them. When the leg is in a ſtraight poſition, the extentor muſcles act ſo powerfully as to require a conſiderable degree of force to bend the joints of the knees; and when they have been bent, the legs are immediately and ſtrongly drawn up, with the heels towards the buttocks: by the rigidity of the ancle joints, joined to the ſpaſmodic action of the gaſtrocnemii muſcles, the patients toes are pointed downwards in ſuch a manner as to render it impoſſible for him to put his feet flat on the ground, which makes one of the deciſive characters of this diſtemper. Thus the marks of diſtinction between this diſeaſe and the palſy, are ſufficiently ſtrong to ſhew the impropriety of confounding them.

The reſtoration of the *ſpine* to its natural figure, depends much on the early adminiſtration of the help propoſed; though the diſtemper may be ſo far cured, as that the patient may recover the uſe of his limbs, yet ſuch an alteration may have taken place in the bodies of the vertebræ, as to render it impoſſible for the *ſpine* to become ſtraight again; and, if from inattention, from length of time, or from any other circumſtances, it happens that the bodies of the vertebræ become completely carious, and the intervening cartilages are deſtroyed, no aſſiſtance is to be expected from the propoſed remedies. According to the obſervations made on the uſual effect of the diſcharge produced by art for the removal of this diſorder, after the diſcharge hath continued for ſome time, the patient begins to feel better health, he gradually recovers his appetite, gets refreſhing ſleep, hath a more quiet and leſs hectical pulſe; but the chief relief is from having got rid of that diſtreſſing ſenſation of tightneſs about the ſtomach; in a little time more, a degree of warmth and a ſenſibility is felt in the thighs, to which the patient hath been a ſtranger for ſome time; and generally much about the ſame time the power of retaining and diſcharging the urine and fæces begins to be in ſome degree exerted. The firſt return of the power of motion in the limbs is rather diſagreeable, the motions being involuntary and of the ſpaſmodic kind, principally in the night, and generally attended with a ſenſe of pain in all the muſcles concerned. At this point of amendment, if it may be ſo called, it is no uncommon thing, eſpecially in bad caſes, for the patient to ſtand ſome time without making any farther progreſs; this in adults occaſions impatience, and in parents deſpair; but in the milder kind of caſes, the power of voluntary motion generally ſoon follows the involuntary. The knees and ancles by degrees loſe their ſtiffneſs, and the relaxation of the latter enables the patient to ſet his feet flat upon the ground, a certain mark that the power of walking will ſoon follow; but thoſe joints having loſt their rigidity, become exceeding weak, and are not for ſome time capable of ſerving the purpoſe of progreſſion. The firſt voluntary motions are weak, not conſtantly performable, nor even every day, and liable to great variation, from a number of accidental circumſtances, both external and internal. The firſt attempts to walk are feeble, irregular and unſteady, and bear every mark of nervous and muſcular debility. The patient requires much help, and his ſteps, with the beſt ſupport, will be irregular and unſteady; but when they have arrived at this, no inſtance hath occurred in which the full power of walking was not ſoon attained. When the patient can juſt walk, either with crutches, or between two ſupporters, he is generally troubled to reſiſt or overcome the more powerful action of the ſtronger muſcles of the thighs over the weaker, by which his legs are frequently brought involuntarily acroſs each other, and he is ſuddenly thrown down. Adults find aſſiſtance in crutches, by laying hold of the chairs, tables, &c. but for children, a go-cart is the beſt; it ſhould reach up to the arm-pit, and ſhould encloſe the whole body; this takes off all inconvenient weight from the legs, at the ſame time enables the child to move them as much as it pleaſes.

While the curvature of the *ſpine* remains undiſcovered or unattended to, the caſe is generally ſuppoſed to be nervous, and nervous medicines, ſo called, are as generally adminiſtered; but without any advantage. When the caſe is known, recourſe is too frequently had to ſteel ſtays, ſwings, ſcrew chairs, &c. to reſtore the *ſpine* to its natural figure; but ſtill the patient grows unhealthy, and languiſhing under a variety of complaints, dies in an exhauſted emaciated ſtate. The remedy for this dreadful diſeaſe conſiſts merely in procuring a large diſcharge of matter by ſuppuration, from underneath the membrana adipoſa on each ſide of the curvature, and in maintaining ſuch diſchage until the patient ſhall have perfectly recovered the uſe of his legs. They who have been experimentally acquainted with the very wonderful effects of purulent drains, made from the immediate neighbourhood of diſeaſed parts, will not be much ſurprized at this particular one; and will immediately ſee how ſuch kind of diſcharge, made and continued from the diſtempered part, checks the further progreſs of the caries, gives nature an opportunity of exerting her own powers of throwing off the diſeaſed parts, and of producing by incarnation an union of the bones, (now rendered ſound) and thereby eſtabliſhing a cure. It matters not by what means the diſcharge is procured, provided it be large, and from a ſufficient depth.

With

With a cauſtic an eſchar is to be made on each ſide of the curved part of the *ſpine*; the eſchar ſhould be of an oval ſhape, about an inch and a quarter in length, and three quarters of an inch in breadth, at the broadeſt part. Apply each cauſtic near the ſide of the curvature, ſo as to leave the portion of the ſkin covering the ſpinal proceſſes of the protruded bones, entire and unhurt, and ſo large that the ſores upon the ſeparation of the eſchars may eaſily hold each three or four peas in the caſe of the ſmalleſt curvature, but in large curves, at leaſt as many more. A few days after applying the cauſtics, the ſloughs begin to looſen, it is then proper to cut out all the middle, and put into each a large kidney-bean; when the bottoms of the ſores are become clean by ſuppuration, ſprinkle now and then a ſmall quantity of finely powdered cantharides on them, by which the ſores are prevented from contracting, the diſcharge is increaſed, and poſſibly other benefit is obtained. The iſſues ſhould be kept open until the cure is compleat; that is, until the patient has not only the perfect uſe of the limbs, but alſo the general health. By means of this diſcharge, the eroding caries is firſt checked, then ſtopped, in conſequence of which an incarnation takes place, and the cartilages between the bodies of the vertebræ having been previouſly deſtroyed, the bones become united with each other, and form a kind of anchyloſis. No degree of benefit or relief, nor any the ſmalleſt tendency towards a cure is to be expected, until the caries be ſtopped, and the rotten bones have begun to incarn; the larger the quantity of bones concerned, and the greater the degree of waſte committed by the caries, the greater muſt be the length of time required for the correction of it, and for reſtoring to a ſound ſtate ſo large a quantity of diſtempered parts. And vice verſa. Nothing can be more uncertain than the time required to accompliſh a cure: ſometimes it is perfected in two months, and at others it requires two years; and in this laſt, two thirds of the time hath paſſed without any ſenſible amendment.

The diſcharge by means of the iſſues is all that is requiſite for the cure; but yet, this is no reaſon why every aſſiſting means ſhould not be applied at the ſame time in order to expedite, ſuch as the bark, cold bathing, frictions, &c.

In the courſe of lecturing in the year 1781, Mr. Pott obſerved, that it ſeems to be one of the few things that one may reaſon upon à priori, viz. that the whole train of the various ſymptoms of this diſeaſe are derived originally from a conſtitutional prediſpoſing cauſe; for, whenever in a curvature of the *ſpine* the diſcharge begins to have any effect, the leſſer ſymptoms (if they may be ſo called) as pain in the ſtomach, tightneſs acroſs the breaſt, incapacity of holding the urine or fæces, all give way before the removal of the lameneſs from the curve (as it is called) begins to take place.

Laſtly. If it is conſidered, that the primary cauſe of the curved *ſpine* and all its ſymptoms, preceding, attending, and conſequent, is a morbid ſtate of the *ſpine* and of the parts connected with it, the following inference will be allowed, viz. by an early and proper attention, the temporary lameneſs, permanent deformity, and fatality, may be prevented. It is found that iſſues are capable of affecting a perfect curve, even after a caries hath taken place, and that to a conſiderable degree, which is alſo true; is it not reaſonable to conclude, that the ſame means made uſe of in due time might prove preventive? In many habits iſſues would be beneficial, independent of this diſorder; infants and young children of ſtrumous habits, are the ſubjects who are moſt liable to this diſtemper; and they are in general more ſerved by artificial drains than any other perſons whatever.

N. B. A curvature of the *ſpine* may take place from the mollities oſſium, the rickets, and from the various cauſes of caries. An aneuriſm often produces a caries in the bones; ſo an aneuriſm near a vertebra may render it carious; the venereal diſeaſe ſometimes attacks the vertebræ, and renders them carious. The ſcrofula attacking the lymphatics and glands about the *ſpine*, is ſaid to be the conſtant cauſe of the curved *ſpine* above noticed, in which the curvature is angular; the angular protuberance ariſes immediately from the caries of the vertebra or vertebræ, and is attended with a uſeleſs ſtate of one or more of the extremities; but may not any cauſe, that produces a caries in the vertebræ, occaſion the angular inſtead of the curved appearance of the *ſpine*? and when the carious vertebra happens, ſo as that it is nearly deſtroyed, may not all the ſame ſymptoms proceed from ſuch deſtruction of the vertebra or vertebræ, though the cauſes of the caries were various?

See Remarks on that Kind of Palſy of the lower Limbs, which is frequently found to accompany a Curvature of the *Spine*, and is ſuppoſed to be cauſed by it, by Percival Pott, F. R. S. &c. 1779. Farther Remarks on the uſeleſs State of the lower Limbs, in conſequence of a Curvature of the *Spine*, &c. by Percival Pott, F. R. S. &c. 1782. Select Caſes of the Diſorder commonly called the Paralyſis of the lower Extremities, by John Jebb, M. D. &c. Edit. 2.

SPINACHIA, alſo called ſpinacia, olus Hiſpanicum, lapathum hortenſe. Common ſpinage. It is only uſed at the table, but if freely eaten it is laxative, diuretic, and cooling. See Raii Hiſt.

SPINALES COLLI MINORES, i. e. Interſpinales muſc.

SPINALIS ARTERIA. There are two *ſpinal arteries*, one anterior and one poſterior, both produced by the vertebrales; each of which, as ſoon as it enters into the cranium, ſends out a ſmall branch, by the union of which the poſterior *ſpinales* is formed. Afterwards the vertebrales advancing to the apophyſis baſilaris, of the os occipitis, detach backward two other ſmall branches, which likewiſe meet, and by their union form the *ſpinalis* anterior. Theſe *ſpinal arteries* run down on the fore and back ſides of the medulla *ſpinalis*, and by ſmall tranſverſe ramifications communicate with thoſe which the intercoſtal and lumbar *arteries* ſend to the ſame part.

SPINALIS COLLI. This muſcle riſes (one on each ſide) from the ſpines of the ſeven uppermoſt vertebræ of the back, and is inſerted into the ſpines of the five lower vertebræ of the neck.

SPINALIS DORSI MAJOR. It is a long ſlender muſcle lying on the lateral part of the extremities of the ſpinal apophyſes of the back. It is commonly called ſemiſpinales.

SPINALIS DORSI MINOR. Theſe muſcles are of two kinds; ſome go laterally from the extremity of one ſpinal apophyſis to another, being often mixed with the ſhort faſciculi of the *ſpinalis* major: the reſt lie directly between the extremities of two neighbouring ſpinal apophyſes, being ſeparated from their fellows on the other ſide by the ſpinal ligament.

SPINALES LUMBORUM. Theſe are ſome faſciculi which run up from the ſuperior falſe *ſpines* of the os ſacrum to the lower ſpinal apophyſes of the loins, which may be looked upon as ſo many *ſpinales lumborum* majores. There are alſo ſome *ſpinales* minores between the ſpinal apophyſes of the loins, and tranſverſales minores between the tranſverſe apophyſes, which are ſometimes of a conſiderable breadth.

SPINALIS MUSCULUS. This muſcle (and its fellow on the oppoſite ſide) riſes tendinous from the ſpinal proceſſes, and run to be inſerted into the tranſverſe proceſſes. It is diſtinguiſhed into *ſpinalis* colli, and *ſpinalis* dorſi. It goes in this manner as high as the ſpinal proceſs of the ſecond vertebra.

SPINOLA, i. e. ſpina bifida.

SPIRITUS. Spirit. Any fine volatile ſubſtance which exhales from bodies in a given degree of heat is called *ſpirit*; hence, by a ſort of imaginary analogy, the nervous fluid hath been called *ſpirit*, and is generally termed the animal *ſpirit*. *Spirit* in the human body is ſpoken of under the different characters of natural, vital, and animal. The firſt are ſaid to preſide over the digeſtion of the aliment, and the elaboration of chyle, or the natural actions. The ſecond is ſaid to preſide over the motion of the lungs and heart, or the vital actions. The third over the animal actions, as ſenſation, voluntary motion, &c.

In botany it is that volatile part in the eſſential oil of plants to which their peculiar ſmell and taſte is owing. It is alſo called *ſpiritus* rector.

In pharmacy there are many different ſubjects to which the name of *ſpirit* is given; but they are chiefly the *ſpirits* obtained by fermentation, which ſeem to be the only proper ones; thoſe that are formed of a ſaturate ſolution of volatile alkaline ſalts in water are more properly ſolutions than *ſpirits*. The fermented vegetable *ſpirit*, commonly called vinous *ſpirit*, is water ſo impregnated with the oilineſs of a vegetable, that it will burn all away. See VINUM ADUSTUM.

SPIRITUS MINDERERI. Mindererus's ſpirit. Take any quantity of the volatile *ſpirit* of ſal ammoniac; gradually pour upon it the pureſt diſtilled vinegar, until the effervescence ceaſes, occaſionally ſtirring it, to promote the action of the vinegar on the ſalt; or it may be gently heated, by which it will effervesce, if it is not neutral. To hit the neutralized point is difficult; but the beſt way of trying it is to ſtain a thick writing paper on one ſide with the blue called lachmus or archil, and on the other ſide with red, by mixing as much diluted *ſpirit* of ſalt in the lachmus as will redden it; then dip this paper into the mixture which is to be neutral, and if the alcali is predominant, the red ſide will turn blue; if the acid prevails the blue ſide will become red, and no change is produced if the mixture is neutral. The *ſpiritus Mindereri* is analagous to the crude ſal ammoniac in its medicinal qualities, but is ſomewhat more penetrating. From ʒ ii. to ℥ ſs. is the uſual doſe when perſpiration is to be excited.

SPLANCHNICA, from *σπλάγχνον, an entrail or bowel.* Medicines appropriated to the diſeaſes of the bowels or viſcera.

SPLANCHNOLOGIA. Splanchnology. It treats of all the viſcera in the head, breaſt, or belly.

SPLEN. The ſpleen, or milt. Hippocrates calls it the left liver. Ariſtotle calls it the left or baſtard liver. Some of the ancients called it fomes ventriculi, i. e. fuel to the ſtomach; becauſe they ſay its office and ſituation is to the ſtomach as a furnace to a copper, i. e. that it warms the ſtomach. The *ſpleen* is ſituated in the hypochondrium laterally, in the cavity between the falſe ribs and the ſpine. It is of a long oval figure, about ſeven fingers breadth in length, and four or five in breadth. It is generally of a livid or a black red colour, and very lax. It is compoſed of three ſides, the convex is next the diaphragm, the concave is divided by a longitudinal ſulcus where the ſplenic veſſels enter, and divide the *ſpleen* into an under anterior and upper poſterior part. It receives the great extremity of the ſtomach on its concave part. It receives a coat from the peritoneum. At the fiſſure in the inferior edge the veſſels enter variouſly, ſome in the middle and others in the extremities; theſe veſſels ſend branches to the ſtomach, they are called vaſa brevia. Haller ſays that it is compoſed wholly of arteries and veins, and that its uſe is to ſupply the liver with due ſupplies of blood. See Haller's Phyſiology, ſect. 26. Caſſerius, Ruyſch and Winſlow.

SPLENALGIA. Pain in the ſpleen, or its region.

SPLENALGIA SUPPURATORIA. Inflammation of the ſpleen, tending to or ending in a ſuppuration.

SPLENIA. Compreſſes. The antients called them ſplenia, becauſe they often reſembled the ſpleen in ſhape. And they are called compreſſes, becauſe they keep other dreſſings tight and firm. They are made of lint, tow, and folded rags. Their principal uſes are, to cheriſh the natural heat of the part, or to keep out the cold: to ſecure the dreſſings under them; to convey liquid remedies to the diſordered part, and to continue them longer thereon; to fill up inequalities and depreſſions, ſo that the dreſſings may be ſecured: and, laſtly, to prevent the ſkin from being irritated by the ſtricture of the bandages.

SPLENICA, i. e. ſplenalgia.

SPLENICA ARTERIA. The ſplenic artery paſſes downwards and to the left ſide, behind the upper edge of the pancreas, to which it gives branches; afterwards it divides into ſeveral branches, which enter the fiſſure in the inſide of the ſpleen. Before they enter the ſpleen they give off the vaſa brevia, and the gaſtrica ſiniſtra, which is the largeſt of the vaſa brevia.

SPLENICA VENA. The ſplenic vein is one of the diviſions of the vena portæ ventralis. It runs tranſverſely from the right to the left, firſt under the duodenum, and then along the lower ſide of the pancreas near the poſterior edge; in its courſe it gives off ſeveral branches. It terminates afterwards by a winding courſe, in which it ſends branches to the ſpleen. Laſtly, it reaches the fiſſure of the ſpleen, which it enters, and runs through its whole length by ſeveral branches, much in the ſame manner as the ſplenic artery.

SPLENITIS, from *σπλὴν, the ſpleen.* An inflammation or a tumor of the ſpleen. *Splenitis* is alſo a name for the vein in the left hand which is called ſalvatella, the fellow to which in the right hand is called jecoraria. Dr. Cullen places the *ſplenitis*, or inflammation of the ſpleen, as a genus in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order phlegmaſiæ.

SPLENIUM, i. e. Aſplenium.

SPLENIUS, called alſo triangularis, and maſtoidæus ſuperior. It riſes from the ligamentum colli, a little below the firſt tranſverſe line of the os occipitis, from the lower vertebræ of the neck, and five upper dorſal vertebræ, and is inſerted into the poſterior part and whole length of the maſtoid proceſs, and into the tranſverſe proceſs of the atlas and dentata, ſerving to bend the neck backwards. Albinus divides this into two muſcles, viz. the *ſplenius* capitis, and the *ſplenius* colli: but this diviſion is quite unneceſſary.

SPLENOCELE. A rupture of the ſpleen.

SPODIUM ARABUM. Burnt ivory. Ivory is the tuſks of elephants, which often grow to ſeven feet in length, and at their baſis are as thick as a man's thigh; one of them will ſometimes weigh one hundred and ſixty pounds. The African ivory turns yellow with keeping; the Ceylon ivory keeps its whiteneſs longeſt. The ſhavings are boiled in water, and thus a jelly is formed, which hath the ſame effects as the jelly of hartſhorn; the African ivory abounds moſt with oil and ſalt, the qualities of which are not different from thoſe obtained from hartſhorn. When ivory is burnt to blackneſs, it is called ivory black and velvet black.

SPONGIA. Sponge. It is ſomewhat like a fungus; it is a plant which grows in the ſea; it is very bibulous, of a ſoft ſubſtance, full of perforations, and elaſtic. It is brought from Smyrna and Aleppo: the beſt is ſaid to be got in the Archipelago. Thoſe pieces which are full of fine perforations are called males, and of theſe the hardeſt are called tragi; the contrary are called female.

It is uſed inſtead of flannels, for applying fomentations, for it keeps the heat longer; for tents to dilate wounds with, in which caſe it is dipped in hot bees-wax, then ſqueezed hard until it is cold, after which it is cut into proper ſizes; for pledgits to be applied over the lint which is laid on the ſtump after amputating a limb; and in ſcrofulous diſorders, and cutaneous foulneſſes, for which end it is reduced, by lightly burning it, to a black powder, which is given in doſes from gr. x. to ϑ i. two or three times a day: its virtues, which render it uſeful in theſe diſorders, depend on a volatile, animal, alkaline ſalt, (with which it abounds) and the oil of the *ſponge* united.

When *ſponge* is cut in ſmall pieces, and freed from the ſtony matters which are lodged in it, it is burnt in a cloſe earthen veſſel until it is black and friable, and when being powdered in a ſtone or a glaſs mortar, it is kept in a cloſe vial for uſe. The burning ſhould be diſcontinued as ſoon as the matter becomes thoroughly black; as the outſide of a large quantity will be ſufficiently burnt, before the middle is much affected, the beſt method is, to cut it in ſmall pieces, and keep it continually ſtirring in ſuch a machine as coffee is roaſted in.

Except raw ſilk, more volatile alkaline ſalt is obtained from *ſponge* than from any other matter. By boiling the *ſponge* in water, it gives out a portion of ſea-ſalt; by burning it to aſhes, it yields a large quantity of fixed alkaline ſalt, the ſame as is obtained from the ſea-ſalt. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

SPONGIOSUM OS. A name for the os ethmoides. The oſſa ſpongioſa inferiora are two oblong bones lying looſe between the anterior and poſterior noſtrils; they are glewed to the upper maxillary bones, and are convex towards the ſeptum naſi, while on the oppoſite ſide, which faces the ſinus maxillaris, they are concave. They have each

each two proceſſes on their upper edge; the poſterior covers part of the maxillary ſinus; the inferior joining with the os unguis, compoſes part of the ductus lachrymalis. The offa ſpongioſa ſuperiora, ſee ETHMOIDES Os.

SPORADICI. Sporadic diſeaſes. Such diſeaſes as reign in the ſame places and time; here and there one or a very few perſons only being their ſubjects. Such diſeaſes are neither endemic, epidemic, or contagious.

SPUTUM. Spit. This name is given to whatever comes from the mouth; but it is properly confined to what is excreted by coughing. Bloody *ſpit* is when the blood-veſſels in the lungs are eroded, and in this caſe a cough attends. Salt acrid *ſpit* endangers an eroſion in the lungs. Bitter, or ſalt *ſpit*, is from a mixture of bile. Sweet *ſpit* is from concocted phlegm; fetid *ſpit* is from a putrefaction of the humours of which it is compoſed; purulent *ſpit* is from a phthiſis approaching or begun. See Proſper Alpinus's Præſages.

STAGMA. A liquor expoſed to diſtillation; alſo a name for the oil of vitriol.

STAMINA. Alſo called chives; they are thoſe ſlender threads which encompaſs the ſtyle in the centre of flowers, and ſupport the apices or ſummits which contain the male duſt.

STANNUM. Tin. Alſo called plumbum candidum; Jupiter. It is the lighteſt of all the metals; the leaſt ſimple, being mixed with various heterogene particles, particularly ſulphurous or arſenical, whence the inconveniences to which its eſſayers are ſubjected; it is leſs fixed in the fire than any other of the metals; it is ſoft, flexible, and malleable, yet it increaſes the elaſticity of ſome elaſtic bodies; it is not ſonorous, yet when mixed with other metals their ſound is encreaſed; it melts long before ignition, even with a heat not much exceeding boiling water; in melting it hath this peculiarity, in which it differs from all other metals, that it crackles as it melts; when crude, it diſſolves only in aqua regia; but when freed from its ſulphur, &c. by calcination, it diſſolves even in vinegar. Its ore is found in many parts of the world, but the beſt is the Malacca *tin*, and the next is the Engliſh.

Tin hath been extolled as a ſpecific in diſorders of the uterus and lungs, and particularly as an antihectic, but experience does not ſupport its character, ſo that it is almoſt thrown out of the preſent practice. The London college continues the preparation called aurum muſivum; and Dr. Alſton hath given the filings of *tin* a degree of reputation for deſtroying worms, particularly the flat one; he directs it to be given in treacle, in doſes of from ʒ ſs. to ʒ i. the patient takes it in the morning faſting; the day after three doſes are taken, a purging draught ſhould be taken. Some have obſerved that *tin* hath been effectual in epilepſies from worms and from frights, and in the chorea Sancti Viti; though not in any other nervous diſorder. In nervous diſorders it ſhould be finely powdered; but, as a deſtroyer of worms, the filings are moſt effectual.

If *tin* is heated, it becomes ſo brittle, that by agitation, when juſt ready to melt, it falls into a fine powder; but the *tin* is more eaſily powdered by rubbing three parts with one of coralline, and pounding them together. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

STAPEDIS MUSCULUS. It lies in a little cavity of the os petroſum, and is inſerted into the head of the ſtapes.

STAPES. The ſtirrup. It is one of the bones in the ear, and is thus named becauſe it is exactly like a *ſtirrup*. It ſtands with its baſis upwards and inwards upon the feneſtra ovalis, and at its narrower part is articulated with the inſide of the long proceſs of the incus.

STAPHISAGRIA, called alſo pedicularis, ſtaves acre, and louſe-wort. It is the Delphinium *ſtaphiſagria*. Linn. It is a plant with large leaves, and blue flowers, which are followed by pods, containing large, rough, triangular, dark coloured ſeeds. It is a native of the ſouth parts of Europe, from whence the ſeeds are brought to us; but they are moſt plentiful in Dalmatia and Iſtria.

The ſeeds have a diſagreeable ſmell, a nauſeous, bitter, burning taſte. If taken in doſes from ten grains to a ſcruple, they purge and vomit ruggedly, and inflame the throat and ſtomach; but they are chiefly uſed to deſtroy lice. Their acrimony is partially extracted by water, totally by rectified ſpirit, but not raiſed by either in diſtillation. The beſt method of uſing them for deſtroying lice, &c. is to ſtrew the fine powder on the part, and to ſecure it with an handkerchief, or other proper bandage; or if a decoction is more convenient, boil an ounce in a pint of water for a few minutes. The powder may be mixed with oatmeal to kill mice and rats. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

STAPHYLINI. Winſlow calls by the names ſtaphylini and epiſtaphylini, two fleſhy ropes cloſely united together, as if they were but one muſcle; but in ſome ſubjects they are diſtinguiſhed by a very fine white line. They are fixed by one extremity in the common point of the poſterior edges of the offa palati, and from thence they run downwards and backwards along the middle of the ſeptum, and alſo along the middle of almoſt the whole uvula. Morgagni diſcovered them, and they are called by ſome azygos Morgagnii.

STAPHYLINUS EXTERNUS, i. e. Circumflexus palati.

STAPHYLOMA. This term comprehends two diſorders of the eye; one when the tunica cornea is gradually rendered protuberant; the other, when the pupilla breaks forth upon the tunica cornea, and deforms the eye with the tumor, like σταφυλη, a *grape*, by which the ſight is deſtroyed. Theſe tumors, from their different forms and ſizes, aſſume different names; as margarita, myocephalon, clavus, mylon, pomum, uva, or acinus; according to the reſemblance they bear to the things whence they are named. Sauvage ſignifies by this word a dropſy of the cornea. Not only the cornea, but alſo the ſclerotica, is alſo ſometimes ſwelled, and occaſions great pain and violent inflammation, which ſometimes ends in a ſuppuration, or a cancer. Monſ. St. Yves propoſes to extirpate the tumor, and then dreſs with lint dipped in brandy and water; after which the artificial eye may be fixed. If the caſe is ſlight, compreſſes of alum-water may be laid on, and the patient may lay continually on his back. If a wound is the cauſe, try to puſh back the tumor with a probe.

For the moſt part, the cure is not undertaken to recover the ſight, but only to remove the deformity and the bad ſymptoms.

STAPHYLOSIS. A protuberance or protuſion of the choroides of the eye.

STATIONARIA FEBRIS. A ſtationary fever. So Sydenham calls thoſe fevers which happen when there are certain general conſtitutions of the years, which owe their origin neither to heat, cold, dryneſs, nor moiſture, but rather depend upon a certain ſecret, and inexplicable alteration in the bowels of the earth, whence the air becomes impregnated with ſuch kinds of effluvia, as ſubject the body to particular diſtempers, ſo long as that kind of conſtitution prevails, which after a certain courſe of years declines, and gives way to another. Each of theſe general conſtitutions is attended with its own proper and peculiar kind of *fever*, which never appears in any other.

STEATITES. Soap-rock. It is an earth found in Cornwall: it hath the aſpect of marble, and is conſiderably hard: it is white, variegated with red, blue, or green: it is ſmooth to the touch, and gloſſy on the ſurface. Its chief uſe is in the porcelain manufactory.

In foſſilogy, it is a genus of earth; its characteriſtics are, that it is gloſſy; very ſmooth, unctuous, and reſembling hard ſoap; and readily falling down in water, when it poſſeſſes no kind of ductility, nor any grittyneſs. See Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy. By fire it is hardened ſo as to ſtrike fire with ſteel. It hath the property of fullers earth, in cleanſing cloaths from greaſe. It is ſo ſoft as to be cut with a knife, or with a tool turned by a lathe; accordingly it is, in ſome places, made into pots for the uſe of the kitchen, and hence named lapis ollaris. The ſerpentine ſtone, the nephritic ſtone, the ſubſtances called French chalk, are ſo many kinds of *ſteatites*. See Dict. of Chemiſtry, edit. 2d. Vogel uſes the word to ſignify corpulency.

STEATOCELE, from στεαρ, *ſuet*, and κηλη, an *hernia*. A ſpecies of *hernia* cauſed by a collection of *ſuety* matter in the ſcrotum.

STEATOMA, from στεαρ, *ſuet*. A ſpecies of tumor,

commonly called a wen, of which it is a ſpecies. Its contents appear like *ſuet*: it does not yield to eſcharotics; but when convenient, is to be removed with a knife. See NÆVUS.

STELLA. The name of a bandage uſed in arteriotomy: it is ſo called from its many croſſings on the temples, or from its reſemblance to a ſtar: it ſhould be twenty or twenty-four feet in length, two fingers broad, and double-headed. When this bandage is uſed, cover it with proper compreſſes, then place the middle of the roller on the ſound temple, and bring one head round the occiput, and the other round the forehead, until they meet at the part affected; and there croſſing each other, form a kind of knot; carry one end over the vertex, the other under the chin; croſſing again, over the ſound temple, whence they are carried round the forehead and occiput, to the compreſſes on the wound, &c. until all the bandage is taken up.

STERILITAS. Barrenneſs. In this caſe, if medicines prove uſeful, it is only by reſtoring the general health. But the cauſe is ſo frequently a ſcirrhus in the uterus, or other parts ſubſervient to generation, that it rarely happens that the complaint is removed. It is ſynonymous with dyſpermatiſmus.

STERNO-CLEIDO-HYOIDÆUS, i. e. Sterno-Hyoides.

STERNO COSTALES. See TRIANGULARES STERNI.

STERNO-HYOIDES. This muſcle riſes from the inſide of the ſternum and the clavicle, and running over the thyroid cartilage, is inſerted into the baſe of the os hyoides to pull it down. Some call it ſterno maſtoideus, but very improperly.

STERNO-MASTOIDÆUS. See MASTOIDÆUS, and STERNO-HYOIDES.

STERNO-THYROIDÆI. The muſcles thus named, riſe between the cartilages of the firſt and ſecond rib; run before, and cloſe to the *thyroid* gland and the trachæa, and are inſerted into the knobs of the *thyroid* cartilage, pulling the whole larynx down.

STERNUM, from στηθος, the *breaſt* or *breaſt-bone*. It is the broad, flat *bone*, at the anterior part of the thorax. In adults of a middle age, it is compoſed of three *bones*, but frequently the two lower *bones* are ultimately united. The firſt *bone* is the thickeſt; to this the clavicles and the firſt ribs are articulated, and half the cavity for the reception of the ſecond rib. The ſecond bone is longer, narrower, and thinner than the firſt; in the ſides of it are complete cavities for the third, fourth, fifth, and ſixth ribs, and half pits for the ſecond and the ſeventh. The third *bone* is the leaſt, and hath only half of the cavity for the ſeventh rib. It is called cartilago enſiformis, and in young ſubjects is always cartilaginous.

STERNUTATIO. Sneezing.

STERNUTATORIUM. A ſternutatory. See ERRHINES.

STERTOR. Snoring, or what is called a rattling in the throat. See RHENCHOS. It is a noiſy reſpiration, as in an apoplexy, in which the mucus from the fauces is forced through the noſtrils.

STIBIUM. Antimony; alſo the glaſs of antimony.

STIGMA. Scarlet coloured ſpots, ſuch as happen after a blow: alſo particular marks in the face, or any part of the body, commonly called moles. The ſpots called vibices are ſometimes thus named.

STILLICIDIUM. In pathology, it ſignifies the ſame as ſtrangury. In pharmacy, it ſignifies an inſtillation of liquor upon ſome part of the body: the French call it la Douche; and we commonly expreſs it by, pumping upon.

In pumping upon a diſeaſed part, three things act at the ſame time upon the inſpiſſated and ſtagnating fluids: firſt, the falling fluid, which abrades and comminutes the inſpiſſated juices by its force and compreſſion; ſecondly, the nature of the water may contribute to this effect, and the fall of it may help it to penetrate; thirdly, the heat of the water, which inſinuates itſelf, and warms the part quite through, it aſſiſts and quickens the motion of the fluids; hence it follows, that a part is tranſpired through the ſkin, and the reſt aſſiſted in its circulation.

Le Dran, in his 93d and 94th Obſ. gives ſome account of this operation in the anchyloſis, and attempts to account for the action of the pumping; but his reaſoning is rather ſpecious than ſatisfactory.

STILLICIDIUM URINÆ, i. e. Dyſuria.

STOECHAS. French lavender. It is called *ſtœchas* from the iſland Stœchades; and *ſtœchas* Arabica, becauſe much commended by the Arabian phyſicians; it is alſo called ſpica hortulana, ſticadore, and caſſidony. It is the lavandula *ſtœchas*. It is a low, ſhrubby plant, with ſmall, oblong, narrow leaves, bearing on the tops of the branches ſhort thick ſpikes, or ſcaly heads, from which iſſue ſeveral ſmall purple labiated flowers, followed each by four ſeeds, incloſed in the cup: it is a native of the ſouthern part of Europe, common in our gardens, where, with a little ſhelter, it bears the hardeſt weather; it flowers in May and June. The flowers which are brought from France and Italy are rarely ſo good as thoſe of our own growth. The heads ſhould be gathered when firm and hard, which is about the end of July.

Diſtilled with water, it yields a conſiderable quantity of a pale-coloured fragrant eſſential oil; but with rectified ſpirit of wine, it yields but little. Its virtues agree with thoſe of our *lavender*, but are inferior. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

STOECHAS. A name for ſome ſpecies of elichryſon.

STOLONES. The ſuckers of plants, that is, ſuch ſhoots as ariſe from the roots of plants, and may be taken off with fibres to them, ſo as to propagate the ſpecies thereby.

STOMACACE, from στομα, the *mouth*, and κακος, *evil*. A ſymptom of the ſcurvy, conſiſting of a fetor of the mouth, and an roſion and ſpontaneous hæmorrhage of the gums. It is alſo a name for the ſcurvy. The bleeding of the gums is always ſymptomatic.

STOMACHICA PASSIO. In this diſorder there is an averſion to food; even the thought of it begets a nauſea, anxiety, cardialgia, an effuſion of ſaliva, and often a vomiting; faſting is more tolerable than eating: if the patient is obliged to eat, he muſt endure a pain that is worſe to him than hunger itſelf; he is troubled to chew, but more ſo to ſwallow his food; there is an averſion to common food, and a deſire to what is unuſual; often, a pain is complained of between the ſhoulders, and it is increaſed after eating; reſtleſſneſs, dimneſs of ſight, a noiſe in the ears, a heavineſs in the head, numbneſs in the limbs, a palpitation in the hypochondria, and a ſpitting of cold watery phlegm; the patient imagines that the ſpine of his back moves towards his legs, and whether ſtanding, or lying, he ſeems to be moved like a reed that is ſhaken by the wind; though not thirſty, he deſires to drink after eating; though drowſy, he keeps walking; is lean, pale, feeble, faint, timid, ſilent, but ſoon angry; he is much diſturbed with black bile, and falls into fits of melancholy; the ſymptoms during a fit, are fainting, a cold numbneſs of the joints, an unuſual heat which runs through the members, and moſt perceived in the palms of the hands, with a dewy ſweat, reſtleſſneſs, jactitation, anxiety, deſpondency, a change of colour, a ſmall, ſwift, weak pulſe, a waſting of the body, or, on the contrary, an immoderate appetite, with indigeſtion, and an acrid, acid, or nidorous quality in the contents of the ſtomach; ſometimes the patient is ſpeechleſs, grinds and clenches his teeth; there is always a cold in the head, with a ringing in the ears; ſometimes, though rarely, there is great thirſt; a pain in the precordia, which extends to between the ſcapulæ; and when the inflammation is conſiderable, there is a difficulty of ſwallowing, and a ſtrangulation, which ſome have called a ſtomachic quinſy; an hardneſs of the ſtomach, without pain, with other ſymptoms, as a windineſs, inflation, borborygmi, &c.

The cauſes are a diſcharge of pus from the belly upon the ſtomach, intenſe thinking, a neglect of proper nouriſhment and reſt, ſorrow, taking cold, continual indigeſtion, vomiting, &c.

In order to the cure, the patient's inclinations muſt be complied with; the juice of quinces are recommended; warm ſtimulants, ſuch as pepper and ginger, with aloes, and other ſuch like bitters, are found to be uſeful. See Aretæus de Cauſ. Sign. diutin. Morb. lib. ii. cap. vi. Cœ-

lius Aurelianus Morb. Chron. lib. iii. cap. ii. Aretæus de Curat. Chron. Morb. lib. ii. cap. vi.

STOMACHICI NERVI. See PAR VAGUM.

STOMACHUS, from στομα, *a mouth*, and χεω, *to pour*. Becauſe it ſends the food into the orifice of the guts. The word *ſtomachus* properly belongs only to the upper orifice of the *ſtomach*, though given to the whole viſcus. The ſtomach is ſituated under the left ſide of the diaphragm, juſt below the leſſer lobe of the liver, paſſing down a little way, and then turning over the ſpine to the right ſide. In ſhape it much reſembles the pouch of a bagpipe; it lies in an oblique direction from left to right, and hath a ſubſtance called meſogaſtrion in its concave part, between the orifices attaching it to the ſubjacent parts; its ſuperior orifice is called the cardiac orifice; it is on the left ſide; the inferior orifice is toward the right ſide, and is called pylorus. The outward coat of the ſtomach is from the peritoneum; the ſecond coat is muſcular; the inner or villous coat appears like a pile of velvet, but ſhort and flat, and it is extremely vaſcular; betwixt theſe coats the cellular membrane runs, and, according to ſome, is reckoned diſtinct coats; to that betwixt the muſcular and the villous coat, ſome have given the name of nervoſa. The muſcular coat of the ſtomach can contract it to a very ſmall ſize, as in vomiting. Dr. Hunter thinks, that the cavity is contracted ſo as not to be larger than the ſize of a nutmeg, when all the contents are thrown out. The arteries are principally the coronaria ventriculi, and the two gaſtricæ; the veins are ramifications from the venæ portæ in general, and, in particular, from the meſeraica major, ſplenica, and hæmorrhoidalis interna; the nerves are from the eighth pair. See DEGLUTITIO.

STORAX RUBRA, i. e. Thuris Cortex.

STRABILISMUS, from στραβιζω, and that from στρεφω, *to turn*. Strabiſmus, and ſtraboſitas. Squinting. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order dyſcineſiæ. He diſtinguiſhes three ſpecies. 1. *Strabiſmus* habitualis. When from a cuſtom of uſing one eye. 2. *Strabiſmus* commodus. When one eye in compariſon with the other, from greater weakneſs or mobility, cannot accommodate itſelf to the other. 3. *Strabiſmus* neceſſarius. When ſome change takes place in the ſituation or figure of the eye or a part of it. It may be cauſed from habit contracted by mocking thoſe who *ſquint*; by viewing many agreeable objects at once; by placing the eye of an infant obliquely to a candle, or a window, &c. or this diſorder may proceed from a fault in the firſt conformation of the eye, or ſome particular part of it; or the weakneſs of one eye may produce this defect in the other; the muſcles of the eye may be too long, or too ſhort, preternaturally relaxed or contracted; a tumor in the orbit, or an adheſion of the eye to ſome part of the eye-lid, may alſo be a cauſe; ſpaſm, or an apoplexy, may alſo produce it.

Thoſe who *ſquint* from ſome accident after they are grown up, ſee double; but when they *ſquint* from their infancy they do not.

Some attempt to remove this defect in children, by ſetting them to look at their faces in a looking-glaſs, and repeat this attempt for a quarter of an hour, night and morning; and while this method is in uſe, the eyes ſhould be waſhed with Hungary water; to ſtrengthen the muſcles waſh the temples and the forehead three times a-day. See St. Yves on the Diſorders of the Eyes.

STRAMEN CAMELORUM. Camel's hay.

STRAMONIUM. Thorny apple. It is the datura *ſtramonium*, or datura fœtida pericarpiis ſpinoſis erectis ovatis, foliis ovatis glabris of Linnæus. The *ſtramonium* ſpinoſum of Gerard; and the ſolanum maniacum of Diaſcorides.

The root is long, large, and fibrous. The ſtalk is of a pale green, ſtrong, and near three feet high. The leaves are large, of a lively green, placed on ſtrong peduncles; they are broad, pointed at the extremity, beautifully indented, and are placed without any regular arrangement. At night, the leaves, particularly the upper ones, riſe up and incloſe the flowers. The flower appears in Auguſt, conſiſts of one petal, funnel-ſhaped, tubular, and folded at the border in five parts; they grow at the bifurcation of the branches, are large, and of a milk white colour, though ſometimes they have a tinge of purple or velvet. The ſeed veſſel is oval, large, and covered with ſhort, ſharp, and ſtrong thorns. The ſeeds are brown.

It is a native of America.

The ſeeds and leaves received into the human ſtomach produce a vertigo, and afterwards madneſs. Boerhaave relates that ſome boys who had eaten ſome ſeeds of *thorn apples*, were ſeized with giddineſs, horrible imaginations, terrors, and delirium: and that thoſe who did not ſoon vomit, died. Some ſay it cauſes convulſions.

This plant hath a diſagreeable, naufeous ſmell, when rubbed between the fingers. According to the relations of ſome, the leaves are ſaid to be cooling, and the ſeeds narcotic; others obſerve, that the ſeeds produce a ſtrange kind of delirium, which continues twenty-four hours; and that the root occaſions uneaſy ſleep and troubleſome dreams.

In caſe of injury from the ſeeds or any other part of this ſpecies of datura, proceed as in caſes of poiſon by muſhrooms. See AMANITA and VENENUM.

Dr. Storck took *ſtramonium* offic. datura pericarpus ſpinoſis erectis ovatis, Linn. He preſſed out the juice from the freſh plant, and inſpiſſated it to an extract, and, in different caſes, gave it in doſes from gr. ſs. to ʒ i. in twenty-four hours. In epileptic diſorders, convulſions, and madneſs, it proved to be a medicine of ſingular efficacy; he cured ſeveral patients whoſe diſorders were violent, and of long continuance, with it. See Miller's Bot. Off. Dr. Storck on the *Stramonium*; Withering's Bot. Arrang. Med. Muſ. vol. i. p. 448. &c. Wilmer's Obſ. on Poiſonous Vegetables.

STRANGALIDES. Hard tumors in the breaſts from milk.

STRANGURIA, from στραγξ, the genitive caſe of στραξ, a *drop*, and ουρον, *urine*. A ſtrangury. It is a diſcharge of *urine* by *drops*, attended with pain. See DYSURIA.

STREMMA, from στρεφω, *to turn*. A ſtrain. When a membranous, or tendinous part is ſtretched beyond its proper limits, it is ſaid to be ſtrained. This accident happens chiefly about the joints, occaſions weakneſs and pain there, with ſwelling, and often a total inability to move. A *ſtrain* approaches very nearly to the nature of a contuſion, and, as in contuſions, reſt, with the application of warm vinegar, three or four times a day, will be proper; and when the ſymptoms abate, in proportion thereto let a little ſpirit be added to the vinegar, which now may be uſed cold, and a bandage may be made uſe of to ſupport the weakened part, until the natural degree of ſtrength returns. Dr. Lobb adviſes the uſe of vinegar, and of rectified ſpirit of wine alternately, firſt rubbing in the vinegar, then two or three hours after rub in the ſpirit.

Cold water is uſed by ſome; but if the *ſtrain* is deep, it does no ſervice; if there is inflammation, it does harm, ſo that it is only in ſlight, and ſuperficial, and theſe muſt be recent caſes too, in which it can be of ſervice.

STRIDOR. Grinding of the teeth. Hippocrates obſerves, that in acute diſeaſes this ſymptom is uſually fatal if the patient has not been accuſtomed to it in his childhood.

STRIGIL, or Strigilis. An inſtrument with which to ſcrape off the ſweat during the gymnaſtic exerciſes of the ancients; and, in their baths, ſtrigils were made of metals, horn, ivory, and were curved: ſome were made of linen.

STRIGMENTUM. The ſtrigments, filth, or ſordes, ſcraped from the ſkin in baths, and places of exerciſe; ſome of theſe *ſtrigments* were only the ſweat, others were the ſweat mixed with the duſt raiſed in the place of exerciſe, or purpoſely ſtrewed on the bodies of them who were there engaged. *Strigments* were of three ſorts: 1. Sweat. 2. Sweat with the duſt and oil, which was rubbed on the bodies of the men. 3. Oils and duſt ſcraped from ſtatues, and which often partook of verdegriſe, from the oil diſſolving the copper.

STRONGYLUS. Round worms. See VERMES.

STRUMA. The *ſtruma* of the ancients were thoſe ſcrofulous tumors that were encyſted. See SCROFULA.

STRYCHNOMANIA. So the ancients called the diſorder produced by eating the deadly night-ſhade.

STRYCHNOS. So Theophraſtus called the deadly night-

night-ſhade. In Linnæus's Syſtem of Vegetables, it is a genus of plants in the claſs pentandria, and order monogynia. Its two ſpecies are the *ſtrychnos* nux vomica, and *ſtrychnos* colubrina.

STUM. It is muſt, whoſe fermentation hath been prevented, or prematurely ſuppreſſed, by fumigation with ſulphur.

STUPOR. Loſs of feeling. The ſame as anaſthæſia. Or it is a tranſitory numbneſs, ſuch as is occaſioned by accidental preſſure, &c.

STUPOR DENTIUM. An affection of the teeth, in which a certain pain is felt in the membrane which ſurrounds them, and by which ſenſation is in a degree deſtroyed. It is produced by taking acid and auſtere ſubſtances into the mouth.

STUPA, or Stuppa. A ſtupe. It is a piece of cloth uſually of flannel, dipped in ſome proper liquor, and applied to an affected part.

STYLIFORMIS, i. e. Gr. phoides.

STYLOCERATOHYOIDEUS, Stylo, from the *ſtyloid proceſs*, and κέρατα, *horns of the hyoides*. Stylo-ſtyloid proceſs, i. e. Stylohyoides.

STYLO-CHONDRO-HYOIDÆUS. So Douglas names one of the muſcles called ſtylohyoidæus, becauſe it is inſerted into the cartilaginous appendix of the os hyoides.

STYLO-GLOSSI. From *ſtilus*, a *pencil*, and *gloſſa*, a *tongue*. Theſe muſcles riſe from the inner-part of the ſtyloid proceſs, and go the whole length of the tongue, ſerving to expand it.

STYLO-HYOIDES. It riſes from the proceſſus ſtyloides, and runs to the cornu and baſis of the os *hyoides*. Generally its fibres paſs on each ſide of the tendon of the digaſtric muſcle.

STYLOIDES PROCESSUS, from στῦλος, a *pencil*, and εἶδος, *form*. See Temporum Ossa.

STYLOIDES RADIALIS [Ligamentum]. It is fixed round the neighbouring tuberoſity of the os ſcaphoides.

STYLOIDES ULNÆ [Ligamentum]. It is fixed in the os cuneiforme, and then in the os unciforme, from whence it is a little ſtretched over the fourth bone of the metacarpus.

STYLO MASTOIDEUS FORAMEN. This hole is the orifice of the paſſage for the portio dura of the auditory nerve, which runs behind the tympanum.

STYLO PHARYNGÆI. Theſe muſcles riſe from the beginning of the ſtyloid proceſſes, and are inſerted into the pharynx, and into the thyroid cartilage.

STYMATOSIS. A bloody diſcharge from the penis.

STYPTICA, from στύφω, to *aſtringe*. Styptics, or medicines which ſtop hæmorrhages. Of *ſtyptics* for ſtopping hæmorrhages there are few to be depended on; their uſefulneſs is only in very ſlight caſes, and the beſt of them is the lycoperdon.

STYRAX, alſo called ſtorax; and becauſe it was formerly brought to us in reeds or canes, it was named *ſtyrax* calamita. Caſper Bauhine calls the tree that affords it *ſtyrax* folio mali cotonei, becauſe its leaves are like thoſe of the quince-tree. Ray calls the tree from which the liquid *ſtyrax* is obtained, *ſtyrax* aceris folio, becauſe its leaves reſemble thoſe of the maple. It is the *ſtyrax* officinale, or *ſtyrax* Syriacum, foliis mali cotonei, floribus albis, Linn. The Syrian *ſtorax* tree.

Storax is the moſt fragrant of the ſolid reſins, and, indeed, of all the vegetable ſubſtances. There are three kinds: 1. The fine ſort, called the red *ſtorax*; it is the pure native juice which flows from inciſions made into the trunk of the tree; it is not in tears, but in maſſes, ſometimes compoſed of whitiſh, and pale reddiſh brown lumps; ſometimes it is of an uniform reddiſh yellow, or browniſh appearance, unctuous and ſoft like wax, and free from viſible impurities. With this kind we rarely meet. 2. The common *ſtorax*: this is ſuppoſed to be the thinner juice thickened with ſaw-duſt, for it is more fragrant than the pure ſort, both whilſt mixed with the ſaw-duſt, and when ſeparated therefrom by means of rectified ſpirit of wine; its flavour is alſo of the ſame kind. It is now brought in large pieces, of a reddiſh brown colour, ſoftiſh, and, as it were, unctuous to the touch, yet brittle and friable. This is the only ſort that is generally met with, and that which is ordered by the London college. 3. *Storax* in the lump: it is in maſſes of an uniform texture, and of a yellowiſh red, or browniſh colour, ſometimes interſperſed with whitiſh grains. This is called *ſtorax* in the tear.

It is the produce of Syria, Cilicia, and Pamphylia; ſome ſay that true *ſtorax* is alſo a produce of Italy. There is a ſort in America, but it differs much from the above. It exudes from the leaves of the trees in the warm climes where it is produced; but is moſt abundantly obtained by making inciſions through the bark thereof.

Neumann ſays, that an ounce of common *ſtorax*, gave out to rectified ſpirit of wine, ſix drams of reſinous matter, then to water half a dram of gummy, and the reſt was ſaw-duſt; and that on heating another ounce with water firſt, he obtained two drams of gummy, then with ſpirit half an ounce of reſin. Pure ſpirit raiſes but little from the *ſtorax* by diſtillation, but water takes up much of its flavour; and when it is almoſt all drawn off, a fine ſubtil eſſential oil riſes, in the proportion of about ℈ ii. from ℥ xvi. The reſiduum on being urged with a due degree of heat, afforded ʒ ix. of an empyreumatic liquor, then ʒ ii. ℈ i. of thick butyraceous oil; afterwards ℥ ii. ʒ i. of an empyreumatic oil, which had nothing of the ſmell of the *ſtorax*, along with ʒ v. of an acid ſpirit. On waſhing the butyraceous oil with warm water, then ſetting the water in a cool place, a ſmall portion of ſaline matter ſeparated, which appeared like the flowers of benjamin. The ſame ſaline matter is obtained from the pure reſin, by boiling it in water. This ſpirit carries but little from the *ſtorax* in diſtillation; yet if twice its weight of the ſalt of tartar is added, a ſpirit is obtained which is ſtrongly impregnated with both the taſte and ſmell of this reſin. The ſtrongeſt, and the moſt fragrant principle, ſeparable from *ſtorax*, is the ſubtile, ſlightly empyreumatic oil which ariſes firſt in diſtilling of it.

It is chiefly uſed as a perfume, but is ſometimes uſed as a medicine, and that both externally and internally; its qualities are to reſolve and ſtrengthen. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

STYRAX LIQUIDA. Liquid ſtorax. It is a reſinous juice obtained from a tree in Virginia and Mexico, which Ray calls *ſtyrax* aceris folio. The juice called liquid amber, is ſaid to exude from the leaves of this tree ſpontaneouſly, but more freely from inciſions made in the trunk of it; and the *liquid ſtorax* is ſaid to be obtained by boiling the bark and the ſmall branches in water. Two ſorts of *liquid ſtorax* are diſtinguiſhed, but the ſort which is commonly met with, is of a weak ſmell, a grey colour, and is ſuppoſed to be artificial. It is not in preſent uſe. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Philoſ. Tranſ. No. 323; Lewis's Mat. Med.

STYRAX ALBA. The white Peruvian balſam.

SUBALARIS VENA, from *ſub*, *under*, and *ala*, the *armpit*. The axillary vein.

SUBCLAVIÆ ARTERIÆ, from *ſub*, *under*, and *clavicula*, the *channel-bone*. The ſubclavian arteries. They are ſo called from their ſituation being under the clavicles. They ariſe from the arch of the aorta, on each ſide of the left carotid, which commonly lie in the middle between them. The origin of the left *ſubclavian artery* uſually terminates the aorta aſcendens. Theſe *arteries* on each ſide terminate at the upper edge of the firſt rib between the lower inſertions of the firſt ſcalenus muſcle, and there, as they go out of the thorax, they take the name of the *arteriæ* axillares.

SUBCLAVIUS MUSCULUS. It riſes by a ſmall tendon from the anterior part of the cartilage of the firſt rib, cloſe to the ſtrong ligament which connects this rib to the clavicle, runs along the whole under ſide of the clavicle into the coracoid proceſs, where it is articulated to the clavicle. Its uſe is to bring the clavicle upwards and forwards.

SUBCOSTALES. Theſe muſcles are ſituated more or leſs obliquely on the inſides of the ribs near their bony angles, and running in the ſame direction with the external intercoſtals. They are fixed by both extremities in the ribs; the inferior being always at a greater diſtance from the vertebræ than the ſuperior, and ſeveral ribs lying between the two inſertions.

SUBCUTANEUS, i. e. Platyſma Myoides.

SUBER. The cork-tree. It is a kind of evergreen oak;

oak; it is a native of Italy, France, Spain, and other warm parts of Europe. The bark ſeparates ſpontaneouſly from the tree, and a new one ſollows it. It is this bark that is cut into corks for ſtopping of bottles.

SUBHUMERALIS VENA, i. e. Articularis vena.

SUBLIMATIO. Sublimation. It is the condenſing and collecting in a ſolid form, by means of veſſels aptly conſtructed, the fumes of bodies raiſed from them by the application of a proper heat. Fluids are ſaid to diſtil, and ſolids to ſublime. If the ſubliming matter concretes into a maſs, it is commonly called a ſublimate; if into a powdery form, it is called flowers. See the Dict. of Chem.

SUBLIMATIONES URINÆ, i. e. Enæoremata.

SUBLIMATUM. Sublimate. i. e. Merc. coroſ. alb.

SUBLIMIS. A name for the perforatus digitorum, and of the flexor muſcles of the feet.

SUBLINGUALIS ARTERIA. The ſublingual artery is the ſecond branch from the external carotid; it riſes a little above the ſuperior guttural artery; it runs inwards, upwards, and over the cornu of the os hyoides, and ſinks into the tongue to ſupply all the adjacent muſcles. It is alſo called the ranine artery.

SUBLINGUALES GLANDULÆ. The ſublingual glands. They lie between the mylo-hyoidæi and the genio gloſſi muſcles, and almoſt always diſcharge their ſaliva in the ſame place with the ſubmaxillary glands under the tongue.

SUBLUXATIO. Subluxation. It is where the head of a bone is not quite out of its ſocket, but reſts upon the brim.

SUBMERSIO. Drowning. In Dr. Cullen's Noſology, it is a variety of the apoplexia ſuffocata. Sauvage terms it aſphyxia immerſorum. Inſtances have occurred of perſons lying under water for ſix hours, and afterwards to have been reſtored to life and health; two hours have been employed in the recovery of thoſe who had lain long under water, before any advantage was obſerved from endeavours, and at length ſucceſs hath followed. Strange are the reports on this ſubject. Some modern phyſiologiſts aſſert, that no terreſtrial animal can be recovered, if it continues ſix minutes under water at one time, without breathing. Very little water is ever ſwallowed by drowned perſons; they do not attempt to breathe until they are inſenſible, and then on attempting, a little water is ſucked in, and a ſmall portion of it paſſes into the lungs. On taking the body out of the water, it muſt not be laid on the cold earth, but on a warm bed, the cloaths that are wet being firſt ſtripped off; or it may be laid in the hot ſun, or any warm place, there to be rubbed with coarſe cloths until a glow is perceived in the ſkin; a ſtrong healthy perſon may blow his warm breath into the patient's mouth to diſtend the lungs; or better and more certainly will air be directed into the lungs, if an opening was made into the trachea, as propoſed in the article tracheotomy; becauſe the air blown into the mouth may paſs only by the œſophagus into the ſtomach; or the ſmoke of tobacco may be conveyed into the patient's mouth, or his throat may be tickled with a feather to excite a vomiting; after which let him be laid before a warm fire, or on any other warm place, until life appears. The jugular veins may be opened to ſet the circulation forward again, the veins in other parts will rarely bleed; the fumes of tobacco may be thrown up the inteſtines; volatiles and ſtimulants may be applied to the noſe and the tongue; theſe are moſt uſeful after bleeding. If theſe fail, bronchotomy may be performed, and warm breath may be blown in at the aperture, until ſigns of life appear; not any thing ſhould be forced down the throat, but as ſoon as the patient can attempt to ſwallow, give him a draught of warm water, with a table-ſpoonful of muſtard in it, to drink. Continue theſe means until life ſeems to be confirmed. Generally, after recovery, an oppreſſion, a cough, and a fever, follows. In the firſt volume of Dr. Fothergill's Works, Dr. Lettſom hath inſerted the following method of treatment, found by the Humane Society to be moſt ſucceſsful on theſe occaſions.

I. The body ſhould not be rolled on the ground, or over a barrel, nor lifted up by the heels, or be any other way roughly handled, or violently ſhook; but be removed to a convenient place, lying as on a bed, with the head a little raiſed, in as natural a poſition as poſſible.

II. The body, well wiped with a cloth, ſhould be placed in a warm bed or blanket; but not too near a large fire. Bottles of hot water ſhould be laid to the bottoms of the feet, joints of the knees, and under the arm pits. A warming-pan moderately heated, or hot bricks wrapped in cloths, ſhould be rubbed over the body, particularly along the back. The natural warmth of a healthy perſon, eſpecially a child, lying cloſe to the body, hath been found very efficacious. The room ſhould be kept open and airy, with few perſons in it. The ſhirt of an attendant, or ſkin of a ſheep freſh killed and warm, may be uſed to advantage. Should the accident happen in the neighbourhood of a warm bath, brew-houſe, bake-houſe, glaſs-houſe, ſaltern, ſoap manufactory, or any fabric where warm lees, aſhes, embers, grains, ſand, water, &c. can be eaſily procured, it will be very proper to place the body in any of theſe, moderated to a degree of heat, very little exceeding that of a healthy perſon.

III. The body being placed in one or other of the above advantageous ſituations, various ſtimulating means ſhould be immediately employed. The moſt efficacious are, blowing with force into the lungs, by applying the mouth to that of the patient, cloſing at the ſame time his noſtrils; throwing the ſmoke of tobacco up the fundament into the bowels, by means of a clyſter-pipe or fumigator; a pair of bellows may be employed until the others can be procured; rubbing the belly, cheſt, back and arms, with a coarſe cloth, or dry ſalt, ſo as not to rub off the ſkin, or with a flannel dipped in brandy, rum, or gin; applying ſpirit of hartſhorn, volatile ſalts, or the like, to the noſtrils, and rubbing them on the temples frequently; tickling the throat with a feather, to excite a propenſity to vomit; and the noſtrils alſo with a feather or ſnuff to provoke ſneezing. The body ſhould at intervals be ſhaken, and varied in its poſition.

IV. If there be any ſigns of returning life, ſuch as ſighing, gaſping, twitching, beating of the heart, return of natural warmth or colour, a ſpoonful of water may be adminiſtered, to try if the power of ſwallowing be returned; if it be, a ſpoonful or two of warm wine, or of brandy and water, may be given to advantage, but not before.

Early bleeding has been found pernicious, and even fatal; it is not always applicable, though it may ſometimes be employed by a perſon of ſkill, to remove or prevent ſymptoms of inflammation.

N. B. The above methods of reſtoring life are applicable to various other caſes of apparent ſudden death, whether from hanging, apoplectic and convulſive fits, cold, ſuffocation by damps or noxious vapours, proceeding from coal mines, confined air of wells, caves, ciſterns, or from the muſt of fermenting liquors.

See Tiſſot's Advice to the People; Med. Muſæum, vol. iii p. 376, &c.

SUBOCCIPITALES NERVI. So the tenth pair of nerves are called which proceed from the head. They are ſmall; they paſs out at the foramen magnum, between the baſis of the ſkull, and the tranſverſe proceſs of the atlas, where they form a ganglion, and give branches to the adjacent muſcles; after which, forming a ſort of arch with an aſcending twig of the firſt cervical pair, a branch is ſent off, which is called the occipital nerve.

SUBORBITARIUS. A branch of the upper maxillary branch of the fifth pair of nerves; it runs on the lower part of the orbit of the eye, &c.

SUBPOPLITEUS, i. e. Popliteus.

SUBSCAPULARIS. It riſes from the whole inner ſurface of the ſcapula; it paſſes under the coracoid proceſs, and is inſerted into the external tubercle of the os humeri, juſt below its head.

SUBSULTUS, from *ſub*, under and *ſalio*, *to leap*; is the ſame as ſpaſmodic, or a convulſion of the clonic kind, from the ſenſe of leaping, which the tendons give to the hand lying upon them. A twitching of the tendons; alſo an involuntary twitching, or ſpaſmodic contraction of the muſcular parts.

SUCCAGO, i. e. the rob of any fruit.

SUCCENTURIATUS MUSCULUS, i. e. Pyramidalis.

SUCCENTURIATI RENES, i. e. Capſulæ atrabilariæ.

SUCCINGENS

SUCCINGENS MEMBRANA. The diaphragm.

SUCCINUM, called alſo carabe, or karabe, and electrum. It is found in ſeveral parts of the world: the moſt conſiderable quantities are taken up from regular mines in ſome of the inland countries belonging to the king of Pruſſia; but the fineſt ſorts are thrown up by the ſea, particularly in ſtormy weather, about Pillau.

There are various conjectures reſpecting the origin of *amber*, but the moſt probable is, that it is inſtantly formed by the concourſe of mineral oil, or petroleum, with vitriolic acid. And thus it is eaſy to conceive how inſects, of the moſt tender kind, are enveloped, without injuring them, or altering their natural appearances. Some aſſert that bitumens are eſſentially mineral; others (and by far the greateſt number) that they proceed originally from vegetable ſubſtances. In favour of this latter opinion, Macquer, in his Dict. of Chem ſays, 1ſt, that no body, the origin of which is certainly mineral, contains the ſmalleſt portion of oil; 2dly, it is probable that the qualities by which bitumens differ from reſins and other oily matters, vegetable and animal, are either the natural effects of time upon theſe oily matters converted into bitumens, or of an alteration produced upon them by mineral acids; or rather they are the effects of both theſe cauſes united; 3dly, by combining mineral acids with vegetable oils, compounds may be formed much reſembling natural bitumens; and to which perhaps nothing but a ſufficiently long digeſtion is wanting to render them true bitumens; 4thly, we cannot doubt that the vegetable and animal matters continually deſtroyed on the ſurface of the earth, the juices of which can penetrate deep therein, muſt introduce into the earth much oily matter, which in time may become bitumens; 5thly, many entire vegetables and animals have been found in large quantities at very conſiderable depths in the earth. Under ground, immenſe beds of turf are daily found, and large branches of half decompoſed bituminous and petrified foſſil wood, which can be nothing elſe but conſiderable portions of the ſurface of the earth, thus buried by accidents now forgot. All theſe matters are ſufficient to furniſh the earth with a large quantity of truly oily ſubſtance, which probably can be formed only in the organized bodies of vegetables and animals. Dr. Saunders, in his Lectures on the Theory and Practice of Chemiſtry, ſays, all foſſil inflammable matter is ſuppoſed to proceed from animal and vegetable matters, altered by time; he further obſerves, that ſulphur is obtained by mixing vitriolic acid and ſpirit of wine rectified, or oil. On the other hand, Dr. Lewis obſerves, that the oil of *amber* differs from all thoſe of the vegetable kingdom; and agrees with the mineral petrolea, in not being ſoluble, either in its rectified or unrectified ſtate, by ſpirit of wine, fixt alkaline lixivia, or volatile alkaline ſpirits; the oil, after long digeſtion or agitation, ſeparating as freely as common oil does from water: he further obſerves, that mineral bitumens are different in their qualities from the vegetable reſins; and in the mineral kingdom we find a fluid oil, very different from vegetable oils. The mineral oil is changed by mineral acids into a ſubſtance greatly reſembling bitumen; and the vegetable oils are changed by the ſame acids into ſubſtances greatly reſembling the natural reſins. From bitumens we gain by diſtillation the mineral oil; and from reſins the vegetable oil, diſtinct in their qualities as at firſt; vegetable oils and reſins have been heated with all known mineral acids, but have never yielded any thing ſimilar to the mineral bitumens. It ſeems, therefore, as if the oily products of the two kingdoms were ſpecifically and eſſentially different. The laws of chemical enquiries at leaſt demand that we do not look upon them any otherwiſe until we are able to produce from one a ſubſtance ſimilar to the other: when this is done, and not before, the preſumption that nature effects the ſame change in the bowels of the earth, will be of ſome weight. See Dr. Lewis's Note in his Tranſlation of Neuman's Chemiſtry, vol. vii. p. 3. Neumann ſays, in ſpeaking of *amber*, it is moſt probable, that *amber* is generated inſtantly from the concourſe of mineral oil, or petroleum with vitriolic acid, in the form of vapours.

The yellow *amber* ſhould be of a citron yellow, or of a golden colour, bright, tranſparent, eaſily taking fire, and exhaling a pleaſant fragrant ſmell.

In Holland, a vegetable reſin, called gummi de loock, is ſold under the name of American *amber*; but it is leſs electric than *amber*, wants the peculiar ſmell thereof when it is burning, diſſolves readily in ſpirit of wine, and when diſtilled it does not afford the ſame principles as the *amber* does.

If *amber* is diſtilled in a retort by a ſtrong heat, it yields a phlegm, or oil, which grows thicker and thicker as the diſtilling continues, and a particular kind of ſalt. The *amber* is powdered and mixed with three times its weight of white ſand before it is committed to diſtillation; a retort is half filled with it, and then the fire is gradually increaſed until a phlegm riſes, but not more than to make water boil; after this the heat ſhould be greater, but gradually increaſed, yet not ſo as to make the *amber* ſmell much; the receiver may be left unluted; thus it can be occaſionally removed, and the ſalt ſwept out, and ſo hindered from melting with the oil that riſes; the diſtillation is continued until no ſalt is ſeen to ariſe. After the diſtillation is ended, gather all the ſalt together, and dry it by preſſing it gently between ſome ſheets of ſpongy paper; then to purify it, boil it in the phlegm that aroſe in the beginning of the diſtillation, (and which is called the ſpirit of *amber*) or it may be boiled in common water, then ſet to cryſtallize; this may be repeated until it is ſufficiently freed from its oil. When this ſalt is pure, it is of a white colour, of a pungent, penetrating, grateful acid taſte; it diſſolves in rectified ſpirit of wine with difficulty, though aſſiſted by heat, but readily in water.

The ſalt of *amber* is mixed with ſal ammoniac; but this is diſcovered by an urinous ſmell ariſing on rubbing it with the ſalt of tartar; it is mixed with nitre, but this is diſcovered by the nitrous taſte. When mixed with cream of tartar, it is diſcovered by diſſolving it in water, for the ſalt of *amber* readily diſſolves and leaves the cream of tartar undiſſolved. When it is mixed with the ſalt of coral, it is diſcovered by laying it on a red hot iron, on which the ſalt of *amber* flies off, but that of the coral remains in the form of a white powder.

This ſalt is given in doſes from gr. iii. to ℈ i. Boerhaave extols it as an antihyſteric, and other phyſicians attribute many other virtues to it. Dr. Alſton of Edinburgh ſays, that when diveſted of the oil, it is no better than common ſalt. At preſent it is rarely uſed, except to render the operation of aloetic and reſinous purges more mild, and alſo more certain.

The oil which riſes in diſtillation may be rectified by diſtilling it from pure water. The rectified oil hath a ſtrong bituminous ſmell, and a pungent acrid taſte; it heats the body, and promotes the fluid ſecretions; it is chiefly uſed as an antihyſteric, and an aſſiſtant to emmenagogues: externally it is applied to weak, rheumatic, and paralytic limbs. This oil agrees with the mineral oils in refuſing to mix with vinous ſpirits.

Several preparations have been made from *amber*, but they are rarely uſed. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med. Tournefort's Mat. Med. Dict. of Chem.

Succinum Nigrum, alſo called agath, jet, jeat. Black *amber*, and gagates. It is found in many countries, but the fineſt is in England. It is a kind of coal, and is chiefly uſed for making into boxes, cups, &c. It affords by diſtillation an acid liquor, a thick black oil, and a thin black oil. Some ſay it differs from the kennel coal, in that the coal does not flame out except blown upon by the bellows, nor does it contain ſo much bituminous oil.

SUCCISA, alſo called morſus diaboli, ſcabroſo folio integro. Common devil's bit. It is a ſpecies of ſcabious it grows in meadows and paſture grounds, and flowers at the end of ſummer. The roots are ſaid to be alexipharmic; the leaves are often ſold for the leaves of common ſcabious, they are alexipharmic, reſolvent, bitter, and of the ſame qualities as the ſcabious for which they are ſold.

SUCCUBUS. A ſpecies of night-mare.

SUDAMEN. Tranſitory, red, ſtinging ſpots on the ſkin.

SUDAMINA. Heat pimples, or an eruption of puſtules, which ſucceed an inordinate ſweat. That kind of ſymptomatic miliary fever, that is called boa; which ſee.

SUDOR. Sweat. It it that fluid which tranſudes through

through the pores of the ſkin when we uſe much exerciſe, or uſe ſuch means as may increaſe its diſcharge. It conſiſts of a water, a highly exalted oil, a ſalt, and a terreſtrious matter.

SUDOR ANGLICUS. The ſweating ſickneſs. Dr. Cullen thinks it a ſpecies of typhus. See HELODES. This diſorder is thus named from its firſt appearing in this iſland. When Henry the Seventh firſt landed his ſoldiers at Miliford Haven, in the year 1483, it appeared amongſt them. In 1485 it was in London; it ſoon diſappeared, but returned five or ſix times: the laſt return was in 1551. It was remarked that Engliſhmen, whether they reſided at home, or fled into other countries, were attacked, whilſt foreigners in England were unaffected. Different patients were variouſly affected, but ſome on the firſt appearance of the diſorder were ſeized with a pain in the neck, ſcapula, legs, and arms, whilſt others perceived only a kind of warm vapour, or flatulence, running through thoſe parts; and theſe ſymptoms were ſuddenly ſucceeded by a profuſe ſweat, which the patients could not account for. The internal parts became firſt warm, and were ſoon after ſeized with an incredible heat, which thence diffuſed itſelf to the extremities of the body. An intolerable thirſt, reſtleſſneſs, and indiſpoſition of the heart, liver, and ſtomach, were the next ſymptoms, which were ſucceeded by an exceſſive head-ach, a delirium, in which the patient was trifling and talkative, and after theſe a kind of extenuation of the body, and an irreſiſtible neceſſity of ſleeping. In ſome the ſweat ſtopped in the beginning, and their limbs became moderately cool; but this evacuation being afterwards promoted, the matter of it was of a diſagreeable ſmell, of different colours, ſometimes more, and ſometimes leſs in quantity, and of a thickiſh conſiſtence. Some were ſeized with a nauſea, others with a vomiting; all, without exception, were afflicted with a difficulty of reſpiration. The urine had nothing preternatural, except that it was of a thicker conſiſtence, and tinged with a fainter colour than uſual. The pulſe was rather quicker than natural. In thoſe, however, who breathed in the pureſt air, and had the beſt conſtitutions, the diſeaſe was moſt mild.

The means that were found to be the moſt ſalutary, were to keep up the ſweat, after it begun, at leaſt for twenty-four hours, for by that time the diſeaſe terminated. During the ſweat, no more aliment was taken than the ſtrength required; ſleep was forbid; and when the ſweating was over, the patient was to be cautious in going abroad. Caius de Ephe. Britannica.

SUDORIFICA. Sudorifics. Medicines which excite ſweat. When the ſweat is to be excited, it ſhould be conſidered whether the heat of the body is above or below that degree which admits of this evacuation. The uſual natural heat in different perſons may ſomewhat vary, and for this an allowance is to be made; but whatever the degree of heat is in a healthy ſtate, if the perſon is ten degrees hotter by Farenh. therm. he cannot be made to ſweat. It is true, that in ſtriving to raiſe a ſweat by the uſe of diluting liquors he will be increaſed above this, and the ſweat, notwithſtanding, follow; but if the diluting drinks were not uſed, other means would fail. In this caſe cooling methods muſt be uſed, ſuch as cold water for drink, cool air admitted to the body, and cooling medicines given internally. If the heat is below the ſtandard of health, warm water and cordials muſt be uſed, the patient muſt be kept in a warm room or in bed. As ſweating greatly cools the body, it ſhould be cautiouſly uſed in low and putrid fevers. When the patient is very hot, to aſſiſt the effects of cold water, and to haſten it through the ſkin, flannel cloths may be wrung out of hot water, and applied round the legs and thighs, and thus a ſweat will be produced very ſpeedily. When the ſweat is once raiſed, the drink ſhould be warm, and ſupplied more or leſs freely according to the degree and continuance of the ſweating. Sweating is rarely of uſe when bleeding is unſafe; though in ſuch caſes a gentle perſpiration may generally prove ſalutary. See Dr. Home's Medical Tracts and Experiments, p. 220, Exp. v. Mr. Alexander's Experimental Eſſays, Exp. iii.

SUFFIMENTUM. A ſuffumigation. Thoſe made for pleaſure are generally formed of ſuch ſweet ſubſtances as are found to be agreeable, and thoſe which are formed for health are generally calculated to effect the mouth, throat, or other part to which they are to be applied, in ſuch manner as to produce ſome important alteration for the removal of ſome diſeaſe.

SUFFOCATIO STRIDULA, alſo called the croup, the chock, the ſtuffing or riſing of the lights. It is a diſeaſe that hitherto hath only appeared in children, rarely, if ever, appearing in any after twelve years of age. Dr. Cullen places it as a ſpecies of cynanche, and names it cynanche trachealis.

This diſorder appears to be preſent by a peculiar ſharp ſhrill voice, not eaſily deſcribed; a remarkable freedom from all other complaints, though the hour of death be at hand; the breathing is quick, and more or leſs laborious; the pulſe frequent, ſometimes ſtrong at firſt, but always ſoft and weak towards the end; ſometimes there is a dull pain in the trachea, on ſpeaking, or when it is preſſed with a finger; and at others an external ſwelling in the upper part of the ſame tube; the ſenſes are perfect to the laſt: the progreſs of the diſorder is rapid, for generally death ſoon ſteps in to conclude it. The face is generally flushed, though ſometimes it is of a livid colour. Sometimes there is a cough, and when it is attendant, it is ſhort and ſtifled, and not attended with much expectoration. Dr. Cullen deſcribes it as having for its characteriſtic ſymptoms, "a peculiar croaking ſound of the voice, a difficult reſpiration, a ſenſe of ſtraitneſs about the larynx, and a fever: or, a hoarſeneſs with ſome ſhrillneſs and ringing ſound, both in ſpeaking and coughing, as if the noiſe came from a brazen tube." He further remarks, that "the thick mucous that fills up the trachea may be eaſily ſeparated, and ſometimes is found ſo; in thoſe inſtances the inner membrane of the trachea is always free from eroſion or ulceration, but uſually ſhews the veſtiges of inflammation, being covered with a matter reſembling pus, and like to that which is ejected by coughing; and very often a matter of the ſame kind is found in the bronchiæ, in conſiderable quantity.

For the moſt part winter is the ſeaſon in which this diſeaſe occurs; long continued catarrhs from the meaſles, hooping cough, or the ſmall pox, are predisponent cauſes; cold and moiſt weather is ſuppoſed to contribute much as cauſes. It is moſt common about the ſea coaſt, and in low marſhy countries; yet ſometimes is met with in midland countries: and its attacks are frequently repeated in the ſame child.

The ſeat of the diſorder is the cavity of the wind-pipe, from a little below the glottis downwards; and the diſorder itſelf conſiſts of the mucus ſeparated there, and become thick, ſo filling up the paſſage that the air can no longer paſs freely into the lungs; at firſt it forms a thick membranous cruſt, which thickening fills up the cavity of the trachea. The back part of the trachea where there are no cartilages, ſeems from the inſpection of thoſe who die of this diſeaſe, to be its firſt and principal ſeat; as this morbid membrane is often found there, when it is in no other part: and indeed, in this part is lodged the greateſt number of glands deſigned for the ſecretion of mucus. In the mucous glands in general, this diſtemper ſhould be conſidered as originally ſeated; but from particular uſes, more directed to thoſe of the trachea; where, from the nature of the part, it becomes viſible in a different way from what would diſcover it in any other part. It is not evidently contagious.

Some diſtinguiſh the *croup* from the catarrhus ſuffocativus of Etmuller; from a ſevere cold; from peripneumonic complaints; and from ſuch ſymptoms as ariſe from extraneous bodies lodged in the trachea: an inſtance of which Dr. Home mentions in his Enquiry into the Nature, &c. of the *croup*.

There are two different ſituations of this complaint; the firſt is more inflammatory and leſs dangerous; in this caſe the pulſe is generally ſtrong, the face red, the drought great, and evacuations are uſeful: the ſecond is leſs inflammatory and more dangerous; under this the pulſe is quick, ſoft, and weak, the tongue is moiſt, the thirſt inconſiderable, there is great anxiety, and death is haſtened by evacuations. If this diſeaſe comes on with an old habitual cough, or by ſlow degrees, the inflammatory ſtage will hardly be perceived. The urine is thin during the inflammatory ſtage, but in the purulent one it hath a light, ouzy, purulent ſediment.

If on the third or fourth day after the firſt manifeſt at-

tack, the breathing is much affected, the pulſe is quick and weak, the face red, anxiety great, and the patient toſſes himſelf about, the danger is great; but if it is only on the firſt or ſecond day, the breathing not bad, the pulſe though frequent, yet is ſtrong and firm, and the voice not altered, ſome hope may be entertained of a recovery. The cough becoming ſtronger and leſs dry, is uſually the firſt ſign of amendment.

Though this diſeaſe conſiſts in an inflammatory affection, it does not commonly end either in ſuppuration or gangrene. The troubleſome circumſtance of it ſeems to conſiſt in a ſpaſm of the muſcles of the glottis, threatening ſuffocation. When this diſeaſe is fatal, it is ſo from a ſpaſm ſuffocating, or from matter in the bronchiæ, or the mucus in the larynx.

In the inflammatory ſtate bleeding ſhould be uſed as freely as the pulſe will admit; the bowels ſhould be kept lax; a bliſter muſt be applied to the throat or round the neck, as ſoon as bleeding and purging have been uſed; though if the caſe is very inflammatory an emollient cataplaſm is to be preferred; ſteams from hot vinegar and water may be received into the throat with the breath. In the purulent ſtate nothing yet attempted ſeems to have any good effect. Upon the firſt attack of the diſeaſe, vomiting immediately after bleeding, ſeems to be of conſiderable uſe; ſometimes ſuddenly removing the diſeaſe. Antiſpaſmodics do not evidently appear to be uſeful. See Buchan's Domeſtic Medicine, ed. 2. p. 681. the Appendix to Brooks's Practice of Phyſic; the Britiſh Magazine for Feb. 1766; Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. i. An Enquiry into the Nature, &c. of the *Croup*, by F. Home, M. D.

SUFFUSIO. See CATARACTA. It is alſo ſynonymous with pſeudoblepſis.

SUFFUSIO AURIGINOSA. A jaundice.

SUGILLATIO. It is an inflammation in a part. Thus a blood-ſhot eye is a *ſugillation* in the eye. It is uſed as ſynonymous with ecchymoma or ecchymoſis; but it ſeems not properly ſo, being more like the enchymoma. The words ecchymoſis is derived from *ἐκχέω, to pour out*, and *ſugillatio*, from *ſugo, to ſuck*. However, as theſe words are uſed ſynonymouſly, it may be obſerved that by the word *ſugillatio*, a different cauſe is expreſſed; e. g. an ecchymoſis is cauſed by extravaſation; *ſugillation* is by ſuction; as when cupping glaſſes are applied to a part, which by removing the preſſure of the air there, occaſions the blood to ruſh in and diſtend the veſſels; even into ſuch as do not uſually receive red blood,

Taking the word *ſugillation* as the ſame with ecchymoſis, this diſorder, when ſeated in the eye, takes the name of blood-ſhot; when the ſkin is its ſeat, if the colour is livid, ſome writers term it pelioma; and if black, they call it melaſma. Mr. Bell, in the firſt volume of his Surgery, ſays, that in blood-letting, it often happens that a ſmall tumor is raiſed immediately above the orifice in the vein, by the blood inſinuating itſelf into the cellular membrane of the neighbouring parts. Such a tumor (he adds) when round and ſmall, is termed a thrombus; and when more diffuſed, an ecchymoſis. Linnæus names it *ſugillatio*. Dr. Cullen defines it to be a diffuſed tumor, a little elevated, and growing darker coloured. The cauſes are preſſure; bruiſes; blood-letting, either from the orifice in the ſkin ſliding over that in the vein, or from cutting the vein through. Theſe livid and black ſpots are ſometimes a ſymptom of the ſcurvy.

The ecchymoſis ſhould be diſtinguiſhed in its different cauſes; as when happening from blows, bleeding, or other external injuries, or from the ſcurvy, or other internal cauſe. It ſhould be alſo not miſtaken for the enchymoma, or for the ſpurious aneuriſm.

In ſlight caſes, compreſſes dipped in vinegar, applied frequently, is all that can be neceſſary for the cure. If it tends to ſuppurate, treat it as an abſceſs. If the quantity of coagulated blood is conſiderable, diſcharge it by as many inciſions as are required for that end; then treat it as an approaching mortification.

See Heiſter's Surgery; Van Swieten's Com. on Boerh. Aphor. ſect. 324, and 1151.

SULPHUR. Brimſtone. It is a ſolid brittle concrete, of a yellowiſh colour, inclining a little to greeniſh, and is in ſome degree gloſſy. It conſiſts of the vitriolic acid, and a ſmall portion of phlogiſton. Mr. Edwards, in his Elements of Foſſilogy, deſcribes it as a genus in the claſs of inflammables, which in cloſe veſſels ſublimes in the form of ſtriæ; in the open air is decompounded by heat into penetrating acrid, and ſuffocating fumes; and when deflagrated with nitre, leaves vitriolated tartar. It is ſometimes found native in the earth in pure, bright yellow, ſemitranſparent maſſes; but more commonly in opake ones, of a greeniſh, greyiſh, or other colours, intermixed with various earthy or ſtony matters. The impure ſorts are called *ſulphur* vivum. The native *ſulphurs* are met with chiefly about volcanos in Italy, alſo in ſome of the German, Hungarian, and Swediſh mines. The largeſt quantities that are brought into England are from Saxony, from whence we receive it in irregular maſſes, which are afterwards melted and caſt into rolls, being firſt mixed with coarſe reſin, flour, and ſuch like, whence its pale colour; for before it is thus mixed its colour is deeper. There are *ſulphurs* of a red colour, but they contain a portion of arſenic. *Sulphur* is an ingredient in moſt kinds of ores. The mineral from which the greateſt quantity is extracted is the yellow pyrites, plenty of which is found in Saxony, where the *ſulphur* is ſeparated by means of heat, and is received in veſſels placed for it to run into as it melts.

This *ſulphur* is purified by ſubliming it, and then it is called the flowers of *ſulphur*; this operation is performed by perſons who ſublime large quantities in a way of trade, and the *ſulphur* thus ſublimed becomes an article in medicine.

The flowers of *ſulphur* are uſed againſt cutaneous eruptions, particularly the itch; and for its uſefulneſs in ſome diſorders of the lungs, it hath been called anima pulmonum. Pure *ſulphur* looſens the belly, and is uſeful when the piles are troubleſome; it promotes perſpiration; it paſſes readily through the whole habit, and tranſpires through the ſkin: in coughs, catarrhs, and aſthmas, it is found uſeful, particularly in ſcorbutic habits.

Sulphur is an active medicine, it reſtrains the activity of ſome other very powerful ones; mixed with mercury, the regulus of antimony, or with arſenic, they become inert.

Various are the preparations of *ſulphur*; but, for internal uſe, none excels, nor even equals, the flowers, which may be eaſily contrived for taking without any diſguſt to the palate: amongſt other modes, the troches, as directed in the Diſpenſatory of the London College, is an elegant one.

From *ſulphur* the chemiſts obtain the greateſt part of the vitriolic acid which they uſe. See the Dict. of Chem. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

SUMACH, i. e. Rhus folio ulmi. It is the rhus coriaria, Linn.

SUPERBUS MUSCULUS, i. e. Rectus ſuperior oculi.

SUPERCILIARES MUSCULI. They are fleſhy faſciculi. They ariſe from the ſynarthroſis of the oſſa naſi with the os frontis, and thence run along the direction of the eye-brows, and are loſt in the middle of them. They depreſs the eye-brows, and contract the ſkin over the noſe.

SUPERSCAPULARIS INFERIOR, i. e. Infra ſpinatus.

SUPERSCAPULARIS SUPERIOR, i. e. Supra ſpinatus.

SUPINATOR RADII BREVIS, five Minor. Supinator, becauſe it makes the hand ſupine, i. e. when the palm is upwards. It riſes from the outer condyle of the os humeri, goes over the capſular ligament, lies under the longus, and is inſerted into the internal anterior part of the tubercle of the radius.

SUPINATOR RADII LONGUS, five Major. It riſes fleſhy from the outer edge of the os humeri, twiſts round it, goes down the fore-arm all along the radius, covering the artery, and becoming tendinous, where we generally feel the pulſe, it is inſerted into the anterior internal part of the radius.

SUPPLETA ISCHURIA. A ſuppreſſion of urine, from exceſs of other evacuations, which require this defect to ſupply their loſs.

SUPPOSITORIUM, from *ſuppono, to lay under*. A ſuppoſitory. The Greeks call them proſtata. They are convenient for promoting ſtools when clyſters cannot be adminiſtered

adminiſtered. The moſt gentle are made of common ſalt and honey, which may be boiled to the conſiſtence of a ſoft pill, and then rolled to the thickneſs of a gooſe quill, and an inch or little more in length; theſe are introduced into the rectum, where they remain until they are diſcharged by the effect they produce: aloes, colocynth, and other ingredients, may be added, according to the intention of the preſcriber.

SUPPRESSORII. Diſeaſes ariſing from or attended with an oppreſſion of the organs and impeded excretions.

SUPPURANTIA. Suppuratives. There is no univerſal *ſuppurative*. As a proper external application, to promote ſuppuration when there is a conſiderable heat, a poultice of oatmeal, or of bread, with milk, may be applied: when the heat of the part is defective and the temperament habitually cold, add galbanum, onions, and ſuch like materials, to the common bread poultice.

SUPPURATORIA. Suppuratory fever, or fever of ſuppuration.

SUPRA COSTALES, i. e. Levatores coſtarum.

SUPRA SCAPULARIS, i. e. Supra ſpinatus.

SUPRA SEMI ORBICULARES. They are fibres that increaſe the breadth of the muſcles of the upper lip.

SUPRA SPINALIS, i. e. Supra ſpinatus.

SUPRA SPINATUS. This muſcle riſes from each ſide between the upper edge of the ſcapula, and the ſpine thereof runs under the acromion, and extenſors of the ſcapula, goes acroſs the capſular ligament, and is inſerted into the inner tubercle, near the head of the humerus.

SURA. A name for the fibula; for the gaſtrocnemii muſcles; alſo a ſort of wine.

SURALIS ARTERIA, i. e. Tibialis poſterior arteria.

SURALIS VENA. It is a branch from the beginning of the tibialis poſterior.

SURDITAS. Deafneſs. The cauſes are, the loſs of the external ear, wax or other matter lodged in the external ear, a rupture, or a relaxation of the membrane of the drum of the ear, a palſy, or a preſſure on the auditory nerve, violent noiſe, obſtruction of the Euſtachian tube, cold, inflammation, abſceſs, the lues venerea, &c. The moſt frequent of theſe cauſes is hardened wax in the meatus auditorius, which may be ſoftened and removed by frequent injections of warm water. See DYSECOEA.

In caſe of a relaxation of the membrana tympani, a little warm brandy, or ſpirit of roſemary, may be dropped into the ear now and then.

If the Euſtachian tube is obſtructed, relief is ſometimes obtained by chewing a cruſt every morning and evening.

Sometimes ſternutatories have relieved when the cauſe hath not been known.

When a defluxion of humours are the cauſe, an injection may be made as follows and uſed night and morning: ℞ Extract. ſaturni. gut xxv. ſp. vin. C. gut. l. aq. puriſſ. ℥ ſs. m.

SUSPENSOR. A bandage to ſuſpend the ſcrotum. The French call it *la bourſe*. It is a cloth large enough to contain the ſcrotum and the dreſſings, with a fillet on each ſide to ſuſpend it about the waiſt, and one before to faſten it to the other two in the fore part of the belly.

SUSPENSORIUS TESTIS, i. e. Cremaſter.

SUSURRUS, i. e. Paracuſis imaginaria, or hearing ſounds that are not.

SUTURA. A ſuture. In anatomy it is the particular articulation of the bones which is ſeen in the head. Theſe *ſutures* are divided into common and proper. The common are thoſe which join the bones of the cranium with thoſe of the face. The proper are thoſe which connect the bones of the cranium, and are the coronal, the ſagittal, the lambdoidal, and the two ſquamous.

In ſurgery it is the uniting of the lips of a wound by ſewing, and theſe are of five kinds.

1. The dry *ſuture*. It is made by two pieces of ſticking plaſter, each the length of the wound, to which very narrow tapes are fixed at due diſtances. Apply one piece near one edge of the wound, and the other piece near the other edge, then gently draw the two ſides of the wound together, and dreſs over the tapes; the tapes ſhould correſpond exactly; the knots muſt be ſlip knots. Or, take a ſlip of plaſter, the length of the wound, and cut longitudinal holes in it; then apply one ſide near the edge of the wound, bring the lips cloſe, and then apply the other. After this kind of *ſuture* is applied, the uniting bandage is convenient to ſupport it.

2. The twiſted *ſuture*. It is alſo called the circumvoluted *ſuture*. This is uſed for the hare lip, and in a few other inſtances. It is performed by introducing two or more pins through the whole ſubſtance of the lips of the wound, then twiſting a waxed thread about them in the form of the figure 8.

3. The interrupted *ſuture*, alſo called the knotted *ſuture*. It is performed with any needle armed with a waxed thread, by thruſting it through both lips of the wound, then tying the thread in ſlip knots, making a number of ſtitches according to the length of the wound, at an inch from each other. The needle ſhould go to nearly the bottom of the wound. Mr. Juſtamond adviſes a particular regard to the direction of the longitudinal fibres of muſcles in forming this *ſuture*, and not ſo much to regard the direction of the wound; for, if we do not paſs the ligature in the direction of the fibres, it will be a continual ſtimulus, it will excite the muſcle to action, and occaſion a perpetual tugging of the ligature, whence pain, inflammation, &c. will follow. Mr. Bell, in the firſt volume of his Surgery, adviſes, in forming this *ſuture*, to carry the needle and ligature to the bottom of the wound, ſo as to afford but little chance of matter collecting underneath; and, further, he directs both ends of the thread to be paſſed from within outwards; which is readily done by uſing two needles upon each thread inſtead of one. A needle being put upon each end of the ſame thread, and each needle being inſerted at the bottom of the ſore, and puſhed outwardly, ſo as to paſs out at a proper diſtance from the edge of the wound, the needles are then to be taken off, and the threads allowed to remain till all the ligatures are paſſed, which the extent of the ſore ſeems to require. In paſſing the ligatures, pierce the ſkin from near half an inch to near an inch from the lips of the wound; theſe diſtances will include all the varieties in the ſize of wounds. As ſoon as the threads are all paſſed, the lips of the wound ought to be preſſed together and ſupported by an aſſiſtant till all the ligatures are firmly tied.

4. The quilled *ſuture*, ſo called becauſe the knots were tied upon quills, which were laid over the dreſſings that immediately covered the lips of the wound.

5. The glover's, or uninterrupted *ſuture*, called alſo the ſpiral or the continued. It was uſed in wounds of the inteſtines and ſtomach. See Heiſter's Surgery; Le Dran's and Sharp's Operations.

SYCOSIS, from *συκον*, *a fig*. It is a tumor on the anus, which only differs in the ſize from the thymus, The Latins call it mariſca. *Sycoſis* is alſo the name of an ulcer mentioned in Celſus, lib. vi. c. 3. alſo in Vogel's Noſology, which is fungous.

SYMBOLOGICE. That part of pathology which treats of the ſigns and ſymptoms of diſeaſes.

SYMPATHETICI NERVI MAJOR, i. e. Nervi intercoſtales.

SYMPATHETICI MEDII, i. e. Par vagum.

SYMPATHETICI MINORES. So the auditory nerves are called.

SYMPATHIA, from *συν*, *together*, and *παθος*, *ſuffering*. Sympathy. Our bodies are, by means of the brain, not only endowed with feeling and a power of motion, but alſo a remarkable *ſympathy*, which is either general or particular. That every part of the body hath a *ſympathy* with the whole, is evident from cold water being thrown on any part of us that is warm; this produces a ſudden contraction of all the veſſels and pores, and thus ſometimes puts a ſtop to ſmall hæmorrhages. The effluvia of things ſmelled to often communicate new vigour to the whole body. The particular *ſympathy* is manifeſt by various inſtances of diſeaſes complained of in one part when the cauſe is in a very remote one; for inſtance, pain in the head occaſions ſickneſs in the ſtomach, and ſo does pain in the uterus, &c. A ſudden bright light entering the eye occaſions ſneezing. Some particular ſounds affecting the ears ſet the teeth on edge. The ſmell of grateful food makes the ſaliva flow into the mouth, &c. &c. &c.

All *ſympathy* ſuppoſes feeling, and therefore muſt be owing to the brain, which is the only means of ſenſation.

This further appears from that, the changes in the body, occaſioned by the *ſympathy* of the parts, are ſtopped by whatever affects the nervous ſyſtem ſo ſtrongly as to overcome the ſenſations that produced the ſympathetic ſenſations.

Though all *ſympathy* is owing to the brain, it is not eaſy to account ſatisfactorily for all the various inſtances of *ſympathy* in particular caſes; for many of them may depend on ſuch a ſtate of the brain and other parts as do not become the object of our ſenſes.

A diligent attention to this ſubject, whatever difficulties attend it, is followed with conſiderable advantage by enabling us to account for many ſymptoms of diſeaſes, and alſo to proceed ſo certainly to the cure as by any other known method we could not have arrived at. See the authors on irritability and ſenſibility.

SYMPHYSIS, from *συν*, *with* or *together*, and *φύω*, to *grow*. In anatomy it is a kind of articulation, which is divided into four ſpecies. 1. Synchondroſis. 2. Synneuroſis. 3. Syſſarcoſis. And, 4. The *ſymphyſis* of oſſification, to which epiphyſis belong.

In ſurgery it is a coaleſcence of the natural paſſages, as the anus, vagina, noſtrils, &c. It alſo expreſſes the firſt intention of cure when there is a wound, which is to bring together ſeparated parts, and to keep them together.

SYMPHYTUM, from *συμφύω*, to *conglutinate*. It is a name for moſt ſpecies of comfrey, (ſee CONSOLIDA) for ſeveral of the pulmonaria, for the yellow alkanet, a ſpecies of bugle, a ſpecies of ſaxifrage, and of ſome other plants.

SYMPHITUM PETRÆUM. Heath pine. It is a plant which is ranked among the aſtringent and conglutinant medicines, but is not in uſe.

SYMPHITUM PETRÆUM. A name for the prunella, ſanicula, virga aurea, coris monſpeſſulana, hyſſopus vulg. and ſeveral other plants.

SYMPTOMA, from *συμπιπτω*, *to happen together*. A ſymptom. Galen defines it to be a preternatural affection which depends upon a diſeaſe, or follows it. Thus, *ſymptoms* are diſeaſes produced by an original principal diſeaſe: but *ſymptoms* are ſometimes the effect of *ſymptoms* alſo. A *ſymptom* may be a *ſymptom*, and a diſorder at the ſame time; as when a *ſymptomatic* fever is produced by a phlegmon.

A knowledge of the origin and cauſe of *ſymptoms* conduces to confirm the prognoſis, and to the certain removal of the diſeaſe.

SYNANCHE. A quinſey.

SYNARTHROSIS, from *συν*, *with*, and *ἄρθρον*, *a joint*. It is that ſpecies of articulation in which there is no motion, and it is of three kinds; the ſuture, the harmonia, and the gomphoſis.

SYNCHONDROSIS, from *συν*, *with*, and *χονδρος*, *a cartilage*. It is that ſpecies of ſymphyſis in which the bones are connected by a *cartilage*, and is either moveable or immoveable; the firſt is inſtanced in the vertebræ of the neck, back and loins; the ſecond is inſtanced in the os pubis, the two ſides of which are ordinarily immoveable.

SYNCHONDROTOMY. So Dr. Siebold names the ſection of the ſymphyſis of the os pubis.

SYNCHYSIS, from *συγχυω*, *to confound*. A diſeaſe of the eye, conſiſting in a confuſion of the humours, generally proceeding from a violent blow; ſometimes from an inflammation of the uvea, occaſioning a rupture of the veſſels, and an eruption of the humours. Caſtellus.

It is alſo when from the violence of an ophthalmia, the tranſparent cornea is left opaque or corroded, and there is the appearance of confuſion in the humours of the eye. In Cullen's Noſology it is a variety of his ſpecies of caligo pupillæ. Kirkland, in his Inquiry, vol. i. p. 473, defines it as being a confuſion of the humours of the eye from a violent inflammation (the chemoſis) leaving the cornea opaque, or corroded.

SYNCOPE, from *συνκοπτω*, *to cut down*. See LIPOTHYMIA.

SYNDESMOS. A ligament.

SYNDESMOSIS, from *συν*, *with*, and *δεσμος*, *a chain*. i. e. Synneuroſis.

SYNECHES. Various are the uſes of this word as applied to fevers. The Greeks uſe it to ſignify the remitting fevers in general. Some later writers have collected under this word, thoſe inſtances of remittent fevers that are obſcurely deſcribed, of whoſe mode of relief we have no ſatisfactory account. Dr. Cullen places it amongſt the tertian intermittents.

SYNEUROSIS. That ſpecies of ſymphyſis in which the bones are connected by ligaments, as in all the joints that are deſigned for motion.

SYNIZESIS. Blindneſs from an obſtruction of the pupil of the eye, or from a contraction and coalition of it. It is the ſame as the caligo pupillæ of Dr. Cullen. For the cure, ſee IRIS.

SYNOCHA. The ardent or inflamatory fever. See FEVER, and INFLAMATORY FEVER. The *ſynocha*, or *fever* with *inflammatory* irritation, Dr. Cullen places as a genus in the claſs *ſynocha*, and order febris.

SYNOCHUS. A continual fever, whether of the ardent or putrid kind.

SYNOCHUS. Fever compounded of ſynocha, and of typhus, alſo called putrid fever, and malignant fever. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order febris. In the beginning it is uſually of the ardent kind, or *ſynocha*, but ſoon degenerates into the *typhus*, and ſo on until it becomes what is called the *putrid fever*, which ſee.

SYNOCHUS. Sometimes it is uſed for ſynocha.

SYNOCHUS PLEURITICA. It is an inſtance of ſynocha.

SYNOCHUS HIEMALIS. An inſtance of ſynocha.

SYNOCHUS RHEUMATISANS. An inſtance of ſynocha.

SYNOSTEOGRAPHIA. Synoſteography. It treats of a bone, its parts, articulations, the nails, and the number and uſes of the bones.

SYNOVIA. It is a gluey tranſparent fluid, which readily mixes with water, and partly jellies when expoſed to cold. It is ſecerned from certain glands in the joints, to preſerve their motions eaſy and free. The *ſynovia* is not found to coagulate in any part of a joint, however long the bone may have been diſplaced. When there is a deficiency of *ſynovia*, there is a crackling of the joint, if the perſon moves much.

SYNOVIÆ GLANDUÆ. Synovial glands. They are ſmall conglomerate *glands*, ſeated in the outer lamellæ of the caſpular ligaments of the joints, and ſo as to be more or leſs preſſed, according to the degree of motion. They are alſo called Haver's *glands*, becauſe firſt diſcovered by him. See GENU.

SYPHILIS. See LUES VENEREA.

SYRIGMUS. It is that ſpecies of depraved hearing called paracuſis imaginaria.

SYRINGMOS. The ſame as ſyrigmus.

SYRUPUS, from the Chaldean word *ſirpi*, or the Arabic word *ſirab*, a *potion*. A ſyrup. The Arabians firſt invented this form of medicines. A *ſyrup* is a watery or other liquor, ſo boiled with ſugar, that if a drop is let fall upon a marble it will not ſpread. If the quantity of ſugar is not ſufficient, the *ſyrup* will ſoon ferment, and if it exceeds what is needful, the overplus will ſeparate and be formed into cryſtals. Acids ſhould have a proper quantity of ſugar added to them, to make a *ſyrup* with a ſimmering heat, for boiling deſtroys the acid in ſome meaſure; this is alſo to be obſerved when the liquor is flavoured, as that of violets, and ſuch as have a fine colour. *Syrups* are now but little uſed, and indeed the *ſyr.* alb. may anſwer every valuable intention of all others, except the *ſyr.* e mecon. Bruno ſays that the Greeks knew not that form of medicine.

SYSSARCOSIS, from *σὺν* and *σὰρξ*, *fleſh*. It is a ſpecies of ſymphyſis of the bones, and is that in which they are connected by *fleſh*, that is, by muſcles, as in the connection of the os humeri with the ſcapula. In ſurgery, it is the method of curing wounds by the growth of new *fleſh*: it alſo expreſſes the intention of cure, which conſiſts in promoting digeſtion and regeneration of the loſt ſubſtance.

SYSTOLE, from *συστέλλω*, *to contract*. A contraction, or conſtriction. It is the motion of the heart and arteries by *contraction*, which is alternate, and contrary to the diaſtole, which ſee.

T.

TAB

TABACUM. Tobacco. See NICOTIANA.

TABANUCCO, or JAVANUCO, which ſee.

TABELLA. A lozenge.

TABES, from *tabeſco*, *to conſume*, or *pine away*. It is often taken for an ulcer in the lungs; is ſometimes uſed as ſynonymous with atrophia.

Dr. Cullen places the *tabes* as a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs cachexiæ, and order marcores. He defines it to be a waſting with extreme debility and hectic fever. He diſtinguiſhes three ſpecies. 1. *Tabes* purulenta; from an ulcer either external or internal. 2. *Tabes* ſcrophuloſa; when it happens in ſcrophulous habits. 3. *Tabes* venenata; when it happens from taking ſome kind of poiſon.

TABES COXARIA. A waſting of the thigh and leg from an abſceſs, or other cauſe in the hip.

TABES DORSALIS. It is only a ſymptom of a gleet, and being a principal ſymptom it gives name to that diſorder. Dr. Cullen ranks it a variety of the atrophia inanitorum. Hippocrates calls it *tabes* oſſis ſacri. What the ancients ſuppoſed to be a waſting of the marrow in the back was nothing more than a gonorrhœa ſimplex, without any virulency in the running; and the pain that this occaſioned moſtly affecting the loins, they therefore judged the marrow to be waſting. At preſent, by the name of *tabes dorſalis* is underſtood a waſting of the body, attended at firſt with pain in the back and loins, and afterwards alſo in the neck and head, cauſed by a too early or a too frequent uſe of venery.

Hippocrates deſcribes the *tabes dorſalis* as follows: "It ariſes from a diſorder in the ſpinal marrow, and it is principally incident to perſons of a ſalacious diſpoſition, or ſuch as are newly married. The patient is free from fever, eats and digeſts well; when he is aſked with reſpect to his ſtate, he ſays he perceives as it were ants falling from the ſuperior parts of his body (his head for inſtance) into the ſpine of his back, and when he diſcharges his urine or excrements, there is at the ſame time a copious evacuation of liquid ſemen, in conſequence of which he is incapable of propagating his ſpecies, or anſwering the purpoſes of marriage. He is generally ſhort-breathed and weak, eſpecially after exerciſe. He perceives a ſenſe of weight in his head, and is affected with a ringing in his ears. The patient is in proceſs of time ſeized with various ſpecies of violent fevers, and at laſt dies of that kind of fever called lipyria." The ſeminal matter which Hippocrates mentions as diſcharged with the urine and ſtools, is mucus, not ſemen. Beſides the ſymptoms already mentioned, the memory fails, and the ſpirits are greatly dejected, the ſight fails, or an incurable gutta ſerena comes on.

In order to a cure, particular care is required with reſpect to the non-naturals. The air ſhould be pure and cool; the diet light, moderately cordial, very nouriſhing, and frequently ſupplied in ſmall quantities; ſleep ſhould be early ſought in the evening, and exerciſe in a carriage or on horſeback may be uſed. And amongſt the different tribes of medicines, cordial, moderately aſtringent, and ſuch as increaſe the heat of the body; the bark, ſteel, elixir of vitriol, &c. according as there is more or leſs of a feveriſh heat; bitters alſo and cold bathing have their uſe toward the end of the cure.

See Hippocrates de Morbis, lib. ii. and vi. Baldwinus Roſſeus in Tract. de Scorbut. epiſt. 4. Sennertus, vol. ii. Lommius's Med. Obſ. Morton's Phthiſiologia.

TABES NUTRICUM, i. e. Atrophia inanitorum.

TABES SUDATORIA, i. e. Atrophia inniatorum.

TABES A SANGUIFLUXU, i. e. Atrophia inanitorum.

TABES SYPHILITICA, i. e. Atrophia cacochymia.

TABES A HYDROPE, i. e. Atrophia cacochymia.

TAM

TABES PULMONALIS, i. e. Phthiſis.

TABES COXARIA, i. e. Phthiſis iſchiadicæ.

TACAMAHACA. It is a reſin obtained from a tree which reſembles a poplar tree. The fagara octandra, Linn. It is a native of the temperate parts of America, and under ſhelter it bears the cold of our climate. The beſt reſin is collected in gourd-ſhells; it is unctuous, ſoftiſh, of a pale yellow or green colour, of a bitteriſh aromatic taſte, and a fragrant ſmell; but this is ſeldom met with. The ſort which is commonly met with is in tranſparent globes, of a white, yellow, brown, or green colour, and leſs grateful than the foregoing. The firſt is ſaid to exude from the fruit of the tree, the latter from inciſions in the trunk. It is chiefly uſed in fumigations and plaſters, to warm, irritate, and gently bliſter. It diſſolves in rectified ſpirit of wine, and gives to water its ſmell and taſte. The Indians uſe it for ripening of tumors. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

TACTUS. The touch. The ſenſe of *touch* is, in the proper acceptation of the word, that change ariſing in the mind from external bodies applied to the ſkin, but more eſpecially at the ends of the fingers; for by the fingers we more accurately diſtinguiſh the tangible qualities of things than by other parts of our body. See Haller's Phyſiology, lect. xiv.

TÆNIÆ. Flat worms. Of all the *worms* that infeſt the human body, this is the moſt troubleſome and dangerous. The roots of the male and female ferns have long been famed for their efficacy in deſtroying and expelling this ſpecies of *worm*. The doſe of theſe roots in powder is to half an ounce, to be taken in honey and water, or mead; and if it is accompanied with ſcammony enough to purge, its efficacy will be greater. The French phyſicians order over-night a glyſter of milk and honey, and a quantity of panada for ſupper; in the morning the powdered fern roots are given to detach the *worm*, of which the patient is ſaid to be ſenſible, by a ceſſation of the pain in the ſtomach, and by a weight that is felt in the lower belly. Two hours after this, the purgative is given to evacuate the looſened *worm*.

TALCUM. Talc, alſo called mica. It is an earthy or a ſtony ſubſtance, conſiſting of thin, flexible, ſhining plates, which, if expoſed to the fire, become brittle, and, by a violent heat, vitreſcible. Some ſpecimens are colourleſs and tranſparent; others are red, brown, green, or black, and generally theſe contain ſome metallic matter. *Talc* is ſoft to the touch, ſomewhat like unctuous ſubſtances. In foſſilogy, it is a genus in the order of ſtones called grittleſs ſtones. Its characters are ſtone, ſoft and unctuous to the touch; cutting and ſcraping eaſily; opake, yet generally very gloſſy, and not of a ſtoney, but of an earthy ſtructure and appearance. As calcareous matter is found in the ſtate both of earth and of ſtone, ſo is this matter, and in the ſtate of earth it often is the ſubſtance of ſteatites. Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy.

The Venetian *talc* is more or leſs pellucid, and hath been uſed as a coſmetic, but is now neglected, as well as all the other ſpecies. See Dict. of Chem. Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

TALPA, and Talparia. A tumor on the head, of the atheromatous kind, is thus named. The tumors on the face, &c. called moles, are alſo thus named, and are a ſpecies of wen. See NÆVUS.

TALUS, i. e. Aſtragalus. The ankle bone.

TAMALAPATRA. Indian leaves. See FOLIUM.

TAMARINDUS, alſo called tamaræa zeela, oxyphœnicon. Tamarind. *Tamarindus* Indica, Linn. The *tamarind* tree. *Tamar hendi* are Arabian words for Indian fruit. Some call the *tamarind* tree by the name of Indian dates, and others Indian acacia; but the tree is of

the palm kind, and somewhat resembles an ash tree. It grows in Arabia and both the Indies. The fruit is a pod like that of a bean, including several hard seeds, together with a dark-coloured viscid pulp. The East India *tamarinds* are longer than those of the West, and darker coloured; the former contain six or seven seeds in each, the latter only three or four.

The pulp with the seeds are brought into England, without the shell or pod; the Oriental have most pulp, the Occidental have much sugar mixed with them.

The pulp is an agreeable cooling laxative acid; it was first introduced into practice by the Arabians: it is useful in inflammatory and putrid fevers; it abates thirst and heat, and corrects putrefaction. As a laxative the dose is two or three drams. If the pulp of *tamarinds* is mixed with the laxative sweets, such as cassia and manna, it increases their action, and prevents in a degree the flatulence which they occasion. See Tournefort's Mat. Med. Lewis's Mat. Med.

TAMARISCUS, also called tamarice, myrica, tamarix. Tamarisk. The *tamarix* Gallica, Linn. It is plentiful in France and Germany. The leaves and bark of this tree are astringent, but they are not noticed in the present practice. See Raii Hist.

TANACETUM, also called tenasia, athanasia, Parthenium mas. Common tansy. *Tanacetum* vulgare, or *tanacetum* foliis bipinnatis serratis incisis, floribus luteis. Linn. It is a plant with large leaves, divided to the rib on both sides into deeply indented segments; on the tops of the stalks are many gold-coloured discous flowers, in umbel-like clusters; the seeds are small and blackish. It is perennial, grows wild by road sides, and about the borders of fields; it flowers in June, July, and August. The leaves and flowers have a strong, not disagreeable smell, and a bitter aromatic taste; the flowers are stronger, though rather less unpleasant than the leaves. The curled leaved, and the striped leaved sorts, are but varieties of this species. They give out their virtue both to water and to spirit, most perfectly to the latter. Distilled with water, they yield a greenish, yellow, essential oil, which smells strongly of the herb; the remaining decoction affords a strong, bitter, subsaline extract. The spirituous tincture gives over part of the oil in inspissation, a part remaining with the extract.

This plant is a warm deobstruent bitter, useful in cachectic disorders, and weakness of the stomach; it expels worms from the intestines, for which the seeds are generally used. Many other virtues are attributed to *tansy*, such as its curing some colics and the gout, but it is not much employed in general practice. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

TANACETUM. It is a name for the balsamita, a species of millefolium, a species of leucanthemum, and of some other herbs.

TARANTISMUS. A desire of dancing. The disorder said to be produced by the bite of a tarantula, but this is imposition. Some express by it a kind of St. Vitus's dance.

TARANTULA. It is a species of spider met with in Apulia. It bite is said to produce a species of madness, which is cured by music, but not by any other means; but Dr. Cirillo declares, that he never could make the *tarantula* bite him, nor any other person, though he often had tried to provoke it. So that this affair seems to be only a fraud practised to obtain money.

TARAXACON, or Taraxacum. The dens leonis. Dandelion. Leontodon *taraxacum*. Linn.

TARAXIS, from ταραττω, *to disturb*. A disorder of the eye, such as when it is offended by smoak, or too hard rubbing. It is when the eye is offended by attrition, smoke, dust, or other slight cause. Galen, in 6 epid. com. 5. says, it is a morbid disposition of the eye, preceding an inflammation, and the beginning of an inflamtion. Paulus, lib. iii. cap. 22. defines it to be heat and humidity of the eye, attended with a preternatural redness, proceeding, not from the body, but some external cause, as the sun, smoke, dust, and wind; whence the disorder is very speedily remedied, by removing the cause. Hoffman, in his Practice of Medicine, says, the slighter ophthalmiæ, occasioned by dust, exposure to cold, air, sun, or other slight external causes, are inflammations of the tunica adnata only, and attended with little danger. Perhaps the following, noticed by Mr. Ware, in his Remarks on the Ophthalmy, &c. may be included under this name. He says, it frequently comes on in the most sudden and unexpected manner, without any preceding or concomitant illness. When it happens in this way, the common people call it a blast in the eyes: and it seems to proceed from some peculiar property in the air which surrounds us: like other epidemic diseases, it often affects a whole neighbourhood at the same time; as was the case during the summer 1778, at Newbury, in Berkshire, and in several of the camps, where it was known by the name of the *ocular disease*. In Dr. Cullen's arrangement of the species and varieties of the ophthalmia, he places this as the least violent, and calls it ophthalmia *taraxis*. See OPHTHALMIA. This kind of inflammation gives way to the gentlest remedies used against inflammations of the eyes.

TARCHON. The herb tarragon, also a name of ptarmica.

TARSUS, from ταρσος. The cartilaginous edge of the eye-lids. The edge of each eye-lid is principally formed by a thin cartilage, called *tarsus*, which is adapted to the shape and roundness of the eye. The lower edge of the superior cartilage, and upper edge of the inferior, meet with each other, and are termed the ciliary edges. These cartilages do not terminate in a line like the sharp edge of a knife, but rather flat like the back of it; forming two edges, one external, the other internal. When the eyes are shut, the external edges meet; but the internal are preserved at a small distance from each other, leaving a gutter, or groove, through which the tears are supposed to pass from the lachrymal gland to the puncta lachrymalia, while we are asleep. The cilia, or eye-lashes, arise out of the external edge of the termination of this cartilage; and on the internal, at an evident distance from them, is a line of small orifices, which are the excretory ducts of small glands that lie in the inner surface of the *tarsus*, and are called glandulæ ciliares. Also the space between the bones of the leg and the metatarsus. It consists of seven bones; viz. the astragalus, calcaneum, naviculare, cubiforme, and the three cuneiforme.

TARTARUM, also called argol, tartar, wine-stone. It is an essential acid concrete salt of grapes, thrown off from wines after complete fermentation to the sides and bottoms of the casks; it is of a red or a white colour, and more or less drossy, according to the quality of the wine. The white is usually most pure, but in all other respects they are the same. Chuse such as is clean, solid, somewhat transparent, and hath its outside covered with small shining crystals. The Rhenish white wine *tartar* is the most pure. Its virtues as a medicine are those of a cooling laxative; in doses from ʒ i. to ʒ iii. it is aperient; from ʒ ß. to ʒ i. it moderately purges.

If *tartar* is dissolved in water, it effervesces with fixed alkaline salts, and saturates of the vegetable alkalies near one third of its own weight; the neutral salt formed by this union is more purgative than the *tartar* itself, as is instanced in the soluble *tartar* of the London College. The soluble *tartar* might as well be made with the common white *tartar*, as its impurities are sufficiently removed by the necessary filtration. To secure the neutralization of the salt, the *tartar* may be made to prevail at the first, and the liquor suffered to cool a little before filtration, that the redundant *tartar* may concrete and separate from it. The *tartar* dissolves difficultly in water, and when dissolved therein, it soon concretes again on being removed from the fire, and what the alcali hath not taken up, will remain on the filtre; and, on the other hand, if too much alkali is used, it will remain uncrystallized. The soluble *tartar* is a mild, cooling aperient in doses from ℈ i. to ʒ i. it is laxative in doses of ʒ ii. or iii. and purges if ℥ i. is given; it promotes the operation of resinous purges, and prevents their griping.

Tartar is very difficultly soluble in water: if it is dissolved in twenty times its weight of boiling water, it continues dissolved long enough to be passed through a strainer, but when set in the cool air, it soon begins to run together in the form of crystals on the side of the vessels; these when collected and dried are called crystals of *tartar*. If this solution of *tartar* is strained and boiled until a thick pellicle appears on the surface, and this pellicle being skimmed off, it is again boiled until another pellicle appears, and is skimmed off, &c. until all the *tartar* is obtained, which is when all the water is consumed; then

all theſe pellicles being mixed together, and dried in the ſun, you have the cream of *tartar*. But it is the beſt to have this preparation in the form of cryſtals, as the powder is ſo generally adulterated. See Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

TARTARUM EMETICUM. Emetic tartar. It is alſo called ſtibiated *tartar*. It is made by boiling the ſaffron, or the glaſs of antimony, in a ſolution of cream of *tartar*, as may be ſeen in the Diſpenſatory of the London college, and that of Edinburgh; but a more certain preparation is obtained as follows:

Take of powdered mercurius vitæ, waſh it with a little fixed alkali to ſeparate the marine acid from it, then gradually throw it into a glaſs veſſel, in which is a boiling ſolution of the cream of *tartar*, continue the boiling and the addition of the mercurius vitæ, until there is no longer any fermentation from the mixture; after this filter the liquor, and ſet it to cool, and cryſtals will ſoon be formed. Theſe cryſtals are an *emetic tartar* that is certain in its operation, and equal in its ſtrength. See Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med. Dict. of Chem.

Mr. Beaumé affirms from experiment, that the acid of *tartar* may be eaſily ſaturated with the reguline part of antimony; and the glaſs of antimony is the moſt emetic and moſt ſoluble of all the antimonial preparations by fire, it ſhould be preferred for making a neutral antimonial ſoluble *tartar*; yet reflecting on the nature of the glaſs of antimony, it is not always of the ſame ſtrength. It is made by fuſing the grey calx of antimony calcined to an uncertain degree; and we know that if it be too little calcined, we ſhall obtain an opake matter that reſembles the liver more than the glaſs; if it is too much calcined, it cannot be vitrified, nor even fuſed, by the moſt intenſe heat: between the degree of calcination which is ſufficient to give an opake fuſed matter, and the degree in which it begins to be unfuſible, there are many intermediate ones; all of which are ſufficient to produce glaſſes of antimony; but theſe glaſſes differ in the degree of tranſparency, in tenſity of colour and fuſibility, according as the calcination has been more or leſs complete. We cannot doubt that different glaſſes of antimony muſt be more or leſs emetic, and that perhaps different quantities of theſe glaſſes are required for the perfect ſaturation of the acid of *tartar*; beſides, we are both ignorant of the degree of calcination which renders the glaſs of antimony moſt emetic, and alſo of the method of obtaining it, if we knew it. Hence we are not certain that *emetic tartar* made with glaſs of antimony is equally and conſtantly emetic; therefore inſtead of the glaſs of antimony, we recommend the pulvis algarothi for making the emetic *tartar*. Mr. Beaumé further obſerves, that the pulvis algarothi hath the advantages of the glaſs of antimony, in being convertible into a neutral ſalt, by means of the acid of *tartar*, and is not ſubject, like the glaſs of antimony, to give the *emetic tartar* prepared with it an uncertain degree of ſtrength; tho' of itſelf it is like the other calces, uncertain; but it is the beſt preparation of antimony from which to obtain a certain and uniformly effectual medicine. The pulvis algarothi is not ſaline, and from the quantity of marine acid which it contains, it is ſomewhat cauſtic; but when it is waſhed with a little fixed alkali, all the acid is ſeparated, and then it is totally ſoluble by cream of *tartar*, and is thereby convertible into a ſoluble *emetic tartar*, perfectly neutral; and for which purpoſe prepare to uſe it as follows: mix an equal quantity of cream of *tartar*, and the powder of algaroth, (or as much of the latter as is required to ſaturate the former;) throw this mixture gradually into boiling water, and continue the boiling gently, 'till there is no effervescence, or till the cream of *tartar* is well ſaturated. Filter the liquor, and when this liquor is cool, fine cryſtals will be formed in it, which are ſoluble *tartar* perfectly ſaturated with the algaroth's powder: as ſoon as the cryſtals are formed, carefully dry them, and keep them in a well-cloſed glaſs veſſel.

In preparing the *emetic tartar*, veſſels &c. of glaſs ſhould be uſed, for iron, tin, lead, and copper decompoſe it, by attracting the acid more ſtrongly than the antimony does; whence one cauſe of inequality in different parcels of this preparation, made at different times. The powder of algaroth is a calx of antimony conſtantly of the ſame degree of emetic ſtrength; it is emetic becauſe the regulus of antimony, firſt diſſolved by marine acid, and afterwards ſeparated from that acid, retains the quantity of phlogiſton that is neceſſary to give an emetic quality to the calx of antimony; the quantity of phlogiſton which it retains, and therefore its emetic power, muſt always be the ſame; for the marine acid of the corroſive ſublimate, which afterwards becomes the butter of antimony, is always the ſame in quantity, and in its degrees of concentration, and of activity; conſequently the calx of antimony ſeparated from it muſt always contain an equal quantity of phlogiſton, and is therefore much preferable to the glaſs of antimony, which contains ſometimes more, ſometimes leſs phlogiſton. Thus, by uſing the powder of algaroth inſtead of the glaſs of antimony, we obtain an uniform and certain *emetic tartar*. An uniformly active *emetic tartar* being poſſeſſed, phyſicians will only have to attend to the ſenſibility or irritability of the conſtitutions of their patients.

In the Hiſtory of the Royal Medical Society at Paris, for the year 1776, Mr. de Laſſone prefers the above mode of preparing the *emetic tartar*; but he ſays there is an objection to it, as well as to all other methods of preparing it, which is, that when diſſolved in a very diluted aqueous vehicle, part of the medicine is conſtantly precipitated, and adheres to the ſides of the phial. As this is owing to its not being ſufficiently ſoluble, he recommends the mixing equal quantities of *emetic tartar* and pure ſal ammoniac; and after rubbing them together in a mortar, adding a ſmall quantity, three parts or leſs, of diſtilled water. Thus the two ſalts unite, and are completely diſſolved.

TARTARUM VITRIOLATUM. See NITRUM VITRIOLATUM.

TARTARUS REGENERATUS, i. e. Diureticus ſal.

TAVANUCCO, or rather tabanucco. A kind of reſin brought from the Weſt Indies.

TAXIS. To reduce an hernia merely by the hand is called reducing it by the *taxis*.

TAXUS. The yew tree. There are three different ſpecies, but they are not noted as medicinal. See Raii Hiſt.

TEMPERAMENTUM. Temperament, or conſtitution. Various are the diviſions of *temperaments*, perhaps the following is as proper, and as free from exceptions and difficulties as any other, viz. 1ſt. The ſanguine, or when the habit is full of good blood. 2d. The ſerous or phlegmatic, or when the habit is full of ſerum. 3d. The temperate, or when the red blood and ſerum are in due proportions. 4th. The cacochymic, or when the juices are depraved. Whatever others are named, they are not met with pure and unmixed.

TEMPERANTIA. Temperating medicines. They are thoſe which check the too violent motion of the blood, and moderate bilious acrimony.

TEMPLINUM OL, i. e. ol templinum verum Germanorum. It is a kind of ol. terebinth.

TEMPORALIS ARTERIA. The origin of the *temporal artery* is covered with the parotid gland. It lies behind the meatus auditorius externus, and emerging from the parotid, comes juſt covered by the ſkin to the zygomatic proceſs of the os temporis, it crawls up, and divides into two branches, one of which goes to the frontal, the other to the parietal bone. The frontal part anaſtemoſes with the internal carotid, and the other portion with the occipital *artery*. From the root of the temporal an *artery* paſſes up to the ſcalp behind the ear, and is ſometimes ordered to be opened inſtead of the temporal.

TEMPORALIS MUSCULUS, it is alſo called crotaphites. It riſes broad from the region of the temples, particularly from the oſſa frontis, parietalia, temporalis, and ſphenoides, where it ſpreads like a quarter of a circle, then it forms a tendon, which paſſes under the jugum, and is inſerted into the coronoid proceſs of the under jaw. A ligament from the proceſſus zygomaticus braces this tendon down, and imparts ſome of the internal fibres to it. It is covered with a ſtrong tendinous ſheath, which is loſt in the epicranium. When matter is formed under this tendinous expanſion, it is uſually attended with ſo great a degree of fever, from the pain, as to occaſion delirium. The thickneſs of this tendinous part, prevents the matter from pointing outwardly, where it was firſt formed;

formed; and if left without aid, it runs in the direction of the *temporal muſcle*, and opens into the mouth by the coronoid proceſs of the lower jaw. It is uſual therefore, not to wait for this matter pointing outwardly where it is firſt formed; but, as in other inſtances of matter under faſciæ of tendons, to make an opening directly to it. See ABSCESS *of the temporal muſcle*.

TEMPORUM OSSA. The temple bones are each divided into three parts, viz. the maſtoid, the ſquamous, and the petrous. There are three external proceſſes which ariſe from each of the temporal bones, on the poſterior part is the proceſſus maſtoideus; a little more forward is the zygomatic proceſs, it joins the os malæ, and from the inferior cragey part the ſtyloid proceſs jets out obliquely forward. A little below the maſtoid proceſs there is a cavity, whence the digaſtric muſcle of the lower jaw ariſes. At the inner-ſide of the root of the ſtyloid proceſs there is a cavity where the internal jugular vein is lodged. Between the maſtoid and zygomatic proceſſes the meatus auditorius externus is ſeated, and between the maſtoid and ſtyloid proceſſes is the aqueductus Fallopii, whence the portio dura of the ſeventh pair of nerves makes its exit. Before the ſtyloid proceſs is a glenoid cavity for the reception of the condyle of the lower jaw, near which cavity is an eminence, upon which the condyle ſometimes moves. In the pars petroſa, near the ſtyloid proceſs, is a canal through which the carotid artery enters. Near the laſt foramen, on the anterior edge of the bone, is the tuba Euſtachiana. The internal foramen is the meatus auditorius internus.

TENDINOSA TUNICA, i. e. Tunica albuginea oculi.

TENDO, from τείνω, *to ſtretch*. A tendon. See MUSCULUS.

TENESMUS, from τείνω, *to ſtretch*. A *teneſmus* is a continual painful urging to go to ſtool, when little or nothing can be diſcharged. There is a pain in the anus, and a frequent deſire of going to ſtool, whilſt a mucous ſubſtance, which is ſometimes bloody, is diſcharged. The cauſes are a ſtone in the bladder, an inflammation in the neck of the bladder, acrid humours falling on the rectum, a diarrhœa, a dyſentery, the piles, pregnancy, &c.

This diſorder is very troubleſome, but rarely dangerous.

As the cauſe varies, the cure will alſo differ. If a ſtone in the bladder is the cauſe, its poſition ſhould be altered by means of a catheter, if putting the patient into a proper poſture will not anſwer the end. If an inflammation in the neck of the bladder is the cauſe, ſuch means will be neceſſary as are directed for removing inflammation there. If acrid humours affect the rectum, they ſhould be gently purged off, and then emollient, or balſamic clyſters, ſhould be injected, the ol. ricini is particularly uſeful, both by the mouth and clyſterwiſe. That kind of teneſmus which affects pregnant woman is relieved by clyſters of ſweet oil, and a little of the tinct. Theb. mixed with it; in other inſtances the method of relief will be the ſame as in a dyſentery. See Lommius's Med. Obſ. Lobb on painful Diſtempers.

TENONTAGRA, from τένων, *a tendon*, and ἄγρα, *a ſeizure*. A ſpecies of arthritis, ſeated in the larger tendons. See Cœl. Aurelianus, lib. v. cap. 2.

TENSOR DIGITORUM, i. e. Extenſor digitorum communis.

TENSOR MEMBRANÆ TYMPANI. It lies on the upper-part, above the bony portion of the canal that goes to the noſe, and runs to be inſerted into the inſide of the malleus. It is ſuppoſed to pull the membrana tympani in, and to make it more tenſe.

TENSOR PALATI, i. e. Circumflexus palati.

TEPIDUS. Tepid, i. e. Warm as milk from the cow.

TEREBELLA, i. e. Trepanum.

TEREBINTHINA. Turpentines. The produce of the different ſpecies, &c. of pine trees, and the piſtachiæ chiefly, if not wholly. The Pharmacopœia of the Edinb. Col. ſays it is the produce of the pinus larix, i. e. pinus foliis faſciculatis obtuſis, Linn.

The Chio, or Cyprian *turpentine*. It is generally about the conſiſtence of thick honey, very tenacious, clear, almoſt tranſparent, of a white colour, with a caſt of yellow or blue; it hath a warm pungent, bitteriſh taſte, a fragrant ſmell, more agreeable than that of any of the other *turpentines*. It is the produce of the *terebinthinus* vulgaris, C. B. in the iſland of Cyprus, and the ſouthern parts of Europe. The piſtacia *terebinthus*, Linn. This kind of *turpentine* is ſaid to be the leaſt ſubject to be adulterated.

Venice *turpentine*. It is uſually thinner than the other ſorts, of a pale yellow colour, a hot, pungent, bitteriſh taſte, and a ſtrong ſmell, without any of the fine aromatic flavour of the Chio *turpentine*. It is the produce of the larix, C. B. pinus larix, Linn. and brought from France, Germany, &c.

Straſburgh *turpentine*, or *tereb.* Argentoratenſis. It is of a middle conſiſtence between the two foregoing, more tranſparent, and leſs tenacious than either, of a yellowiſh brown colour, more agreeable to the ſmell than either the common or the Venice, to the taſte it is the bittereſt, but the leaſt acrid. It is extracted in different parts of Germany from the ſilver and the red firs, the pinus picea, Linn. by making inciſions through the bark. In ſome places a reſinous juice is collected from certain knots under the bark. This is called lachryma abiegna, and oleum abietanum.

Common *turpentine*. This is from the wild pine tree; the pinus ſylveſtris, Linn. it is about the conſiſtence of honey, of an opake browniſh white colour; the coarſeſt and heavieſt of all the kinds, and its ſmell and taſte are alſo the moſt diſagreeable.

All theſe *turpentines* diſſolve totally in rectified ſpirit of wine, but give out nothing to watery menſtrua; by the mediation of mucilages, the white of egg, or of gum arabic, they mix with water into a milky liquor. Diſtilled with water they yield a large quantity of a ſubtile, penetrating, eſſential oil, viz. the oil of *turpentine*, which is called alſo the ſpirit of *turpentine*. The oil is difficult of ſolution in ſpirit of wine, though the *turpentine* ſo eaſily diſſolves in it. If this oil is rediſtilled in a retort by itſelf, with a gentle heat, it becomes more ſubtil, and in this ſtate it is called ethereal oil of *turpentine*; the thicker part which remains behind, is called balſam of *turpentine*.

All the *turpentines* are hot, ſtimulating, detergent, and corroborant. When inflammatory ſymptoms do not forbid, they are given from ten grains to half a dram, for cleanſing the urinary paſſages, for healing internal ulcerations in general, and in laxities of the ſeminal and uterine veſſels; they ſeem peculiarly to affect the urinary paſſages, and give a violet ſmell to the urine; they diſſolve and diſcharge mucous matter from the urinary paſſages; but if a ſtone is in any of the parts, they are not ſafely adminiſtered. The Venice is moſt diuretic and detergent; the Chio and Straſburg more corroborant; the common is only uſed externally and for diſtilling. What remains after diſtilling the oil from *turpentine*, is the yellow and the black roſins.

The oils, both the common and the ethereal, are powerfully ſtimulating, detergent, and diuretic; they are given in doſes from a few drops to half an ounce in rheumatiſms. When a large doſe is directed, it is given in the morning, and an opiate at night. Mixt with ſpirit of wine they are uſed as ſtyptics, to check the diſcharge of blood from wounds. They are uſed for rubbing on parts affected with pains. But if too freely uſed inwardly, they diſpoſe to a diabetes, and weaken the urinary paſſages and the ſeminal veſſels. See Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

TEREBRA, from τερέω, *to bore*. A name of the trepan. See TREPHINE.

TEREBRA. A chirurgical inſtrument for perforating bones, or for extracting hard bodies, as bullets, &c. from wounds.

TEREDO. A kind of worms which eat into wood; a caries in a bone. A name for the ſpina ventoſa.

TEREGAM. A kind of fig tree which grows in Malabar.

TERES LIGAMENTUM. It riſes from the bottom of the cavity of the acetabulum, and runs obliquely backwards, to be inſerted into the head of the os femoris. It ſerves to confine the rotation of the thigh.

TERES MAJOR. This muſcle riſes from the outer part of the lower corner of the ſcapula, paſſes to the os humeri forwards, joined by the latiſſimus dorſi and its tendon,

don, it is inſerted into the poſterior ridge of the biceps groove, to bring the arm downwards, backwards, and inwards to the body. Brown calls this muſcle rotundus major.

TERES MINOR, alſo called octavus humeri Placentini, becauſe Placentinus added it to the number of muſcles belonging to the arm. It riſes from the lower coſta of the ſcapula, and runs with the infra ſpinatus, and is inſerted with it alſo.

TERES. Round worms.

TERMINTHI. Galen deſcribes them as being tumors in the ſkin, nearly reſembling the fruit of τερμινθος, *turpentine trees*, of a blackiſh colour, inclining to green. Wiſeman reckons the epinyctis to be a ſpecies of *terminthus*, and ſays that they are both of them painful tubercles, or angry puſtules, affecting the ſkin of the arms, hands, and thighs. Cullen places them as a variety of phlogoſis phlegmone, and Sauvage ranks them as a ſort of furunculus. Bleeding, purging, and a regular diet, is all that is required for their cure.

TERNA, i. e Impetigo, or mentagra.

TERRA. Earth. In foſſilogy, it is that kind of foſſil body, whoſe component parts imbibe water; and which either fall into a looſe maſs, or when gently rubbed between the fingers, are diviſible, after they have been ſoaked a ſufficient length of time in water. It muſt be obſerved, that in chemiſtry both earths and ſtones are termed earths; but in foſſilogy they are very properly or neceſſarily diſtinguiſhed. See Edwards's Elements of Foſſilogy. In chemiſtry, earth is one of the four ſimple ſubſtances called elements. *Earth* is not found ſo pure as the other elements, fire, air, and water; but it is moſt probable, that as there is only one kind of air, water, and fire, ſo there is but one kind of *earth*, however it may vary, from the different ſubſtances with which it was mixed. The eſſential properties by which earthy ſubſtances differ from the other elements, are their much greater weight, hardneſs, fixity, and infuſibility; and theſe are moſt eminently united in the vitrifiable kinds of *earth*.

Neumann divides the mineral *earths* into five kinds, viz. the cryſtalline, calcareous, argillaceous, talky, and gypſeous.

Animal *earths* Dr. Lewis includes under three kinds, viz. that from ſhells, from calcined bones, and horns, and from the blood, fleſh, and ſkins of animals.

Vegetable *earths* are diſtinguiſhed into three kinds by Wallerius, viz. that obtained by burning ſoft, ſpongy, and farinaceous plants; by burning the harder and leſs ſucculent plants, and by burning wood.

The *earths* that are attended to with a medicinal view are chiefly the inſipid ones, which abſorb acids; whence they are called abſorbent *earths*. Some of the tenacious adheſive *earths* have been uſed, ſuch as the boles, ſealed *earths*, &c. but are now much neglected. See the Dict. of Chem. Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

TERRA CARIOSA. Rotten ſtone. It is a ſpecies of non-effervеſcent chalk.

TERRA TRIPOLITANA. See ALANA. It is a ſpecies of the non-effervеſcent chalk.

TERRÆ FLOS, i. e. Cœlifolium.

TERRÆ GLANDES. A ſpecies of cataputia minor.

TERRÆ OLEUM, i. e. Petroleum and Naphtha.

TERRA JAPONICA. Japan earth. It is called *Japan earth*, becauſe it was long ſuppoſed to be an earthy ſubſtance from *Japan*; but it is a gummy reſin, obtained by a decoction of ſome vegetable ſubſtance in water. The plant is called coira or caira, by the natives of Bahar Province in the Eaſt Indies. The natives of Pegu name the tree kheir or khadira. It is a ſpecies of the mimoſa of Linnæus. In Dr. Fothergill's Works by Dr. Letſom, vol. ii. it is called mimoſa *Japonica*: in the Pharmacopœia of the Edinburgh college, it is named from Linnæus mimoſa catechu, to which the following deſcription is added from Linnæus, viz. mimoſa ſpinis ſtipularibus, foliis bipinnatis, multijugis; glandulis partialium ſingulis, ſpicis axillaribus geminis. ſ. ternis pedunculatis, Linn. Suppl. 439. In Dr. Fothergill's account of the tree, we are told that the wood is extremely hard and heavy, the interior part varies from a pale brown to a dark red, approaching to black in different plants, but always covered with one or two inches thick of white wood. It is one of the moſt common trees to be met with on the uncultivated mountains of Rotas, and Pallamow, diſtricts of Hindoſtan, in the province of Bahar, weſtward of Bengal, and frequent in many other neighbouring parts. From the interior coloured wood is produced the extract erroneouſly called *terra Japonica*. The extract is thus made: after the tree is cut down, all the exterior or white part is pared off and caſt away; the interior coloured wood is cut into chips, with which a narrow-mouthed unglazed earthen pot is filled, to this as much water is added as will riſe to the upper chips; when this is half evaporated by boiling, the decoction is poured into a flat earthen pot, and boiled to one third part: this is ſet in a cool place for one day, and afterwards evaporated by the heat of the ſun, ſtirring it ſeveral times in the day; when it is reduced to a conſiderable conſiſtence, it is ſpread upon a mat or cloth, which hath previouſly been covered with the aſhes of cow-dung, this maſs is divided into ſquare pieces by a ſtring, and completely dried by turning them frequently in the ſun, until they are fit for ſale. In making the extract, the pale brown wood is preferred, as it produces the fine whitiſh extract: the darker the wood is, the blacker the extract, and of leſs value. The natives call this extract by the name of cutt; the Engliſh who reſide where it is made, call it cutch; authors have named it *terra Japonica*, catechu, cadtchu, caſhow cachou, caitchu, caſljoe, cachore, kaath, cate, &c. The preparers of this extract are very careleſs in keeping it free from foreign matters; in conſequence of which it hath a conſiderable quantity of aſhes, &c. mixed with it. Mr. Kerr, who collected this account, ſays that he never could learn that the *terra Japonica* was produced from the areca, or betel-nut, nor indeed does he think it credible that it ſhould, as its price would be far exceeding that of the *terra Japonica*, if the preparation was from the areca. Where the *terra Japonica* is made, it is uſed in dying; for painting chintz and other cloth joined with vitriolic ſalts, a black colour is produced; mixed with oil, they paint the beams and walls of their houſes, to preſerve them from the deſtructive white ants. The black phyſicians divide diſeaſes into the hot and cold, and thus they divide their medicines; to the hot diſeaſes they oppoſe the cooling medicines, among which the *terra Japonica* is reckoned powerful. For a more particular account of this production, ſee Dr. Lettſom's edition of Dr. Fothergill's Works, vol. ii. p. 191—199. Some ſpecimens of this drug are of a pale reddiſh brown colour, others are of a dark blackiſh brown, or black like bitumen; ſome are ponderous, others light, ſome compact, others porous, ſome more, others leſs aſtringent; and theſe differences happen according to the manner of obtaining them, &c. This drug is brought from Coromandel, Cambaya, and other parts of the Eaſt Indies. The beſt is of a dark reddiſh brown colour, dry, heavy, gloſſy, and compact; if chewed it diſcovers, at firſt, a bitteriſh ſtyptic taſte, which is followed by an agreeable ſweetneſs. When pure it is almoſt totally diſſolved both by water and by ſpirit. An extract made with ſpirit is the moſt agreeable and moſt aſtringent preparation. Where a ſtrong aſtringent is required, whether for external or internal purpoſes, the ſpirituous tincture, or the ſpirituous extract is the beſt; for a milder corroborant, the watery tincture, or extract may be choſen. A little of the watery extract held in the mouth, and gradually ſwallowed, is uſeful in diſorders of the throat; and in diarrhœas and dyſenteries it is a uſeful medicine, whether a fever attends or not. The *Japan earth* (as it is called,) approaches to alum in its aſtringent virtue, as to the quickneſs and the univerſality of its action. See Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

TERROR. A fright. The general effects of *terror* are a great contraction of all the ſmall veſſels, and a repulſion of the blood in the large and internal ones; hence the ſuppreſſion of perſpiration, the general oppreſſion, trembling, and anguiſh, from the heart and lungs being overcharged with blood, &c. After great *frights*, perſons rarely recover their uſual vivacity; and epilepſies that are cauſed by *frights* are rarely, if ever cured. When a perſon is affected with *terror*, or ſudden, or great *frights*, the principal endeavours ſhould be to reſtore the circulation to its due order, to promote perſpiration, and to allay the agitation, or commotion, in which the patient is obſerved

to be. The cuſtom of giving cold water in theſe caſes is bad. Place the affrighted perſon in a quiet ſituation; a little warm liquor, ſuch as camomile tea, or ſuch like, ſhould be given him to drink; the legs may be put into warm water, and there continue for ſome time; the legs ſhould be rubbed, and the camomile tea repeated every ſix or eight minutes; when the ſkin becomes warm, and there is a tendency to perſpiration, ſleep may be promoted by a gentle opiate.

TERTHRA. The middle and lateral parts of the neck. According to Keil, τερθρον ſignifies the parts about the throat.

TERTIANA FEBRIS. A tertian fever. This *fever* is of the intermittent kind; every firſt and third day it is preſent, and the ſecond is free. Its acceſs is about noon. Hippocrates calls it *ἡμιτριτος*. The management in this cure is the ſame, in general, as under the article INTERMITTENT FEVER. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ, and order febres.

Tertian fevers are ſpurious, they are then irregular in their approach, and more mild than the true ſpecies: they are called double, when the fits return at different times every other day. See the authors on intermittent *fevers*.

In intermitting *fevers* Dr. Lind recommends opium as almoſt a ſpecific; he directs it to be given half an hour after the commencement of the hot fit. The draught which he generally preſcribed was as follows: ℞ aq. font. pur. ℥ iſs. aq. alex. ſp. fyr. c mecon. aā ʒ ii l. l gt. xv—xx. m. He obſerves, that the effects of opium given in the hot fit of an intermitting *fever*, are 1ſt, it ſhortens and abates the fit, and this with more certainty than an ounce of the bark is found to remove the diſeaſe. 2dly, It generally gives a ſenſible relief to the head, takes off the burning heat of the *fever*, and occaſions a profuſe ſweat; this ſweat is attended with an agreeable ſoftneſs of the ſkin, inſtead of the diſagreeable burning ſenſation which affects patients ſweating in the hot fit; and is always much more copious than on thoſe who are not under the influence of opium; 3dly, it often produces a ſoft and refreſhing ſleep, to a patient tortured in the agonies of the *fever*, from which he awakes bathed in univerſal ſweat, and in a great meaſure free from all complaints. The Dr. further adds, that the effects of opium are more uniform and conſtant in intermitting *fevers* than in any other diſeaſe, and are then more quick and ſenſible than thoſe of any other medicine. An opiate thus given, ſoon after the commencement of the hot fit, by abating the violence, and leſſening the duration of the *fever*, preſerves the conſtitution ſo entirely uninjured, that where it is given in intermittent *fevers*, a dropſy, or a jaundice rarely follows. In caſes where opium does not immediately abate the ſymptoms of the *fever*, it never augmented their violence: on the contrary, moſt patients reaped ſome benefit from an opiate given in the hot fit; and many of them bore a larger doſe of opium at that time than at any other. A delirium in the hot fit is not increaſed by opium; though opium will not remove it: hence is it not probable, that many of the ſymptoms attending thoſe *fevers* are ſpaſmodic, but more eſpecially the head-ach. If the patient be delirious in the fit, the adminiſtration of the opiate ought to be delayed until he recovers his ſenſes, when an opiate will be found greatly to relieve the weakneſs and faintneſs which commonly ſucceed the delirium. Opium ſeems alſo in this diſeaſe to be the beſt preparative for the bark, as it not only produces a complete intermiſſion, in which caſe alone that remedy can with ſafety be adminiſtered; but occaſions ſo ſalutary and profuſe an evacuation by ſweat, as generally to render a much leſs quantity of the bark requiſite. When the patient is coſtive give the opiate in about two ounces of the tinct. facr. and this particularly if the bark is to be given immediately after the fit: thus at the ſame time, the fit is ſhortened, and the inteſtines cleanſed, previous to the adminiſtration of the bark; the operation of the tinc. facr. not being prevented, though ſomewhat retarded by the opiate. The adminiſtration of an opiate after an emetic given juſt before the fit, ſhould be poſtponed until the hot fit is begun.

TERTIANA DUPLEX. It is when a tertian fever returns every day; but the paroxyſms are unequal, every other being alike.

TERTIANA DUPLICATA. A tertian fever returning every other day; but there are two paroxyſms in one day.

TERTIANA TRIPLEX. A tertian fever returning every day, every other day there are two paroxyſms, and but one in the intermediate one.

TERTIANARIA. Hooded looſe-ſtriſe.

TERTIUM SAL. A neutral ſalt.

TESSERÆ. The os cuboides.

TESTES. The teſticles, from *teſte*, *a witneſs*; they witneſs that we are men. They are originally ſeated in the abdomen, juſt beneath the kidnies; they gradually deſcend near the time of birth through the ſheath of the ſpermatic cord into the ſcrotum, each carrying along with it a peritoneal coat, which makes the tunica vaginalis. This diſcovery was made by Dr. Hunter, in the year 1755, aſſiſted by his brother Mr. John Hunter, and was demonſtrated by the doctor in his lectures that year. Uſually arteries are ſent to glands from ſome adjacent veſſel; however this holds good in the fœtus ſtate, it varies from the general order after the birth of the child, for the ſpermatic veſſels ariſe from the aorta, the vena cava, and the emulgent veins.

Immediately within the tunica albuginea is the body of the *teſtis*, which is of a yellowiſh white colour, compoſed of tubuli, betwixt which the blood-veſſels run. Theſe tubuli are the ſecretory organs of the ſemen: they run in ſhort waves, from the tunica albuginea to the axis of the *teſticles*, and there form larger tubes than are continued through the tunica albuginea, and unite into one canal, which by ſeveral windings, form the epydidymis; and thence continuing, form the vaſa deferentia. The *teſticles* have many lympheducts which diſcharge themſelves into the inguinal glands. The ſpermatic arteries bring blood to the *teſticles*, for the ſeparation of ſpermatic matter, and the ſpermatic veins reconvey the blood to the vena cava. The ſemen ſeparated in the *teſticle*, is further perfected in the epydidymis, and then conveyed by the vaſa deferentia into the urethra.

The *teſticles* are ſometimes detained in the body, or in the groin. See PARORCHIDIUM.

TESTES. The parts of the brain called nates.

TESTICULUS CANINUS, i. e. Orchis.

TESTUDO, i. e. The talpa or mole.

TETANUS, from *τεινω*, *to ſtretch*. There are ſeveral ſpaſmodic or convulſive diſorders, or at leaſt ſeveral modes of a convulſive diſorder, which are called the emproſthotonos, in it the body is rigidly bent forward; pleuroſthotonos, in it the body is bent to one ſide; the opiſthotonos, in it the body is rigidly bent backward; and the *tetanus*, in which the body is rigidly held in an upright poſture. Dr. Cullen places the *tetanus* as a genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes, and order ſpaſmi. He defines it a ſpaſtic rigidity of almoſt the whole body. Others add, but with ſenſibility remaining, and ſometimes increaſed. This diſorder is moſt frequent in hot climes, but ſometimes happens in the milder. The locked jaw is a kind of *tetanus*. Notwithſtanding Dr. Cullen's arrangement in his Noſology, he, ſince that work, conſiders the *tetanus* emproſthotonos, opiſthotonos, and locked jaw, not as different ſpecies, but variety of *tetani* only. Aretæus, Celſus, and Cœlius Aurelianus ſay, that cold is a principal cauſe, and accordingly direct rubbing the diſordered parts, warm bathing, &c. but there are various other occaſional cauſes, ſuch as when diarrhœas, or dyſenteries are imprudently checked, and when nervous and tendinous parts are wounded, &c. The immediate cauſe is a morbid, or preternatural irritation on the nerves. When it is cauſed by a puncture or other injury of the nerves, it is commonly more violent and more difficult of cure than when proceeding from cold: when it comes on ſuddenly, and advances quickly to a violent degree, it is always more dangerous than that which is ſlower in its proceſs. Accordingly, if the patient paſſes the fourth day, it may be hoped not to be fatal; and every day adds to the favourable proſpect of recovery: not that danger is totally abſent during ſeveral days after the fourth. When its force is conſiderably abated, it is apt to return with its former violence. In order to the cure, opium is principally to be depended on as an internal remedy; a grain of opium, or, if required,

five

five grains, may be given every hour, until the ſymptoms abate, and then the doſe ſhould be gradually leſſened; if it cannot be ſwallowed, let large doſes be diſſolved and injected in glyſters until the patient can ſwallow; warm baths much aſſiſt the efficacy of opium; and if a wound, or other ſuch like external injury is the cauſe, let the part be dreſſed with the Peruvian balſam. It is juſtly obſerved by Dr. Chalmers, that the quantity of opium can only be limited by the violence of the ſpaſms. Muſk and other antiſpaſmodics have their uſefulneſs in this diſorder, but without a free uſe of opium they avail but little. When the cauſe is ſome injury received by a nerve, Dr. Cullen adviſes, if poſſible, to cut off that part from all communication with the ſenſorium, either by cutting through the nerves in their courſe, or by deſtroying, to a certain length, their affected part or extremity.

In the Weſt Indies mercury is uſed with advantage: they preſer it early in the diſeaſe, and apply it by unction; they endeavour to excite a ſpeedy ſalivation, and keep it up until the diſeaſe is overcome in its violence at leaſt.

An internal uſe of the piſſelæum Barbadenſe hath been attended with happy effects. See the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. i. p. 51, &c. 87, &c. vol. ii. p. 130, &c. The Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 39. Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iii. p. 326, &c. Cullen's Firſt Lines, vol. iii.

TETARTOPHIA. Some reckon this fever among the remittents. It is a continued quartan fever. It is rare and very difficult to diſtinguiſh from the quartan intermittent.

TEUCRIUM. Alſo called chamædrys, ſpeedwell, mountain, or tree germander. It is native in Germany, Italy, and Sicily; but is not in uſe with us.

Pliny attributes the diſcovery of the virtues of *teucrium* againſt obſtructions of the ſpleen to Teucer, who was one of the Greek heroes in the ſiege of Troy.

THALAMI NERVI OPTICORUM. The bed of the optic nerves. They are little eminences in the brain, whence the optic nerves ariſe.

THAPSIA. Deadly carrot. *Thapſia* aſclepias, Linn. The root of this plant operates violently both upward and downward; it is not uſed in the preſent practice; but when imprudently taken, its antidote is vinegar. See Miller's Bot. Off.

THAPSIA. A name for the ſennel giant; for a ſpecies of laſerpitium, and for the French turbith.

THAPSIA ORIENTALIS, alſo called gingidium. Oriental pick-tooth. It is a plant found in the eaſtern countries, but is not in uſe with us.

THAPSUS. See VERBASCUM.

THEA. Tea. It is the leaf of an Oriental ſhrub. It does not appear that there are more than one kind of *tea* plant. The variety of *teas* ſeems to be owing to the different ſeaſons in which the leaves are gathered, and the different modes of curing them. The *tea* ſhrub is cultivated in China and Japan, but principally in the provinces of China, and betwixt the latitudes of 24 and 28. The beſt is from Nankin in China, and Fiſien in Japan. The green *tea* ſhould be choſen freſh, of a fine colour, not inclining to a yelloviſh, or a browniſh colour, which are marks of too great age; it ſhould be well rolled, conſiſt of entire leaves, be thoroughly dry, of a bitteriſh ſubaſtringent taſte, but not ungrateful, and of a pleaſant ſmell; the freſher the *tea*, the greener is the iuſuſion that is made of it with water; its prevailing ſmell is that of violets, or of new hay, but if it is ſtrong of theſe, it is ſo by art. Bohea *tea* is of a blackiſh brown colour; it gives a brown tincture to water, and ſmells of roſes. Of all the ſubſtitutes for *tea*, the male ſpeedwell is the moſt celebrated. The green colour of *tea* reſides wholly in its reſinous part, ſo does its aſtringency.

An infuſion of *tea* in water is a grateful diluent in health, and a ſalutary drink in ſickneſs; it promotes the natural excretions, excites an appetite, checks immoderate ſleepineſs, and relieves the head-ach when cauſed by a debauch. No other plant is known whoſe infuſion more readily paſſes off by the emunctories, or more ſpeedily excites the ſpirits. When the ſtomach is weak, a moderately ſtrong infuſion of *tea* generally provokes a vomiting. Perhaps the principal inconvenience ariſing from the uſe of *tea*, is its preventing the neceſſary nouriſhment being received from more ſubſtantial food; it ſeems better calculated for a ſupper than for a breakfaſt. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works; Lettſom on *Tea*.

THEMISON. A phyſician of Laodicea, a diſciple of Aſclepiades. He flouriſhed a little before the time of Celſus; he founded the methodic ſect, with a view to the more eaſily teaching and practiſing the art of medicine. He aſſerted it not neceſſary to know the cauſes of diſeaſes, provided we had a due regard to what diſeaſes have in common, and analogous among themſelves; he ranked all diſorders into thoſe from a lax, theſe from a rigid fibre, and thoſe from a mixture of theſe; he obſerved alſo, that all diſeaſes were acute or chronical, and that from theſe principles all practice was to be deduced. *Themiſon* gave the firſt account of diacodium, which was prepared of the juice and decoction of poppy heads and honey. He invented a purging medicine called hiera. The greateſt improver among the methodic ſect was THESSALUS, whom ſee.

THENAR, Θέναρ. The palm of the hand, or the ſole of the foot; alſo a name of the abductor pollicis manus, and the abductor pollicis pedis: theſe are called *thenar* becauſe they make a part of the *thenar*.

THERAPEUTICE, from Θεραπεύω, *to heal* or *cure*. It is that part of medicine which particularly reſpects the *cure* of diſeaſes.

THERIACA, from Θὴρ, *a viper*, or *a wild beaſt*. The medicine called *theriaca*, and all with this name are intended to cure the bites of venomous animals; they differ from alexipharmics, in that theſe latter are uſed as remedies againſt poiſon inwardly taken.

THERIACA GERMANORUM, i. e. Rob. Bac. Juniperi.

THERIACA LONDINENSIS, i. e. Catapl. e Cymino.

THERIACA RUSTICORUM, i. e. Allium.

THERIOMA, from Θὴρ, *tera*, *a wild beaſt*. This term is applied by ſome ancient Greek writers to very malignant or ill-conditioned ulcers. See THERIODES.

THESSALUS. He lived under Nero, about fifty years after Themiſon. He improved Themiſon's plan ſo much as to have obtained the character of the perfecter thereof; but the laſt hand to the methodic ſect was SORANUS, whom ſee.

THLAPSI VERUM. Penny-creſs, or treacle muſtard. The *thlaſpi* arvenſe, Linn. It is a plant with roundiſh pointed leaves, and broad capſules, containing about four ſeeds in each cell. It is annual, grows in fields, and flowers in June.

THLAPSI VULGATIUS. Mithridate muſtard. It hath hoary ſharp-pointed leaves, ſhaped like an arrow's-head, and only one ſeed in each ſhell of the pod. It is biennial, grows in open clayey ground, and flowers in May.

The ſeeds of theſe two plants have been uſed, but the common muſtard ſeed is, in all caſes, preferable.

THORA. A ſpecies of anthora, and of ranunculus.

THORACICÆ ARTERIÆ. The thoracic arteries. The upper one riſes from the axillary artery, and runs down in the ſides of the thorax, giving out many branches in its paſſage. The inferior one ariſes alſo from the axillary artery, and runs along the inferior coſta of the ſcapula, &c. to ſeveral of the neighbouring muſcles.

THORACICUS DUCTUS. See LACTEA VASA.

THORAX, from Θώραξ, *the breaſt*. It is divided into three regions, viz. the anterior, or the *breaſt*; the poſterior, or the back; and the lateral, or the right and left ſides. The *thorax* is lined with the pleura; into the *thorax* deſcends the trachea arteria; behind the ſternum is the thymus gland, the heart is ſeated in the middle of the *thorax*, and on each ſide of it are the lungs. The pericardium immediately covers the heart.

The *thorax* is formed behind of the twelve dorſal vertebræ, on the ſides by the ribs, and before, by the ſternum.

THRACIUS LAPIS. The Thracian ſtone. Wormius ſays it is a kind of lapis ampelites.

THURIS CORTEX, alſo called elutheria, elaterium, caſcarilla, thymiama, ſtorax rubra offic. thus Judæorum. It is ſuppoſed to be the bark of the clathera of Cateſby, which is plentiful in the Bahama iſlands, particularly on one called Elatheria.

Dr. Brown, in his Hiſtory of Jamaica, ſays, that the tree is frequent in the inland woods there; all the parts of the tree, eſpecially the bark, ſmell ſtrong of muſk; and the powder of the bark is uſed there by the negroes as an emetic. He ſays it is called there by the names of Alligator wood and Muſkwood. He gives as its botanic characters the following, viz.

Pericarpium. Capſula craſſa, ſubrotunda, corticoſa, dura, quadrilocularis, quadrifariam ab apice dehiſcens.

Semina. Nuclei ſolitarii oblongo-ovati.

To his definition, he adds one or two more, as follow:

Elutheria. Arborea; foliis majoribus, ovatis, oppoſitis; petiolis brevibus, ſubtumidis, ganglinoſis.

Lauro affinis arbor foliis latioribus, &c. Sloan. Cat. 137. & H. t. 170.

According to the Edinburgh college, it is the croton (caſcarilla) foliis lanceolatis acutis integerrimis petiolatis ſubtus tomentoſis, caule arboreo. Linn.

This bark is brought to us in curled pieces, or rolled up in ſhort quills about an inch in width, covered on the outſide with a rough whitiſh matter, and browniſh on the inner ſide, exhibiting, when broken, a ſmooth, cloſe, blackiſh brown ſurface.

This bark hath a light agreeable ſmell, and a moderately bitter taſte, accompanied with a conſiderable aromatic warmth; it is eaſily inflammable, and yields, while burning, a very fragrant ſmell, ſomewhat like muſk; it is bitter, but leſs rough and leſs diſagreeable than the Peruvian bark.

The virtues of the *thuris cortex* are very ſimilar to thoſe of the cort. Peruv. and where the latter is diſagreeable the former may be ſubſtituted for it. In the gout, and eſpecially in gouty diſorders, it may ſupply the place of the radix ſerpentaria, as a perſpirative. In diſorders of the head the *thuris cortex* is bruiſed and mixed with tobacco for ſmoaking.

Water extracts the virtues of this bark, but ſpirits takes them up more perfectly. Diſtilled with water it yields a greeniſh eſſential oil. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Hiſt. de l'Acad. Roy des Sciences.

THURIS LIGNUM, i. e. Rhodium.

THUS. Frankincenſe. The Greeks call it olibanum, from the mountain Libanus in Syria, whence many ſuppoſe that it grows there; but true *frankincenſe* is not known to grow any where but in Arabia. The common *frankincenſe* of the ſhops is the reſin of the pinus ſylveſtris. Linn.

THUS CORTICOSUM. See OLIBANUM.

THUS JUDÆORUM, i. e. Thuris cortex.

THUYA. A ſpecies of cedar, alſo the arbor vitæ.

THYMALEA MONSPELIACA. Spurge flax. Daphne gnidium, Linn. This ſhrub is clothed with green leaves, which reſemble thoſe of flax; it bears white flowers in cluſters on the tops of the branches; the flowers are followed with red berries, in each of which is one ſeed. This ſeed is ſuppoſed to be the real grana cnidia, though the mezereon is taken for it: coccus is the whole berry with its ſeed, and grana is the ſeed of the berry. Theſe berries are very cauſtic. The ſhrub is a native of the ſouth of Europe.

THYMELÆA LAURI FOLIO, alſo called Laureola, daphnoides. Spurge laurel, ſee LAUREOLA MAS.

Botaniſts enumerate ſix ſpecies of *thymelæa*: their berries are very cauſtic; they ripen in autumn, but are not in much repute.

THYMIAMA, i. e. Thuris cortex.

THYMICÆ ARTERIÆ. The artery of the thymus. The *arteria thymica*, and arteria trachealis on each ſide, are in ſome ſubjects, only branches of one ſmall trunk, which ſprings from the common trunk of the right ſubclavian and carotid; they are generally ſmall, ſometimes running ſeparate, and ſometimes partly ſeparate and partly joined.

THYMICA VENA. The right when it riſes ſeparately goes out from the biſurcation, and when it is wanting the *thymus* gland is furniſhed by the gutturalis, or ſome other neighbouring vein. The left from the ſubclavian.

THYMOXALME. A preparation given by Dioſcorides, of thyme, vinegar, ſalt, and ſome other ingredients.

THYMUS. The name of a ſmall, indolent, carnous tubercle like a wart, ariſing about the anus, or the pudenda; it reſembles the flowers of thyme, whence its name. When this tubercle is large it is called ficus. They are eaſily extirpated. See Wiſeman's and Heiſter's Surgery.

THYMUS. The name of a gland which Haller ſays is a lymphatic one, of the conglobate kind, but divided into lobes. It lies behind the ſternum, partly within, and partly without the cavity of the thorax. It is peculiar to the fœtus, and is ſhriveled in adults. This which is in calves, &c. is called ſweet-bread.

THYMUS. Thyme. It is a low ſhrubby plant, conſiſting of numerous, ſlender, tough ſtalks with little roundiſh leaves in pairs, and looſe ſpikes on the tops with purpliſh or whitiſh flowers.

THYMUS VULGARIS. Common thyme. *Thymus vulgaris*, or *thymus vulgaris* erectus Hiſpanicus, foliis reſolutis ovatis, floribus verticillato-ſpicatis. Linn. *Common* broad leaved *thyme*. It hath upright ſtalks, and dark browniſh green, ſomewhat pointed leaves; it is native in the ſouth of Europe, but common in our gardens; it flowers in June and July. It is moderately warm, pungent, and aromatic; to water it imparts by infuſion its agreeable ſmell, but only a weak taſte; in diſtillation it gives over an eſſential oil, which poſſeſſes the ſmell of the *thyme*, but leſs grateful; to the taſte it is hot and fiery. Spirit of wine takes up the whole of its active matter by infuſion. A conſerve of the leaves, or of the leaves with the flowers, is a good preparation. See Lewis's Mat. Med. Neumann's Chem. Works.

THYMUS. A name of a ſpecies of ſatureia, and of ſerpyllum.

THYODAMAS. He was the ſon of Melampus the Argive. Nothing remarkable is ſaid of his practice. The next eminent phyſician was POLYIDUS, whom ſee.

THYRO-ADENOIDÆUS. See CRICO PHARINGÆI.

THYRO-ARYTÆNOIDÆI. Theſe muſcles ariſe from the inſide of the fore-part of the thyroid cartilage, and are inſerted into the arytænoid, ſerving to compreſs the glottis. Sanctorini calls theſe muſcles thyro-epiglotides, becauſe they are partly inſerted into the membrane of the epiglottis.

THYROIDEÆ GLANDULÆ. The thyroid glands. They ſurround the aſpera arteria laterally and before; its uſe is not known; it is larger in women than in men, whence the fore-part of their neck is not ſo hollow as that of men. It is the ſeat of the bronchocele.

THYROIDES, from θυρεος, *a ſhield*, and ειδος, *likeneſs* or *ſhape*. The name of a cartilage of the larynx, which ſee.

THYRO-CRICO-PHARYNGÆUS, i. e. Cryco pharyngæus.

THYRO-EPIGLOTTICI. They are only ſome muſcles of the thyro-arytænoides.

THYRO-PHARINGÆI. Theſe muſcles are broad, they riſe from along the outſide of the ala of the cartilago thyroides, between the edge of that cartilage and the oblique line in which the thyro-hyoidæi are fixed, and they are a little confounded with the crico-hyoidæi; from thence they run up obliquely backward, and meeting under the linea alba of the pharynx, they ſometimes appear to be but one muſcle, without any middle tendon. See Winſlow's Anatomy; and CRICO-PHARYNGÆI above.

THYRO-PHARINGO-STAPHYLINI, i. e. Thyro-ſtaphylini.

THYRO-STAPHYLINI. Theſe are two ſmall muſcles which accompany the pharyngo-ſtaphylini very cloſely through their whole courſe, except that their poſterior extremities are fixed in the thyroid cartilages, near the other muſcles. They are inſerted into the ſeptum palati. Theſe two pair may be reckoned one pair, and called thyro-pharyngo-ſtaphylini.

THYRSUS. A thyrſe. It differs from a ſpike in having the flowers or fruits ſet more looſely on it, ſo that there are ſpaces viſible between them.

THYRSUS. A ſtalk. See CAUDEX.

THYSSELINUM, i. e. Alſinicium. Alſo a name for the œlinitium.

TIBERIANUM TORMENTUM. The colic.

TIBIA. Tibia, or hautboy, which this bone refembles, and hence is called by this name. The larger bone in the leg; it is alſo called focile majus, arundo major, canna major, canna domeſtica cruris. It is ſituated in the anterior internal part of the leg; its upper extremity is large, and it is divided into two cavities for the reception of the condyles of the os femoris; between theſe cavities is a rough irregular protuberance for the attachment of the ligaments; on the poſterior part is a ſmall cavity for the reception of the fibula, and below the fore part is a large rough tuberoſity, where the ligament of the patella is fixed: the lower extremity is hollow, but ſo as a ſmall tuberoſity riſes in the middle; the internal ſide of this cavity is produced into a proceſs called malleolus internus; the internal ſide of this extremity hath a cavity for the reception of the fibula; the anterior angle of the *tibia* is ſharp, and is called the ſhin or ſpine.

It may be proper here to obſerve a proceſs for relief when bones are carious, which may frequently prevent an amputation. If the *tibia* is carious to a conſiderable depth (ſee CARIES), remove the carious part as follows: firſt cut through the ſkin (the whole length of the part we mean to remove) on each ſide, ſaving as much of it as you can; then cut it acroſs the bone above and below. Having done this, clear off the muſcular fleſh, by diſſecting it as clear as can be admitted from the bone, and preſerving it as much as poſſible: then introduce a thin plate of paſteboard, horn, or tin, over the upper part of the bone to be removed, and ſo as to ſupport the ſkin. After this, clear away the perioſteum from the parts on which you apply the ſaw. The ſaw ſhould be ſtrong, and of a circular form, to prevent wounding the adjacent parts. Having divided the bone above, do the ſame on the lower part, taking care to include all that is diſeaſed. The carious part of the bone being removed, the wound will not appear ſo large as may be imagined. To encou-courage to this operation, it ſhould be remembered, that there have been inſtances of oſſeous matter ſhooting and forming a complete bone, when nine inches or more hath been removed.

TIBIALIS. The nerve thus called is the internal branch of the ſciatic nerve, and is ſent off near the ham; it paſſes behind the popliteus muſcle, and behind the gaſtrocnemii, goes through the upper part of the ſoleus, then runs between it and the flexores of the toes, and to the malleolus internus, behind which it runs, and paſſing betwixt the os calcis and the abductor of the great toe, where it divides into the plantaris internus and externus, the firſt of which furniſhes the toes with filaments, and the latter goes particularly to the little toe, and to that next to it.

TIBIALIS ANTICUS. This muſcle riſes from the head of the tibia, and from the outſide of the ſpine of the tibia; it grows tendinous, and, winding about the inſide of the foot, is inſerted into the os cuneiforme internum, and ſerves likewiſe to turn the ſole inwards.

TIBIALIS ARTERIA. As the poplitea ends it divides into two principal branches, the firſt of which runs between the heads of the tibia and fibula, paſſing from behind forwards on the interoſſeous ligament, where it is called *tibialis* anterior; the ſecond branch divides into two more, the largeſt of which is the innermoſt, and is called *tibialis* poſterior. The anterior lies between the *tibialis* anticus muſcle and the extenſors of the toes; it comes forwards between the head of the tibia and fibula; it paſſes on the foreſide of the interoſſeus ligament, then runs down on the ſide of the tibia for about two-thirds of its length, paſſes down before, under the annular ligament, ſtrait on the inſtep to the ſpace between the firſt and ſecond metacarpal bones, and plunges down into the ſole of the foot, where it anaſtamoſes with the poſterior tibial artery. The poſterior runs between the ſoles, the *tibialis* poſticus, the flexor digitorum communis, and flexor pollicis, and paſſes between the bone and interoſſeous ligament; in its paſſage it gives branches to the tibia, and to its marrow, through a canal in its poſterior and upper part; it runs behind the inner ankle, communicates with the *tibialis* anterior, and, ſurrounded by the neighbouring veins, paſſes to the ſole of the foot, between the os calcis and the thenar muſcle, where it is divided into the plantaris interna and externa, which make a circle like that in the palm of the hand: from this circle branches are ſent to the toes.

Mr. Pott remarks the following important circumſtance. In the upper part of the calf of the leg, under the gaſtrocnemius and ſoleus muſcles, a ſmall hard tumor is at firſt perceived; it is ſometimes painful; at others not much ſo; but always impeding the patient's exerciſes; it does not alter the natural colour of the ſkin until it hath conſiderably increaſed in the bulk; it enlarges very gradually; it does not ſoften as it increaſes, but continues through the greateſt part of it incompreſſibly hard; and when it hath got to a large ſize, it ſeems to contain a fluid which may be felt towards the bottom, or reſting as it were on the back part of the bones. If an opening is made for the diſcharge of the fluid, it muſt be made very deep, and through a very diſtempered maſs; this fluid is generally ſmall in quantity, and conſiſts of a ſanies mixed with grumous blood: the diſcharge of it produces very little diminution of the tumor; and in the few caſes that have occurred to him, he ſays that very high ſymptoms of irritation and inflammation came on, and advanced with great rapidity and exquiſite pain, ſoon deſtroyed the patient, either by the fever which ran high, and was unremitting, or by a mortification of the whole leg. If amputation hath not been performed, and the patient dies after the tumor hath been opened, the mortified ſtate of the parts prevents all ſatisfactory examination; but if the limb was removed without any previous operation, the arteria *tibialis* poſtica will be found to be enlarged, diſtempered, and burſt; the muſcles of the leg to have been converted into a ſtrangely morbid maſs, and the poſterior part of both the tibia and the fibula more or leſs carious. This diſeaſe derives it origin from a burſten artery, or is always accompanied with it, and is remedied by amputation only. See Mr. Pott's Remarks on the Neceſſity, &c. of Amputation in certain Caſes, &c.

TIBIALIS GRACILIS MUSCULUS, i. e. Plantaris.

TIBIALIS POSTICUS. This muſcle riſes from the tibia and fibula cloſe to the ſoleus, and from the interoſſeous ligament, runs through the annular ligament; it plays in a groove of the bone, where it is tied down by the annular ligament, then runs acroſs the foot, and is inſerted into the middle of the os ſcaphoides.

TIBIALIS VENA. There is an interior and poſterior; they are diviſions of the poplitea. They accompany their reſpective arteries in their courſe.

TIGLIA GRANA. Molucca grains.

TIGRIDIS FLOS. This flower is red and ſpotted like the ſkin of a tiger, whence the name. See Raii Hiſt.

TILBURY WATER. It is the ſtrongeſt of the alkaline waters in England; it may be taken to a quart in a day.

TILIA. The lime-tree, alſo called the line or the linden tree. It is the *tilia* Europea, Linn. It is a tall tree, and its branches ſpread far; the leaves are heart-ſhaped, ſerrated, ſoft, and hairy; the flowers are whitiſh, followed by a kind of dry berry about the ſize of filberts. This tree is native in England; it flowers in July.

The flowers have an anodyne and antiſpaſmodic virtue; when freſh they have a moderately ſtrong ſmell, and in this their virtue conſiſts, but it is ſoon loſt in keeping: they have been much eſteemed, but are now neglected in practice. See Raii Hiſt.

TINCAL, and Tincar. Borax. It comes to Europe from the Eaſt Indies in a very impure ſtate, in the form of large, flat, hexangular, or irregular cryſtals, of a dull white or greeniſh colour, greaſy to the touch; or in ſmall cryſtals, as it were cemented together by a rancid, yellowiſh, or oily ſubſtance, intermixed with marl, gravel, and other impurities. In this ſtate it is called brute *borax*, chryſocolla, or *tincal*.

It is purified by ſolution, filtration, and cryſtallization; and the cryſtals thus obtained are calcined to free them ſtill further from greaſineſs, and then diſſolved, filtered, and cryſtallized a ſecond time, ſometimes more mineral alkali is added, as it is ſaid that *tincal* contains an exceſs of ſedative ſalt.

One hundred parts of purified *borax* contain thirty-four of real ſedative acid, ſeventeen of mineral alkali, and

forty-ſeven of water; but of the mineral alkali only about five parts are really ſaturated, the reſt is unſaturated; and hence in many caſes *borax* acts as an alkali.

It hath been long thought that *borax* was a factitious ſubſtance, but it is now beyond all doubt that it is a natural production, ſince Mr. Grill Abrahamſon ſent ſome to Sweden in the year 1772, in a cryſtalline form; as dug out of the earth in the kingdom of Thebet, where it is called *pounxa*, *my poun*, and *houi poun*. As *borax* is purified alſo in the Eaſt Indies, Mr. Engeſtrom ſuſpects that the *tincal* is only the reſiduum of the mother liquor of *borax* evaporated to dryneſs, and that the greaſineſs ariſes from its being mixed with butter-milk to prevent its efflorescence.

It is ſaid that *borax* hath been found in Saxony in ſome coal pits. See BORAX, and SEDATIVE SAL. Kirwan's Elements of Mineralogy.

TINCTORUM GRANA. Kermes berries.

TINCTORIUS FLOS, i. e. Geneſta tinctoria Germanica.

TINCTURA. A tincture. *Tinctures* differ from diſtilled waters, in that waters take out only the lighter parts that will aſcend in vapour; but *tinctures* take up all ſuch parts as are capable of being ſuſpended in a menſtruum. *Tinctures* differ from elixirs in that *tinctures* are watery, ſpirituous, or other liquors impregnated with the active parts of ſome one ſimple; elixirs contain the active parts of more than one ingredient, ſo are compound *tinctures*. Watery extracts from vegetables are indeed called infuſions or decoctions, according as they are prepared by macerating, or by boiling the plant in water; the ſpirituous are named *tinctures*, eſſences, and elixirs, according as the ingredients are numerous, or the menſtruum ſaturated with the virtues thereof; when the *tincture* is of a thickiſh conſiſtence it is called a balſam.

TINEA. See ACHOR. This ulcer eats like the *tinea* or moth. Dr. Cullen places the *tinea* as a genus in his claſs of locales, and order dialyſes. Bell, in his Treatiſe on Ulcers, ranks it as a variety amongſt cutaneous ulcers.

TINNITUS AURIUM, from *tinnio*, *to ring*. A noiſe in the ear like that of a bell; all other kinds of noiſes are alſo *tinnituſſes*. Hoffman attributes this diſorder to ſpaſmodic affections in the inner membranes of the ears. It is the ſpecies of depraved hearing which Dr. Cullen calls paracuſis imaginaria. And Heiſter propoſes for the cure to give diaphoretics inwardly, and outwardly to fumigate the meatus auditorius externus with the vapours of hot wine, in which is roſemary leaves and thoſe of lavender, and to put the feet into warm water. Etmuller obſerves, that when this diſorder is the effect of chronical diſorders it is difficult to cure. See Du Verney on the Ear, and its Diſorders.

TITHYMALUS. Spurge. Euphorbia paluſtris, Linn. A plant with ſmall ſmooth leaves, round ſtalks that are full of a milky juice; the flowers are in umbel-like cluſters; each flower is followed by a capſula, in which are three ſeeds. Botaniſts enumerate fifty ſpecies.

TITHYMALUS HELIOSCOPIUS, alſo called ſolſequium, eſſula ſoliſequa, ſun ſpurge, wart-wort, and common water-ſpurge.

TITHYMALUS MARITIMUS, alſo called eſſula marina. Sea ſpurge.

The juice of theſe, and of moſt of the other ſpecies, are very acrid, and therefore not uſed, except externally, for deſtroying warts, &c. See Raii Hiſt. Lewis's Mat. Med.

TITILLARES VENÆ. The iliac veins.

TITILLICUM. The arm-pit.

TOLÆ, Toles, and Tolles. The tonſils. M. A. Severinus applies this word to glandular abſceſſes in the limbs.

TOLUTANUM BALSAMUM. The balſam Tolu. It is a reſinous juice, flowing from inciſions made in the bark of a tree, of which we have various accounts. Neumann ſays it is a kind of fir-tree, which is called tolu, and that grows in the province of Tolu. It is the Toluifera balſamum, or the Toluifera Carthaginenſis, foliis ceratiæ ſimilibus, flore luteo, Linn. The balſam is brought to us in gourd-ſhells, or ſmall callibaſhes; it is of a yellowiſh brown colour, inclining to red; its conſiſtence is uſually thick and tenacious; by age it grows hard and brittle, without loſing any of its odoriferous parts. Its ſmell ſomewhat reſembles that of lemons, particularly if rubbed on the hand; it hath an agreeable warm, ſweetiſh, glutinous taſte; it is ſlightly pungent, and without any mixture of a nauſeous reliſh. Its virtues are in general the ſame with thoſe of the balſ. Copaiba, and balſam Peru, differing only in being milder, and more grateful to the palate and in the ſtomach.

This balſam totally diſſolves in rectified ſpirit of wine. Forty grains of this balſam diſſolved in an ounce of rectified ſpirit, gives a ſtrong flavour to a quart of the white ſyrup, if mixed gradually with it, and then placed in a water-bath until the ſpirit is exhaled. In diſtillation with water it impregnates the liquor with its fragrance, and if the quantity committed to diſtillation be large, a ſmall proportion of very fragrant eſſential oil is obtained. If diſtilled in a retort without addition, it ſometimes yields a ſaline concrete like the flowers of Benjamin.

TOMENTUM. Flocks. It is when the leaves or the ſtalks of plants are covered with a thick down.

TONICUS. Tonic. Every veſſel, membrane, and muſcle, with every fibre in ſenſible parts, have a natural tendency to ſhorten themſelves, and this is their tonic power. See SPASMUS TONICUS.

TONICI. Diſeaſes from tonic ſpaſm. See SPASMUS TONICUS.

TONSILLÆ. The tonſils, called alſo amygdalæ, or almonds. Theſe glands are ſeated on each ſide, at the lower part of the ſpace which is left between the lateral half arches of the palatum molle; they are of a reddiſh colour, and externally they have many holes, which communicate with an irregular cavity in their inſide, and which contains a viſcid fluid, which is gradually diſcharged from the holes into the throat.

TOPAZIUS. A topaz. It is a precious ſtone of a gold colour; the fourth in hardneſs from a diamond.

TOPHUS. A toph. See GUMMA. Alſo the concretions in the joints of gouty people.

TOPICA, from τόπος, *a place*. Topics, or local applications.

TOPINARIA. A ſpecies of tumor in the ſkin of the head. It is the ſame as talpa.

TORCULAR. The tourniquet. It is a kind of bandage uſed to check hæmorrhages after wounds or amputations. The moſt ſimple of theſe is a fillet, long enough to encircle the wounded limb, with a ſmall ſtick to twiſt it round with, and a ſmall bolſter to preſs upon the principal veſſel. The fillet muſt be tied looſely above the orifice of the veſſel; under this fillet, and over the artery, the bolſter muſt be placed, and then the fillet muſt be twiſted by means of the ſtick, until it is ſufficiently tight. If a *tourniquet* is applied on the arm, place it near the armpit, for there the artery is moſt ſuperficial. The firſt account of this inſtrument is in a treatiſe writ by Mr. Lowdham, an Engliſh ſurgeon, and publiſhed in 1679: that improved by Mr. Crane, of Bartholomew's-hoſpital, is the moſt complete

TORCULAR HEROPHILI. It is a ſinus of the dura mater; it is ſo called from Herophilus, who firſt diſcovered it. It is the place where the ſinuſes of the dura mater meet.

TORDILIUM. It is a plant, of which Boerhaave mentions ſeven ſorts; the roots of ſome of them poſſeſs the ſame qualities as thoſe of ſkirret, but they are not much noted in medicine.

TORMENTILLA, alſo called heptaphyllum, conſolida rubra, ſeptfoil, tormentil. Tormentilla erecta, or tormentilla ſylveſtris, caule erectiuſculo, foliis ſeſſilibus, Linn. Upright ſeptfoil, or *tormentil*. It is a plant with ſlender upright ſtalks, oblong indented leaves, which uſually ſtand ſeven at a joint. The flowers are ſmall, and of a yellow colour; the root is crooked and knotty, of a dark brown and blackiſh colour on the outſide, and reddiſh within. It is perennial, grows wild in woods and on commons, and flowers in June.

The roots are a ſtrong and almoſt flavourleſs aſtringent; what flavour it hath is ſlightly aromatic. It gives out its aſtringency both to water and to ſpirit, but moſt perfectly to rectified ſpirit of wine. It is uſually given in a decoction, an ounce and a half of the root being boiled in three pints of water to a quart; at the end of the boiling about a dram of cinnamon is added. Three or four table ſpoonfuls of this decoction is a doſe. This root and that of biſtort are ſo ſimilar, that they are uſed for one another. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

TORMINA. Gripes. A dyſentery.

TORNADO. From the Spaniſh, a hurricane, a whirlwind. Dr. Schotte gives the following account of the *tornados*, which happen at Senegal. The rainy ſeaſon there begins about the middle of July, and ends about the middle of October, during this time, the wind is generally between the points of eaſt and ſouth, the quarter from which the *tornados* come. A *tornado* is preceded by a diſagreeable cloſeneſs and weight in the air (which ſeems to be much hotter than the thermometer ſhews it to be); and it is known to come on by the riſing of the clouds to the ſouth-eaſt, which by joining grow darker, ſo as to make the horizon look quite black, accompanied with lightning and thunder, at a diſtance. The breeze dies away by degrees, as the *tornado* advances, and an entire calm ſucceeds; the air grows yet darker; animals and birds retire and ſhelter themſelves; every thing is ſilent, and the aſpect of the ſky, from whence the *tornado* approaches, is moſt dreadful. A violent ſtorm comes on all at once, which is ſo cold as to occaſion the thermometer to fall ſeven or eight degrees in a few minutes, and ſtrong enough to overſet negro huts, and veſſels, or drive the latter from their anchors, and throw them on ſhore. The ſtorm abates, and heavy rain follows, accompanied with much lightning and ſtrong claps of thunder. Sometimes *tornados* happen without rain, or at leaſt a very little, but then the ſtorm is more violent, and laſts longer. It hath been imagined by ſome, that this kind of ſtorm brings ſome peſtiferous quality with it, becauſe they had obſerved, that out of a number of people, ſeveral fell ſick in one night after a *tornado*. Dr. Schotte thinks, that no ſuch ill quality is thus produced by it; and that the juſt named phenomenon may be attributed to the change it produces on the air, and of conſequence on the body; it may therefore be conſidered, as the occaſional cauſe of a diſorder, to which the body was prediſpoſed long before. Schotte's Treatiſe on the Synochus atrabilioſa.

TORPOR. Galen ſays it is a ſort of intermediate diſorder between a palſy and health. It is a numbneſs, or deficient feeling and motion.

TORTIO. A ſtrain in a joint.

TORTURA. A wry mouth.

TORTURA ORIS. The locked jaw.

TORTICOLLIS. The wry neck. An inſtance of contractura.

TOURMALIN. It is a compound earth, conſiſting of the argillaceous, ſilicous, and calcareous, and iron, in proportions determined within certain limits, and forms ſimple ſpecies. It is moſtly cryſtallized, in polygon priſms but ſometimes amorphous. The thickeſt parts are opake: the thin are more or leſs tranſparent.

It hath hitherto been found only in Ceylon, Brazil, and the Tyrol.

That of ceylon is of a dark brown colour, or yellowiſh. It melts per ſe, into a black frothy ſlag. Borax is its beſt flux. Its proportions are as follow: argill 39, ſilex 37, calcareous earth 15, iron 9.

That of Brazil, is green, blue, red, or yellow. It does not melt by itſelf in the fire; it burns only into a brittle ſcoria. Borax is its beſt flux. Its proportions are as follow; argill 50, ſilex 34, calcareous earth 11, iron 5.

That of the Tyrol, by reflected light, is of a blackiſh brown, but by refracted light, yellowiſh, or in thin pieces green. It melts per ſe into a black frothy ſlag. Borax is its beſt flux. Its proportions are as follow; argill 42, ſilex 40, calcareous earth 12, iron 6.

They are all electric when heated to about 200 of Farenheit. Their texture is lamellar, and their ſurface hath a glaſſy appearance. Kirwan's Elem. of Mineralogy.

TOUT SAIN, i. e. Androſæmum.

TOXICODENDRON, from τοξικον, *a fox*, and δενδρον, *a tree*. The poiſon tree. This tree is ſo noxious that no inſects ever come near it. See Raii Hiſt.

TOXITESIA. Mugwort.

TRACHEA ARTERIA, from τραχὺς, *rough*. The wind-pipe.

TRACHEALIS ARTERIA. It runs up from the ſubclavia in a winding courſe, along the aſpera arteria to the glandulæ thyroideæ and larynx, detaching ſmall arteries to both ſides, one of which runs to the upper-part of the ſcapula.

TRACHEALIS VENA, i. e. Gutturalis vena.

TRACHELO MASTOIDEUS, i. e. Complexus minor.

TRACHELOPHYMA. The bronchocele.

TRACHEOTOMIA. Tracheotomy. It is the making of an opening into the trachea. This operation is alſo called bronchotomy, and laryngotomy. This operation is made by inciſion, or by puncture, betwixt the third and fourth ring of the trachea; or if this place cannot be choſen, the opening may be made a little lower. When the ſkin is cut through, a ſmall inciſion may be made into the wind-pipe, and then a ſhort but crooked canula may be fixed there for the air to paſs through. See Sharpe's Operation.

Mr. Sheldon obſerves, that it is very happy both for the ſurgeon and the patient, that this operation is very rarely required. When it is attempted, he adviſes to perforate below the thyroid gland; to cut cautiouſly between the two ſterno-maſtoid muſcles longitudinally, carefully avoiding to wound the vein of the thyroid gland, as it will bleed plentifully. Care muſt alſo be taken that no blood is permitted to fall into the larynx, as it will undoubtedly ſuffocate the patient. Laſtly, when the trochar is introduced, let it not touch the back part of the larynx, becauſe of the irritability of its membrane. It is a difficult operation, but it is beſt performed on thoſe who have thin long necks.

TRACHOMA, from τραχὺς, *rough*. In Cullen's Noſology it is a variety of the ophthalmia tarſi. A roughneſs of the eye-lids, particularly their internal parts. This roughneſs is from a ſort of ſcabs, which differ much in their appearances in different inſtances. Theſe complaints are attended with a weight and heavineſs in the eye, a ſwelling in the eye-lids, a pain and itching, a heat and redneſs in the corners and in the conjunctiva, a viſcid humour mixed with pungent tears flowing from the ulcers, which when very glewy, cloſes the eye-lids together. If this complaint continues long in old people, the lower eye-lid grows thick, and turns downwards, ſo that the cartilage reſembles raw fleſh. The original cauſe is a ſaline humour, which is thrown on the eye-lids; the immediate cauſe is little ulcers there. A cure is ſometimes performed by touching the part with a cauſtic; but the cauſtic is no ſooner applied, than the pain which it occaſions muſt be allayed by waſhing with warm water; apply the cauſtic twice a week. St. Yves on the Diſorders of the Eyes.

Mr. Ware calls this diſorder the pſorophthalmia, and deſcribes it as follows. The ducts of the ciliary glands are ulcerated; when it happens that the oily ſoft fluid, ſecreted by theſe glands, being mixed with the diſcharge from the ulcers, is changed into an acrid humour, which quickly inſpiſſates into an hard adheſive ſcab. This ſcab lodging on the orifices of the ducts, ſpreads the complaints, by the irritation which it occaſions, over the whole internal edge of the eye-lid, and prevents the poſſibility of its being relieved, until the local remedies are applied, to prevent the formation of the ſcab, by curing thoſe ulcers which ſerved to produce it. This inflammation of the eye-lids being attended with an ulceration of their edges, a glutinous matter iſſues out, and when they have been ſome time in contact, as during ſleep, they become ſo cloſely connected, as to require painful efforts for their ſeparation. Uſually, the ulcers are confined to the edges of the eye-lids, but ſometimes they ſpread over the whole external ſurface, and even excoriate the greater part of the cheek: in caſes of the latter kind, the inflamation which accompanies, has often much the appearance of an eryſipelas. This diſorder is ſometimes attended with a contraction of the ſkin of the lower eye-lid; in conſequence of which, it is drawn down, and the inner part turned outward, ſo as to form a red, fleſhy, and very diſagreeable appearance.

To form a clear idea of this diſeaſe, it ſhould be remembered, that, on the inſide, and near to the edges of the eye-lids, is ſituated a number of ſmall glands, ſecreting a ſebaceous fluid, which is excreted by a row of ducts opening immediately on the inner edges of their border. Theſe ducts, and ſometimes the glands themſelves, appear to be the parts principally affected; and the fluid which is ſecreted by them, inſtead of being moiſt and mild, ſerving as a defence againſt the acrimony of the tears, is changed into a ſharp, acrid, and adheſive humour; which cauſes a conſtant irritation of the eye and eye-lids, ulcerates the inner edges

edges of the latter, and, for want of proper attention, has often perpetuated the diſorder for a great number of years. Monſ. St. Yves obſerves, in his chapter on the ophthalmy, ſubſequent to the ſmall-pox, that "the puſtules on the edge of the cartilage of the eye-lids, which penetrate between the cilia, and their inner ſurface, do not cicatrize, by reaſon of the acrimonious ſerofity, which inceſſantly humects the eye; hence follow ulcers, which laſt ſometimes ſeveral years, and even during life, if they be not remedied." But though the ſmall-pox and meaſles, are frequent cauſes of this complaint, they are not the only ones; an inflammation of the globe of the eye, in itſelf but ſmall, will ſometimes affect the lids, ſo as to cauſe them to ſwell, and become red; in conſequence of which, there will be an adheſion of one to the other, and often an univerſal ulceration of their edges. The ſmall puſtules, alſo, which form on the outer margin of the ciliary edge, where the laſhes grow, and are known by the name of ſtyes, have, in ſome inſtances, brought on an inflammation, which has been continued to the ſebaceous glands, and produced all the conſequences above deſcribed. This diſorder is often ſpoken of as ſymptomatic, and the effect of ſcrophula, ſcurvy, or lues venerea; but it is very often, if not moſt frequently, a local complaint; it cannot be known to be any other, except by ſuch ſymptoms as evidence the preſence of theſe diſorders. Yet, though this diſeaſe moſt commonly takes place without any other complaint, at leaſt, as far can be diſcovered, it is yet neceſſary to be obſerved, that it is ſometimes accompanied with the plaineſt marks of a ſcrophulous conſtitution, and ſeems evidently to ariſe from it.

Monſ. St. Yves obſerves, that we ſhould diſtinguiſh this kind of complaint from the tetters on the eye-lids; the two differing only in the tetters never being accompanied with the ectropium, or turning out of the eye-lid, which frequently happens in the pſorophthalmia.

Thoſe ulcerations that appear to be ſuperficial, are not generally tedious to remove; but if they are deep, they are much more difficult to cure than thoſe attended with fungous fleſh.

In order to the cure, it hath been the general cuſtom to touch the edges of the eye-lids, where the ulcers were ſpread, with the lapis infernalis, perhaps two or three times a week; but to moderate the ſeverity of this method, the part was preſently waſhed with pure water. However, the pain excited by this application ſeems much to have deterred from its uſe; and Mr. Ware hath propoſed a method of relief, equally effectual, but by far leſs exceptionable. He directs, when this kind of inflammation extends over the whole ſurface of the eye-lid, and on the cheek, taking on the appearance of an eryſipelas, that it be treated with antiphlogiſtics and ſedatives; and when the extreme irritability is removed by proper applications, to finiſh the cure by means of the ungt. citrinum Ph. Ed. uſed, as hereafter directed.

Sometimes the lower eye-lid turns outward in this diſeaſe, which then proves obſtinate to cure, but with due perſeverance it is overcome by the general method only propoſed for the pſorophthalmy.

If in any inſtance, other ſymptoms evidence the preſence of a ſcurvy, ſcrophula, or venereal taint, thoſe diſeaſes muſt be relieved, before any benefit can be procured for that of the eye-lid. When a ſcrophula is the ſource of this diſeaſe, though the patient is perfectly cured, as far as reſpects the external ſymptoms, there is ſtill a danger of its returning; to prevent which, ſuch means as are uſed in ſcrophulous caſes ſhould be continued for a conſiderable time after.

With reſpect to the pſorophthalmia, the firſt endeavour ſhould be to ſoften the ſcabs, and remove them, and to uſe ſuch applications to the ulcers, as may correct the acrimony of the diſcharge, promote digeſtion, and bring them into a ſtate of healing. The intention of Monſ. St. Yves, in his direction for the cure of the ulcers, on the edges of the eye-lids, ſubſequent to the ſmall-pox, does not appear to be much unlike that which I have here mentioned, as appears from the following quotation. "Ophthalmic waters, in general, are of very little ſervice; but I have found, from my own experience, that, by touching them with the lapis infernalis, they cicatrize eaſily. The violent heat of the cauſtic muſt be abated as ſoon as they have been touched, by waſhing the eye in a ſmall glaſs full of warm water; you muſt, above all, take care that the part of the eye-lid, which was cauterized, may not bear againſt the globe of the eye, till the pain is entirely gone off. They may be touched in this manner, once or twice a week, until they ſeem to require no more uſe of the cauſtic: then lay on theſe places tutty, finely powdered, to cicatrize them." Monſ. St. Yves here recommends a very ſtrong cauſtic; but on a part ſo tender, a milder application will ſucceed, as is evident from the advantages attending that which I have preferred, viz. the ungt. citrin. which may be uſed as follows. Hold the ointment before a lighted candle, ſo that its ſurface may be melted into an oily conſiſtence; take this oil on the end of the finger, and carefully rub it on the edges of the affected eye-lids. The uſe of it, once in twenty-four hours, will be ſufficient; and that ſhould be when the patient goes to bed: immediately after the application, a ſoft plaſter, ſpread with the cerat. alb. Ph. Lond. is to be bound looſely over the eye-lids, which will preſerve them moiſt and ſupple in the night, and contribute to prevent their adheſions to each other. If notwithſtanding this cerate being applied, it ſhould be difficult to open the eye-lids in the morning, they may be waſhed with milk and freſh butter, well mixed together, and warmed, by which the patient will be able to open them without pain. If the eye-lid is very irritable, the melted ointment may be applied with a camel-hair pencil: indeed, ſometimes the irritability is ſo great, that before the ointment can be applied, other means muſt be uſed to remove that ſymptom, as is already noticed.

If in conſequence of this diſeaſe of the eye-lid, the eye itſelf ſhould be inflamed, the uſual methods of relieving an inflamed eye, may be uſed.

See St. Yves on the Diſeaſes of the Eye. Ware's Remarks on the Ophthalmia.

TRAGACANTHA. Goat's thorn, from τράγος, *a goat*, and ἄκανθα, *a thorn*, becauſe its pods reſemble a goat's-beard. It is alſo called ſpina hirci, and aſtragalus. Aſtragalus-tragacantha Linn. It grows in the ſouth of France, Italy, &c. but it is only thoſe which grow in the eaſtern countries that yield the gum.

TRAGOPOGON. Goat's-beard. This plant is thus named, becauſe its downy ſeed, while incloſed in the calyx, reſembles the beard of a goat.

There are ſeveral ſpecies; their roots are ſoft, ſweet, nutritive, and laxative, ſomewhat diuretic and expectorant, but in too ſmall a degree to have gained a place in practice. See Raii Hiſt.

TRAGOPYRUM. Fagopyrum.

TRAGORCHIS. A ſpecies of orchis.

TRANSVERSALES MAJORES COLLI. Theſe muſcles are long and thin; they are placed along the tranſverſe apophyſes of the neck, and the four, five, or ſix upper bones of the back, between the complexus major and minor. They riſe from the tranſverſe apophyſis, and are inſerted into the next neareſt apophyſes, and ſometimes to other more remote ones.

TRANSVERSALES COLLI MINORES. i. e. Inter-tranſverſales.

TRANSVERSALES NASI. Theſe muſcles riſe from the upper-part of the upper-lip, and run to the ridge of the noſe.

TRANSVERSALIS. A name for the teres minor.

TRANSVERSALIS ABDOMINIS. The tranſverſe muſcle of the belly. Theſe muſcles (one on each ſide) take their name from the direction of their fibres. They riſe from the tranſverſe proceſſes of the lumbal vertebræ, the ſpine of the os ilium, the ligamentum pubis, and the cartilaginous endings of the ribs below the ſternum, from whence their fleſhy parts run over the peritoneum, and become a broad, expanded tendon, before they run under the rectus, to their inſertion into the whole length of the linea alba. When they act, they preſs the belly inwards, depreſs the ribs, &c.

TRANSVERSALIS ANTICUS PRIMUS. It is ſituated between the baſis of the occipitis, and the tranſverſe apophyſis of the firſt vertebra of the neck.

TRANSVERSALIS ANTICUS SECUNDUS. It is fixed by one extremity very near the middle of the tranſverſe apophyſis of the ſecond vertebra of the neck, and by the other, near the baſis of the firſt.

TRANSVERSALIS DIGITORUM. This muſcle lies tranſverſely under the firſt phalanges of the toes: it is fixed to the firſt phalanx of the great toe, and its other end is inſerted into the firſt phalanx of the little toe.

TRANSVERSALES DORSI MINORES. Winſlow ſpeaks of theſe as being fixed to the extremities of the lowermoſt tranſverſe apophyſes of the back.

TRANSVERSALIS PEDIS PLACENTINI, i. e. Adductor minimi digiti.

TRANSVERSALIS URETHRÆ. It is a digaſtric muſcle: it lies along the lower part, or the looſe edge of the ligamentum pubis interoſſeum; its two extremities are fixed in the branches of the oſſa pubis, its middle tendon lying on the middle of the edge of the ligament juſt named.

TRANSVERSO SPINALIS COLLI, DORSI, & LUMBARES, i. e. Multifidus Spinæ.

TRANSVERSUS, i. e. Pronator.

TRANSVERSUS EXTERNUS CARPI LIGAMENTUM. It begins by a broad inſertion, fixed in the large extremity of the radius, about two fingers breadth above the ſtyloid apex, it afterwards croſſes obliquely, partly over the convex ſide of the baſis radii, and partly over that of the carpus, and then turning towards the os orbiculare is inſerted therein.

TRANSVERSUS INTERNUS CARPI. It is an annular ligament.

TRAPEZIUM, [Os]. The firſt bone of the ſecond row in the wriſt. So called from its ſhape, which is that of a trapezium.

TRAPEZIUS MUSCULUS. See CUCULLARIS.

TRAPEZOIDES, [Os]. The ſecond bone of the ſecond row in the wriſt. It is ſhaped more like a pyramid with its point broken off, than like a trapezium.

TRAULOTIS. The Pſelliſmus Ringens.

TRAUMATICA, from τραυμα *a wound*. Vulnerary medicines. Thus the Greeks called corroborants that were aſtringent agglutinants.

TREMOR. See HORROR. *Tremors* happening from too free a uſe of ſpirituous liquors, and other exceſſes, uſually require the ſame treatment as palſies.

Dr. Cullen, conſiders it as always ſymptomatic, and conſequent on extreme debility, palſy, or convulſion. It is a trembling, without a ſenſation of cold.

TREPANATIO. The operation of trepaning. As much as this operation is commended by ſome, there are others among the moſt eminent modern practitioners, who forbid it in all caſes of injury done to the head, except when the ſkull is depreſſed.

This operation is propoſed to relieve the brain from depreſſed parts of the ſkull, fragments of the broken bones of the ſkull, extravaſations of matter upon or under the membranes of the brain, and other cauſes of preſſure, of irritation, and of inflammation, &c. Many parts about the ſkull are objected to, but the operation hath been performed on moſt of them with the happieſt ſucceſs; and as to the reſt, ſimilar objections lay againſt ſome parts on which cuſtom allows the *trepan* to be uſed. The operation reſolved on, the inſtruments, dreſſings, &c. muſt be in readineſs; then the head being ſhaved, muſt be held ſteady upon a perſon's knee, with a proper knife and the ſcalprum, a piece of the ſcalp, muſt be removed: enough ſhould be ſeparated at the firſt to give room for a ſufficient number of perforations. In cutting be careful to cut through to the bone at the firſt eſſay, and the edge of the knife ſhould be ſo inclined as to cut more of the pericranium than of the ſkin, then raiſing the pericranium a little with the point of the knife, quite round the inciſion, and then with the ſcalprum clear the ſkull of its membranes. The trephine is the moſt commodious inſtrument, for it works both backward and forward. When the ſaw hath entered well into the bone, take out the central pin of the trephine, and ſometimes take out the ſaw to examine the depth to which it hath paſſed, and to bruſh out the ſmall portions of bone that might impede the operation; the diploe is ſometimes wanting, ſo ſhould be attended to; as ſoon as the piece is looſe, take it out with the forceps, and if the lower edge of the perforation is rough, ſmooth it with the lenticular; this done, raiſe the depreſſed piece of ſkull with an elevator, which now is made with fulcra to reſt on the ſound bone; after this, if extravaſated matter ſeems lodged under the dura mater, open it with a lancet for its diſcharge. When the trephine is uſed on account of a fiſſure, it muſt be applied ſo as to include part of it, if not directly over it, as is moſt likely that the extravaſated blood or lymph will be found directly under it; and when the fiſſure is of a conſiderable extent, a perforation muſt be made at each end, if not more. When ſeveral perforations are to be removed, in order to the removal of ſeveral depreſſed fragments of bone that have their internal ſurface larger than their external, it is neceſſary to apply the trepan as near the fractured parts as they will admit of, making the perforations adjoining to ſave the trouble of cutting the intermediate ſpaces with the head-ſaw. In places where the unequal thickneſs of the ſkull is obſerved, it is beſt to elevate the piece that is ſawed before it is cut quite through, thus the membrane will be unhurt. When an injury happens on a ſuture, and it is not thought adviſable to uſe the trepan there, make a perforation on each ſide of it. By the trephine having removed the pieces of bone, and thereby prevented all the preſent and future ills dependent on their remaining; after this, the dreſſing ſhould accord with the general intention of not irritating, and ſhould be as innocent in quality, and ſmall in quantity as poſſible; clean dry lint to abſorb the matter, is all that can be wanted, this may be kept on by a common woollen cap, which is preferable to all bandages whatever. After dreſſing, lay the patient in as eaſy a poſture in bed as poſſible, and with his ſhoulders raiſed high. Perfect quietude, open bowels, and the veſſels emptied by veneſection, and a low diet, are to the full as neceſſary before as after removing the pieces of the ſkull. The air of the patient's room ſhould be temperate. In young people the perforations are in time filled up with a ſubſtance that is of a bony hardneſs; but in adults this does not happen ſo perfectly. Sometimes a fungus proves troubleſome, but it is beſt prevented by applying a plate of lead, as invented and deſcribed by Belloſte See his Hoſpital Surgeon, Heiſter's Surgery, Sharpe's Operations, Gooch's Caſes and Remarks.

TREPANUM. A trepan. An inſtrument to bore the ſkull with.

TREPHINE. An inſtrument with which we perforate a bone; chiefly uſed in the operation, called trepanning. It hath been variouſly formed, and thence received different names: e. g. Abaptiſta, abaptiſton, anabaptiſton, modiolus, terebra, terebellum, and trepan. Until lately, the trepan was, and ſtill is very generally uſed on the continent; however, the *trephine* is more commodious, and acts as quickly as the trepan. See TREPANATIO.

TRIANDRIA DIGYNIA. So Linnæus terms the ſecond order of the third claſs of vegetables.

TRIANGULARES STERNI. Theſe muſcles riſe from the ſide and edge of the ſternum and xiphoid cartilage internally, and are inſerted into the cartilages of the ſixth, fifth, fourth, third, and ſecond ribs, to depreſs them.

TRIANGULARIS. A name of the following muſcles, viz. the depreſſores labii ſuperiores, ſcaleni, deltoides, tranſverſales urethræ, &c.

TRIANGULARIS VENA. A name for the external jugular vein, where it paſſes through the muſculus triangularis.

TRIBULUS AQUATICUS. Water caltrops. It is a plant which grows in watery places in ſome parts of Germany and in Italy; but it is not noticed in practice.

TRICA LUMBORUM. A ſpecies of plica Polonica.

TRICAUDALIS, i. e. Abductor auris.

TRICEPS AURIS, i. e Abductor auris.

TRICEPS. Thus it is named in Galen's works. It riſes by its firſt head from the fore part of the os pubis and its tendon is inſerted into the linea femoris aſpera, and is then blended with another head which runs down to the knee. The ſecond head riſes from the forepart of the os pubis, and is inſerted higher in the linea aſpera. The third head takes its origin from the ſmall proceſs of the iſchium, cloſe to the obturator externus, and is inſerted in the linea aſpera behind the little trochanter. The fourth riſes from the iſchium and its tuberoſity, and it is inſerted in the linea aſpera, and, joining with the firſt, forms a tendon which goes to the knee, blended with that of the vaſtus externus.

They move the thigh bones inward, according to their

different directions, and bring them to each other. Douglas makes this into four muſcles, and calls the firſt, adductor femoris primus; the ſecond, adductor femoris ſecundus; the third adductor femoris tertius; the fourth, adductor femoris quartus. The fourth head he makes by dividing the upper part of the third head into two. The third and fourth are deſcribed by Albinus and Winſlow, as one muſcle, under the adductor magnus femoris, & le troiſieme muſcle du *triceps*.

TRICHIA, or Trichiaſis, from θρὶξ, *a hair*. It is alſo called entropium, diſtichiaſis, diſtrichiaſis. It is, when the cartilage on the edge of the eye-lid is ſo inverted as to bear upon the conjunctiva, and the cornea tranſparens; then the friction of the eye-laſhes excites an inflammation in the eye. According to the author of the Definit. Medicæ, it is, "A falling of the eye-lids and a preternatural generation of hairs on them." He makes three ſorts, to which he gives the names of phalangoſis, ptoſis, and hypophyſis, and as ſome ſay, a fourth, viz. diſtichia. Actuarius calls the *trichiaſis* by the name of trichoſis.

The friction of the eye-laſhes in this caſe, brings on defluxions and inflammations, if not prevented by pulling out the hairs, one by one, at ſuch diſtances of time, as may be neceſſary for preventing inflammation thereby.

In Dr. Cullen's Noſology this diſeaſe is an inſtance of ſymptomatic ophthalmy, called ophthalmia *trichiaſis*.

The word entropium, i. e. the turning inward of the eye-lid, is referred to this article, as being occaſionally a cauſe of inflammation in the eye, by directing the eye-laſhes againſt the conjunctiva. Indeed Heiſter calls the inverſion of the eye lids the trichiaſis. Mr. Ware, in his remarks on the ophthalmy, &c. diſtinguiſhes as follows, betwixt the inverſion of the upper and under eye-lids, both as to the cauſe and cure. And ſpeaks,

Firſt, of the inverſion of the upper lid.

The upper lid and its ciliary edge (he obſerves) are preſerved, both in motion and reſt, in their natural ſituation, by the equal, though contrary, actions of the muſculus orbicularis, and levator palpebræ ſuperioris. The ſkin of the upper lid is always very thin, flaccid and folded. When therefore the *trichiaſis* affects the upper lid, it appears to be produced by a relaxation of the levator palpebræ ſuperioris, and a contraction of the ſuperior part of the orbicularis. The cure, either in the upper or lower lid, is palliative, or radical. It is only palliative, when in order to relief the eye-laſhes are extracted by their roots. The radical cure is affected by detracting the ciliary edges, and preſerving them in their natural ſituation. The cauſe being a relaxation of the levator palpabræ ſuperioris muſcle, an inciſion muſt be made through the integuments of the upper eye-lid, from the inner angle of the eye to the outer; then the fibres of the orbicularis muſcle muſt be ſo ſeparated, as to denudate the expanded fibres of the levator muſcle, as near to their termination in the edge of the lid as poſſible; which being done, apply a ſmall cauteriſing iron, adapted to the convexity of the globe of the eye, and made pretty warm, by paſſing it two or three times over the tendino-carneous fibres. Thus, by producing a ſlight irritation, (which produces the ſame effect, as is often obſerved to happen after burns, particularly in the hands, after which the fingers often contract, and in many inſtances have remained contracted ever after) a cure may be expected.

Secondly, of the inverſion of the lower lid.

The lower lid, whoſe motion is very ſmall, in compariſon with that of the upper, is preſerved in its natural ſtate, by the equal action of the orbicular fibres ſpread over it, and the thickneſs and renitency of the ſkin which covers it. When therefore a *trichiaſis* is produced in the lower lid, it can only ariſe from a relaxation of the ſkin, and a contraction of the inferior part of the orbicularis. The cure will neceſſarily be effected by increaſing the renitency of the ſkin to ſuch a degree, as to prevent the contraction of the muſculus orbicularis. When the caſe is recent, a cure hath ſometimes been effected, by forming a fold in the ſkin before the inverted lid, to draw its edge from the eye, and preſerving the ſkin in that ſtate by the application of ſticking plaſter: or, by means of an inſtrument ſimilar to that contrived by Bartiſchius, (and repreſented by Heiſter, plate 15, fig. 20.) to pinch up a ſmall portion of the ſkin, and hang thereby on the cheek; which by its weight, anſwers the ſame purpoſe as the plaſter, and is leſs liable to loſe its hold. In ſlight caſes, the ſkin may recover its tone by theſe means; but in others, it will be neceſſary to cut off a ſmall tranſverſe portion of the looſe ſkin below the edge of the lid, and afterwards confine the ſides of the wound together by means of a future.

Sometimes there are inſtances in which none of the above methods will ſuffice; as, where the ciliary edges are not only inverted but likewiſe contracted or ſhortened in their length. In this caſe, the circumference of the ciliary edges muſt be enlarged either by an inciſion at the outer angle, or by a complete diviſion of the cartilage, called tarſus, in the middle. The firſt of theſe operations is no more than a ſimple ſtraight inciſion, which may be made with a ſharp-pointed curved biſtoury. The laſt, which is ſeldom neceſſary, will be beſt performed by the ſame inſtrument; only obſerving, that the point be carefully introduced between the globe and eye-lid, and carried below the cartilage, (that is about $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch;) whence it is to be puſhed outward in a horizontal direction, till it hath cut its way through the lid. The cartilage being thus entirely divided, each portion will recede towards the angles, and a ſeparation be left between them, which will not only take off the complaint at preſent, but prevent its return for the future.

TRICHIASIS. It is an affection of the urine, in which ſomething like hairs is ſeen floating. In Erotian, it ſignifies fiſſures, or a roughneſs in the ſkin of the breaſt, though he calls an abſceſs in a woman's breaſt thus.

TRICHOMA. See PLICA POLONICA.

TRICHOMANES. See ADIANTHUM.

TRICORNES. So muſcles are called which have three terminations.

TRICUSPIDES VALVULÆ. The name of the three valves which are placed at the mouth of the right ventricle of the heart, juſt at its juncture with the auricle.

TRIFOLIUM. Trefoil. Boerhaave takes notice of thirty-ſix ſpecies, ſeveral of which are called clover, and are uſed for feeding of cattle only. See Raii Hiſt.

TRIFOLIUM ACIDUM. Wood-ſorrel.

TRIFOLIUM PALUDOSUM. Marſh trefoil, or buck-bean. Menyanthes Trifoliata, or Menyanthes paluſtris latifolia foliis ternatis, Linn. It is a plant with large oval leaves, pointed at each end like thoſe of the garden-bean; ſet three together on long pedicles, which embrace the ſtalk to ſome height, and there parting, leave it naked to near the top, where iſſues forth a ſhort ſpike of pretty large reddiſh white monopetalous flowers, each of which is cut into five ſegments, hairy on the inſide, and followed by an oval ſeed veſſel. It is perennial, grows wild in marſhy places, and flowers in May. The leaves are of a penetrating bitter taſte, which they impart both to watery and to ſpirituous menſtrua, without any remarkable flavour; they are uſed as alternative and aperient, in hydropic and rheumatic caſes. They are uſually infuſed in water, with the addition of ſome grateful aromatic, ſuch as orange peel, or the canella alba. ℔ i. of this infuſion ſhould be drank in a day; it paſſes off by urine, and renders the belly lax. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

TRIFOLIUM. It is a name for many plants which are not included in the kind which bear this name.

TRIGEMINUS MUSCULUS, i. e. Complexus.

TRIGLOCHINUS, i. e. Tricuſpides.

TRIGONELLA. Fenugreek. The ſpecies in uſe, is the trigonella fœnum-græcum, or trigonella Monſpelienſis, foliolis obovatis, leguminibus ſeſſilibus ſtrictis erectiuſculis ſubfalcatis acuminatis, caule erecto. Linn. Fenugreek. The ſeeds only are uſed. See FOENUM GRÆCUM.

TRINITAS. A name of the trifolium, and for the viola tricolor.

TRIORCHIS. A perſon with three teſticles, alſo a name for a ſpecies of orchis.

TRIPLEX MUSCULUS, i. e. Triceps.

TRIQUETRA OSSA. They are alſo called Wormiana, from Wormius, who firſt obſerved them. They are ſmall irregularly ſhaped pieces, principally betwixt the parietal and occipital bones, and are joined by true ſutures to their adjacent bones.

TRIPASTRUM APPELLIDES. A machine for reſtoring fractures and luxations, thus named, becauſe it reſembled a machine invented by Apellides and Archimedes, and becauſe it was worked with three cords.

TRIPASTRUM ARCHIMEDES, i. e. Tripaſtrum Apellides.

TRISMUS. The locked jaw. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs neuroſes and the order ſpaſmi: he defines it to be a ſpaſtic rigidity of the lower jaw. He obſerves two ſpecies. 1. *Triſmus* Naſcentium. To this, infants are ſubject during the firſt two weeks after their birth. 2. *Triſmus* Traumaticus. To this perſons of any age are ſubject, either from a wound, or from cold. See *Tetanus*.

TRISSAGO, i. e. Chamædrys, alſo Scordium.

TRISTITIA. Grief, or ſorrow. *Grief* relaxes the ſolids, ſlackens the motion of the fluids, and deſtroys the health; it particularly weakens the ſtomach and inteſtines, occaſions flatulence and every ſymptom of weakneſs. Opiates, if not given in large doſes, are good cordials in this caſe.

TRITÆOPHYA, from τριταῖος, a tertian, and φύω importing ſimilitude of nature, or original; it is an epithet of a fever, much of a nature with a tertian, and taking its riſe from it. This ſort of fever is almoſt continual, its intermiſſions are obſcure or ſhort. Linnæus calls it a continued tertian. Erotian and ſome others ſay, it is a fever which gives ſigns of its approaching paroxyſms, but whoſe intervals are regular, as it never arrives at perfection; and that it takes its name from its great reſemblance of a tertian; and that it is called a ſmall ſemitertian. See James's Med. Dict. art. TRITÆOPHYES.

TRITÆOS, τριταῖος. A tertian.

TRITÆUS. The ſame as Tritæophya.

TRITICUM. Wheat. Triticum Hybernum. Linn. Whether in the form of flour, or of ſtarch, it is the moſt glutinous of the farinacea. In Italy they make vermicelli of the fineſt flour of wheat.

TRITORIUM. A glaſs for ſeparating the oil from the water, which is obtained by diſtilling. It is alſo called a ſeparatory glaſs.

TROCAR. The name of an inſtrument uſed to diſcharge the water with, in an aſcites. The word *trocar* is a corruption of the French words *un trois quart*, *a three quarters*, from the three ſides with which the point is made.

TROCHANTERES. Two proceſſes of the thigh-bone, one of which is larger than the other. See FEMORIS, OS. From τρέχω, *to run*, becauſe ſeveral muſcles that move the thigh are inſerted into them.

TROCHISCI. Troches. It is a form agreeable enough for children, and thoſe who object to every thing that is not a ſweet-meat, and a preparation from the confectioner. *Troches* are alſo called tablets and cakes. They are made by mixing the medicine with a proper quantity of ſugar, and the mucilage of gum tragacanth; and when formed into a ſtiff paſte, it is cut into proper portions, and dried.

TROCHLEA. Τροχλία, *a pulley*. A kind of cartilaginous *pulley*, through which the tendon of one of the muſcles of the eye paſſes.

TROCHLEARIS MUSCULUS, i. e. Obliquus major oculi, or Obliquus Superior.

TUBA ARISTOTELICA, i. e. Tuba Euſtachiana.

TUBA EUSTACHIANA. It was firſt diſcovered by Alcmæon, a diſciple of Pythagoras; he called it the auditory paſſage. Euſtachius claims the firſt diſcovery, and from him it hath its preſent name. Fallopius calls it the aquæduct; ſome call it ductus auris palatinus. This tube paſſes from the fore-part of the drum of the ear, to the back part of the noſe, above the root of the velum pendulum palati, and allows the air to paſs inwards.

TUBÆ FALLOPIANÆ. Theſe tubes will receive a hog's briſtle from out of the uterus, where they begin; they then proceed in a tortuous manner, and terminate at the ovaria, in an irregular round jagged extremity, where their diameter is about a third of an inch; this fringe is called morſus diaboli, and is hung upon a membrane like the meſentery, between the doublings of which the veſſels run to the tubes. Fallopius diſcovered them.

TUBÆ NOVUS VALSALVÆ MUSC. i. e. Palato-ſalpingæus.

TUBERA. Tumors of the ſolid parts, not dropſical; as hardened glands, &c.

TUBERCULUM. A tubercle, or little tumor, the ſame as Phyma. See VOMICA.

TUBERCULUM LOWERI. See COR.

TULIPA. The tulip, or the Dalmatian cap. *Tulipa* is a Turkiſh word, ſignifying a turbant. The *tulip*, firſt deſcribed by Geſner, was brought from Conſtantinople, A. D 1590. No flowers are ſo variable in their colours as the *tulip* and poppy; their colours change by tranſplanting the roots. The ſeeds of one *tulip* produces flowers of all colours. The roots have the ſame virtues as the common parſnep; but it is only the flower that is regarded, and that as an ornament in gardens.

TUMIDOSI. The ſame as Intumeſcentiæ.

TUMIDUM, i. e. Bronchocele.

TUMOR. A tumor. It is a diſeaſe in which the parts of the body recede from their natural ſtate by an undue increaſe of their bigneſs. In Dr. Cullen's Noſology, *tumores* is an order in his claſs, locales, &c. ſignifies a morbid enlargement of a part, without being cauſed by inflammation. *Tumors* receive different names, according to their ſituation, figure, contents, &c. and there are but few general names but what are again divided into different ſpecies, e. g. when pus is the contents of a *tumor*, it is called an abſceſs; if an abſceſs is in the lungs, it is called a vomica; if in the finger-end, it is called whitlow, &c. all theſe ſee in the article ABSCESSUS. When the matter is contained in a bag, the *tumor* is called an encyſted *tumor*; and theſe take different names according to their contents, as atheroma, meliceris, ſteatoma, &c. and theſe are to be extirpated whilſt ſmall, if ſituated where the knife can be ſafely uſed; though when their contents are ſoft, they may be ſuppurated and diſcharged by an opening, then the cyſt is to be deſtroyed by eſcharotics. Œdomatous *tumors* generally depend on ſome other diſeaſes, and on the removal thereof theſe kind of *tumors* uſually diſappear. Scrofulous *tumors* are only relieved by removing the habit on which they depend, ſee SCROFULA; and for other *tumors*, ſee the reſpective articles under which each of them is treated in, as the ANEURISM, the VARIX, the different kinds of HERNIAS, &c.

TURBINATA OSSA. See ETHMOIDES Os, and SPONGIOSA OSSA.

TURBINATUM. The pineal gland.

TURBITH, alſo called turpethum, and turpetum. It is the cortical part of the root of a ſpecies of convolvulus which is met with in the Eaſt Indies; the convolvulus turpethum, Linn. It is in oblong pieces, of a brown, or an aſh colour on the outſide, and whitiſh within. The beſt is ponderous, not wrinkled, eaſy to break, and diſcovers to the eye a large quantity of reſinous matter. This bark is cathartic, but ſo unequal in its ſtrength, that it is now neglected in practice. See Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

TURBITH. A name of ſome kinds of ſeſeli.

TURCICA SELLA, i. e. Sphenoidalis Sella.

TURPETHUM, i. e. Turbith.

TURPETHUM MINERALE, i. e. Merc. emet flav.

TURRITIS. Tower muſtard. There are ſeveral ſpecies of this plant, but they are not noticed in the preſent practice.

TURUNDÆ. Tents. They are uſually made of lint, and introduced into deep wounds. They are uſed, 1. To convey medicines to the bottom of a wound. 2. To hinder the external part of a wound from healing before the bottom. 3. The better to clean wounds from what ſhould not be retained in them; but they ſhould be very ſoft, that they may neither obſtruct the diſcharge of matter, nor hinder the healing of the wound in general. *Tents* are made of ſponge, for dilating the orifices of wounds; they are alſo made of the dried roots of gentian, turneps, comfrey, calamus aromaticus, &c.

TUSSILAGO, alſo called bechium, farfara, farfarella. Colt's-foot. *Tuſſilago* Farfara; or, *Tuſſilago* foliis ſubcordatis angulatis denticulatis, ſcapo imbricato unifloro, floribus radiatis. Linn. It is a low plant, producing early in the ſpring ſingle ſtalks, each of which bears a yellow floſculous flower, followed by ſeveral ſeeds winged with down; the leaves, which ſucceed the flowers, are ſhort, broad, angular, ſlightly indented, green above, and hoary underneath. It is perennial, and grows wild in moiſt grounds.

grounds. The leaves and flowers are mucilaginous, bitterish, and roughish; they have little or no smell; infusions of the leaves are sweetened with liquorice for a common drink, when a troublesome cough attends: but if any considerable advantage is expected, a strong decoction should be made, and used freely. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

TUSSIS. A cough. It is a violent expulsion of some sort of matter from the bronchia of the lungs, by means of a convulsive force in them, and it is accompanied with a violent expiration. Dr. Cullen observes that it is generally a symptomatic catarrh.

The seat of every *cough* is in the breast, but the remote cause is variously situated. The diversity of this cause produces a variety in the species of this disorder. The principal seat is the aspera arteria, and the bronchia; these are irritated, or the morbid irritation may be in some part adjacent, as the diaphram, the stomach, the œsophagus, the pleura, the external surface of the lungs, &c. What in the stomach causes a vomiting, in the bronchia will cause a coughing. Vellications may be produced in the bronchia by consent of parts, as happens when *coughs* attend in pleurisies, wounds about the neck, inflammation of the liver, &c. Exhalations which float in the air, &c. are sometimes a cause; defluxions of rheum, or an acrid mucus falling from about the head, may irritate the aspera arteria, and excite a *cough*. Acrid matter in the stomach, or in the duodenum, is a frequent cause of this complaint. Spasmodic disorders are often attended with a *cough*, the lungs suffering either by consent from the seat of the spasm, or becoming in their turn the seat of that which produced the spasm in some distant part; but, perhaps, of all the causes, there are not any so frequent as that of defective perspiration.

A dry *cough* generally becomes a moist one; which, if of long continuance, destroys the appetite, weakens digestion, induces a cachectic habit, and a hectic fever. Lommius observes, that a *cough* passing into one of a dry kind, and leaving a sense of weight in the breast, subjects the patient to a putrid, or to a hectic fever. *Coughs* which succeed a scirrhus in any of the viscera, are generally incurable. It often happens that when a *cough* ushers in a disease, that it ceases as the approaching disorder is more manifest. A moderate heat in the night, an equable moisture all over the body, a copious discharge of urine, a due solubility of body, tranquil sleep, and an easy expectoration, are sure signs that the *cough* is in a fair way to be removed.

Coughs are generally dry ones at the first, and, whilst in this state, they may usually be cured by chewing, immediately after every fit of coughing, about a scruple of the bark; the belly must be kept lax, and the feet warm, and perspiration must be promoted. Dry *coughs* generally become moist by spoiling the digestion; though it is proper to observe, that in hypochondriac, and some other habits, the *cough* is usually dry, and in phlegmatic relaxed habits it is moist.

If the bronchia are obstructed with viscid phlegm, the best resolvents are the rad. irid. flor. rad. scllar. gum ammon. or rad. allii.

Thin acrid humours are best carried off by incrassating medicines, such as the rad glychiz. gum. trag. spermacæti, &c.

When catarrhous *coughs* are habitual, and accompanied with a loss of appetite, there is danger of a consumption; and the cure must be attempted by asses milk, whey, Seltzer water, &c.

When there is a defluxion and congestion of serum about the lungs, it is necessary to derive the serum from thence, partly by the anus, and partly by the skin. In all *coughs* perspiration must be promoted, and the belly kept soluble. As a purge, manna, or the ol. ricini, should be preferred; and to allay the cough in the night, let the following pill be given a little before bed-time. ℞ Pil. styrac. gr. vi. pil. Rusi gr. x. m. As a perspirative, many of the antimonial preparations are peculiarly useful.

When the *cough* abates, stomachic bitters, with saffron, should not be neglected.

These general methods, with a due attention to the non-naturals, will, with such peculiarities as circumstances suggest to the practitioner, prove generally efficacious to relieve, and always prove palliative in this violent disorder.

Sweet and oily medicines should rarely be admitted of, though so frequently recommended. The elix paragoric. is an excellent anodyne, and assists perspiration if taken at bed-time. When a blister cannot easily be complied with, a plaster of Burgundy pitch may be substituted for it, a fresh one being used as soon as the old one begins to separate from the skin.

When a bad digestion is the cause, or acrid matter in the stomach, a vomit may be directed, and after it a mixture of tinct. rhab. sacra, of each equal parts, may be taken so as to keep the bowels lax, until the disorder is removed.

Spasmodic *coughs* are removed by opiates, and nervous medicines, with the bark. See Celsus, Hoffman, Sydenham, Buchan's Domestic Medicine, Brooks's and the London Practice of Physic.

TUSSIS CATARRHALIS, i. e. A Catarrh from cold.

TUSSIS FERINA, i. e. Pertussis.

TUSSIS CONVULSIVA, i. e Pertussis.

TUSSIS FERINA. The hooping-cough.

TUTENAG. A name for zinc, also for a white metal which is compounded in China, and is called also Chinese copper. See Zinc.

TUTIA. Tutty. It is an argillaceous ore of zinc, found in Persia, formed in cylindrical moulds into tubulous pieces, like the bark of a tree, and baked to a moderate hardness. It is generally of a brownish colour, full of small protuberances on the outside, smooth and yellowish within, but sometime whitish, and at others of a bluish cast.

When *tutty* is finely levigated, it is drying and cicatrising; it is used in collyriums to repel slight inflammations in the eyes. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

TYLLOMA. A corn.

TYMPANI MEMBRANA. The membrane of the drum of the ear, is a thin, transparent, flattish pellicle, the edge of which is round, and strongly fixed in the circular groove, which divides the bony meatus of the external ear from the tympanum, or barrel. This membrane is very tense. The modulations of external air, by impressing the membrane, moves the mallees which is fixed to it, and so it proves a means of sounds being readily conveyed to the common sensory.

TYMPANITES. A tympany. It is also called a flatulent dropsy. Notwithstanding what is asserted by many eminent authors and practitioners, there are others who dispute the existence of the disorder described under this name. Dr. Cullen places this genus of disease in the class cachexiæ and order intumescentiæ. He distinguishes two species. 1. *Tympanites* intestinalis. 2. *Tympanites* abdominalis. Its immediate cause is said to be flatulencies, which are pent up in the colon, or in the rectum, according to some, and in the smaller intestines according to the description of others. Some say that the matter is partly water and partly wind.

However opinions may vary in other respects, it is generally agreed that the belly is distended principally with flatus; and as in such circumstances the chief intention is to discharge the flatulencies by the anus, antispasmodics, anodynes, and laxatives, will be indicated to relieve, and aromatic corroborants to prevent a relapse. The first intention will be probably answered by means of the sp. nitri dulc. cum tinct. Theb. and such doses of the pil. Rusi as may be required without purging too freely; the second intention will be effected by a proper use of the rad. zedoar. cort. aurant. summit. centaur. minor, &c. See Celsus, Juncker. Hoffmann, Heister, Mead, &c.

TYMPANUM. The drum, or the barrel of the ear. It is the hollow part in the bone, in which the bones of hearing are lodged, and is betwixt the pars petrosa, and the pars squamosa of the temple bones; it is of an irregular oblong figure. The cavities in the *tympanum* are, the opening of the mastoid cells, the opening of the Eustachian tube, the bony half canal, the fenestra ovalis, and the fenestra rotunda.

TYPHA AROMATICA, i. e. Acorus Verus.

TYPHA PALUSTRIS MAJOR. Typhus. See Nervous Fever. Great cat's-tail, or reed mace. It grows in marshy grounds, and the brinks of rivulets. Boerhaave takes notice of three species, but they are not used in medicine.

TYPHODES, τυφώδης. A particular kind of fever attended with colliquative sweats, and hath at the same the tongue dry and hard.

TYPHOMANIA,

TYPHOMANIA, from τύφος and μανία. In Galen's Exegeſis, it is ſaid to be "A diſorder complicated of a phrenſy and a lethargy," in which the patient is delirious, and labours under a ſleepy coma. This affection thus complicated of a phrenſy and lethargy, may be called a lethargic madneſs or delirium, or a mad and delirious lethargy, according to the author of the Definitiones Medicæ.

TYPHONIA. The ſame as Typhomania.

TYPHOS, τύφος. Hippocrates ſays there are five ſpecies of this diſorder.

Firſt. A legitimate continual fever, which reduces the ſtrength; is attended with pains in the belly; heat in the eyes, which hinders the patient from looking ſteadily on any object; the pain prevents him from anſwering any queſtions, though he begins to ſpeak and fix his eyes on any object when he is at the point of death.

Second. A tertian or a quartan fever, ſucceeded with pain in the head; ſaliva and worms are copiouſly diſcharged by the mouth; the eyes ſuffer great pain; the countenance is pale, ſo are the feet, and the whole body is ſometimes ſeized with ſoft ſwellings; the breaſt and back are now and then painful, the belly rumbles, the eyes are fierce, the ſaliva adheres to the throat and renders the voice hoarſe.

Third. There are intenſe pains in the joints, and ſometimes all over the body: the blood is hot and ſtagnates in the limbs; ſome bile retained in the joints, becomes endurated there, and produces lameneſs.

Fourth. There is violent tenſion, elevation, and heat of the belly, ſucceeded by a diarrhoea, which ſometimes terminates in a dropſy, and is ſometimes attended with fever.

Fifth. There is paleneſs and a ſort of tranſparency of the whole body, as if it was a bladder full of water, though without any inflation; on the contrary, the body is weak and extenuated. The patient winks his eyes, and feels the bed cloaths as if he wanted to catch ſomething on them, &c.

TYPHUS CARCERUM. Jail-fever. It is one of ſeverer kinds of *typhus*.

TYPHUS CASTRENSIS. The camp-fever. It is one of the ſeverer kinds of *typhus*.

TYPHUS ICTERODES. See BILIOSUS ARDENS FEBRIS.

TYPHUS. The nervous fever.

TYROSIS. A diſorder of the ſtomach proceeding from milk coagulated therein.

U.

ULCEROSA, e. i. Gutta Roſacea.

ULCUS. An ulcer. It is a ſolution of continuity in a ſoft part made by eroſion. Wounds degenerate into ulcers, when by a fault in the humours there is a further loſs of ſubſtance. A loſs of ſubſtance in the bones from eroſion, is called a caries. Though when an abſceſs is opened for the diſcharge of its contents, it is uſually ſpoken of as an ulcer Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales and order dialyſes. He defines it to be a purulent or ichorus ſolution of a ſoft part.

Ulcers receive different names from their cauſes, figure, the parts they affect, &c.

External *ulcers* are diſcerned by the eye, but when they are internal they are diſcovered by what is diſcharged in one or other of the excretions.

Their danger will be judged of by the quality of the *ulcer*, the part affected, and the ſtrength of the patient.

The ſymptoms which attend and retard the healing of *ulcers* are inflammation, pain, a fluxion of morbid humours, ſpungy fleſh, &c.

Mr. Sharpe obſerves, that except the callous and the ſinuous *ulcer*, and the *ulcer* with a caries in the bone, the cure of all the other kinds depend chiefly on that of the morbid habit of the body in general. If the body is free from every degree of cacochymy, the healing of an *ulcer* is the work of nature, and all that topical applications have to effect, is the maintenance of the fibres in ſuch a moderate ſtate betwixt laxity and rigidity, as will render them moſt able to carry on this natural operation. While an inflammatory hardneſs exiſts, an emollient poultice laid over the dreſſings will relieve, after which dry lint generally ſuffices, or at the moſt it may be moiſtened in ſome mild aſtringent, to give a tone to the new fleſh. When a too great laxity, or a ſpongineſs is obſerved in *ulcers*, gently ſtimulating and bracing applications take place.

The three kinds of *ulcers* which Mr. Sharpe mentions as more particularly depending on external management, are ſo frequently joined with, or ariſe from a morbid habit of body, that regard is firſt to be had thereto, and when this kind of obſtacle to healing is removed, apply emollients to the callus on the edge of the *ulcer*; or in many inſtances ſucceſs will follow the uſe of a mixture of baſilicon, with a little finely powdered precipitate. As to the ſinuous *ulcer*, ſee FISTULA; and for the carious, ſee CARIES. See Heiſter's Surgery, Sharpe's Operations, in the Introduction.

Mr. Bell, in his Treatiſe on *Ulcers*, divides them into two claſſes, viz. 1. Such as are merely local, and that do not depend upon any diſorder of the ſyſtem. 2. Such as are the conſequence of, or that are connected with any diſorder of the conſtitution.

The ſpecies belonging to the firſt claſs, are, 1. The ſimple purulent *ulcer*. 2. The ſimple vitiated *ulcer*. 3. The fungous *ulcer*. 4. The ſinuous *ulcer*. 5. The callous *ulcer*. 6. The carious *ulcer*. 7. The cancerous *ulcer*. 8. The cutaneous *ulcer*.

The ſpecies belonging to the ſecond claſs are, 1. The venereal *ulcer*. 2. The ſcorbutic *ulcer*. 3. The ſcrophulous *ulcer*.

The ſimple purulent *ulcer*, is a local affection; it hath the ſymptoms common to all ſuch diſorders, as pain and inflammation, in a very inconſiderable degree, whilſt the diſcharge afforded, is always of a mild purulent nature, and of a proper conſiſtence; the granulations which ariſe in it are of a firm, freſh red, healthy appearance. This *ulcer* is the moſt ſimple that can occur, both in its ſymptoms and method of cure; and it is to its ſtate, that all others muſt be reduced before a permanent cure can be expected. In the cure of this ſpecies of *ulcer*, as there is very little inflammation, and no preternatural ſwelling ſuppoſed to take place, but merely a vacuity, either from a real loſs of ſubſtance, or from a retraction of parts ſimply divided, the diſcharge at the ſame time being of a mild purulent nature, the only indications that appear neceſſary are, 1ſt. To diminiſh, as much as poſſible, any vacancy the *ulcer* may have occaſioned; to accompliſh which, the formation

of new granulations, and the decay of ſuch parts as be immediately contiguous to the *ulcer* are requiſite. To effect the formation of new granules, inflammation and acrimony muſt be removed, and pledgets of lint ſpread thinly with the ungt. cereum Ph. Edinb. may be applied every twelve or twenty-four hours, to the ſurface of the ſore. If inflammation attends the *ulcer*, moderate it by the application of warm emollient cataplaſms; but as ſoon as this inflammation ſubſides, omit the cataplaſms, leſt an exceſs of laxity be produced. Thus, by mild dreſſings irritation is prevented, and by preſerving a proper degree of heat in the part, a good matter will be produced and firm granulations. To diminiſh or deſtroy the parts about the *ulcer*, ſuch as fungous fleſh; as ſoon as the inflammatory ſtate is over, and good matter is induced, ſlight compreſſion, by means of a roller, may be immediately applied, and ſhould be continued during all the remainder of the cure. The roller ſhould be applied ſo, as not only to act as a gentle preſſure upon the parts immediately ſurrounding the *ulcer*, but likewiſe to ſerve as a ſupport to the ſkin, and other teguments, ſo as to prevent their retraction, which otherwiſe in large *ulcers* eſpecially is very ready to happen. 2dly: To induce the formation of a cicatrix. This is frequently effected by nature alone; but, in many caſes, when every deficiency appears to be even thoroughly ſupplied, yet ſtill a cure is tedious in accompliſhing; the ſurface of the ſores remaining raw, and, at the ſame time, diſcharging conſiderable quantities of matter. In ſuch caſes, the ointment uſed for the preceding part of the cure muſt be laid aſide, and dreſſings of a more drying nature ſubſtituted in its ſtead. In this view the ungt. alb. ex ceruſſ. a. &c. is preferable to the cerot. epulot. Sometimes the cicatrization will be ſoon perfected, by dabbing the part or parts, twice a day, with aq. calc. ſi. and ſtill dreſſing with the ungt. e ceruſſ. If the cicatrization is prevented by ſpongy granulations or even firm ones ariſing above the ſkin, they may be checked by dry lint applied to them, or perhaps a gentle compreſs may alſo be required; ſometimes a ſlight application of the vitriol. r. may be neceſſary to check the luxuriancy. It is very rare that a cauſtic is required.

The ſimple vitiated *ulcer* differs from the ſimple purulent *ulcer*, chiefly, in the appearance and nature of the diſcharge afforded. The moſt common appearances of ſuch deviations in the matter afforded by *ulcers*, from the more natural ſtate of purulent matter are ſanies, ichor, or ſordes. In every *ulcer* diſcharging any of theſe matters, in conſequence of the acrimony that ſubſiſts in them, the parts, inſtead of filling up with firm granulations, waſte away, more and more, and inſtead of a reddiſh complexion, have either a dark brown, or a blackiſh, rough ſloughy appearance. The pain in all of them is more or leſs conſiderable, according as the matter is more or leſs corroſive. As the ſimple purulent *ulcer*, happens moſt frequently in the fleſhy parts, where the cellular membrane affords a fluid moſt plentifully that is proper for the formation of pus; ſo the ſimple vitiated *ulcer* is moſt frequently ſeated near the tendons or aponeurotic expanſions of the muſcles, from theſe parts not naturally affording that ſpecies of ſerum neceſſary for the formation of ſalutary pus. Accidental inflammation about the *ulcer*, or a general ill habit of body, may alſo be occaſional cauſes of this ſpecies of *ulcer*, even in parts beſt diſpoſed to produce the matter formed in the mildeſt kind of ſores. In order to moderate the ſymptoms peculiar to this kind of *ulcer*, and reduce it to the ſtate of the ſimple purulent one, the principal endeavours will be, to eaſe pain and to abate irritation; to which end, warm emollient fomentations and cataplaſms are effectual; they ſhould be continued until all appearances of inflammatory tendency is removed. The part may be fomented three or four times a day, for half an hour each time, with an emollient decoction, and then a pledgit ſpread with the ungt. cerum Ph. Ed. may be applied, as the pain is more or leſs: ſo a more or leſs free uſe of opiates inwardly, will be neceſſary to remove irritation. The habit of body demands attention alſo; if too much exalted it muſt be lowered, if too low it muſt be ſupported and raiſed; and generally it is in this latter inſtance that theſe *ulcers* are met with. Here a free but prudent uſe of the cort. Peruv. is ſingularly beneficial; ſometimes ʒj. is required ſix or eight times a day: in plethoric habits and in inflammatory conſtitutions, great caution is required in the uſe of this medicine. If any general diſeaſe attends, its removal muſt be duly attended to, in order to the cure of this as well as every other *ulcer*. This *ulcer* now reduced to the ſtate of a ſimple purulent *ulcer*, proceed as in that caſe directed. Sometimes more difficulty attends the cicatrization of theſe *ulcers*, when they have been of long ſtanding; but, beſides the method propoſed for cicatrizing the ſimple purulent *ulcer*, an iſſue inſerted in a proper ſituation, will generally finiſh the cure. Some have extolled the efficacy of nitre, in this ſpecies of *ulcer*.

The fungous *ulcer*, by ſome called the ſpongy *ulcer*. Fungous excreſcences frequently occur in different ſpecies of *ulcers*. By the term fungous, is underſtood ſuch preternatural riſings of the parts in ſores, as are more ſoft and ſpongy than ſound healthy granulations are; and though ſoft at firſt, by continuance they acquire an extraordinary hardneſs. Theſe excreſcences are ſometimes very painful alſo. In young and healthy habits the new granulations which ariſe in *ulcers*, often advance too quick, and preſently are above the ſurface of the neighbouring parts; and in other inſtances, for want of care, wounds and *ulcers* are permitted to fill up without being ſound at their bottoms; whence, as cauſes, this ſort of *ulcer* generally occurs. In order to a cure, the two juſt named cauſes are to be regarded. If the fungous aroſe from luxuriance of health merely, its ſurface may be ſlightly touched with the cauſt. lunar. once in two or three days, and immediately after, a pledgit of dry lint may be applied. If the baſis of the fungous is narrow, it may be beſt removed by a ligature. The fungus removed, proceed as in caſes of the ſimple purulent *ulcer*. When the fungus is of that kind which happens when the bottom of the *ulcer* is not ſound, it riſes quickly, and is not ſo firm as the firſt mentioned ſort; in this caſe, firſt give a free vent to any impacted matter, and then attend to the progreſs of healing from the bottom. This fungous is ſoft, and waſtes away in the progreſs of the cure, without requiring eſcharotics.

The Sinuous *Ulcer*. See FISTULA.

The Callous *Ulcer*; called alſo the varicous *ulcer*, from a miſtaken opinion that they proceeded from and were nouriſhed by matter from the ſwelled veins, which ſeem to open into them. An *ulcer* is ſaid to be callous, when its edges inſtead of contracting, and ſo diminiſhing the ſize of the ſore, keep at a ſtand, turn ragged, and at laſt, by acquiring a preternatural thickneſs, often riſe conſiderably above the level of the neighbouring parts: and as it is generally from neglect or improper treatment that *ulcers* do turn callous, the diſcharge afforded by them is commonly a thin vitiated matter. It is in this ſpecies of *ulcer* chiefly that varicoſe veins occur as a ſymptom, eſpecially when the complaint is ſettled in the lower extremities. This ſeems to be owing chiefly to the ſtricture occaſioned by the calloſities on the courſe of the different veins, a circumſtance, which in extenſive ſores of this kind, muſt, no doubt, have a conſiderable influence. Eſcharotics have generally been uſed to deſtroy callofity on the edges of *ulcers*, but as they tend to increaſe the diſeaſe by the continual inflammation they excite, they are now much laid aſide, and in their ſtead, emolliens with the aſſiſtance of warmth are ſubſtituted. By the uſe of a warm emollient poultice, and a reclined poſture, *ulcers* have been healed; though on adopting this method, their ſtate was very unpromiſing. Yet ſometimes the calloſities are ſo hard, as to require their deſtruction either by the knife, or the cauſtic; and if the laſt is preferred, the lunar is the beſt; with this the hardened parts may be touched, every two or three days, and when they are duly waſted, the *ulcer* will probably be reduced to the ſtate of the ſimple purulent one, and like that may then be treated. To ſtrengthen and reſtore the veins, that were rendered varicous about the calloſities, a tight ſtocking, or a ſpiral bandage will be uſeful, but not before their having been continued for a long time. Callofity frequently attends venereal and cancerous *ulcers*: in theſe caſes the ſtate of the conſtitution in general muſt be adverted to.

The Cancerous *Ulcer*. See CANCER.

The Carious *Ulcer*. By this term is intended that ſpecies of the diſorder, which is connected with a local affection of a bone. If ſuch an accident happens, as bruiſes,

bruiſes, tears, and injuries of the perioſteum, it ſometimes terminates in a caries; in ſuch a caſe, by the end of three, four, or five days, the bone begins to loſe the natural healthy appearance, turns firſt of a pale white, then gets a ſlight tinge of a yellow complexion; and whenever this begins to appear, there cannot be a doubt of what will be the conſequence. Sometimes it will continue in this ſtate for many days, and by degrees acquires a more deep tallow-like appearance, in which way it commonly remains for a longer or a ſhorter time, according to the violence of the inflicting cauſe, and afterwards goes through the ſtages of brown, light, dark, &c. until it hath acquired a darkneſs of the deepeſt dye. The diſcharge from ſuch *ulcers*, is never of the conſiſtence of good pus; it is generally thinner, and from the firſt appearance of caries, acquires a moſt diſagreeable fœtor, which always increaſes, as the different ſtages of the diſorder advances, at laſt it appears blackiſh, as well as the bone underneath, and the diſcharge at this time is exceedingly acrid. As the ſeveral degrees of blackneſs go on, ſmall holes are formed in the diſeaſed parts, and by degrees increaſe conſiderably, until even the moſt ſolid bones acquire a kind of ſpongy appearance. In this ſituation, the mortified portion of the bone generally becomes looſe, and when preſſed upon, a quantity of greaſy like matter, with a moſt diſagreeable fœtor, is generally forced out; this matter ſo taints the whole diſcharge from the *ulcer*, and gives it ſuch a peculiar ſmell as to render it ſcarce poſſible, after once ſeeing an inſtance, ever to miſtake it again. This laſt circumſtance alone, is a certain characteriſtic of a carious *ulcer*. Further, in *ulcers* attended with a carious bone, the fleſhy parts never have a healthy appearance, are ſoft and more flabby than in their natural ſtate, and inſtead of a florid red, have rather a dark brown, together with ſomewhat of a glazed complexion. The granulations puſh forward too quickly and too far, if they are not prevented by art, which is always neceſſary to be done, until the diſeaſed part of the bone is either caſt off by nature's proceſs, or cut out by the ſurgeon, ſo as that the cure may take place with certainty, from the bottom of the ſore. And when neglected for any conſiderable time, theſe ſoft productions in carious *ulcers* frequently increaſe ſo remarkably as to form very large and troubleſome exſcrecencies. Theſe appearances happen whether a portion of the bone, or its whole ſubſtance is carious. When the whole bone is affected, the progreſs and its various ſymptoms are more rapid, and the whole bone muſt be removed; whereas, when a part of the bone only is affected, perhaps a ſingle lamina to the extent of the diſeaſed part, is all that will be ſeparated and removed. So long as the caries remains, it effectually prevents the *ulcer* about it from healing; if by chance it appears to be healed, it ſoon breaks out again. When a probe can be introduced at any opening, and admiſſion can be got thereby to the bone, if a roughneſs of its ſurface is diſcovered, the caſe becomes then altogether evident. Though the bone cannot be reached by the probe, for want of an opening, the appearances of the *ulcer*, and the kind of diſcharge will rarely fail to determine what kind the *ulcer* is of; for, if the bone is carious, the *ulcer* is flabby, and inſtead of a regular ſurface, the new granulations, ſprout up in different cluſters of the ſize of ſmall nuts, and inſtead of a healthy ſtrong appearance, have uſually a dark-brown complexion; the diſcharge is thin, dark-coloured, and greaſy, there is alſo more or leſs of the peculiar fœtor above named. Before this *ulcer* can be cured, the carious part of the bone muſt be ſeparated from the ſound and taken out; in order to which, ſee CARIES. After the removal of the carious bone, the remaining ſore muſt be treated in the ſame manner as directed for that ſpecies of *ulcer*, to which, at the time, it appears to belong.

The Cutaneous *Ulcer*. See HERPES and TINEA.

The Venereal *Ulcer*. See LUES VENEREA.

The Scorbutic *Ulcer*. See SCORBUTUS.

The Scrophulous *Ulcer*. See SCROFULA.

However ſimilar the general practice may be, there are ſome peculiarities proper to *ulcers* on particular parts, ſome inſtances of which are as follow.

An *Ulcer* in the Bladder. It ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from an *ulcer* in the kidnies, which ſee. *Ulcers* are not ſo frequent in any of the urinary paſſages as they ſeem to be thought; they are often ſuſpected from a ſlimy diſcharge, which is of a yellowiſh colour, and proceeds from weakneſs. When an *ulcer* is formed in the bladder, there is a diſcharge of fetid matter, or blood, and ſometimes a ſort of ſcales, or a membranous pellicle, are ſeen in the urine. There is alſo a continual dyſuria, and a pain in the urinary paſſages. The means of relief are ſimilar to thoſe for an *ulcer* in the kidnies.

An *Ulcer* with a Caries. When a caries in the bone attends an *ulcer*, the fleſh over the caries is ſoft, flaccid, fungous, inflated, and tumid; the lips of the *ulcer* are inverted, the ſanies clear, ſubtile, hardly at all glutinous, fetid, and full of ſmall black ſcales; and if the *ulcer* heals, it is only ſuperficially, and it ſoon breaks out again, never healing firmly before the cure of the faulty bone, and that accompliſhed, the *ulcer* becomes a ſimple one, and ſoon filling up with common fleſh, is healed. See CARIES.

An *Ulcer* in the Kidnies. Dr. Hunter obſerves, that though the kidnies are often found waſted, they are hardly ever ſeen ulcerated. Cheſelden obſerves, that it is very rarely that an ulcerated bladder is met with in the bodies that are obtained for diſſection. Oribaſius obſerves, that an *ulcer* in the kidnies may be diſtinguiſhed by the following circumſtances, from the ſame diſorder in the bladder: 1ſt, When the bladder is affected, the pain is felt in the pubes, and the bottom of the belly; but when the kidnies ſuffer, the pain is in the back-part of the loins. 2dly, When the bladder is the ſeat of the diſeaſe, there is a diſficulty, if not a ſuppreſſion of urine; but when the kidnies are in fault, the urine paſſes freely. 3dly, From the bladder there is voided membraneous ſcales, but from the kidnies fibrous pieces of fleſh are voided. 4thly, A violent pain is felt in the bladder when it is ulcerated; but when the *ulcer* is in the kidnies, the pain is of a dull kind.

The urine looks like milk when it is firſt made from an ulcerated kidney, but is not fetid; but on ſtanding a while the white matter falls: when the pain is conſiderable in the kidnies, it occaſions a nauſea, and ſometimes a vomiting. When an *ulcer* is ſuſpected in the kidnies, the patient ſhould abſtain from acrid, ſour, and ſalt diet; he ſhould live on mild mucilaginous aliments; ſuch as the broths of young animals, whey, milk, ſweet butter-milk, &c. Violent exerciſe muſt be avoided, chalybeate waters ſhould be drank a long time, and ſolutions of the mildeſt balſams may be taken now and then.

Ulcers in the Legs. In theſe caſes a confinement in bed is uſually demanded as neceſſary in order to the cure. In ſome inſtances amongſt labouring people ſome advantage is obtained from reſt: but, in general, theſe *ulcers* are moſt firmly healed when moderate exerciſe is continued during the cure. Some are afraid of healing *ulcers* in this part, leſt an aſthma, or other complaint, ſhould follow; but if the general health is not defective, or if it can be reſtored, there will rarely, if ever, any ill conſequences follow from the healing of them. On this ſubject, Mr. Bell obſerves, in his Treatiſe on *Ulcers*, that it has been almoſt univerſally recommended never to attempt the cure of ſuch as have been of long ſtanding, as, from the very acrid matters which they are frequently known to diſcharge, it has been commonly imagined that drying up ſuch ſores might prove dangerous to the conſtitution. But he is of opinion, that no ſuch acrid matters, as are frequently obſerved to be diſcharged from *ulcers*, ever ſubſiſted in the blood. The acrimony which, in ſuch caſes, occurs, is produced, he thinks, in a great meaſure, by ſome particular affection of the organs, which ſeparate thoſe fluids from the blood, from which the matter, by its remora in the cavities of *ulcers*, is afterwards formed. He further obſerves that, *ulcers* are hurtful or beneficial to the conſtitution, not by the quality of matter diſcharged, but by the quantity; hence he ſays, the cure of every ſore, of what ever continuance, may be rendered perfectly ſafe by the previous introduction of an iſſue, which diſcharges a quantity of fluids, equal to the diſcharge occaſioned by the ſore to be healed up. He aſſerts from extenſive experience, that no inconveniencies ever reſult from the practice; and hence concludes that the cure of every *ulcer* may be attempted. The general intentions in the cure of *ulcers* being attended to, and a tight ſtocking worn over the dreſſings, ſuch other means may be directed as the experience of the practitioner, and the circumſtances of the caſe may ſuggeſt. Mr. Underwood obſerves that, in the cure of an

ulcer

ulcer, the firſt object is, to bring it to diſcharge a laudable pus, and this, he aſſerts the moſt inveterate *ulcers* on the legs may be brought to afford, as freely as ſores ſeated any where elſe. He recommends the mere. cor. R. finely levigated, as one of the beſt applications for this purpoſe. He adds that, this powder muſt not be lightly ſprinkled on the ſore, when its ſurface is ill conditioned, but the *ulcer* muſt be filled with it. This writer ſpeaks of a ſpecies of *ulcer* which is uſually ſmall, and particularly affects the parts about, and ſometimes below the ancle; it is exquiſitely painful. In this caſe, as in others, he aſſerts that reſt is not neceſſary to the cure; but inſtead of confinement, he carries the roller ſeveral times over the ancle and foot, ſo as to leave no part but the point of the heel uncovered, and thus a tolerable compreſſion is made below the *ulcer*. He further adds, that caſes of this ſort, are often attended with conſiderable puffings, and a tetterous appearance of the ſurrounding ſkin, accompanied with a thin acrid diſcharge, which renders the parts additionally tender; whilſt the little ulcer is almoſt perfectly dry, and cannot eaſily be brought to ſuppuration, until the complaint of the ſkin is removed; which is moſt ſpeedily effected by drying applications ſuch as bol. armen. alumen pulv. ungt. rub. defic. and in more obſtinate caſes, a ſolution of the ſac. ſaturn. and vitriol. alb. with one or two ounces of the ſp. vini. c. in a pint of water. If the ſore does not ſoon change its complexion, on the diſappearance of the affection of the ſkin, he adviſeth to fill the *ulcer* with precipitate, diſſolved lunar cauſtic, or any ſimilar eſcharotic, and when the ſlough is come out, to repeat it. Here he ſays that theſe cauſtics are only to be uſed after active degeſtives aided by proper bandages and exerciſe, prove ineffectual. Laſtly, he recommends in the healing of *ulcers* in the legs, particularly thoſe of long ſtanding, that the ſurgeon proceeds ſlowly and cautiouſly, avoiding the too early uſe of drying applications, and gradually weakening the digeſtive. It may be laid down as a general maxim, that the ſore ſhould rather be ſuffered, than invited to ſkin over. When the ulcer is healed, temperance, a continuance of the bandage for ſome time, and occaſional purgatives will be neceſſary. On this particular ſpecies of ulcer, ſee the Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. iv. p. 347, &c. and Rowley's Eſſay on the Cure of ulcerated Legs. Underwood's Treatiſe upon Ulcers of the Legs.

Ulcers in the Tonſils. This diſorder is far leſs frequent than is ſuppoſed. Dr. Hunter obſerves, that the tonſils open over all their ſurface, by ſmall orifices which emit a ſlimy mucus; and that when they are inflamed, the mucus being purulent and white, and the ſurface irregular, there is the appearance of ulceration, when in reality there is none. Not to be deceived in this caſe, deſire the patient to waſh his mouth and throat well with ſome proper fluid, before you determine whether or no ulcers are here. When ulcers are formed, they may be touched with mixtures of honey, alum, borax, ſpirit of ſalt, &c. according as their cauſe, or attending circumſtances may require.

Ulcers in the Womb. Whilſt a viſcid, yellow, or bloody humour is evacuated, the ulcer is in a mild ſtate; but when it becomes ſanious, fetid, and is attended with pain, a cancer is for the moſt part attendant, and then palliatives only can be propoſed. In the milder kind keep the belly lax, with manna, tamarinds, and ſuch like cooling purgatives, and inject an infuſion of elder flowers in milk and water. When the caſe is cancerous, demulcent and lenitive medicines, with anodynes to moderate the pain, are all that can be propoſed. See CANCER *in the Womb*.

ON *Ulcers*, beſides the different ſyſtems of ſurgery, as Heiſter's, Turner's, Wiſeman's, Bell's, Kirkland's, Pott's, &c. ſee Bell's Treatiſe on *Ulcers*.

ULMARIA, alſo called regina prati. Queen of the meadow, and meadow ſweet. Spiræa *ulmaria*, Linn. It is a plant with tall, ſmooth, reddiſh, brittle ſtalks; on the tops are cluſters of white flowers, which are followed by crooked ſeeds ſet in a roundiſh head. It is perennial, common in moiſt meadows, and flowers in June. The leaves have an agreeable ſmell, the whole plant is alexipharmic, but not uſed in the preſent practice. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

ULMUS. The elm-tree. The *ulmus* campeſtris, i. e. *ulmus* foliis duplicato ſerratis: baſi inæqualibus. Linn. It is a tall tree covered with a rough, chapt, browniſh, brittle bark, under which lies a white, ſmooth, tough, coriaceous one. In the ſpring, before the leaves appear, it produces imperfect flowers, which are followed by flat roundiſh capſules, containing each a ſingle ſeed. The inner tough bark hath no ſmell, but on being chewed, it diſcovers a copious ſlimy mucilage; the outer brittle bark is leſs ſlimy.

Dr. Lyſſons of Bath relates his ſucceſs, by the uſe of a decoction of the inner bark of elm, in ſeveral caſes, in which obſtinate eruptions appeared on the ſkin, ſome of which approached very near to, if they were not of a leprous kind. He made the decoction as follow: ℞ Cort. interioris *ulmi* recent. ʒ iv. coq. in aq. font. ℔ iv. ad ℔ ii. He obſerves that if this bark is rich of the juice, and is boiled too long, the decoction will be mucilaginous and not quite agreeable, but that otherwiſe it hath an agreeable, mild, aſtringent taſte. As the decoction was uſed during the ſpring and autumn ſeaſons only, the bark was taken from the trees as it was required; in the ſpring it was ſtripped from the ſmall, but not the ſmalleſt branches; and in autumn from the branching roots, as being at thoſe ſeaſons the fulleſt of ſap. Half a pint of this decoction is to be taken every evening and morning, and continued as long as the continuance of the eruptions may require it. On the firſt uſe of this medicine this diſorder ſeems to be ſomewhat aggravated. See the Lond. Med. Tranſ. vol. ii. p. 203.

ULNA. Ulna, the great bones of the arm contracted; from ὠλένη, *the cubit*. It is one of the bones of the fore-arm, it is alſo called cubitus. At its upper extremity it hath two proceſſes, the poſterior called olecranium is the larger. Its concave ſurface moves upon the trochlea of the os humeri, into its upper-part, all the extenſors of the cubit are inſerted. The anterior proceſs is not ſo large, nor does it reach ſo high, but is ſharper at its extremity, and therefore named coronoid. Between theſe two proceſſes, a large ſigmoid cavity is left, adapted to the trochlea of the os humeri; on the other part is a cavity, where the extremity of the radius moves. The lower extremity of the ulna terminates in a very ſmall head, which internally is received into the ſemilunar cavity of the radius, whilſt from its external ſide a proceſs jets out called the ſtyliform, from which a ſtrong ligament is extended to the os piſiforme and unciforme of the carpus.

ULNARIS ARTERIA, i. e. Cubitalis Arteria.

ULNARIS EXTERNUS, i. e. Externus Carpi Radialis.

ULNARIS GRACILIS, i. e. Palmaris Longus.

ULNARIS INTERNUS. It is a long muſcle, ſituated on the outer part of the ulna; it is fixed by its upper part in the back ſide of the long or internal condyle of the os humeri, in that part of the olecranum which is next the condyle, along the upper half of the ulna very nearly, and to the middle common tendon of the profundus; it ends by a long tendon on the os piſiforme of the carpus, reaching alſo to the os unciforme.

ULNARIS. The nerve ſo called. See CERVICALES.

ULON. Plur. Ula. The gums. Pollux ſays, the fleſh on the outſide of the teeth is called ula, and on the inſide enula. Ula ſometimes ſignifies a tumour on the gums.

ULTRAMARINUM. Ultramarine. See LAZULI LAPIS.

ULVA. A barren kind of moſs is thus named.

UMBILICALES VASÆ. Umbilical veſſels. There are four ligamentary ropes called by this name; the uppermoſt runs from the navel to the fiſſure, between the two lobes of the liver, and is the remains of a vein, which, in the fœtus ſtate, anaſtomoſed with the vena cava hepatica, covered with the falciform proceſs. The urachus is another of the ligamentary ropes. The other two ligamentary ropes are the extremities of the umbilical arteries, which at the top of the bladder approach each other, and join the urachus.

UMBILICALIS, as comprehending the navel. It is the middle external region of the belly in its fore part; it reaches from an imaginary line drawn betwixt the loweſt falſe ribs, to another imaginary line drawn betwixt the two criſtæ of the os ilium. This region is divided into three parts, viz. the middle, which is properly the umbilicalis, and the two lateral, called flanks.

UMBILICALIS ARTERIA. It is a continuation of the

the HYPOGASTRIC ARTERY, which ſee. It aſcends on the ſide of the bladder, and from thence it aſcends to the navel. It is ſhriveled in the adult ſtate, being only of uſe to the fœtus.

UMBILICUS. The navel, quaſi umbo ilium. The middle of the loins.

UMBILICUS VENERIS. i. e. Cotyledon Major. It is alſo the name of a ſpecies of ſaxifrage.

UNCIFORME OS. The fourth bone of the ſecond row in the wriſt. It hath an apophyſis ſhaped like a claw, whence its name.

UNGUENTARIA. The nut-meg.

UNGUENTUM. An ointment. It differs from a plaſter only in its conſiſtence; if as much oil is added to a plaſter as reduces it to the conſiſtence of ſtiff honey, it forms an ointment. It is uſual to boil the freſh leaves of plants in lard, and other greaſy and unctuous matters, but they retain very little of the virtue of the plants, nor indeed do freſh herbs give out much of their virtue to greaſy and unctuous ſubſtances.

UNGUES. The nails. They are continuations of the epidermis. Their ſubſtance is like that of horn; they are compoſed of ſeveral planes of longitudinal fibres ſoldered together; theſe ſtrata end at the extremity of each finger, and are all nearly of an equal thickneſs, but of different lengths. The principal uſe of the nails is to ſtrengthen the fingers and toes.

UNGUIS. Alſo called pterygion. It is a collection of matter in the pupil of the eye, in the ſhape of a man's nail, (whence the name.) It is a kind of PHLYCTÆNÆ, which ſee. Some deſcribe this diſorder as a film formed on the external part of the eye, extending over the pupil, and when it hath a red appearance, they call it Pannus; and in order to its removal, the veſſels which run into it being divided near the great angle of the eye, it ſhrivels and may then be ſeparated.

UNGUIS. So the ancients called that ſort of articulation which we call ſuture.

UNGUIS OSSA. Theſe are two thin bones, very brittle, placed at the inner canthi of the eyes, covering ſome of the ſinus ethmoidalis, and are really part of the os ethmoides; their ſurface is ſmooth and hollow, and is divided by a ridge; the hind cavity forms a portion of the orbit, the fore-part is a perpendicular canal which contains the lachrymal ſac and duct.

UNGUIS ODORATUS. Sweet hoof. See BLATTA BYZANTIA.

UNGUIS. In botany; it is the white and inferior part of the leaves of roſes, and of ſome other flowers.

UNGULA. The diſorder in the eye called unguis.

UNGULA CABALLINA. The herb coltsfoot.

UNIO. A pearl. See MARGARITA.

UPSILOIDES, i. e. Os hyoides.

URACHUS, from οὖρον, *urine*, and ἴχω, *to have* or *contain*. In the fœtus ſtate the urine paſſes from the bladder into the allantois, through the *urachus*; but after the birth it is ſhrivelled and becomes a ligament.

URCEOLA, Urceolaris, Urceoli vitrei. A name for the parietaria, from its uſe in ſcouring glaſſes.

UREDO. A blaſt. Alſo the name of a particular head-ach, an inſtance of which is related in the Philoſ. Tranſ. June 1668. It is the URTICARIA, which ſee.

URETERES. Ureters. From οὖρον urine. See RENES.

URETERITICA. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from inflammation in the urethra.

URETEROLITHICA. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from a ſtone in the urethra.

URETEROMBOIDES. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from grumous blood in the ureter.

URETEROPHLEGMATICA. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from pituitous matter in the ureter.

URETEROPYICA. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from purulent matter in the ureters.

URETEROSTOMATICA. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from obſtruction in the lower orifice of the ureter.

URETHRA. From οὖρον urine. The inner membrane of the *urethra* or paſſage for the urine from the bladder is a continuation of that which lines the bladder; it is very ſmooth and ſenſible; in it are ſeveral lacunæ, which are the ſeat of the clap. In women the *urethra* is wider than in men, and its length is only from an inch to an inch and a half. Sometimes a ſtone is fixed in ſome part of the *urethra*. This produces pain, then inflammation, tumefaction of the parts, and always a partial and frequently a total ſuppreſſion of urine. In ſome inſtances, when the diſorder is long neglected, this ſuppreſſion and conſequent tumefaction, terminate in a rupture of the *urethra*; in conſequence of which the urine eſcapes into the contiguous cellular ſubſtance, and very troubleſome ſwellings are produced, not only in the body of the penis, but frequently in the ſcrotum, and through the whole courſe of the perinæum, when a ſtone has been long fixed at one particular part without yielding in any degree, and when the pain and inflammation produced by it are conſiderable, a chirurgical operation ought to be immediatly employed for removing it; but, in the incipient ſtages of this diſorder, other means of a more gentle nature ſhould be firſt put in practice. In order to ſolicit the paſſage of the ſtone one important endeavour is, to remove ſpaſm; with this view, if the patient is plethoric, bleed; if he is thin and emaciated a proportionable quantity of blood ſhould be taken by means of leeches, directly from the part affected. A quantity of warm oil ſhould be repeatedly injected into the *urethra*, to lubricate the paſſage; the patient ſhould alſo be immerſed into a warm bath; and a full doſe of the tinc. Theb. ſhould be at the ſame time given. A proper quantity of blood having been diſcharged; the patient having remained for a ſufficient length of time in the warm bath; and the opiate having begun to operate, the parts will thus be as completely relaxed as poſſible: and this is the period when ſome attempt ſhould be made for extracting the ſtone. To this end, inſtead of any of the inſtruments recommended for this purpoſe, which often do harm by increaſing irritation, the ſurgeon ſhould at firſt endeavour by very gentle preſſure to puſh the ſtone forward along the courſe of the *urethra*: In this manner large ſtones may be brought off, for the removal of which a very painful operation might otherwiſe be neceſſary. When the ſtone, fills up the *urethra*, or notwithſtanding the uſe of means as above, it will not paſs, it will be neceſſary to proceed to the operation, which is performed by cutting upon the ſtone, and extracting it either with a ſcoop or with a pair of ſmall forceps. When the ſtone is fixed in the *urethra* near the neck of the bladder, lay the patient on a table, ſecure him as for the operation of lithotomy: an aſſiſtant ſuſpending the ſcrotum and penis, the ſurgeon, after oiling the firſt and ſecond fingers of his left hand, ſhould introduce them into the anus, and by means of them ought to preſs firmly upon the parts immediately behind the ſtone; which will not only enable him to lay it bare with more eaſe, but will be the ſureſt method of preventing it from being puſhed into the bladder by the neceſſary preſſure of the knife, this being done, an inciſion ought to be made through the common integuments and *urethra*, ſo as to lay the ſtone completely bare; which may now be either turned out by a due degree of preſſure applied with the fingers in the rectum; or, if this is not found to be ſufficient, it may be taken out either with a ſcoop or with a pair of forceps. The after-treatment is the ſame as after the operation of lithotomy. When the ſtone hath paſſed further into the *urethra*, in order to extract it, the ſkin ſhould be drawn as much as poſſible paſt it, either in a backward or a foreward direction; and the ſtone being now ſecured in its ſituation by preſſure, a longitudinal cut ought to be made directly upon it through the *urethra*, of a ſufficient ſize to allow of its eaſy extraction either with the ſcoop or the forceps. The edges of the wound are now to be completely cleared of fabulous particles and the ſkin allowed to regain its natural ſituation; by which means, if the operation has been properly done, the wound in the *urethra* will be entirely covered by ſkin that has not been injured; a circumſtance which tends to render this operation by far leſs exceptionable than otherwiſe it would be, for thus the wound uſually heals by the firſt intention. If the ſtone fixes near the point of the yard, as it ſometimes does, if it is ſo near as to be obſerved by the eye, it may frequently be taken out with a pair of ſmall diſſecting forceps: and in order to facilitate the extraction, when it cannot be otherwiſe effected, the *urethra* may be ſomewhat dilated from its extremity with the point of a ſcalpel. But if ſucceſs

ſtill fails us, an inciſion muſt be made upon the ſtone as where the *urethra* is covered with ſkin. Soft dreſſings ſhould be applied to the wound; and when the cure is nearly completed, a hollow bougie, a ſhort ſilver tube, or a ſmall catheter of the elaſtic gum, ſhould be introduced into the *urethra*, in order to preſerve it of a proper ſize. The worſt ſituation in which a ſtone can be fixed in the *urethra*, is juſt below the ſcrotum; for if the ſtone either makes its way into the ſcrotum, or if it is neceſſary to make an opening into it with a ſcalpel, ſuch large collections of urine are apt to occur, as commonly occaſion much diſtreſs. To obviate this, ſo ſoon as a ſtone is diſcovered in this ſituation the greateſt attention ought to be given, either to get it carried farther into the *urethra*, or, if this cannot be effected, to puſh it back into the perinæum by means of a ſtaff. If either of theſe are impracticable, and it is neceſſary to extract the ſtone, an inciſion muſt be made into the *urethra*, by beginning the cut at the under part of the ſcrotum immediately to one ſide of the ſeptum, and continuing it upwards till the ſtone is diſtinctly felt, when it is to be laid bare and extracted as above directed. In applying the dreſſings after the operation, conduct them ſo as that the ſore may heal firſt at the bottom; if this is not duly attended to, the parts below will be filled with matter, or perhaps with urine, and thus very troubleſome ſinuſes may be formed. In females the *urethra* is ſhort, and dilates readily, ſo that ſtones rarely are detained in it: but when they do, they generally may be turned out by paſſing the end of a blunt probe behind them, and then pulling forward: or if this does not ſucceed, the end of the *urethra* may be ſlit a little way ſo as to admit the introduction of a pair of forceps by which the ſtone may be extracted. See Bell's Surgery, vol. ii.

URETHRELMINTHICA. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from worms in the urethra.

URETHRITICA. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from inflammation in the urethra.

URETHROHYMENODES. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from a membrane obſtructing the urethra.

URETHROLITHICA. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from a ſtone in the urethra.

URETHROPHLEGMATICA. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from mucus obſtructing the urethra.

URETHROPYICA. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from pus obſtructing the urine.

URETHROMBOIDES. (Iſchuria.) A ſuppreſſion of urine from grumous blood obſtructing the urine.

URINA. The urine. It is a fluid which is ſecreted from the blood by the kidneys, conveyed by the ureters to the bladder, and from thence it is diſcharged from the body through the urethra. It is ſo acrid and diſpoſed to putrify, that if retained long in the bladder it endangers the patient's life. When ſuppreſſed, it has been known to paſs through the pores of the ſkin. The ſudden diſcharge of ſome fluids after ſwallowing them hath cauſed ſome to imagine that there is ſome ſhorter paſſage to the bladder than through the kidneys; but though difficulties attend this circumſtance, ſome of the moſt eminent in their profeſſion are of opinion that all the *urine* is ſecreted by the ſame veſſels.

Many are the ſigns which different authors have pointed out in the *urine*, by which to judge of the different ſtates of the body; but Dr. William Hebberden well obſerves that this excretion affords the practitioner but little uſeful information. As to the pretenſions of ſome who require only the ſight of a patient's *urine* by which to diſcover the nature of the diſeaſe, its ſtate as to ſafety and danger, and alſo the method of cure; it need only to be obſerved that the ſame kind of *urine* is not always diſcharged in the ſame diſorders, and ſuch as is voided in one is alſo voided in ſeveral other very different complaints.

The appearances obſerved in the *urine* at the criſis of acute diſeaſes are generally included in the three following, viz. the nubes or nubecula: it is when a cloud, as it were, is diffuſed through the *urine* after it hath ſtood a while in a glaſs; the enæoremata, or, as the Latins call it, the ſublimationes, ſuſpenſa, or ſublimia, which is, when the cloud ſinks a little, leaving the *urine* above, ſomewhat tranſparent; and laſtly the hypoſtaſis, or as the Latins name it, the ſubſidentia ſubjecta, or ſedimenta, which is when the whole cloud falls and makes a thick ſediment at the bottom.

Urine contains a peculiar ſalt, called microcoſmic ſalt, and which is found no where but in *urines*; marine ſalt; and if diſtilled in a retort, it yields not only the volatile ſalt, and empyreumatic oil, common to animal matters, but alſo a peculiar kind of phoſphorus. *Urine* is uſed in ſundry arts.

See Haller's Phyſiology, lect. 37. Fordyce's Elements, part 1ſt. p. 16—18. Prolper Alpinus's Præfages, Neumann's Chem. Works, Lewis's Mat. Med.

The *urine* is ſometimes too copiouſly diſcharged, ſee DIABETES; it is alſo ſometimes difficultly paſſed or totally ſuppreſſed, ſee ISCHURIA; it is ſometimes mixed with blood, and in ſome inſtances it is involuntarily diſcharged.

Bloody *urine*. Hæmaturia. Hippocrates obſerves that if pure blood is copiouſly and ſuddenly diſcharged without pain, it flows from the vaſcular ſubſtance of the kidneys; but when the quantity of blood is ſmall, of a blackiſh colour, and eſpecially if there is pain, or heat, or both, during or after the diſcharge, it proceeds from the bladder. When ruptures of the veſſels in the bladder happen, the ſymptoms are ſevere, ſuch as intenſe pains, fainting, difficulty of breathing, a low, ſmall, frequent pulſe, naufea, anxieties of mind, and cold ſweats. If a rough ſtone wounds the ureters, the pain is felt in the back, and there is a difficulty in making water. A ſtone in the bladder ſometimes cauſes this diſorder, and in the Edinb. Med. Eſſays, vol. vi. is an inſtance of a worm in the bladder ſometimes producing this diſeaſe. Cœlius Aurelianus ſpeaks of a ſpecies of hæmorrhoids diſcharging blood with the *urine*: and it is ſometimes obſerved both in young and aged men that, on a ceſſation of the hæmorrhoids, blood paſſes with the *urine*. Hoffman obſerves that ſometimes an hæmorrhage happens from the veſſels of the bladder, or rather of its ſphincter, diſtended and opened in the ſame manner as from the hæmorrhoidal veſſels: in this caſe, the flux is periodical, a retention of the blood occaſions a pain about the pubes, the blood drops away ſometimes without urine and is never equally mixed with the *urine*, as that always is which comes from a higher ſource. Some aged women who live luxurioufly after the ceſſation of their menſes, have their *urine* often mixed with blood. In putrid fevers this is a frequent ſymptom, from the diſſolution of the blood. Strong purges, too forcing diuretics, or other cauſes of ſpaſms in the belly, are alſo cauſes of bloody *urine*. Bloody *urine* is always ſymptomatic.

The *urine* ſometimes appears to be bloody when there is no blood diſcharged with it; this is known by ſtraining it through a linen cloth, for if it is bloody, the cloth will be tinged, but otherwiſe not.

Bloody *urine* ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from bloody diſcharges in a gonorrhœa, from that ſpecies of piles which diſcharge themſelves into the urinary paſſages; and critical diſcharges of the blood in the urinary paſſages ſhould be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe that are not ſuch.

When bloody *urine* is mixed with pus, there is an ulcer ſomewhere in the urinary paſſages. All diſcharges of bloody *urine* are to be feared, though thoſe from hæmorrhoids the leaſt ſo; but the moſt dangerous are thoſe from ulcers and from wounds of the kidneys or bladder. Hæmorrhages from the kidneys, and from the ſphincter of the bladder, are often critical and ſalutary, and return at certain intervals. In plethoric men, both young and old, from the omiſſion of cuſtomary veneſection or from hæmorrhoidal obſtructions in women of eighty, who were hale and of high life, who had neglected to ſupply by bleeding, the evacuations which nature had made formerly from the uterus, theſe diſcharges continue for a conſiderable time, in no ſmall quantity, without any ill conſequence: yet, though at firſt they may appear ſalutary, from their ſupplying other evacuations, they are far from being without danger, from gradually waſting the ſtrength, &c.

When the patient is plethoric, or when a ſuppreſſed ſanguine excretion is the cauſe, bleed, and keep the bowels lax. If there is any tendency to, or actual inflammation, frequent draughts of an infuſion of linſeed may be taken, and ſmall portions of nitre may be diſſolved in each draught juſt before it is drank. The uva urſi is eſteemed a ſpecific, but other medicines of the aſtringent kind ſhould not be ventured on. The ſal Glaub. may be repeated in doſes, to procure gentle evacuations, every or

every other day. When a ſtone in the bladder is the cauſe, reſt ſhould be indulged; as much manna may be taken twice a week in a pint of whey as will paſs off readily by ſtool, and, if need be, an anodyne may be taken after the operation. When the diſcharge is from the kidneys or the ureters, an infuſion of the ſeeds of wild carrot is of ſingular benefit. See DAUCUS CRETICUS. If ſuppreſſed hæmorrhages produce this diſorder, bleed and give aloetics. When a putreſcence in the blood and juices are attendant, the bark with the vitriolic elixir will be the neceſſary means of relief. When ulcers are ſuſpected in any of the urinary paſſages, give ſuch medicines and direct ſuch liquors for the common drink as ſheathe acrimony. See Hoffman's Rat. Med. Syſt.

Incontinence of *urine*. This diſorder may be occaſioned by pregnancy, a palſy in the ſphincter of the bladder, a weakneſs in the ſphincter of the bladder from hard labour, or from a violent extraction of a ſtone through the urethra, perforation in the bladder, a ſtone in the bladder, wounds on the head, a laceration, or a relaxation of the ſuſpenſory ligament of the bladder, &c.

The moſt frequent cauſes are, a weakneſs or palſy in the ſphincter of the bladder, in which caſes a bliſter is generally a ſucceſsful remedy; it ſhould be placed on the lumbar vertebræ and the os ſacrum, and may be kept open ſome days by means of the ungt. veſicat. If the ſphincter of the bladder is relaxed from the extraction of a ſtone, it uſually recovers ſpontaneouſly; however, ſome mildly aſtringent medicine may be applied. When this diſorder is obſerved in children, it is ſometimes relieved by drinking an infuſion of ſtrawberry leaves, and rubbing the pubes with rectified ſpirit of wine. When pregnancy is the cauſe, the patient muſt wait until after delivery. When a ſtone of the bladder produces this diſorder, lithotomy ſometimes relieves, but cannot be truſted to, for ſometimes it proves a cauſe of this diſorder when before it had no exiſtence. See Hoffman's Rat. Med. Syſt. Lond. Med. Obſ. and Inq. vol. ii. and iii. Bell's Surgery vol. ii. See ENURESIS.

URORRHŒAS. The urine paſſing from the urethra through ſome eroſion of the perinæum.

URTICA. The nettle. Bœrhaave mentions eight ſpecies, but none of them obtain in the preſent practice, though the common ſtinging and the ſpecies called white Archangel are ſtrongly recommended; the firſt for checking internal hæmorrhages, and the ſecond for moderating the fluor albus. The college of Edinburgh orders the *urtica* dioica or *urtica* foliis oppoſitis oblongo cordatis, racemis geminis, amentis cylindricis. Linn. The common nettle.

URTICA MARINA. Sea blubber. It ſwims on the water, being a round compreſſed pellucid ſubſtance, reſembling jelly, with red veins interſperſed. Its virtues are the ſame with thoſe of the lepus marinus.

URTICARIA. The acute nettle raſh. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe, in the claſs locales, and order exanthemata. He obſerves that all agree that it is a mild diſeaſe, ſeldom requiring the uſe of remedies. It is generally ſufficient to obſerve an antiphlogiſtic regimen, and to keep the patient in a temperature that is neither hot nor cold.

URTICATA. i. e. urticaria.

USNEA CRANII HUMANI. Moſs of a dead man's ſkull. It is different from the moſs on ſtones and trees, but is often found on the bones of horſes, &c. It is now neglected as a medicine.

UTERARIA. Uterine or hyſteric medicines. Theſe are of three ſorts, viz. the emmenagoga, ariſtolochia, and ecbolica.

UTERI HÆMORRHAGIA. Exceſſive menſes.

UTERUS. The womb. The *uterus* is ſituated between the bladder and the rectum; it is covered with the peritoneum, which comes from the back part of the bladder, aſcends up the fore part of the *uterus*, from thence over the fundus, down the poſterior ſide, and ſo to the rectum. On each edge of the *uterus* this poſition of the peritoneum forms a broad duplicature, which is extended on each ſide, more or leſs, directly to the adjoining lateral parts of the pelvis, forming a ſort of membranous partition between the anterior and poſterior halves of the cavity of the pelvis; and then is continued looſely with the peritoneum on the ſide of the pelvis; theſe two duplicatures are called the ligamenta lata: the laminæ of which are connected by a cellular membrane, and contain the tubæ Fallopianæ, the ovariæ, and part of the ſpermatic veſſels, and thoſe which go to the *uterus*, alſo the ligamenta rotunda, and the nerves. The *uterus* is rather triangular in its ſhape, the fundus is almoſt a ſtrait line, the two ſides approaching each other, makes it narrow where the cervix begins, then it grows larger, then narrow again at the os tincæ, which is received into the vagina. The inſide of the *uterus* is ſmooth; at the upper part the *uterus* is very vaſcular, at the ſides and below it is white. The cervix uteri, on each ſide, is divided into two lateral parts by a ridge, whence the fibres go off in the manner of a feather. At each angle of the fundus we may introduce a briſtle into the beginning of the Fallopian tubes, which go in a tortuous manner, and terminate at the ovaria in an irregular round jagged extremity, where their diameter is about one third of an inch; this fringe is called morſus diaboli, and is hung upon a membrane like the meſentery, between the doublings of which the veſſels run to the tubes. The tubes are not ſmooth internally, but there are innumerable longitudinal rugæ placed cloſe upon one another. See OVARIÆ and TUBÆ FALLOPIANÆ. The *uterus* is furniſhed with blood-veſſels from the hypogaſtrics and the ſpermatics. The ſpermatics riſe as in the male, and when they get to the pſoas muſcle, they paſs upon the ligamenta lata, and go to the tubæ Fallopianæ, the ovaria, and the *uterus*. On the ſides of the *uterus* the hypogaſtrics paſs to the vagina, &c. and theſe anaſtomoſe with the ſpermatics; they run in a ſerpentine manner. The ſpermatics are moſtly above, and the hypogaſtrics below.

See De Graaf de Mulierum Organis Generationi Inſervientibus, Winſlow's Anatomy, Haller's Phyſiology, lect. 34 and 35.

UTRICULUS. The uterus.

UTRIFORMIS ABSCESSUS, i. e. Œdemoſarcoma.

UVA GRUINA. Crane berries. They are brought from New-England, and are reckoned antiſcorbutic.

UVA URSI. Bear's whortle berry, bear's whorts, or bear's bilberries. It is the arbutus *uva urſi*, i. e. arbutus caulibus procumbentibus, fol. integerrimis. Linn. The bear-berry ſtrawberry-tree. The plant is an evergreen trailing ſhrubby one; it hath many ſmall, oblong, oval leaves; monopetalous white flowers, with a fleſh-coloured edge, cut into five ſections; the berries are red. It greatly reſembles the common red wort buſh, from which it may be diſtinguiſhed by the leaves being more oblong, and by the flower having ten ſtamina, and the berry five ſeeds; whereas the flower of the common whortle hath only eight ſtamina, and the berry often twenty ſeeds. It is found on the ſnowy hills in Auſtria and Styria, but more plentifully in Sweden, and it is cultivated in gardens in England; it is alſo found in Scotland.

The leaves have a bitteriſh aſtringent taſte, without any remarkable ſmell, at leaſt when dry; they are celebrated by De Haen, in nephritic and calculous complaints; and ulcers in the urinary paſſages, in which caſes ʒ ſs. of the powder were taken faſting, or two or three times in a day. It is very uſeful to many in moderating the pain which often attends calculous complaints; but in other reſpects hath not yet been attended with thoſe advantages in England, for which it is ſo ſtrongly recommended by the juſt named profeſſor. See Med. Muſ. vol. i. n. 13.

UVA PASSA. A grape dried in the ſun, the fruit of the vitis vinifera, Linn.

UVATIO, i. e. Staphyloma.

UVEA. So the poſterior lamina of the iris hath been called; ſome called the choroides by the name of *uvea*, and the coloured part they called iris. The ancients called it *uvea*, becauſe they obſerved it to be of the colour of an unripe grape in grazing animals, for they chiefly diſſected brutes. Mr. Pott calls the iris a circular muſcle. See ACINIFORMIS.

UVULA. It is alſo called cion and gargareon. From the middle part of the palatum molle, the *uvula* hangs down into the throat, acting as a valve, by means of whoſe different actions we can breathe either through the mouth or the noſe. It is of an irregularly conical ſhape, and is glandulous.

VACCARIA,

V.

VACCARIA, i. e. Uva urſi.

VACCINI. A name for ſeveral ſorts of the vitis idæa, alſo of the uva urſi.

VAGA. An errattic kind of intermitting fever, returning at more than ten days from each fit.

VAGINA. In botany it is the ſheath or covering of a bud.

VAGINA. It is the paſſage from the external pudenda to the mouth of the uterus. Its courſe is upward and backward; its inſide is very vaſcular and villous, and the villi are very full of veſſels and nerves. The *vagina* is contracted at its orifice by the ſphincter *vaginæ*, and in its whole length by the levator ani. Each ſide of the anterior portion of the *vagina* is covered externally by a thin broad expanſion of veſſels called the plexus retiformis; theſe two planes run down each ſide of the clitoris behind the nymphæ, and likewiſe cover the urethra like a collar before they are ſpread on the *vagina*; this plexus is capable of being erected, and in coitu it is compreſſed by the ſphincter vaginæ, which is contrived for the greater pleaſure. The *vagina* is a fleſhy membranous tube, which lies immediately before the rectum, is incurvated, hath the turn of the bones as the uterus hath, is collapſed and compreſſed between the bladder and the rectum. The ſtructure of the *vagina* is very vaſcular; on its inſide it is very rugous. It is commonly reckoned muſcular. The *vagina* is ſometimes too narrow; this may be either natural from original conformation; or accidental, in conſequence of diſeaſe. Cicatrices may be formed from a laceration after ſevere labour; in conſequence of ulceration, eroſion, &c. Preternatural conſtrictions may be induced from the uſe of ſtyptic applications, or fumigations. The cure may be attempted by emollient fomentations, as by the ſteams of warm water directed to the parts; and by introducing a ſmall tent of compreſſed ſponge. If theſe fail, recourſe muſt be had to the knife: though, in the ſimple contraction of the cavity of the *vagina*, this expedient is ſeldom neceſſary, and the attempt is often attended with the utmoſt danger; therefore ſhould never be determined on until every other method hath failed. The dilatation, which was previous to impregnation, has very often been accompliſhed by labour pains. Sometimes there is a natural defect, ſo that the *vagina* is either imperforated altogether, or a foramen only remains ſufficient to tranſmit the menſtrual blood. If, from a coalition of the parieties of the *vagina*, the paſſage be entirely ſhut up, an attempt to force it would be vain. The orifice in the latter caſe will afford a proper direction for the knife; but the operator muſt be cautious not to miſtake the urethra for the paſſage into the *vagina*. When the *vagina* is impervious altogether, the uterus has been ſometimes found wanting.

Fleſhy, fungous, or polypous tumors ariſe from all parts of the *vagina*. They happen to women at every period of life, but moſt frequently towards the decline. They generally proceed from an obſtruction of the ſmall glands of the parts, and are leſs or more difficult to diſcover or remove, as their origin is low or high in the *vagina*. Their texture is various; ſometimes they are tender and mucilaginous, like thoſe in the noſe; at other times firm and ſolid, like a wen; ſometimes their baſes is very conſiderable; though they generally adhere by a ſmall neck. They ſometimes, like ſcirrhi, continue indolent for many years; and are alſo liable to degenerate into ſcirrhus and cancer. In their mildeſt ſtate, they are attended with perpetual ſtillicidium from the *vagina*, and ſometimes with profuſe and dangerous floodings. Carefully diſtinguiſh betwixt theſe tumors and herniæ, or prolapſus uteri, &c. Polypi, when curable by an operation, may generally be removed by ligature; a ſafer method than cutting, as they are often ſupplied with large blood-veſſels. For fixing the ligature, the fingers of the operator will be ſometimes ſufficient. When this method fails, Dr. Hunter's needle, or M. Levret's double canula, for applying and fixing the ligature over the tumor, are the moſt ſimple and ſucceſsful expedients. M. Levret's inſtrument is a piece of flexible gold or ſilver wire, paſſed through a double hollow probe in the form of a nooſe: this is to be conveyed into the *vagina*, and carried over the tumor, till it reach the baſe. The ends of the wire muſt be gently drawn, or it muſt be twiſted round as tight as the patient can eaſily bear; the canula muſt afterwards be fixed to the thigh, and the wire tightened every day as it ſlackens. Thus the circulation in the tumor is ſtopped, and in two or three days the polypus will drop of. In fixing the ligature, the operator muſt be cautious not to miſtake the tubercle of the os tincæ for the polypous tumor. See Hamilton's Outlines.

VAGINA. It is a name which is given to other parts of the body, as to the capſula Gliſſonis, which is called *vagina* portæ. A coat of the teſtes is called vaginalis tunica (ſee TESTES); and this name is given alſo to a coat of the œſophagus and of the ſpinal marrow.

VALERIANA. Valerian. Boerhaave enumerates thirteen ſpecies. In warmer countries the ſort diſtinguiſhed by the name of ſetwall, or of great-garden-*valerian*, is preferred; but in colder climates the beſt is the *valeriana* ſylveſtris major of Caſp. Bauhine; it is alſo called phu Dioſcoridis, and great wild *valerian*. *Valeriana* officinalis, vel *valeriana* phu, vel *valeriana* major, foliis omnibus pinnatis, floribus triandris, Linn. Great wild *valerian*. It is a plant with channelled ſtalks, the leaves in pairs, each leaf is compoſed of a number of long, narrow, ſharp-pointed ſegments, indented about the edges, of a dull green colour, ſet along a middle rib, which is terminated by an odd one; producing on the tops of the ſtalks umbel-like cluſters of ſmall monopetalous flowers, which appear in May, June, and July, each of which is followed by a ſingle naked ſeed, winged with down; the root conſiſts of tough ſtrings, with numerous ſmall threads matted together, iſſuing from one head, of a duſky browniſh colour approaching to olive. It is perennial, and grows wild in dry mountainous places.

Valerian roots when dry have a ſtrong and grateful ordour rather a diſagreeable, warm, bitteriſh, ſubacrid taſte; the ſtrength of their ſmell and taſte are the only marks of their genuineneſs and goodneſs. Theſe roots have often a diſagreeable ſmell from the urine of cats; and ſometimes there are a mixture of the roots of a ſpecies of crowfoot amongſt them, but on chewing them they are ſomewhat cauſtic, and thus they are diſcovered.

As a medicine theſe roots are an excellent antiſpaſmodic in nervous diſeaſes, and take a place amongſt themildeſt of the fetids. The powder hath been extolled in epilepſies for which end ℈ ii. of it are given three times a day.

The powdered root, digeſted in water, or in ſpirit of wine, impregnates both menſtrua ſtrongly with the ſmell and taſte; water diſtilled from it ſmells ſtrong of the root, but no eſſential oil ſeparates, though ſeveral pounds are committed at once to the ſtill. The watery extract is ſtrong, diſagreebly ſweetiſh, and a little bitter; the ſpirituous extract is agreeable, and much reſembles the root.

The root is the beſt preparation, and when its flavour diſguſts, the mixture of a little mace renders it more agreeable. Next to the powder, a ſtrong tincture made with a proof ſpirit is to be choſen. If to ℔ i. of this tincture, ℥ ii. of the ſpt. vitr. fort. is added, it proves an uſeful remedy in thoſe head-achs which affect the ſtudious, it ſtrengthens the ſtomach, and relieves many flatulent and ſpaſmodic ſymptoms. See Neumann's Chem. Works. Lewis's Mat. Med. Med. Muſ. vol i. no. vii.

VAL-

VALERIANA. A name for the lactuca agnina; a ſpecies of polemonium, of the celtic-nard, and ſpecies of eruca, and a ſpecies of eupatorium.

VALERIANELLA. Small valerian. It is a plant which reſembles the valerian, and grows in warm places. Boerhaave enumerates ſix ſpecies, but they are not noticed in the preſent practice.

VALERIANELLOIDES. An American plant deſcribed by Boerhaave, but no medicinal properties are attributed to it.

VALERIANTHEMUM, i. e. Rapunculus valerianoides cæruleus umbellatus.

VALGI. Children with diſtorted ancles and feet.

VALGUS. Bow or bandy legged. The legs bending outward. Some children are bow-legged from their birth; others become ſo from ſetting them on their feet too early. The tibia of ſome is crooked, the knees of others are diſtorted, from a fault in the ancle; the feet of ſomeare turned inwards, theſe are called vari; and in others they turn outwards, they are called valgi. The beſt method of preventing theſe diſorders in weakly children, is to exerciſe them duly, but not violently, by dancing or toſſing them about in one's arms, and not ſetting them much on their feet, at leaſt not without properly ſupporting them: if the diſorder attends at the birth, or increaſes after it is begun, apply emollients, then apply boots of ſtrong leather, wood, &c. as required to diſpoſe the crooked legs gradually to a proper form; or other inſtruments may be uſed inſtead of boots, which, when not too coſtly, are uſually to be preferred. Slighter inſtances of theſe diſorders yield to careful nurſing without inſtruments. See Hildanus, Le Clerc, Solingen, and Heiſter's Surgery.

VALLUM. The eye-brow. Alſo a ſpecies of bandage.

VALVA, from *valvæ folding doors*. A valve. It is any thing that opens and ſhuts over the mouth of a veſſel. In anatomy it is a membrane which opens certain veſſels to admit the blood or other fluid, and which ſhuts again to prevent is returning.

VALVULÆ CONNIVENTES. They are looſe circular folds, chiefly in the ſmall inteſtines towards the ſtomach, and are productions inwards of the villous coat; their uſe is to mix the chyle with the bile and pancreatic juice, and to retain the chyle that it may not eſcape the lacteals.

VALVULA PALATI, i. e. Palatum Molle.

VALVULUS. See Iliaca Passio.

VANILLA, alſo called banilia, banilas, and vanelloes. They are the fruit of a climbing plant in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. They are only uſed to give an agreeable flavour to chocolate: but they are greatly extolled for their efficacy in cheering the ſpirits of melancholy perſons. See Med. Muſ. vol. iii. p. 342, &c.

VARICELLA. The chicken-pox. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe, in the claſs pyrexiæ and order exanthematæ. He defines it to be, a ſynocha. After a moderate fever ſpots break out, which ſomewhat reſemble the puſtules of the ſmall-pox, but hardly advance to ſuppuration; theſe eruptions, after a few days, dry away in ſcales, without leaving any mark behind them.

VARICIFORMES PARASTATÆ. They are continuous to the epididymides, and are veſſels ſo called becauſe they appear full of flexures and contortions, like the varices, for the better elaboration of the ſemen.

VARICOSA CORPARA, i. e. Spermatica Vaſa.

VARICOCELE, It is a varicoſe diſtenſion of the veins of the ſcrotum; which in this ſtate form a tumor of hard knotty inequalities, ſeldom attended with pain, and in general productive of no inconvenience except what ariſes from its bulk. In order to the relief of this diſorder, it may be treated as the cerſocele, which ſee.

VARICULA. A diminutive of varix. Thus M. A. Severinus calls an intumeſcence of the veins in the tunica adnata of the eye, when it is cauſed by black blood.

VARIOLA. The ſmall pox. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs pyrexiæ and order exanthematæ. It is an acute, eruptive, infectious diſeaſe, of its own kind; it is accompanied with inflammation, which terminates by ſuppuration, in cuticular puſtules; it is, in a natural way, uſually completed by three diſtinct continual, ſymptomatic fevers, viz. the fever of depuration, which is nervous; of ſuppuration, which is ardent; and of retroceſſion, which is putrid. The firſt account we have of this diſorder was writ by Rhazes, about the end of the ninth, or the beginning of the tenth century, and his deſcription of it was ſo complete, that little or nothing was added to it for five hundred years after: he alſo uſed the cool method in the management of it. Rhazes ſays that Aaron, an Alexandrian phyſician, was the firſt who deſcribed it, and that he writ A. D. 622. The next to Rhazes was Sydenham; he obſerved that the flower the eruption the more favourable the diſeaſe was; he admirably deſcribes it, and improved the management of it in the firſt period, that is, to the ſixth or ſeventh day, when the ſecondary fever came on; at this period he obſerved that on a ſudden the pulſe became regular, and all the puſtules were out all over the body, the urine was well coloured, or thick, the eyes cool and free from the fiery luſtre which was obſervable before; that the ſecondary fever came on by degrees at the firſt, but ſoon the eyes are inflamed and watery, a delirium comes on, the urine is pale, the pulſe quick and hard, throat is ſore, &c. and here he takes the patient out of bed, and orders cool air; the patient's feet to be put into warm water, and an opiate to be given and repeated as required until the rage is abated. The next was Helvetius, who obſerved the uſefulneſs of purging when the fatal ſymptoms came on, which Sydenham had remarked in the laſt ſtage; and Dr. Freind introduced the practice in England. Boerhaave ſtill advances, with reſpect to the nature and management of the *ſmall-pox*; he ventured to reſtrain the too ſudden eruption of the puſtules, and commends the attempt to cure the *ſmall-pox* without permitting the ſuppuration to come on. The next to Boerhaave was Dr. Thompſon; he obſerves the propereſt method of reckoning the time of the eruptions continuance, their ſuppuration, and that as circumſtances attend, theſe vary; alſo that the ſwelling of the face, and the ſpitting at the turn, are beſt kept up by moderating the fever. Many other judicious and uſeful obſervations have alſo appeared, but they are almoſt ſuperſeded by the practice of inoculation.

When the *ſmall pox* is epidemical, it uſually begins about the vernal equinox. Sydenham obſerves that when it is irregular and dangerous it begins ſooner, as in January or February. Boerhaave ſays that if it ariſes in a place where it hath been ſix years abſent, and makes its appearance in January or February, the following ſummer will be attended with a fatal kind; but if it firſt appears in May, it will be of a gentle kind.

Sydenham divides the *ſmall pox* into the diſtinct and the confluent kinds; the diſtinct is when the puſtules do not touch each other; the confluent are when the puſtules more or leſs run into one another. Dr. Mead divides them into the ſimple and malignant; the ſimple is when the ſymptoms are mild, the ſuppuration kindly, and at laſt the puſtules fall off in dry ſcabs; the malignant is when the fever is great, the puſtules advance but ſlowly, and do not ſuppurate well, and the other ſymptoms are violent.

As Sydenham excels in his deſcription of this diſeaſe, ſo as that Boerhaave ſays, "Sydenham's book is the only one worth reading on the *ſmall pox*;" his account of it in its riſe, progreſs, ſpecies, and termination, here follows. The diſtinct *ſmall pox* begins with a chillineſs and ſhivering, which is immediately followed by extreme heat, violent pain in the head and back, vomiting, and in adults a tendency to ſweat; this laſt is not obſerved in children; pain juſt under the *ſcrobiculum cordis*, if it is but gently preſſed with the hand, ſleepineſs and ſtupor particularly in children, and ſometimes convulſions, which laſt, if they happen after dentition is completed, you may always ſuſpect the *ſmall pox* to be juſt approaching, and the eruptions appearing in a few hours afterwards generally verify the prognoſtic; ſo that, for inſtance, if a convulſion fit attacks a child over night, as it uſually happens, the *ſmall pox* appear in the morning following; and it frequently happens that the *ſmall-pox* immediately ſucceeding ſuch fits, throws out large eruptions, but they are of a mild kind, and rarely confluent. Theſe are almoſt all the ſymptoms that accompany this diſeaſe in the beginning, and they generally precede the eruption of the

puſtules: but where the blood is of a looſer texture, and ſo eaſily admits of a change, it ſometimes happens that the ſeparation is performed by degrees, without any conſiderable ſickneſs before the expulſion of the matter ſhews itſelf by the eruption of the puſtules.

The diſtinct *ſmall pox* comes out moſtly on the fourth day, incluſive from the beginning of the illneſs, and ſometimes a little later, but ſeldom ſooner, at which time the ſymptoms are uſually much abated, or even go quite off, ſo that the patient thinks himſelf pretty well; but grown perſons are ſo inclined to ſweat, that it can hardly be prevented, however lightly they are covered, and this diſpoſition continues until the puſtules begin to ripen, and then vaniſhes ſpontaneouſly; this ſweating foreſhews a diſtinct ſort. The eruptions proceed nearly as follows: pale red puſtules, as large as the head of a ſmall pin, ſhew themſelves here and there on the face firſt, or on the neck and breaſt, afterwards on the body, and during this ſtage of the diſeaſe the throat is affected with a ſoreneſs, that increaſes as the puſtules ariſe, which growing every day fuller, inflame the ſkin and fleſh of the neighbouring parts; for about the eighth day from about the beginning of the diſeaſe, the ſpaces between the puſtules that appeared before of a pale white begin to grow red, and ſwell in proportion to the number of the puſtules, with a throbbing pain of thoſe parts, which continually increaſing occaſions the inflammation and ſwelling above mentioned, ſo that in the progreſs of the diſeaſe the eye-lids are ſo filled and diſtended, as ſometimes to make the patient blind; and this tumor looks like a ſhining inflated bladder drawn over them. The blindneſs comes on ſooner if a great number of puſtules fix on the eyes at the beginning of the eruption; immediately after the face, the hands, and fingers ſwell, in proportion to the number of the eruptions. The puſtules on the face, that until this day were ſmooth and red, now grow rough and whitiſh, which indeed is the firſt ſign of a beginning ſuppuration, and they likewiſe gradually diſcharge a yellow matter, in colour reſembling a honey-comb. The inflammation of the hands and face, in the mean time, come to its height, cauſes the ſpaces between the eruptions to look of a pretty florid colour, like a damaſk roſe; and the more mild and genuine the *ſmall pox* is, ſo much more the eruptions, and their intermediate ſpaces approach this colour. As the puſtules in the face appear rougher and yellower every day as they ripen; ſo, on the contrary, thoſe of the hands, and other parts, appear ſmoother, and not ſo white. On the eleventh day, the inflammation and ſwelling manifeſtly abate, and the eruptions, both of the face and the reſt of the body, being come to their maturity and juſt bigneſs (which is nearly the ſize of a pea), they dry and ſcale off, and in this kind of *ſmall pox*, uſually quite diſappear on the fourteenth or fifteenth day; but the eruptions on the hands being generally more obſtinate than thoſe of the other parts, and yet freſh and white, remain a day or two longer. Thoſe on the face and body dry and ſcale off, but thoſe on the hands burſt, and ſo vaniſh. The puſtules on the face are ſucceeded by a ſcurf, or branny ſcales, and thoſe ſometimes by pits, or marks; for when the puſtules firſt fall off, the ſkin is ſmooth, but thoſe ſcales coming on and falling off alternately, do at length make thoſe pits: yet it often happens that this diſtinct ſort leaves no marks behind.

The confluent *ſmall pox* is attended with the ſame ſymptoms in common with the diſtinct ſort; but they are all more violent, particularly the fever, anxiety, ſickneſs, vomiting, and the pain in the back, by which you may foretel that the confluent ſort are approaching. The patient is not ſo ready to ſweat in this ſort, but a looſeneſs ſometimes precedes, and continues a day or two after the eruption, which is not ever obſerved in the diſtinct kind. The confluent ſort generally comes out on the third day, ſometimes earlier, but rarely later; and the ſooner the puſtules come out before the fourth day, the more they run together: however, though to ſpeak in general, the confluent kind ſcarce ever appear ſo late as the fourth day, yet ſometimes the eruption may be deferred by ſome violent ſymptoms to the fourth or fifth day: e. g. 1ſt, Sometimes a ſharp pain in the loins reſembling a fit of the ſtone. 2d, A pain in the ſide like that in a pleuriſy. 3d, A pain in the limbs like that in a rheumatiſm. 4th, A pain in the ſtomach, attended with ſickneſs and vomiting. In theſe caſes, which indeed rarely happen, the ſpots are retarded, and they alſo foretel great danger. Though the ſymptoms accompanying this diſeaſe in the beginning of the diſtinct kind, go off immediately after eruption, it nevertheleſs happens much otherwiſe in the confluent kind, in which the fever, and other ſymptoms, afflict the patient for ſeveral days after the puſtules appear. Sometimes this ſort comes out like the eryſipelas, and ſometimes like the meaſles, from which it is next to impoſſible directly to diſtinguiſh them by external appearances; but by attending to the different time of the eruption in theſe diſeaſes, and other circumſtances, which from their reſpective hiſtories will be found to differ greatly, you will be able to diſtinguiſh them. As the diſtemper increaſes, the puſtules, eſpecially thoſe of the face, do not riſe ſo high as thoſe of the diſtinct kind, but, running together, appear at firſt like a red bladder, covering the whole face, and making it ſwell ſooner than in the diſtinct ſort, and at laſt they appear like a thin white pellicle cloſely adhering to the face, and riſing a little higher than the ſurface of the ſkin. After the eighth day, this pellicle grows gradually rougher, as appears by the touch, and inclines to a brown, and not to a yellow colour, as in the diſtinct kind. The roughneſs and colour of the ſkin daily increaſes, until at length the pellicle falls off in large ſcales; but when the diſeaſe hath been ſevere, it uſually ſticks to ſome parts of the face till after the twentieth day. The more violent the *ſmall pox* proves, the nearer the eruptions, as they ripen, incline to a dark brown colour, and the longer they are in falling off, if left to themſelves; whereas, on the contrary, the leſs they run together, the yellower they grow, and the ſooner they ſcale off. When the pellicle, which covers the face, firſt falls off, it leaves no roughneſs behind, but it is immediately ſucceeded by branny ſcales of a very corroſive nature, which not only make larger pits than the diſtinct kind generally do, but alſo much diſfigure the face with unſeemly ſcars; and in the confluent kind, if the diſeaſe hath been very violent, the ſkin of the ſhoulders and back ſometimes ſcale off, leaving theſe parts bare. In the confluent *ſmall pox*, the eruptions on the hands and feet are larger than thoſe of the other parts, and are gradually leſs, as they approach the body. Peculiar to the confluent *ſmall pox* is a ſalivation in adults, and a looſeneſs in children; the former never fails to attend, the latter rarely. The ſpitting begins as ſoon as the eruption appears, and ſometimes a day or two after; the matter is at firſt thin, and eaſily and plentifully expectorated; but towards the eleventh day the ſaliva becomes viſcous, and is raiſed with difficulty; the patient is thirſty, coughs often while he drinks, and the liquor flies out of his noſtrils, and from this day the ſalivation generally ſtops, though ſometimes but very rarely: after it hath ceaſed entirely for a day or two, it returns again. On the ſame (i. e. the eleventh) day, the ſwelling of the face, and the ſpitting begin to abate, but then the hands commonly ſwell, or at leaſt ought ſo to do. A looſeneſs does not ſeize children ſo ſoon as a ſalivation does; but whenever it begins, if it is not ſtopped by art, it attends throughout the diſeaſe. In both the diſtinct and the confluent ſort, the fever rages moſt from the beginning to the time of the eruption, after which it abates, and continues much more moderate, until the ſuppuration begins, which being finiſhed, it goes off entirely. Again, when the diſeaſe proves violent, the patient hath a kind of fit towards the evening; at which time, eſpecially, the moſt dangerous ſymptoms ariſe, and rage moſt ſeverely.

As to the prognoſtics of this diſorder, it is uſually obſerved, that the danger is proportioned to the number of the puſtules on the head, and particularly on the face. If many puſtules are on the body, and but few on the face, the danger is ſmall; but though few are on the body, if there are many on the face, the danger is great. If the pain in the head and eyes, which attends in the beginning, (but uſually goes off at the appearance of the eruption) continues through the ſeveral ſtages of the diſtemper, it leaves a diſorder in the head after the *ſmall pox* diſappears, and ſometimes a gutta ſerena is the effect. Bloody urine, and a diſcharge of blood from the lungs, are uſually fatal ſymptoms; but a convulſion fit preceding the eruption in children, and a ſweating coming on in adults, are tokens of the diſtinct and mild ſort.

The principal indication in the management of the *ſmall pox* is, to prevent the too haſty aſſimilation of the *variolous* matter in the beginning of the diſeaſe; but as the greateſt advantages attend the treating of patients who labour under this diſorder from natural infection, as thoſe are treated in whom it is artificially introduced, the reader is referred for direction therein to the management of the inoculated *ſmall pox*, and to the authors referred to in the concluſion of this article.

Of the SMALL POX by inoculation. Sydenham practiſed in the preſent cool method of treating the *ſmall pox*, and writ in defence of the ſame. Boerhaave propoſed, as already obſerved, to cure the *ſmall pox* without permitting a ſuppuration. In 1713, Dr. Woodward received a letter which gave an account of the ſucceſs of inoculating the *ſmall pox* in Conſtantinople. In 1721, George I. king of Great Britain, conſented that a trial ſhould be made on ſeven condemned criminals, and ſucceſs attending the experiment, ſome of our nobility were inoculated, and, in 1722, ſome of the royal family followed their example. In three years after, 447 people were inoculated in England, of whom only nine died. In 1727, Neumann writ in the German language on the *ſmall pox* by inoculation; but ſome favoured and others oppoſed its progreſs; and the practice was but little encouraged, until the courage of Mr. Sutton led him into the preſent improved method of communicating the *ſmall pox*, and of treating thoſe who are the ſubjects of it; for which he hath reaped the deſerved emolument, viz. an affluent fortune, and a place in the liſt of fame. But the benevolence which accompanied the ſame ſagacity in doctor (now baron) Dimſdale, led him to teach the world the art of relieving themſelves from the terrors of that diſeaſe which Sydenham deſcribes as above; thus he is fixed on the ſcale of merit, and imperial favour hath crowned him with glory. His preſent method of inoculating for the *ſmall pox* is the ſtandard of practice, and his plan is here purſued as the moſt complete on the ſubject.

It hath been queſtioned by ſome, whether or no the genuine *ſmall pox* was conveyed by inoculation? But there is in reality much more difficulty in conceiving, that a contagious ſubſtance ſhould propagate, inſtead of its own, another diſeaſe. Dr. De Haen, amidſt all his oppoſitions to inoculation, never ſuppoſed that the matter of the *ſmall pox* produced any diſeaſe but the *ſmall-pox* itſelf.

As to whether the matter for inoculation be from patients labouring under this diſorder received in the artificial or in the natural way, experience does not manifeſt any difference; nor does it ſignify whether the matter is taken from a mild kind, or from the more virulent ſort. The crude matter received from the place of inoculation before the patient ſickens, ſuffices for this operation. The advantage of inoculation depends more on the diſpoſition of the conſtitution than on the kind of matter which may be conveyed by it; and the next advantages to a proper habit are, the mode of the diſorder's being communicated, and the manner of treating the patient whilſt it is preſent.

The principal advantages of inoculating the *ſmall pox* are, that the puſtules can be made to be fewer in the face; the marks on the face are not ſo deep from the inoculated as from the natural *ſmall pox*; the ſecondary fever rarely follows inoculation; meaſures can be taken to provide againſt the violence of the future fever, and other ſymptoms; the loathſomeneſs and the difficulty of managing this diſeaſe is greatly leſſened, from thoſe which attend in the natural *ſmall pox*. It is probable that the infection being received in a vital part in the natural way may have more violent effects than when communicated by the extremities.

The ſubjects of inoculation are thoſe of every age. If an exception is admitted of againſt any, it is during the firſt two years after the birth of infants, or until they have cut their teeth; for until then their irritable frames render them ſuſceptible of violent effects from ſlight cauſes. Old age is no objection, the aged are uſually moſt ſecure from danger. Infants are proper ſubjects, from their birth to the time that their teeth begin to trouble them; and when detention is over, the vigour of the child's health will always determine for or againſt the operation.

Conſtitutions of moſt kinds admit of inoculation with ſafety. The ſcrophulous, ſcorbutic, arthritic, the corpulent, and even the intemperate, all do well. Thoſe who labour under acute or critical diſeaſes, or in whom are ſymptoms of great debility, ſhould be treated with proper means for the recovery of health previous to their being inoculated.

In general, the temperate ſeaſons are preferred; but the only exceptionable one is, the hot months in ſummer, though cold conſtitutions are ſafely inoculated in the warmeſt weather. When inflammatory or putrid diſeaſes prevail, they are unfriendly, and during their continuance, inoculation ſhould be omitted.

The beſt preparation is, to produce a healthy ſtate of the body. If the health is perfect, preparation is uſeleſs; if defective, it muſt be reſtored. That peculiar diſpoſition on which a mild *ſmall pox* depends is yet unknown; an healthy one comes the neareſt to it, and could that be aſcertained, perhaps, it is it.

In the *ſmall pox* the inflammatory ſymptoms are uſually the principal ſource of our care, and that method which reduces and maintains the vis vitæ near, or rather below the medium of perfect health, whilſt it guards againſt danger, ſupports the patient's vigour, and enables him to ſurmount the morbid attack.

Before the patient is inoculated, a due regard muſt be had to the ſtate of his body, and to the removal of ſuch ſymptoms, &c. as may embarraſs or endanger. The diet ſhould be of the cooling vegetable kind, and ſuch as tends to keep the bowels lax and promotes the urinary diſcharge. Whatever is the particular diet, full meals are not to be allowed until ſuppuration begins, and then, as well as after the eruptions are fallen off, a gradual return to the uſual diet is moſt proper. Animal food and cordial liquors are only to be uſed if needful for ſupporting the ſtrength and ſpirits of the patient, and, when admitted, great care is required not to exceed theſe intentions in their uſe.

The patient conſidered as a proper ſubject, inoculate him, and in the evening give as much calomel mixed with 1-16th part of the emetic tartar, as will gently move the belly, and in the morning aſſiſt its operations with as much Glauber ſalts, or other ſuitable purging medicine, as will procure three or four evacuations; repeat theſe every ſecond night and morning, until the ſymptoms of eruption appear. Mercury ſeems to be ſpecific in the *ſmall pox*, and may be given ſo freely as to affect the gums and excite a gentle ptyaliſm. When infants at the breaſt are inoculated, the nurſe may take the medicines above preſcribed. When the inflammation at the puncture is too little, increaſe the doſe of the calomel, for then it both promotes the inflammation there and accelerates the general eruption.

To communicate the infection, the *variolous* matter muſt be introduced into a ſenſible part; and, as the ſmalleſt ſenſible quantity of *variolous* matter ſuffices to produce the *ſmall pox*, the point of a needle, or of a lancet, may be dipped in the ſerum that ouzes from a puncture made in any patient for producing the *ſmall pox*, or in a *variolous* puſtule, and then introduced into the ſkin, juſt deep enough to wound it; but it is not neceſſary that blood ſhould be diſcharged. The needle, or lancet, dipped in the *variolous* matter, will ſuffice ſeveral days after for communicating the infection. One puncture may ſuffice, but generally one is made in each arm, any where above the elbow.

Inflammation about the puncture is a ſure ſign of infection having taken place; but this cannot be diſcerned if either an inciſion is made, or any dreſſings are applied where the infection was communicated; therefore, the puncture being made, leave it to heal, or to whatever may occur in conſequence of the infectious puncture. By making a puncture only we may obſerve the progreſs of the infection and ſubſequent diſeaſe; but theſe cannot be obſerved if an inciſion is made, or if plaiſters, &c. are applied to the punctured part. Beſides, no ſore, abſceſs, nor mortification, follows the puncture, as is obſerved when inciſions are made.

If a perſon happens to receive the infection by inoculation and in the natural way at the ſame time; that which

was

was received by a wound, operating ſooneſt, deſtroys the diſpoſition in the body to be affected by the natural infection. The progreſs of the infection is obſerved as follows: about the punctured part, and from thence, a juſt prognoſtic is uſually formed of the future ſtate of the diſtemper, and thus future inconveniences may be guarded againſt. Sometimes the effect of the infection is obſerved in a few hours after the patient is inoculated, by ſharp pains darting up the ſhoulder (when the puncture is made in the arm), a ſhivering through the body, a red tumor on the arm, or a ſmall riſing where the matter was applied; but moſt frequently its progreſs is as follows. Suppoſe the infection to have been communicated in the morning, though it takes effect, nothing is obſerved on that day. On the ſecond day, if the puncture is viewed with a lens, an orange coloured ſtain is obſerved about its edges, and they ſeem to contract; ſometimes the puncture inflames on the firſt or ſecond day, and then vaniſhes without any further effect; in this caſe, if the patient had not the *ſmall pox* before, except the punctured part becomes tumid as well as inflamed, and alſo ſuppurates, or is attended with uneaſineſs in the axillary glands, the efficacy of the infection remains doubtful, and after a few days the operation may be repeated. On the fourth or fifth day, an hardneſs may be perceived where the puncture was made, an itching is felt there, and generally a ſlight inflammation is alſo obſerved. On the ſixth day, there is generally a pain and ſtiffneſs felt in the axilla, which continues until the tenth or eleventh day. This is a favourable ſymptom; it foretels the near approach of the eruption, and denotes a favourable progreſs through the whole of the diſeaſe. Pain in the head and limbs, with ſtiffneſs under the arms, are among the certain proofs that the infection hath taken place. On the ſeventh or eighth day, the eruptive ſymptoms appear, ſuch as ſlight remitting pains in the head and back, ſtiffneſs in the arm-pits, tranſient ſhiverings, alternate heats, &c. which continue more or leſs until eruption is completed: the inflammation in the arm ſpreads, and little puſtules are begun there, which increaſe in ſize as the diſeaſe advances. On the tenth or eleventh day an efflorescence ſurrounds the puncture, and ſometimes extends half way round the arm; the larger this efflorescence is, the fewer are the puſtules uſually; when it accompanies the eruption, the fever and other uneaſy ſymptoms ſubſide, and all difficulty and danger is at an end. As ſoon as the eruptive ſymptoms are perceptible, give a doſe of calomel with the emetic tartar as above, and a few hours after give a doſe of the ſal. Glaub. and thus for the moſt part all is done that is required from medicine.

It ſometimes happens that none of the ſymptoms on the arm appear before the eighth day, and then the inflammation, &c. about the puncture riſes ſuddenly: this late appearance of ſymptoms is generally regarded as foretelling an untoward diſeaſe, but this is not always the caſe. Mr. Sutton repeats the evacuations from the time of infection to this time, ſo as that no longer appearances of the rigid fibre remains; and obſerves that when the ſkin is hot and dry, repeated doſes of ſalts do much better than the mercurial medicine.

Among the favourable ſymptoms are, an orange coloured ſtain about the edges of the puncture on the ſecond day, an itching there in two or three days, a kind of veſication, without much inflammation on the third or fourth days, a pain and ſtiffneſs in the axilla, the ſooner the better; but if on the ſixth day it is well; the large efflorescence about the puncture on the tenth or eleventh day or ſooner; an hardneſs which ſpreads from the puncture as from a centre, and to the touch forms ſtar-like points, and when the part inflamed on the arm, riſes as it were to an apex with a little dry ſcab on it.

The leſs favourable ſymptoms are, a purpliſh inſtead of a red coloured inflammation about the puncture, a narrow deep red circle ſurrounding the puncture, and when the incruſtation about the puncture becomes depreſſed and concave in the middle.

The firſt ſymptoms of a fever being manifeſt, a doſe of calomel and the purging ſalts muſt be given. The higher the fever, the more numerous are the eruptions; at this time, if the fever runs high, give the febrifuge ſpirit in cold water, as directed in the article FEBRIS, or give the ſlibiated nitre in water, for common drink, and let the patient's thirſt determine the quantity; expoſe the patient to the cold air. As ſoon as by the above means, or by the uſe of other acidulated, or cooling liquors, a perſpiration appears on the ſkin, let the drink be tepid baum tea, or other agreeable ſmall liquor. This cooling method muſt be urged more or leſs according to the conſtitution of the particular patient. In this ſituation, though the patient is not able to walk, he may be carried out into the air, whatever be the weather, and this though he be ſhivering in a rigor, cold water muſt be given for drink if the patient requires it; the aged and feeble may be allowed white wine whey. Thus either alarming ſymptoms or a large crop of puſtules are prevented. As to the heat or cold to which the patient is ſubjected, that degree which is moſt agreeable to his ſenſation is the proper one. In caſe of great ſickneſs, languor, delirium, eſpecially if attended with a weak pulſe, cordials may be allowed, repeat them as the pulſe and other circumſtances require.

When the eruption is completed, and the ſtate of maturation is begun, allow the patient a little broth, veal, mutton, or jelly, and now and then a glaſs of ſome ſmall vinous, or malt liquor. Some tender conſtitutions indeed require at this time to be kept in bed, and to be ſupplied with a cordial and nouriſhing diet.

Whether the cooling or the cordial method is purſued, the heat of the body ſhould be kept, as nearly as may be, to that of health; the languid may require to have more heat preſerved than is neceſſary in the robuſt, and it may be obſerved that, as the cool method is to prevent the too great abundance of eruptions being formed on the ſkin, ſo when they are determined there and fixed, a moderate heat is required to perfect them; ſo a regard to heat, according to the ends expected from it, is to be the rule of management.

During the ſtate of maturation opiates are not neceſſary, except there is great pain and reſtleſſneſs; and if an opiate is adminiſtered, a clyſter ſhould accompany it; for during the whole courſe of the *ſmall pox*, a lax belly, and a free diſcharge by urine, are eſſentially neceſſary.

Whether the *ſmall pox* are produced in the natural or the artificial way, the violent and dangerous ſymptoms are from either an ardent or a putrid fever attending; and an attention to the methods propoſed in thoſe diſorders, as they are applicable here, will enable the practitioner to proceed properly when they attend this complaint.

On the *ſmall pox*, ſee Swan's Tranſlat. of Sydenham's Works; Stack's Tranſlat. of Mead's Diſc. on the *Small-Pox*; Huxham on the *Small Pox*; Thompſon's Enquiry into the Origin, &c. of the *Small Pox*; Tiſſot's Practical Obſervations on the *Small Pox*; Brooks's Practice of Phyſic; and on the inoculated *ſmall pox*, ſee Kirkpatrick and Dimſdale. For particular obſervations, ſee Percival on the Advantages and Diſadvantages of Inoculating Children; Blake's Letter to a Surgeon on Inoculation; alſo Baker, Burges, Matty, Watſon, Glaſs, Bromfield, Gatty, Chandler, &c.

VARIOLA DISCRETA. The diſtinct ſmall-pox.

VARIOLA JAPONICA. The confluent ſmall-pox.

VARIOLA LYMPHATICA, i. e. Varicella.

VARIOLÆ. So Boerhaave calls the ſmall-pox.

VARIUM [os], i. e. Os cuboides.

VARIX. A preternatural diſtenſion of parts of the veins are called varices. Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales, and order tumores. Sometimes *varices* are formed in the legs, and are ſo large and troubleſome as to require being cut away. See Gooch's Treat. on Wounds, page 188. Pregnant women frequently have them in their legs, and ſo have thoſe in whom the liver is ſcirrhous. Generally a tight ſtocking is all that is needful for relieving the inconveniences occaſioned by this complaint. See Heiſter's Surgery.

VARUS. A pimple on the face.

VARUS. A pimple. Dr. Cullen places theſe as a variety of phlogoſis phlegmone. The bacchia or gutta roſacea, he conſiders as ſynonymous with *varus*. See GUTTA ROSACEA. It alſo ſignifies the bending inward of the legs. See VALGUS.

VASA PRÆPARANTIA. The ſpermatic cord.

VASA BREVIA. See SPLENICA ARTERIA.

VASTUS EXTERNUS. See VASTUS INTERNUS.

VASTUS INTERNUS. The crureus, the vaſtus externus, and the *vaſtus internus*, may be conſidered as one muſcle, whoſe outer part riſes from the external part of the femur, the inner part from the internal part, and the middle from the anterior part, in ſuch a manner as to ſurround the whole thigh, except the linea aſpera, taking its origin likewiſe from the ſurface of the bone: theſe muſcles join the tendons with their rectus.

VEGETABILIS. Vegetable. *Vegetables* are thoſe natural productions in the terraqueous globe which have life and growth, but not ſenſe, as trees, herbs, &c. The bodies of *vegetables* are of a regular organic ſtructure, analogous in ſome degree to that of animals: they are furniſhed with a variety of veſſels, for receiving, tranſmitting, and perſpiring different fluids; with organs too, by which the aliment they imbibe from the earth, water, or air, is changed into new forms, into juices peculiar to particular plants. The ſubſtances naturally contained in *vegetables*, and ſeparable from them by art, are gum, reſin, a ſubtil oil, camphor, a groſs oil, a ſaline matter, phlegm, and an earth: theſe are called the native principles of *vegetables*; native, becauſe they naturally exiſt in plants; and principles, not as being ſimple, but as it is by theſe that one plant differs from another, and that each exerts its ſpecific power; and as they cannot be further reſolved without totally deſtroying their peculiar qualities. Various are the diviſions into which *vegetables* are diſtinguiſhed, whether conſidered as the ſubjects of botany, or of medicine, &c. and numerous alſo are the preparations they afford to pharmacy and other branches of art, as may have been already obſerved from what is delivered in the preceding ſheets. Amongſt a variety of other preparations of the *vegetable* kind, by fermentation we obtain inflammable or vinous ſpirit, ether, malt liquors, wines, vinegars, tartar, &c. by fire, or burning, are procured empyreumatic oils, fixed *vegetable* alkaline ſalts, &c.

On the culture, nutrition, &c. &c. &c. of *vegetables*, See Linnæus, Malpighi, Grew, Hill, &c.

VELAMENTUM BOMBYCINUM. The interior ſoft membrane of the inteſtines, from *bombyx, a silk-worm.*

VENÆ. Veins. A *vein* is a thin ramifying elaſtic tube, which ariſes in the extremities of the body, and terminates in the heart or in the liver. The blood is diſtributed all over the body by two arteries, the aorta, and the pulmonary artery; and it is returned by three kinds of *veins*, viz. the *vena* cava, the pulmonary *veins*, and the *vena* portæ.

In general the arteries have their correſpondent *veins*, ſo the courſe of the one is known by that of the other.

Veins begin where the arteries end, and proceed from the branches to the trunk, making a conoid figure, in the ſame ſenſe that the arteries have been ſaid to do.

The extremities of the arteries in the brain are continued into their *veins*, whoſe trunks vary much in their continued poſition from the arteries, theſe entering the brain at its baſis, and diſtributing themſelves as noted in ſpeaking of them; whereas the trunks of the *veins* are extended on the ſurface of the brain, and diſcharge their blood into the longitudinal ſinus; nor do the *veins* of the brain accompany their arteries at their ingreſs as in other parts, and as the arteries and *veins* of the dura mater do.

The *veins* which are ſubject to frequent compreſſion from the action of the muſcles, have valves which open towards the heart; in all the *veins* alſo which are perpendicular to the horizon, excepting thoſe of the uterus and portæ, there are valves with their mouths towards the heart; theſe valves prevent the return of the blood in the *veins*.

Beſides the deep ſeated *veins* which accompany the arteries in the extremities, there are other *veins* more ſuperficially ſeated, the reaſon of which is to prevent the circulation being interrupted by the action of the muſcles compreſſing the internal *veins*.

The coats of the *veins* are the ſame as thoſe of the arteries, but they are thinner, being compoſed of fibres in all directions, they bear ſtretching better than the artery, whoſe chief ſtrength is in the circular fibres; the coats of the *veins* are thicker in the extremities than among the viſcera, particularly the ſaphæna is of a remarkable thickneſs.

The capacity of the *veins* is much larger than the arteries, except in the pulmonary veſſels, where the four *veins* taken together are not equal to the artery. See Winſlow's Anatomy; Haller's Phyſiology of the *Veins*.

VENENUM. Poiſon. This word ſeems to be a relative term only; what are called *poiſons*, have, in their reſpective inſtances, ſalutary effects; they injure by miſapplication. The ancients made no diſtinctions between *poiſons* and medicines, they went both by the ſame name. In our day we are uſed to conſider thoſe articles which have not been employed with any ſalutary effect, as abſolute *poiſon*; but in this we do not think duly. Again, we annex the idea of *poiſon* to thoſe things which produce their ill effects in very ſmall quantities, and of whoſe form and action we are little or not at all acquainted. When any thing acts mechanically, though it deſtroy, we never rank it with *poiſons*. Things that kill unavoidably, though not mechanically; things that are of a ſpecific nature, and produce ill effects; thoſe injurious things whoſe effects are relieved by ſpecifics; and thoſe for which we have no cure, are all called *poiſons*. In ſhort, it is difficult to give a definition of the word *poiſon*, perhaps impoſſible. Surely that alone could be properly called a *poiſon*, or be conſidered as abſolutely a *poiſonous* ſubſtance, which at all times, in any quantity, and on all occaſions of applying it, would without exception be deſtructive. Such a ſubſtance is unknown.

To ſpeak in uſual phraſe, *poiſons* are the produce of the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdom. Their action is either mechanical (when they are not ſo properly ranked) chemical, or on the principle of life.

The animal *poiſons* act chiefly on the living principle; they are natural or morbid. The natural are found in particular animals for ſome uſe or benefit to the individual in which it is found: the natural *poiſons* do not, like the morbid ones, produce more of their own kind. The natural *poiſons* firſt affect the part to which they are applied; then, either by abſorption, or by ſympathy, the whole habit ſuffers. The morbid animal *poiſons* are various, and many of them appear without our being able to diſcern the cauſe of their production. The ſmall pox, meaſles, &c. are of this claſs; the cancer alſo, and the hydrophobia too; both which ariſe ſpontaneouſly. Morbid *poiſons* are produced from a ſimilar diſeaſe before affecting, as the ſmall-pox, &c. or they ariſe ſpontaneouſly, from ſome morbid actions of the parts endowed with life, as the cancer, &c. And theſe, when produced, have the power of increaſing and forming freſh matter of the ſame kind, and propagating their own ſpecies. The morbid animal *poiſons* are leſs active than the natural ones; they do not produce their effects ſo rapidly.

Mr. Wilmer, in his Obſervions on the *Poiſonous* Vegetables found in Great Britain, ſeems to claſs them into, 1ſt, Thoſe from which the maniacal ſymptoms are to be expected, or the various nervous affections, from a vertigo to a fatal apoplexy. In this claſs he includes the ſoporiferous plants. Of theſe there are the following, very generally met with in our iſle, viz. HYOSCIAMUS NIGER, SOLANUM LETHALE, ACONITUM, MERCURIALIS SYLVESTRIS, STRAMONIUM, CICUTA MAJOR FOETIDA, AGARICUS MUSCARIUS, AGARICUS PIPERATUS, which ſee.

And, 2dly, Thoſe which produce epileptic ſymptoms: a loſs of underſtanding, ſpeech, and all the ſenſes will take place in a few minutes after theſe *poiſons* are in the ſtomach: the muſcles will be convulſed, and death will cloſe the ſcene in a few hours. Of theſe there are found in moſt parts of Great Britain, the following, viz. ŒNANTHE CHÆROPHYLLI FOLIIS, CICUTA AQUATICA, LAURO CERASUS, which ſee.

The danger of theſe laſt is very great; they do not offend the palate, ſo may paſs unſuſpected into the ſtomach; when there, they do not produce any ſickneſs, ſo are not likely to be diſcharged without the aſſiſtance of art; and they are ſo quickly active that they ſcarcely admit of any opportunity for that aſſiſtance to be given.

Mr. Wilmer further obſerves, that, *poiſonous* vegetables appear to act by an oppreſſion upon the nervous ſyſtem, rather than by an inflammation of the ſtomach and duo-

denum, which from the beginning produce thoſe other intervening ſymptoms that uſually end in death. He very judiciouſly obſerves, that theſe vegetable *poiſons*, in different conſtitution will have various and ſometimes oppoſite effects. The moſt contrary ſymptoms are produced in different perſons who have taken the ſame *poiſon*. They gave proofs that both the utmoſt irritation and appearances which indicated that the office of the nerves was deſtroyed, might ariſe from the ſame cauſe, working its effects in different conſtitutions.

Mineral *poiſons* are acrid or corroſive, as arſenic, cobalt, and mercury ſublimate; or they are ſedative, as the preparations of lead, &c. Mineral *poiſons* act mechanically, chemically, and on the principle of life.

As to the prognoſtics when *poiſonous* ſubſtances are taken, in general it may be obſerved, that, as to thoſe of the animal kind, little more can be ſaid than to refer to the particular inſtances thereof. Thoſe of the vegetable world have uſually but little effect after being ſpeedily evacuated. The mineral *poiſons* are ſometimes carried off by vomiting, but uſually ill effects follow notwithſtanding that diſcharge.

In order to relief, when mineral *poiſons* are taken, if a vomiting does not follow, attempt the expulſion by any quick emetic; e. g. vitriolum album gr. x. vel vitriolum coeruleum gr. i. iii. aſſiſted by copious draughts of warm water, and milk, or oil; then endeavour to decompoſe the *poiſonous* article by means of the fixt alkaline ſalts, diluted in large quantities of water. Thus whether the merc. cor. a. areſenicum, fac. ſaturni, tart. emet. or any metallic ſalt be taken, the ſame method may be purſued. If the emetic is worked off with a ſolution of the fixt alk. ſalt, the effects may be expected as more agreeable to our diſtreſs. In ſhort, what ſteps appear to be the moſt eligible in caſe of arſenic being ſwallowed are the ſame in caſe of any other *poiſon* of the mineral kind. Theſe kind of *poiſons* act mechanically and chemically.

In moſt inſtances of the vegetable *poiſons*, their firſt powerful action when ſwallowed is on the ſtomach; an emetic therefore begins the cure. When theſe *poiſons* are evacuated, the danger is over, (which is not the caſe with the minerals); diſcharge them then with the utmoſt ſpeed. After due evacuation upwards, vinegar ſeems to be the beſt known antidote; in want of it, give the crude juice of acid fruits; but as vinegar is leſs ſharp and contracting, it can be uſed in larger quantities, and is therefore preferable. Vegetable *poiſons* act on the nervous ſyſtem, and attack the principle of life. If opportunity hath not favoured a diſcharge by vomiting very ſoon after this kind of *poiſon* has been ſwallowed, beſides an emetic let a laxative by the mouth or glyſterwiſe be adminiſtered; then give frequent draughts of cyder, perry, ſouriſh ſmall beer, or vinegar and water: ſome practitioners of the firſt rank extol the efficacy of the ſaline draughts, if given in the act of fermentation. If paralytic ſymptoms remain, apply ſinapiſms, bliſters, &c. Unhappily, thoſe vegetable *poiſons* which produce epileptic ſymptoms, ſo affect the ſtomach as generally to prevent evacuation either upward or downward; on this account there is leſs hope from the above means; however, they are the only known reſources, and, if any diſcharge is procured, a favourable hope may be indulged.

Animal *poiſons* act very variouſly, and in order to a proper management in any inſtance of the kind, ſee HYDROPHOBIA, VARIOLA, &c. all which are inſtances of this kind.

After all, this ſubject of *poiſons* is very difficult to inveſtigate; it is abſtruſe in its nature, and important in its conſequences. Many have writ on this ſubject, but very little hath been ſaid from which any thing ſatisfactory can be derived. See Mead on *Poiſons*; Grevinus de *Venenis*.

VENTER, *κοιλία, the belly.* In the moſt extenſive ſenſe it is taken for a remarkable cavity, in which any one of the principal viſcera is contained; in this reſpect the whole body is divided into three venters, viz. the head, the breaſt, and belly. Hippocrates uſes the word κοιλίη ſometimes to expreſs only the cavity of the breaſt and lower *belly*, and ſometimes he calls the thorax the upper and the abdomen the lower *belly*. But the term *venter*, or κοιλίη is moſt generally underſtood for the lower *belly* only. But various are the ſignifications of this word, as the ſtomach, the colon, the excrements of the *belly*; and amongſt the chemiſts *venter* is the ſame as terra, and *venter* equi is horſe-dung.

VENTRICULUS. The ſtomach. Diminutive of venter.

VENUS. This name of the goddeſs of beauty and love alſo ſignifies venery. On a due regulation of this appetite much of the vigour of conſtitutions depends; and a too great continency is often productive of diſorders ſimilar to thoſe that ariſe from an exceſs of indulgence in this inſtance; though, in ſome conſtitutions, plethoric and inflammatory ſymptoms are the reſult. The delicate and tender ſhould be very cautious in their venereal engagements, as ſmall degrees of exceſs very ſenſibly injure them.

VERATRUM. See HELLEBORUS ALBUS.

VERBASCUM. Mullein. It is a large white woolly plant. Boerhaave mentions eleven ſpecies. The Edinburgh college orders the *verbaſcum* thapſus, or *verbaſcum* foliis decurrentibus utrinque tomentoſis, caule ſimplici, flo. Linn. The great white *mullein*, high taper, or cows lung-wort.

VERBENA, called alſo verbenaca, verbena mas & cœrulo, herba ſacra, hierobotane. Common vervain. In Wales it is called cas gangythrel. It is the verbena officinalis, Linn.

The roots are fibrous, of a light brown colour, hard, bitteriſh, and irregular; they ſend up many ſtalks, half a yard high, ſquariſh, ſolid, roughiſh, of a purpliſh green colour, and branched; the leaves ſtand on the ſtalks in capſules oppoſite to each other, they are hairy on both ſides, wrinkled, and jagged with deep cuts, and wide at the ſtalk end, ſomething like oak leaves when half grown, of a deeper green above than below; the flowers are ranged in long ſpikes, of a pale purple colour, divided into five parts at the top, ſucceeded by four ſmall longiſh ſeeds joined together; they blow in July, &c. to October.

This herb is found in highways, in chalky, gravelly, and uncultivated grounds. The root is hung at the pit of the ſtomach, and a freſh piece is placed there twice in a year, as a cure for the ſcrofula. An ointment made by boiling the whole plant in lard, as is directed for the green ointment of elder, is recommended as uſeful in ſcrofulous ulcers. See Raii Hiſt.

VERDITER, from the French *verd de terre, earth green*, or *green earth*. It is an individual in the green ſpecies of clay. See Edwards's Foſſilogy. It is chiefly uſed by painters.

VERMES. Worms. The moſt frequent ſeat of *worms* in the human ſpecies is the inteſtinal tube; but occaſionally they have been found in almoſt every other part of the body.

In the ſtomach and inteſtines are the following ſpecies of *worms*: 1. The round *worms*, called alſo teres or teretes, and by Hippocrates ſtrongylus. 2. The tape-*worm*, called alſo the gourd-*worm*, tænia, ſolium, and inteſtinorum lumbrici lati. See TÆNIÆ. 3. Aſcarides.

The round *worms* are about a ſpan long, round and ſmooth: they are ſeated for the moſt part in the upper ſmall inteſtines, but ſometimes they are lodged alſo in the ſtomach, and in any part of the inteſtines, even to the rectum. The tape-*worms* are from two to forty feet long, according to the teſtimony of Platerus; they generally poſſeſs the whole tract of the inteſtines, but eſpecially the ileum: they very much reſemble a tape in their appearance, whence their name of tape-*worm*. The aſcarides have uſually their ſeat in the rectum. See ASCARIDES.

Worms are rarely found but in perſons with weak ſtomachs, or where digeſtion is ill performed. As to certain aliments producing *worms*, it is objected that all we eat may be expected to generate them, as well as thoſe articles uſually ſpecified. It is ſaid that they cannot be hatched in a healthy inſide, for the gall, in particular, would deſtroy them; in children the gall is generally as inert as it is redundant, and in caſes of indigeſtion, when adults are the ſubjects of theſe vermin, the gall is alſo defective in its quality, and probably hence is the mediate cauſe of *worms* in the human inteſtines.

Numerous are the ſigns of *worms*, ſuch as colicky pains, a copious diſcharge of ſaliva when faſting, a diſ-

agreeable

agreeable breath in the morning, itching in the noſe, an irregular appetite, a ſwelled and hard belly, troubleſome ſleep, grinding the teeth during ſleep, palſies in the limbs, thirſt and feverithneſs; but as theſe, and all other ſigns, are common to this, and to other diſorders, the only one to be depended on is their being diſcharged; and this may be obſerved with reſpect to the round, the tape *worm*, and thoſe called aſcarides.

Amongſt the variety of remedies propoſed for the deſtruction of *worms*, none ſeem more to be depended on than thoſe which purge briſkly, in conjunction with thoſe that ſtrengthen the chylopoetic organs. Various are the ſpecifics for deſtroying them, but their efficacy may be attributed to their purging or corroborating quality, or to both. Mercury, rhubarb, aloes, Indian pink, ſea ſalt, ox gall, are thus efficacious; water, in which a portion of quickſilver is boiled, is ſuppoſed to receive its efficacy from a portion of arſenic which it takes up from this mineral; tin, as recommended in the Edinburgh medical Eſſays, is ſuppoſed to deſtroy the *worms* by its mechanical action on them, though, more probably, the arſenic in the tin is that to which the benefit is to be attributed. Dr. Biſs extols the baſtard black hellebore as a moſt certain deſtroyer of the round *worm*; but purging, by leſſening the ſlime, always relieves, and probably the *worms*, that are not forced away by this quickened motion of the inteſtines, may, for want of ſlime, languiſh and die. It does not appear that one kind of purge is preferable to another, let the kind of *worms* be what they will; the *worms* being always defended from the immediate action of the medicine by the ſlime, and therefore purges which act briſkly, and of which a frequent repetition can be born, are the beſt. Of this ſort are purging waters, particularly the ſulphureous, jalap, &c. Dr. Storck ſays that he hath deſtroyed all ſorts of *worms*, viz. the round, the aſcarides, and the tape-*worm*, by the following mixture repeated, as here directed. ℞ Sal polychreſt. pulv. rad. jalap & rad. valer. ſilv. pulv. āā ʒ i. ox. ſcillit. ʒ iv. m. exhibeatur adultis quater per diem ʒ ſs. junioribus vero ʒ i. aut ʒ ii.

See Andry, Linnæus, Doeveren, Coulet, on *Worms* in general; and ſee Van Phelſum on the Aſcarides, and Beddoe on the Tape-*worm*. See Edinb. Med Comment. vol. iv. p. 283, &c. Dr. Lewis's Tranſlation of Hoffman's Practice of Medicine, vol. i. p. 353. 483. vol. ii. p. 156.

The diſorder called the *worm*-fever, Dr. Muſgrave obſerves, is generally confined to children, and as it too frequently baffles the beſt endeavours, he gives the following account of the diſorder, with the method of treating it, which in his practice hath been moſt ſucceſsful. The difficulty of curing what is called a *worm*-fever, ariſes, according to this author, from its being frequently attributed to *worms*, when the cauſe of the diſorder is of a quite different nature. He does not deny that the irritation cauſed by them doth ſometimes produce a fever; but he apprehends theſe caſes to be much more uncommon than is generally imagined, and that great miſchief is done by treating ſome of the diſorders of children as *worm* caſes, which really are not ſo. Dr. Hunter, it is obſerved, was of the ſame opinion on this point; and he has diſſected great numbers of children who have been ſuppoſed to die of *worm*-fevers, and whoſe complaints were of courſe treated as proceeding from *worms*, in whom however, there appeared, upon diſſection, to be not only no *worms*, but evident proofs of the diſorder having been of a very different nature. The ſpurious *worm*-fever, as Dr. Muſgrave calls it, has, in all the inſtances he has ſeen of it, ariſen evidently from the children having been indulged with too great quantities of fruit; though a poor cold diet may, he thinks, occaſionally give birth to it. Every ſort of fruit eaten to exceſs will probably produce it; but an immoderate uſe of cherries ſeems to be the moſt common cauſe of it. The approach of this diſorder has a different appearance, according as it ariſes from a habit of eating fruit in rather too large quantities, or from an exceſſive quantity taken at one time. In the former caſe, the patient gradually grows weak and languid; his colour becomes pale and livid; his belly ſwells and grows hard; his appetite and digeſtion are deſtroyed; his nights grow reſtleſs, or at leaſt, his ſleep is much diſturbed with ſtartings, and then the fever ſoon follows; in the progreſs of which, the patient grows comatoſe, and at times convulſed; in which ſtate, when the event is not favourable, he dies. The pulſe at the wriſt, though quick, is never ſtrong or hard; the carotids, however, beat with great violence, and elevate the ſkin ſo as to be diſtinctly ſeen at a diſtance. The heat is at times conſiderable, eſpecially in the trunk; though, at other times, when the brain is much oppreſſed, it is little more than natural. It is ſometimes accompanied by a violent pain in the epigaſtric region, though more commonly the pain is ſlight, and terminates in a coma; ſome degree of pain, however, ſeems to be inſeparable from it, ſo as clearly to diſtinguiſh this diſorder from other comatoſe affections. Where a large quantity of fruit has been eaten at once, the attack of the diſorder is inſtantaneous, and its progreſs rapid; the patient often paſſing, in the ſpace of a few hours, from apparently perfect health, to a ſtupid, comatoſe, and almoſt dying ſtate. The ſymptoms of the fever, when formed, are in both caſes nearly the ſame, except that, in this latter ſort, a little purulent matter is ſometimes diſcharged, both by vomit and ſtool, from the very firſt day. The ſtools, in both caſes, exhibit ſometimes a kind of curd, reſembling curdled milk, at other times a floating ſubſtance is obſerved in them, and ſometimes a number of little threads and pellicles, and now and then a ſingle *worm*.

Strong purgatives, or purges frequently repeated in this diſorder, are greatly condemned by Dr Muſgrave, as they in general not only aggravate the ſymptoms already preſent, but are ſometimes the origin of convulſions. Blood-letting is not to be thought of in any ſtage of the diſorder. But, although frequent purging is not recommended, yet a ſingle vomit and purge are adviſed in the beginning of the diſorder, with a view to evacuate ſuch indigeſted matter and mucus as happens to remain in the ſtomach and bowels. Theſe having operated properly, there is ſeldom occaſion for repeating them; and it is ſufficient if the body be coſtive, to adminiſter every ſecond or third day, a clyſter, compoſed of aloe. opt. ʒſs. and infuſ. flor. chamæm ℥v. The principal part of the cure, however, depends upon external applications to the bowels and ſtomach; and as the cauſe of the diſorder is of a cold nature, the applications muſt be warm, cordial, and invigorating; and their action muſt be promoted by conſtant actual heat. In this caſe, ℞ Fol. abſ. & rutæ, āā p. æq. aq. pur. q. ſ. f. decoct. ſaturatiſſimum, quo calide foveatur regio ventriculi et abdomen, 4ta vel 5ta quaque horæ, per horæ quadrantem. Magma ex herbis coctis poſt fotus uſum iiſdem partibus perpetuo appoſitum teneatur, et quoties refrixerit, aliud calidum opponatur. For internal uſe, ℞ Aq. cinnam. ſp. & cinnam. ſi. āā ℥ſs Ol. amygd. D. ℥ſs. Syr. balſ. ʒiij. m. et tempore uſus fortiter concutiantur in phiala capiat pro ratione ætatis, ʒij ad ʒvj. tertia quaque hora. When any nervous ſymptoms come on, or remain after the diſorder is abated, they are eaſily removed, by giving a pill of four grains of aſſafœtida, once or twice a day.

When *worms* really infeſt the bowels, Dr. Muſgrave obſerves, that their diagnoſtics are very uncertain; but that in real *worm* caſes, the treatment above recommended would, he imagines, be much more efficacious than the practice commonly had recourſe to. As *worms* either find the conſtitution weakly, or ſoon make it ſo, the frequent repetition of purges, particularly mercurials, he aſſerts, are injurious. Fomenting the belly, night and morning, with a ſtrong decoction of rue and wormwood, is much recommended; for, by invigorating the bowels, it has thereby a conſiderable influence in rendering them capable of expelling ſuch *worms* as they happen to contain. After the fomentation, he adviſes to anoint the belly with a liniment, compoſed of one part of eſſential oil of rue, and two parts of a decoction of rue in ſweet oil. Of internal medicines, the beſt is aſſafœtida, with an aloetic pill or two at proper intervals. The diet of children diſpoſed to *worms*, he adds, ſhould be warm and nouriſhing, conſiſting, in part at leaſt, of animal food, which is not the worſe for being a little ſeaſoned. Their drink may be any kind of beer that is well hopped, with now and then a ſmall draught of porter or negus. A total abſtinence from butter is not ſo neceſſary as is generally thought. Poor cheeſe muſt be wholly avoided, but ſuch as is rich and pungent, may be moderately allowed,

for

for it is peculiarly uſeful. It is equally an error to feed children too well with rich food, rich ſauces, and a very free uſe of wine; and to confine them to too ſtrict or too poor a diet, which weakens their digeſtion, and renders them liable to diſorders in their bowels.

Dr. Butter, in his Treatiſe on the Infantile remittent Fever, which he ſays is the *worm*-fever of authors, aſſerts, that there is not the ſmalleſt rational ground for regarding *worms* in the cure of this fever. That, though the exiſtence of *worms* be a ſign of diſeaſe in children, yet, in his judgment, they are properly neither cauſe nor ſymptom of ſuch diſeaſe; and therefore ought not to influence, in any reſpect, medical practice. It hath long been known that fevers deſtroy *worms*. As a definition, he ſays, that the infantile remittent fever is diſtinguiſhed by drowſy exacerbations, wakeful remiſſions, pain of the head and belly, total loſs of appetite, little thirſt, and ſlimy ſtools. In his deſcription he obſerves, that this fever is accompanied with a great many ſymptoms, but they ſeldom all occur in the ſame caſe. Theſe ſymptoms he arranges under three different heads, conſtituting ſo many varieties of the diſeaſe. Theſe varieties he names the acute, the ſlow, and the low infantile remittent fevers; as cauſes, the doctor points out irritability and indigeſtion; this fever may be accelerated by cold, fatigue, &c. but the principal cauſes are crude accumulations in the firſt paſſages, which, with a very irritable prediſpoſition, draw the inteſtinal canal into ſpaſm, which is ſoon communicated to the reſt of the body, conſtituting the fever. The two ſymptoms commonly attributed to *worms*, he refers to debility as their cauſe; theſe ſymptoms are the loſs of voice, and of ſpeech. In order to the cure, Dr. Butter propoſes but one indication to be regarded, viz. the removal of the febrile irritation. This irritation is owing to a ſpaſmodic affection of the inteſtinal and other membranes of the body, ſupported by morbid accumulations in the firſt paſſages. The means preferred are, reſt, quietneſs, and ſtillneſs. The bedroom ſhould have but little light admitted into it. Diluting and nouriſhing drinks ſhould be frequently given, ſuch as ſmall broth, gruel, and barley-water. Solid food ſhould not be allowed. The neutral ſalts, particularly the ſal polychreſt. is uſeful by its abating the inteſtinal ſtricture, and rendering the bowels rather lax. For a child of five years old, a dram of the ſalt may be diſſolved in four ounces of water, ſweetened with any convenient ſyrup, or with ſugar, and two table ſpoonfulls may be given every four hours. This mixture ſhould be given ſo as to keep the bowels open; in general when the fever is low, one ſtool ſhould be produced every day, two in the ſlow, and three or four in the acute kind. When the bowels are rendered ſoluble, nitre may be uſed inſtead of the ſal. polychreſt. If a looſeneſs attends, the neutral ſalts muſt not be given, but in their ſtead, give the following mixture in the ſame manner as the above with ſal. polychreſt. In four ounces of water diſſolve five grains of the extr. cicutæ, and add to it a dram of ſugar. In the ſlow kind of this fever, the mixture with the extr. cicutæ is to be preferred to that with the ſalt. A grain for every year of the patient's age may be given, diſſolved in water as already directed. If required to keep the belly lax, when the extract is uſed, the ſal. polychreſt. may be given twice a day, or as much rhubarb may be given every night as may be required. The general treatment takes place in the beginning of the low fever; but after the ſymptoms of lowneſs abate, the treatment varies a little. In caſe of coſtiveneſs, half a dram of the ſal. polychreſt. may be given, diſſolved in two ounces of water ſweetened, the one half at night the other in the morning. If the child hath a ſtool daily, the nitre may be uſed inſtead of the ſal. polychreſt. Four drops of the elix. vitr. a. may be given every four hours in the patient's drink. Small wine-whey ſhould be uſed inſtead of barley-water, by turns with the gruel and broth; ſometimes a little wine may be added to the gruel. If this low fever is complicated with looſeneſs, the extr. cicutæ given as above, ſhould be the only medicine employed, except a drop or two of the tinct. theb. after each ſtool. To relieve the vociferation and reſtleſſneſs, foment the belly with flannel cloths wrung out of a decoction of camomile, agreeably warm, and repeated as required.

VERMIFORMIS. A prominence of the cerebellum, ſo called from *vermis*, *a worm*, and *forma*, *ſhape*.

VERONICA, called alſo betonica Pauli, thea Germanica, fluellin, and male-ſpeedwell. Veronica officinalis, Linn. It is a low, hairy, trailing plant, with firm leaves ſet in pairs. From the joints ariſe ſlender pedicles, bearing ſpikes of blue monopetalous flowers, each of which is divided, as is the cup, into four ſegments, and followed by a flat bicellular capſule, which opens at the upper broad part, and ſheds ſmall brown ſeeds. It is perennial, grows wild on ſandy grounds and dry commons. It flowers in June.

The leaves have a weak, but not diſagreeable ſmell, which in drying is diſſipated, and which they give over in diſtillation with water, but without yielding any ſeparable oil; to the taſte they are bitter and rough. They give out their virtue to water and to ſpirit, but moſt perfectly to the latter.

An infuſion of the leaves drank as tea is diuretic; the water diſtilled from them is called European tea, and by ſome is preferred to the Aſiatic. Both the infuſion in water, and the diſtilled water, poſſeſs all the virtues of the Aſiatic tea, and have the ſame good effects. See Francus on the Virtues of *Veronica*.

VERRICULARIS TUNICA, from *verriculum*, i. e. Amphibliſtroides.

VERRUCA. Warts. A *wart* begins in the cutis, and ſeems to be either an efflorescence of the ſerum hardening on the ſkin, or making a dry tumor, or a ſmall luxuriancy of the little arteries of the cutis, making a little ſarcoma, or ſoft *wart*. When it ariſes with a broad baſis, it is called *verruca* ſeſſilis. Sometimes a few capillaries putting out together, after they are grown to a ſmall length, enlarge themſelves into a greater compaſs, and make the penſile tumor called acrochordon.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of diſeaſe in the claſs locales and order tumores.

Warts are generally removed by inciſion, or by the uſe of cauſtics. The juice of celandine, of euphorbium, the gall of the pike, or of the eel, the mineral acids, the lunar cauſtic, or an actual cautery, after which laſt they are ſaid never to return.

When *warts* are on the knuckles they are difficult to be ſeparated, without hurting the tendons, and are generally to be left to themſelves. Heiſter obſerves, that on the face, lips, or eye-lids, there are ſometimes a ſort of livid and bluiſh *warts*, which in their tendency are next to a cancer. Theſe are beſt let alone, for if they are diſturbed they degenerate into a cancer. See Heiſter's Surgery, Tiſſot's Advice to the People.

VERTEBRÆ, from *verto*, *to turn*. See SPINA.

VERTEX, from *verto*, *to turn*. The crown of the head, ſo called becauſe the hairs turn there.

VERTIGO, from *vertendo*, in which the head ſeems to turn, or at leaſt all things about the patient ſeem to do ſo. It is always ſymptomatic. When a miſt is alſo before the eyes, it is called ſcotidinos, or ſcotedinos. When a giddineſs, with only a dimneſs of the ſight, or a ſparkling before the eyes attend, it is called ſcotomia. Etmuller divides it into three kinds: 1. A ſimple *vertigo*, in which there is only a tranſient and ſhort continued gyration of objects. 2. A dark *vertigo*, or ſcotomia, when the eyes are darkened, or ſo affected, as if ſeveral colours were before them. 3. The *vertigo* called caduca, in which the patient preſently falls down.

The cauſes are a compreſſion on the brain from a depreſſion of the ſkull; an extravaſation of matter on the membranes of the brain, &c. In acute diſeaſes, the larger veſſels being diſtended with blood, either from its unuſual quantity, or its rarefaction preſſing the brain. Any cauſe that can preſs, diſtend, or contract the arteries, ſuch as ſudden ſurprize, ebriety, voracity, &c. by which the regular influx of the ſpirits, and their reflux into the optic nerves are prevented. An acid, or other acrimony in the ſtomach, may affect the nerves, and, by conſent of parts, produce this diſorder of the head. Dr. de Meza obſerves that *vertigo* may proceed from ſix different cauſes, viz. 1. From a ſanguineous plethora. 2. From a foulneſs in the primæ viæ. 3. From debility in conſequence of exceſſive evacuations. 4. From compreſſion. 5. From poiſons of different kinds; as opium, mercury, fumes of charcoal, &c.

&c. And 6. From a ſerofa colluvies, in conſequence of a ſtoppage of iſſues, ulcers, or any other habitual drains.

In a *vertigo*, there is generally an apparent rotation of external objects, though ſometimes all things ſeem to aſcend, and ſometimes they ſeem to have a contrary tendency. As the diſorder increaſes, the objects appear of various colours, and ſoon after follows a tottering of the whole muſcular frame; the patient begins to be afraid of falling, and catches hold of every thing near him, to ſuſtain himſelf; the diſorder increaſing, there comes on a dimneſs, then a loſs of ſight, then the nerves fail all at once, and the patient falls to the ground. If the diſorder proceeds further than this, it terminates in a lipothomy, epilepſy, or apoplexy. When a loſs of ſight attends a *vertigo*, there is alſo a ringing of the ears.

If the diſorder is recent, happens ſeldom, the patient young, the cure is eaſy; if it is original and confirmed, happens frequently, or if it ſeizes old perſons, and is accompanied with great dimneſs of ſight, and inability to ſtand, the cure is difficult; if the ringing of the ears proceeds from a diſorder of the brain, it is often troubleſome for many years, and forebodes an epilepſy, or an apoplexy.

If there is a ſanguine plethora, bleeding will be neceſſary, and the taking of blood from the temporal artery hath ſucceeded, when for a long time all other methods have failed. If there is a nauſea, or other diſorder of the ſtomach, an emetic is generally to be preſcribed. This diſorder is moſt frequently ſymptomatic, and then purging with the tinct. ſacra, or the pil. Rufi is amongſt the moſt effectual remedies. To theſe may be added mild chalybeates, and ſuch nervous medicines as the peculiarity of the conſtitution in general, or ſymptoms in particular may require. When a ſymptom of the gout, &c. the original diſorder being removed, the ſymptomatic will of courſe follow. See Swan's Tranſlation of Sydenham's Works, Etmuller, Mead, Hoffman, Heiſter, &c.

VESANIA. Melancholy. Defect of judgment, as in delirium, madneſs, idiotiſm, &c. Alienation of the mind. In particular a tranquil partial *melancholy*.

VESICA URINARIA. The urinary bladder. It is of an oblong form, its fundus lies againſt the os pubis, and its neck upon the os ſacrum, and coccygis. The neck does not come out at the end of the *bladder*, but at the flat and moſt depending ſide, through the proſtate gland, which lies flat upon it, ſo that there is properly no neck, being nothing of that ſhape. The fundus is the ſmalleſt end; the erect attitude ſeems to be the principal reaſon of this difference between this ſhape and that of quadrupeds. The *bladder* of a fœtus is very ſimilar to that of a quadruped. The ureters enter into the *bladder* near the veſiculæ ſeminales. The coats of the *bladder* are, 1ſt, a partial one from the peritoneum. 2d, A muſcular coat, the greateſt part of the external fibres of which are longitudinal, ariſing from the proſtate gland. Under theſe is a ſtratum principally circular, under which, on the inſide, is a very complex net-work of fibres, running in all directions, by which diverſity, and being fixed to the proſtrate gland, they, in motion, bring all parts towards the gland, for the expulſion of the urine, and to contract the *bladder*, lying looſe when empty. The inner coat is a very thin tranſparent membrane, of a very denſe texture, which prevents the tranſudations of urine. Many deſcribe another coat, but it is nothing more than the cellular membrane. The ligamentous remains of the urachus upon the fundus of the *bladder* is never pervious. The ureters have ſmall oblique orifices, and paſs obliquely through the coats, which hath the effect of valves. The urethra ariſes from the flat ſurface of the *bladder*. The arteries are from the hypogaſtric, or internal iliac, being branches of the arteria ſciatica, epigaſtrica, and umbilicalis, on each ſide. The nerves are from the crurales, and the ſympathetici maximi, by means of their communication with the crurales; ſome branches are from the plexus meſentericus inferior. See Haller's Phyſiology in the articles Renes, Winſlow's Anatomy.

VESICÆ (RARUS) MORBUS, Hoffm. It is a copious diſcharge of mucus with the urine. It is an inſtance of the dyſuria mucoſa of Cullen.

VESICULA FELLIS. The gall-bladder. Under the great lobe of the liver, a little to the right, we ſee the *gall bladder*. It is ſituated in a ſulcus on the under ſide of the great lobe, in the fiſſure between the two lobes, and being attached to the liver, hath a coat from the peritoneum. In a ſtanding poſture it lies forwards and downwards. Its fundus is raiſed by a fulneſs, and depreſſed by the emptying of the ſtomach; whence that uneaſy ſenſation which attends hunger. Its coats are like thoſe of the inteſtines, the inner is not villous, nor papillous, but a net-work of plicæ in all directions. The hepatic and cyſtic ducts run almoſt parallel, and quite contiguous (not as repreſented in figures), and uniting, form the ductus communis cholidochus, which, going on, joins the ductus pancreaticus, and opens into the duodenum, in the moſt depending concave part of the inteſtine. See Winſlow's Anatomy, Haller's Phyſiology in the article Jecur.

VESICULÆ DIVÆ BARBARÆ. The confluent ſmall-pox.

VESICULÆ GINGIVARUM. The Thruſh. See Aphthæ.

VESICULÆ SEMINALES. They are two membranaceous cellular tubes, lying on each ſide between the bladder and the rectum, on the outſide of the vaſa deferentia; they are about three fingers breadth long, and one broad; they are convoluted like the inteſtines, and kept in their ſituation by a ligamentous membrane, the internal fibres of which are muſcular. The inſide of the veſiculæ ſeminales is cavernous, and of a villous appearance.

VESTIBULUM. It is an irregular round cavity, not quite ſo large as the tympanum, and ſituated rather more inward and forward. The veſtibulum and tympanum are, as it were, ſet back to back, with a partition between them, and communicating near the middle by the feneſtra ovalis.

VETERNUM. The anaſarca.

VETERNUS. A lethargy.

VIBEX. *Purple* ſpots, and wheals under the ſkin, of a *ſcarlet* colour.

VIBURNUM, called alſo lantana. Pliant mealy tree, wayfaring tree. Boerhaave mentions nine ſorts. It is an arboreſcent ſhrub; its wood is fungous; the leaves reſemble thoſe of alder; the flowers grow in umbellas, ſmall like elder flowers, are white, and conſiſt of five petals; the flowers are ſucceeded by berries which are green, then red, and at laſt black; they are ſweet and viſcous. This ſhrub is found in hedges, and clayey uncultivated grounds. The leaves and berries are aſtringent. See Raii Hiſt.

VICIA. The tare or vetch. The pod is full of roundiſh or angulated ſeeds; the leaves are numerous, pinnated, and generally conjugated by pairs to a rib which ends in a tendril. Boerhaave enumerates twenty-two ſpecies. The tares, or vetches, are heating and aſtringent.

VINCA PERVINCA, called alſo clematis daphnoides major, pervinca major. The greater periwinkle, or pervinkle. From a ſtringy, creeping, fibrous root, ſprings ſmooth ſlender ſtalks that are long and creeping. The flower is monopetalous, and is followed by two pods, in which are oblong, ſulcated, and almoſt cylindrical ſeeds. This plant grows on banks at the ſides of ditches. An infuſion of the leaves is commended againſt the fluor albus, hæmoptoe, hæmorrhoids, and exceſſive menſes. See Raii Hiſt.

VINCETOXICUM. Swallow-wort, i. e. Aſclepius vincetoxicum, Linn.

VINUM. Wine. The juices of ſweet fruits, ſuch as grapes, currants, apples, &c. are called wines when they are fermented; but the name is more particularly applied to the fermented juice of the grape. One and the ſame kind of grape proves greatly different in taſte and flavour, according to the climate and expoſure to the ſun. Thoſe wines which have ſcarcely been at all fermented, and are boiled, are called muſt, and boiled wines. It is the thin watery juices that are extremely prone to ferment, and in which fermentation, when once begun, can ſcarcely be ſuppreſſed, until it hath run beyond the vinous ſtate, that is thus treated. By boiling, the fermentative quality is reſtrained, the liquor becomes richer, and continues fit for drinking at leaſt a year or two; but it is not ſo wholeſome as the fermented wine. Muſt relaxes the conſtitution, and if drank immoderately, it is apt to produce dangerous fluxes; on the contrary, perfect *wine* conſtringes and corroborates. Another claſs of *wines* is thoſe which have undergone fermentation, but not a complete one; of theſe there are two kinds, 1ſt, The thin

ſweet *wines*, which are only muſt, partially fermented, or whoſe fermentation is checked before the ſweetneſs is gone off; theſe *wines* can ſcarcely be kept a year. 2d, The ſtrong full bodied *wines* that are rich and ſweet; theſe are generally a mixture of fermented and inſpiſſated muſt, the latter being added to increaſe the richneſs of the liquor, and prevent the fermentation from running beyond its due limits. Theſe *wines* heat the conſtitution, and ſhould be ſparingly drank; of this kind are the Malmſey, Canary, &c. 3d, Thoſe which have been completely fermented, and have thrown off their groſs matter. Theſe are the the moſt perfect, and the moſt ſalutary.

The goodneſs of *wines* is judged of by their being bright, clear, and ſparkling in the glaſs, of an agreeable reviving ſmell and taſte, leaving, when in the mouth ſome time, a ſlight ſenſe of aſtringency, being moderately ſtrong and ſpirituous, paſſing freely by urine, exciting appetite, producing a gentle ſweat in the night, and keeping the body open next day, without being followed by any head-ach, heavineſs of the limbs, or other uneaſineſs.

The principles of which *wine* conſiſts are water, inflammable ſpirit, a fine ſaline matter which ariſes in diſtillation immediately after the ſpirit, called by Becher media ſubſtantia vini; a groſſer ſalt called tartar, which ſeparates on ſtanding, and adheres to the ſides of the caſks; a gummy or mucilaginous ſubſtance; and a groſs unctuous or reſinous kind of matter.

With us the five following kinds of *wine* only are ordered for pharmaceutic and medicinal uſes, viz. 1ſt, The *vin.* alb. Hiſpanicum, or mountain *wine*. 2d, *Vin.* alb. Gallicum, or French white *wine*. 3d, *Vin.* Canarinum, Canary or ſack. 4th, *Vin.* Rhenanum, or Rheniſh *wine*. 5th, *Vin.* rubrum, or red Port. The firſt are generally ſtrong and ſweet, conſiſting of half fermented *wine* and muſt. The ſecond are moderately ſpirituous, grateful to the ſtomach, and paſs freely by urine, but ſome of them affect the head. The third are very rich and ſtrong, their effects are more durable than the thinner, and they are nutritious. The fourth are the moſt acid, and are alſo the moſt diuretic; they alſo render the bowels lax. The fifth are the moſt aſtringent and ſtrengthening.

Conſidered as a medicine, *wine* is a valuable cordial in languors and debilities, more grateful and reviving than the common aromatic infuſions and diſtilled waters; it is particularly uſeful in the low ſtage of malignant and other fevers; it raiſes the pulſe, ſupports the ſtrength, promotes a diaphoreſis, and reſiſts putrefaction. Uſed dietetically, it is uſeful to the weak and aged, and to thoſe who are expoſed to a warm and moiſt air, or to a corrupted one. Uſed externally, it cools, ſtrengthens, and reſiſts putrefaction. Dr. Harris, in his Diſſert. Chirurg. ſays, that ulcers ſhould be waſhed with warm *wine*; external inflammations are removed by it. In an eryſipelas, and eryſipelatous pains in wounds, warm *wine*, and fomentations with the the ſpirit of *wine*, are the moſt uſeful. See Neumann's Chem. Works, Dict. of Chem. Lewis's Mat. Med.

VINUM ADUSTUM, called alſo vinum ardens, ſpiritus vini. Vinous, inflammable, and vegetable fermented ſpirit, ſpirit of wine, which laſt is the general name when it is rectified. It is never applied to that which is of the ſtrength of brandy, and which is called proof *ſpirit*. When this *ſpirit* is brought to the higheſt degree of purity from phlegm and oil, it is called alcohol.

This *ſpirit* is obtained by diſtillation of fermented liquors. In France it is all drawn from wines; in England and Germany it is drawn from malt liquors. Some is drawn from molaſſes; and in America it is diſtilled from ſugar after fermenting it, and is there called rum. This *ſpirit*, whatever be the ſubject from which it is obtained, if freed from its phlegm and groſs oil, is found in every trial to be the ſame.

When this *ſpirit* is firſt drawn faom any fermented vegetable liquor, it contains much of the phlegm thereof, and of the eſſential oil of the reſpective vegetable which afforded it; it is therefore rectified, or purified, by redиſtilling it with a very gentle heat; and when on adding a ſmall quantity of this *ſpirit* to a little cotton, and ſetting it on fire, it burns away ſo perfectly, as that at laſt the cotton alſo takes fire, and flames alſo, it is called rectified *ſpirit of wine*. If an equal meaſure of this rectified *ſpirit*, and of pure water are mixed, it will be of the ſtrength of what is called a brandy, or proof *ſpirit*. If to the rectified *ſpirit* as much well dried, and yet warm alkaline ſalt be added, as that a part of it remains undiſſolved at the bottom, it will abſorb the remaining aqueous humidity, and the *ſpirit* may be poured from its ſurface. After which, if a little calcined vitriol, or burnt alum be added to this dephlegmated *ſpirit*, and it be again diſtilled, it will ariſe pure and free from either ſuperfluous phlegm, or any of the alcaline ſalt that may be detained therein. The *ſpirit* after this treatment is called alcohol.

Pure *ſpirit*, even after brought to the ſtate of alcohol, is no other than an intimate combination of water with an oil which hath been highly ſubtilized by the proceſs of fermentation, and a ſmall portion of acid. From the beſt rectified *ſpirit* ſomewhat more than one half of its quantity of water may yet be extracted from it.

This *ſpirit* is of extenſive uſe in chemiſtry; it ſeparates the medicinal parts of vegetable and animal ſubſtances from the inactive matter; it extracts their flavour and colour; it diſſolves reſins and oils for varniſhes, &c. and extracts them from woods which contain them; it preſerves animal and vegetable bodies from corruption; it diſſolves all vegetable reſins and diſtilled oils, the ſubtil oils of aromatic herbs, flowers, ſeeds, fruit, woods, and roots; it diſſolves empyreumatic oils; it mingles with water, and produces much heat by being mixed therewith; it coagulates milk, blood, and the white of egg, and moſt animal juices, except the urine and bile; it mingles with all acids concentrated or diluted, whether of the mineral or vegetable kingdom; on mixing it with the concentrated mineral acids, a ſtrong ebullition and heat enſues, the acidity is obtunded or deſtroyed, and the compound proves a ſubtil, volatile, fragrant fluid, and thus produces the dulcified acid *ſpirits*.

As a medicine, *ſpirit of wine*, when externally applied, ſtrengthens the veſſels, and thickens the juices in them, and thus reſtrains hæmorrhages; it inſtantly contracts the extremities of the nerves, and deprives them of ſenſe and motion, thus it eaſes their pain, but deſtroys their uſe; if received into the ſtomach in an undiluted ſtate, it produces the ſame effects as when externally applied; and if the quantity taken is conſiderable, a palſy or apoplexy follows, and ſoon proves mortal. Proof *ſpirit*, and ſuch as is diluted below the ſtrength of proof, when externally applied in conjunction with corroborant, anodyne, and antiſeptic fomentations, is of conſiderable efficacy; if it is inwardly taken in ſmall quantities, it ſtrengthens lax fibres, incraſſates thin fluids, and warms the habit. A moderate internal uſe of this *ſpirit* is the moſt ſerviceable to thoſe who are expoſed to heat and moiſture, to corrupted air, or other cauſes of colliquative and putrid diſeaſes. See Neuman's Chem. Works; Dict. of Chem. Lewis's Mat. Med.

VIOLA. The violet. Boerhaave takes notice of eighteen ſorts, but it is only the ſweet-ſcented purple kind that is in uſe with us. *Viola* odorata, or *viola* acaulis, foliis cordatis, ſtolonibus reptantibus teretibus, pedunculis, radicalibus, flora ſimplici purpureo odorato, Linn. The ſingle purple ſweet *violet*. The flowers have a very agreeable ſmell, and a weak mucilaginous bitteriſh taſte. If taken to the quantity of two drams they are gently laxative; the ſeeds are ſomewhat more laxative, and alſo gently emetic. The flowers give out to water both their virtues and fine colour, but ſcarcely impart any tincture to rectified ſpirit of wine, though they impregnate the ſpirit with their fine flavour.

A ſyrup is made with the blue flowers, and is uſed as a laxative for infants; but both the flowers and the ſyrup loſe their fine colour by long keeping. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

VIPERA. The viper. The coluber berus, i. e. coluber ſcutis abdominalibus, 146. ſquamis caudæ, 39. Linn. It is a viviparous reptile, about an inch or leſs in thickneſs, and from twenty to thirty inches in length. It is diſtinguiſhed from the ſnake by an undulated black line on its back, and the ſmallneſs of its tail. It is found in the heat of ſummer under hedges, and in winter it retires into holes in the earth. Its poiſon is at the baſis of its fangs, or long teeth, through which it is emitted by a ſlit when the animal bites. A ſmall portion of this poiſon when

when communicated to the blood by a wound produces dreadful effects, though when taken into the ſtomach it is inoffenſive. If a *viper* bites itſelf or another *viper*, they die as ſpeedily as any other animal which hath ſuffered the ſame accident. The famed cure, when the *viper*'s poiſon is received by a wound, is immediately to rub the fat of *vipers* into the wounded part, and the patient muſt take as much vinegar in all he drinks for ſome time after the accident, as is at leaſt agreeable to the palate. See alſo the famed cure for the bite of a rattle-ſnake in the article BOICININGO.

As a medicine, the fleſh of *vipers* does not appear to excel that of eels; and the jus *viperinum* of the London college ſeems to be the beſt preparation of it. A wine is made by adding two ounces of the dried fleſh, coarſely powdered, to three pints of good white wine, and digeſting them for a week. See Mead on Poiſons; Lewis's Mat. Med.

VIRGA AUREA, alſo called herba doria, conſolida Saracenica. Common golden-rod. It is the ſolidago virga aurea, Linn. It is a plant with long, and ſomewhat oval leaves, pointed at both ends, ſlightly, or not at all indented, with upright ſpikes of ſmall yellow flowers, which are followed by ſmall ſeeds, winged with down. It is perennial, grows wild in woods and on heaths, and flowers in Auguſt. The leaves and flowers are corroborant, aperient, and diuretic; they communicate all their virtues to water and to ſpirit. The extracts are the beſt preparations. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

VIRGATA SUTURA, i. e. Sutura Sagittalis.

VIRGINALE CLAUSTRUM. The hymen.

VIRIUM LAPSUS, i. e. Lipothymia.

VIS CONSERVATRIX. The preſerving power, or the exertion of the plaſtic power, as far as it maintains organization.

VIS GENERATRIX. The generative power, or the generative exertion of the plaſtic power.

VIS MEDIATRIX. The healing power or the plaſtic power employed in extinguiſhing diſeaſe and reſtoring health; this is often expreſſed by the words Nature, and Natural Cure.

VIS PLASTICA. The plaſtic power.

VISCERA. The bowels. The *viſcera* in the head are the brain, eyes, ears, noſe, mouth, tongue, &c. In the breaſt, they are the heart, lungs, larynx, trachea, pleura, mediaſtinum, pericardium, thymus gland, diaphragm, &c. In the belly, they are the peritoneum, omentum, œſophagus, ſtomach, inteſtines, meſentery, liver, ſpleen, pancreas, kidnies, ureters, bladder, and parts of generation.

A knowledge of the ſituation of the abdominal viſcera, is of great advantage to the medical practitioner. The abdomen may be conſidered as divided into three regions, the ſuperior, the middle, and inferior. In the firſt are comprehended thoſe parts that are bounded by the diaphragm and ribs; the ſecond extends from the ribs to the pelvis; and the pelvis itſelf conſtitutes the laſt. Theſe three regions form one large cavity, in which are contained all the viſcera of the lower belly; the extent, however, of theſe different diviſions varies in different ages, in different ſubjects, and is altered likewiſe by diſeaſe. In new born infants, the diſtance between the ſternum and the pelvis is near to a third of their whole length; in adults, the length of the abdomen does not extend to a fifth of the whole. In children of three feet in height, the abdomen meaſures nearly one foot, and it is not found to exceed that, in adults five feet high. This difference with reſpect to the abdomen in infants and in adults is confined entirely to the middle region, which, in children, is not only much longer, but, in proportion, much more extenſive in every reſpect, than in people come to their full ſize. In the former, it is wider from before backwards, in children the ſpine being almoſt entirely ſtraight, whereas, in adults, it becomes conſiderably crooked. In children too, it is much wider from one ſide to the other than in adults, as in them the ribs bend more outwards than they do in the latter. Although this middle abdominal region, however, is in children ſo extenſive, yet both the ſuperior and inferior diviſions are not proportionally ſo; nay, they are even ſmall, in compariſon to thoſe of adults. The pelvis is incomparably ſmaller in the fœtus than in adults; in the former, the under extremity of the os ſacrum bends conſiderably over towards the pubis. The horizontal branch of the pubis is both ſhort and flat, and the tuberoſities of the iſchia are turned backwards. Every circumſtance, therefore, concurs to ſhorten the cavities of both the inferior and ſuperior abdominal regions; inſomuch that, in young children, all the *viſcera* of the lower belly are contained in what we have termed the middle diviſion, and remain there, until, by degrees, they inſinuate themſelves into the other two regions, as theſe, in courſe of time, come to be enlarged. Before treating, however, of the changes the *viſcera* undergo in point of ſituation from the infantine ſtate to that of adults, it will not be improper firſt to give a more particular deſcription of their ſeveral ſituations in the former. The ſtomach in infants, in place of being ſituated tranſverſely, as is the caſe in adults, hangs almoſt perpendicularly. It extends from what is commonly called the epigaſtric region, to the umbilical, inclining a very little to the left above, and to the right ſide below; having its convex ſide or great curve turned to the left, and the ſmall curvature towards the right. In conſequence of this ſituation of the ſtomach, the omentum, which is always attached to its great curvature, lies more towards the left than the right ſide; and, from want of knowledge of this circumſtance, practitioners have often treated, as diſeaſes of the colon, ſuch complaints in children, as, on opening the bodies after death have been found ſeated in the omentum only. The liver is very large in the fœtus, in proportion to its ſize in adults, and is ſituated almoſt entirely in the middle region of the abdomen; it appears to the touch externally, indeed, much nearer the linea alba than it is ever found to be in a more advanced age. At this period the duodenum is placed almoſt entirely behind the ſtomach. The ſpleen in infants is always eaſily diſcovered by the touch, immediately below the falſe ribs; this, in adults, never can be done, but in a diſeaſed ſtate of that viſcus. In the former, a conſiderable part of it is ſituated in the middle region of the abdomen; whereas, in the latter, its ſeat is always in the left hypochondrium. In very young ſubjects, the urinary bladder is ſituated entirely without the pelvis, is remarkably large in proportion to the other parts, and extends to within a very ſmall diſtance of the navel; when full of urine, it makes a very evident prominence near about the middle and inferior part of the abdomen. This poſition of the bladder, above the os pubis, ought to be particularly attended to; for when, in infancy, it is neceſſary, to have recourſe to lithotomy, the high operation ſhould always be preferred to thoſe where the opening is made in the perinæum. This operation, however, has never been favourably looked upon. But, as the ſhorteſt and eaſieſt paſſage to the bladder is, in lithotomy, a principal object, it ought certainly, in children, to be preferred to every other, the bladder in them lying ſo near to the external teguments above the pubes. In young girls, the womb, with its two ovaria, are conſiderably raiſed above the os pubis, and when ſwelled, a circumſtance, which, at this age, ſeldom occurs, it can eaſily be diſtinguiſhed by the touch externally.

Such are the ſituations of the *viſcera* in childhood. In a more advanced age, they are entirely changed; the ribs become leſs crooked, the diaphragm more vaulted, and the liver gets a higher ſituation, inſomuch that, about the fifteenth year, it is almoſt entirely covered under the ribs, when the perſon is in an horizontal poſture. This change of ſituation in the liver occaſions a manifeſt alteration likewiſe in the poſition of the ſtomach. By degrees it deviates from the perpendicular horizontal line; and according as it changes its ſituation, the omentum recedes entirely from the left ſide, and proceeds to occupy the middle part of the lower belly. Although the horizontal lobe of the liver can be diſtinguiſhed by the touch in adults, yet never by any means ſo evidently as in children; it is ſituated almoſt upon the under extremity of the œſophagus, ſo that, when it becomes preternaturally enlarged, it compreſſes that canal ſo entirely as to prevent the entrance of the aliments into the ſtomach: in which caſe, the perſon ſuffers greatly from very violent vomitings with which he is attacked ſome time before death. In the mean time, the pelvis becomes every way larger; the pubis turns conſiderably longer, and acquires a greater height; the os ſacrum ſtretches farther back, and the tuberoſities of the iſchium

puſh

puſh outwards, and to a greater diſtance from the os coccigis. Such a conſiderable augmentation in the cavity of the lower part of the abdomen, gives riſe to ſuch changes in the poſition of the different *viſcera*, as deſerves, from practitioners, very particular attention. Thoſe which, from their make and nature, have been accuſtomed to float in the middle region of the abdomen, now fall down into the pelvis; this is particularly the caſe with the bladder, which, in falling down, has its ſuperior part carried forward, and the urachus, which had been attached to the fundus, is torn away, and never again connected with it. This fact was firſt taken notice of by Mr. Lieutaud, and is not as yet believed by many anatomiſts. The ſame cauſe which produces the change of poſition in the bladder, occaſions alſo that of the uterus. The womb, which, in childhood, had been placed above the pubis, by degrees falls into the pelvis, inſomuch that in adult women, who are not pregnant, it is always, in a ſound ſtate at leaſt, entirely ſunk into it. Both the bladder and the uterus acquire an oblique ſituation in the pelvis, owing to the deſcent of the inteſtines; this obliquity, that becomes in a manner natural to both theſe *viſcera*, was obſerved by Gunzius, and Camper.

See Edinb. Med. Com. vol. ii. p. 152, &c. from M. Portal's paper in l'Hiſtoire de l'Academie Royale des Sciences de Paris, année 1771, 4to. Paris.

VISCUM. Bird-lime.

VISCUS. Miſſeltoe. Viſcum Album, Linn. It is a buſhy evergreen plant, which bears imperfect white flowers, that are followed by tranſparent whitiſh berries. It grows only on the trunks and branches of trees. Formerly bird-lime was made of the berries, by boiling them in water until they burſt; then they were well beat in a mortar, and after that waſhed in water, until all the branny huſk was waſhed away; but now bird-lime is made from the holly-buſh. The miſſeltoe hath been famed for its medicinal virtues, but it is not much noticed in the preſent practice. See Raii Hiſt. Plant. Sir John Colbatch's Treatiſe on the Miſſeltoe.

VISIO. The ſight. The light we have in our atmoſphere proceeds either from that of the ſun, or from ſome other lucid body; from whence the rays ſpread every way, as from a center to all points of a large ſphere, ſo as to fall upon the ſurfaces of bodies, from whence again they are reflected into the eye from the enlightened ſurfaces in angles, equal to that of their incidence, ſo as to render the bodies from whence they thus flow to the eye, both viſible, and of ſome colour. The rays of light fall upon the cornea of the eye, where they are refracted, and paſs on to the cryſtalline humour, where they are ſtill more *refracted*; then proceeding through the vitreous humour, by which they are directed to the retina, where they form the image of the object ſeen. It is called the focal point, where the images of objects are formed by the cryſtalline humour on the retina, and there the image of the object ſeen is painted in an inverted poſition, or, as it were, upſide down, though perceived by the mind according to the ſituation of the object of *ſight*. See Boerhaave's Med. Inſtit. Haller's Phyſiology, lect. xviii. Prieſtley on Viſion, &c.

VIS MEDIATRIX NATURÆ, i. e. Vis Vitæ.

VISNAGA, alſo called gingidium Hiſpanicum. Spaniſh Picktooth. It is an annual plant growing in Italy, remarkable for the agreeable ſcent and ſtiffneſs of the pedicles of the flowers, which are made uſe of for picking the teeth only. In other reſpects the virtues of the plant are ſimilar to thoſe of fennel. See Raii Hiſt.

VIS VITÆ. Boerhaave uſes this term to ſignify the joint action of all the parts of a human body, whereby the machine is contiuually recruited and put in order. But when any thing proves too hard to be conquered by this *vis*, a diſeaſe enſues. Dr. Aitken, in his Elements of Phyſic, alſo defines it to be, the ſtate, or condition of animal or vegetable organization indiſpenſably requiſite to the capability of function. Different writers variouſly conſider this ſubject. Hippocrates and many others conſidered it as heat or fire. See CALIDUM INNATUM.

VITELLUS. The yolk of egg. It contributes to nouriſh the chick, only in preparing the white for the purpoſe, or almoſt becoming like the white. In pharmacy it is uſed as a medium for uniting balſams, &c. with water. As a medicine it is anodyne, maturating, digeſtive, and relaxing, and hence it is often uſed in glyſters.

VITEX. It is a kind of buſh which is common in Malabar, &c. Boerhaave takes notice of ſix ſpecies, but though applied to ſome uſes in its native country, it is unknown in our medical practice. See Raii Hiſt.

VITIA. Linnæus expreſſes by this word, his claſs of cutaneous, external, or palpable diſeaſes. *Vitia* is a ſynonym with Cullen's locales in his Noſology.

VITILIGO. A ſpecies of white leproſy. See ALPHUS.

VITIS. The vine tree. The Vitis Vinifera Linn. Of the *vine tree* botaniſts have enumerated above twenty ſpecies, and there are almoſt twenty of its productions in uſe. Its leaves are aſtringent. If the trunk is wounded in ſpring, it affords a watery juice, which hath been uſed as a diuretic refrigerant. The flowers have a grateful ſmell, which is elevated with water in diſtillation. Along with the water a ſmall portion of eſſential oil ariſes, which poſſeſſes the flavour of the flowers in great perfection. The unripe fruit is called agreſtæ, they are ſour and harſh, and from them is expreſſed the omphacinum, which is cooling and aſtringent. The ripe fruit are called uvæ, they afford wine, whence we have inflammable ſpirit, vinegar, and tartar. When the uvæ, or grapes, are dried in the ſun, they are called uvæ paſſæ, or paſſulæ. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

VITIS ALTUS, i. e. Chorea ſancti Viti.

VITRIOLUM. Vitriol. Combinations of metals with the vitriolic acid, are called *vitriols* of thoſe metals. It ſeems as if the metallic part of all *vitriols* had been formerly ſuppoſed to be copper only; for even the ferruginous *vitriols* have the name of copperas, which is expreſſive of copper: the *vitriol* of zinc is alſo called white copperas.

There are three neutral *vitriolic* ſalts, with metallic baſes; or three *vitriols* of three metallic bodies, produced ſpontaneouſly, or with very little aſſiſtance from art, viz. thoſe of iron, called green *vitriol*; of copper, called blue *vitriol*; and zinc, called white *vitriol*. The factitious *vitriols* are eſſentially the ſame as the native.

Vitriols are prepared in Sweden, Germany, England, and in many other countries, where there are plenty of pyrite ſtones.

VITRIOLUM VIRIDE. Green vitriol. The Latins call it atramentum ſutorium, becauſe it is uſed for blacking leather.

The method of preparing it is as follows: the pyrite ſtones are ſpread about in a large area, the height about three feet, and there they lie expoſed to the air, but are now and then turned, that they may all be alike expoſed thereto; thus they are reduced to a *vitriolic* earth, which being well waſhed with rain water, the liquor is conveyed by pipes into ciſterns; then it is boiled to a due conſiſtence in large leaden veſſels, throwing in a quantity of old iron, which is ſoon conſumed by the lixivium; at laſt the liquor is ſet to cool in other veſſels, in which are placed ſticks for the *vitriol* to cryſtallize upon.

On analyzing the beſt *green vitriol*, it appeared that ℥ xvi. contained ſomewhat more than eight of water, ſix of iron, and one and a half of pure acid. The Engliſh *vitriol* is purely ferrugineous, but there is ſcarcely any other without ſome admixture of copper. Sixteen ounces of Goſlarien *vitriol*, were found to contain ℥ vii. of water, ʒ iii. of acid, ℥ v. ʒ vii. and ℈ i. of iron, and nearly ʒ ii. of copper; but it often contains much leſs of the acid.

The *vitriol* of iron diſſolves in about twice its weight of water, and on evaporating the ſolution, and ſetting it to ſhoot, concretes again into thick rhomboidal cryſtals. A ſolution of *vitriol* in water depoſits upon ſtanding a part of its metallic baſis; the precipitation is greatly expedited by boiling heat, by which more of the metal ſeparates in a few minutes, than by ſtanding without heat for a year. The further the cryſtals of *vitriol* are freed from their metal, the more eaſily do they part both with their water and with their acid.

It is from this kind of *vitriol*, as being the cheapeſt, that the vitriolic acid, called oil of *vitriol*, hath been uſually extracted; but at preſent this acid is extracted from ſulphur.

The medicinal uſes of *green vitriol* are the ſame as thoſe of the other preparations of iron, but the pure ſort only muſt be uſed. The acid of *vitriol* retards fermentation and putrefaction, but in a leſs degree than the nitrous and marine acids do; when it is largely diluted with water, it is employed for preventing a putrefactive diſpoſition, correcting bilious acrimony, abating heat, quenching thirſt, ſtrengthening the ſtomach, &c.

VITRIOLUM CŒRULEUM. Blue vitriol, alſo called Roman vitriol, vitriol of copper, and Cyprian vitriol.

It is prepared in Sweden, Germany, &c. from the pyrite ſtones and copper. It contains much leſs water than is in the *vitriol* of iron, and requires about four times the weight thereof for its ſolution. It hath been, and ſtill is recommended, as a powerful medicine in ſeveral diſorders, as in intermittent fevers, epilepſies, &c. but when internally uſed, its effects are ſo violent, that very few have ventured to admit it into their practice. Externally it is uſed as a mild eſcharotic, and for reſtraining hæmorrhages; alſo for removing films from the eyes.

VITRIOLUM ALBUM. White vitriol, or vitriol of zinc. The metallic part of this kind of *vitriol* is zinc; its other conſtituents are, the vitriolic acid and water. Sometimes it contains iron, and then it hath an ochry appearance on its ſurface. It diſſolves in twice its weight of water. It is ſometimes given as an emetic, and, as ſuch, it is ſpeedy in its effect, and, in debilities of the ſtomach, is preferred to other emetics; it is principally uſed externally in collyria againſt heat, defluxion, and inflammation in the eyes; it is a powerful and ſafe errhine, uſeful in obſtructions of the noſtrils from indurated mucus. See Neumann's Chem. Works, Dict. of Chem. Lewis's Mat. Med.

VOLSALLA. Little Forceps, from *vello*.

VOLVULUS. See ILIACA PASSIO.

VOMER. The plough-ſhare. It forms the poſterior and inferior part of the ſeptum naſi, and is placed between the oſſa ſphenoides and palati. It receives at its ſuperior part the ſpine of the body of the os ſphenoides, and the perpendicular plate, or naſal lamella of the ethmoid, and below it receives the cartilaginous part of the ſeptum.

VOMICA. See ABSCESS of the LUNGS. Dr. Reid obſerves in his Eſſay on the Phthiſis Pulmonalis, that tubercles are found, on diſſection of thoſe who have died of this diſeaſe, of all ſizes; from the ſmalleſt granules, to the bigneſs of a horſe bean, and commonly in cluſters. On cutting into them, he ſays, they appear of a white ſmooth cartilaginous ſubſtance. In the ſmalleſt, no cavity or opening appears; in thoſe farther advanced, on the cut ſurface we diſcover ſmall pin-holes; in thoſe ſtill larger, are one or more cavities containing a fluid like pus; which being cleared off, in the bottom is perceived ſeveral ſmall openings or holes; through which, on preſſing the tubercle, matter iſſued, ſimilar to that contained in its cavity. The larger tubercles, when emptied of their contents, appear like a ſmall capſula, into which entered a branch of the aſpera arteria. When the tubercles increaſe, they are termed *vomicæ*. Theſe are alſo of various ſizes, from half an inch to two or three inches diameter; and are uſually oviform. When found entire, their contents are whitiſh, yellow, aſh-coloured, greeniſh, and ſometimes fetid matter; and when ruptured, more or leſs reddiſh. Several branches of the aſpera arteria are found opening into theſe *vomicæ*; and they alſo communicate with others that lie contiguous; the apertures of the latter, are ragged and irregular; of the former, round and ſmooth. The larger *vomicæ* are uſually found empty, but on preſſing the lungs, matter iſſues into the bronchia. The branches of the pulmonary artery and vein running upon the *vomicæ*, are found much contracted; and ſometimes filled up with a fibrous ſubſtance; their pendulous ends, hanging looſe in the cavities of the *vomicæ*, completely ſhut up and covered with a thick ſlough. By this we ſee the reaſon, why hæmoptoe does not more frequently happen, when ſo great a part of the ſubſtance of the lungs is deſtroyed. And alſo, when it does take place, in what manner the mouths of the bleeding veſſels are ſhut up again. The parts of the lungs contiguous to the *vomicæ* are found inflamed, more or leſs ſolid, and impervious to air blown into the trachea; for when the other parts are thus diſtended, they remain depreſſed; nor is air admitted into the *vomicæ*, or at leaſt in very ſmall quantities. Wherever tubercles or *vomicæ* are found, they firmly adhere to the patricles of the lungs near them; by which means a communication between their cavities and that of the thorax, is entirely prevented. It is farther obſerved that, it ſeems probable that the ſmall pin-holes perceived in the ſubſtance of the tubercles, are the apertures of the exhalent veſſels; and that the pus found in them, and iſſuing out upon preſſure, is the lymph changed into that fluid. There is no abſolute criterion by which we can determine, when tubercles are firſt formed in the lungs. They are to be ſuſpected, when the cough is violent; continued with ſhort intermiſſions, particularly at night; and viſcid phlegm is expectorated with difficulties. But when the cough is accompanied with coldneſs, ſucceeded by fever, and matter ſpit up, which precipitates in water, there is every reaſon to believe that *vomicæ* are completely formed.

VOMITUS. Vomiting. It is a diſorder of the ſtomach. A *vomiting* and naufea ſeem to be ſpaſmodic retrograde motions of the muſcular fibres of the œſophagus and ſtomach, attended with convulſions of the muſcles of the belly and the diaphragm, which, when gentle, creates a naufea; when violent, a *vomiting*. *Vomiting* is moſtly an inſtance of dyſpepſia.

The matter diſcharged gives different denominations to this diſorder; a mucous chylous diſcharge of the reliques of undigeſted foods is called a pituitous *vomiting*; a congeſtion of bilious matter evacuated this way, conſtitutes what is called a bilious *vomiting*; blackiſh, corrupt, green, æruginous, porraceous, &c. are accidents of colour, &c. in the contents of the ſtomach that are diſcharged; when black blood is thrown up, it is called the black diſeaſe; and when the cauſe is in a part diſtant from the ſtomach, as when a ſtone paſſes the ureter, &c. it is called a ſymptomatic *vomiting*.

The cauſes are various, viz. pregnancy, poiſons, hurts on the brain, inflammation of the diaphragm, or other abdominal viſcera, the motion of a ſhip, or coach, &c. the quantity or the quality of the food, irritation of the gula, the tranſlation of the morbific matter of ſeveral diſorders to the ſtomach, worms, a ſtone in the ureters, a congeſtion of blood about the ſtomach, &c. The proximate cauſe is a ſtimulus of the nervous fibres of the ſtomach, gullet, or the duodenum.

Crudities in the primæ viæ are known by pituitous *vomiting*, and a preſſive pain about the region of the ſtomach. A laxity of the biliferous ducts are known by bilious, chronical, and periodical *vomiting*. An injury, or a ſcirrhus in one of the viſcera, is indicated by chronical *vomitings* of long ſtanding, and in which the food is thrown up before it is digeſted. A ſtone in the kidney, or the ureter, may be ſuſpected, if there is a pain in the loins, and a diminution of urine. Worms are probably attendant if the countenance becomes pale, and if there are pains and a gnawing ſenſation in the inteſtines, with an unuſual ſpitting and itching in the noſtrils.

All critical *vomitings* are ſalutary. Symptomatic *vomitings* are bad when excited by a ſubtil cauſtic acrimony; violent bilious *vomitings* threaten an inflammation; *vomiting* from worms is often a dangerous ſymptom; fetid *vomitings* are often fatal; a conſtant, or very frequent *vomiting* for ſeveral months, gives a ſuſpicion of an ulcer in the ſtomach; when a pain attends in the ſoles of the feet, hard drinking is generally the cauſe.

The different cauſes indicate as different methods of relief. When pregnancy produces this diſorder, bleeding at proper intervals, and gentle laxatives to keep the bowels eaſy, are the propereſt means of relief; though, in thoſe inſtances where bleeding endangers a miſcarriage, the plethora ſhould be removed by frequent gentle purges: when theſe methods fail, and the patient is greatly fatigued, ſhe may take the pulv. ipecac. gr. ii. vel iii. an hour before the *vomiting* comes on, and repeat it as it is required. A light breakfaſt, before the ſickneſs comes on, relieves in ſome inſtances; and in others, the columbo root, in mint or pepper-mint water, is moſt uſeful.

When the *vomiting* proceeds from a weakneſs, or irritability of the ſtomach, or acrid matter lodged there, in conſequence of the gout, &c. affecting this viſcus, the

columbo root, in conjunction with aromatics, the bark, chalybeates, and magnesia or rhubarb, will give the most effectual relief.

When the disorder is symptomatic, the original disorder being relieved, this of course subsides.

When bilious *vomitings* produce spasms in the stomach and biliary ducts, the acrimony of the bile must be corrected by diluents and dulcified mineral acids, with brandy and water, or negus, for the common drink, and if required, give a little laudanum.

When a copious and pungent acid prevails in the stomach, let the patient drink plentifully of weak mutton broth, to excite the discharges, until what is thrown up is without any change in its taste; after which give magnesia alba in doses, from ʒ ss. to ʒ i. and repeat it as often as any uneasy symptoms may require it. When the stomach is appeased, the bark, bitters, and chalybeates may be used.

When hard drinking produces frequent *vomiting*, after a gentle emetic, give the bark, with bitters, and the elixir of vitriol. Light chalybeates, particularly the Bath-water, may be used as a finish to the cure.

In any of the above cases, to palliate the *vomiting*, the saline draughts given in the act of fermentation, the balsam. traum. with the elix. vitr. or a few drops of the tinct. theb. may be now and then repeated. The sp. nitri dulc. relieves when these fail.

Sometimes when wounds inflame, the stomach, though distant from the injured part, will be rendered so irritable as to eject its contents; in this case warm oil being poured on the inflamed wound, by removing irritability there, relieves the stomach also.

Bilious *vomitings* are powerfully relieved by gentle antimonial emetics, or with small doses of the tart. emet. with rhub. after which bitters, particularly the columbo root, and cordials, &c.

Vomiting of blood or hæmatemesis, is when dark coloured clotted blood is thrown up from the stomach: it is usually mixed with much phlegm. This discharge is always symptomatic. A *vomiting* of blood is usually preceded by a tensive pricking pain in the stomach, or the left hypochondrium, and the eruption itself is almost always attended with a nausea, anxiety of the præcordia, and a compressing pain, as also a kind of girding on the same side; a fainting too often attends. In this case there is no cough, as happens when the lungs are the seat of the disorder.

Bloody *vomiting* is the effect of an indurated spleen, a varicous state of the *vasa brevia* in the upper left portion of the stomach, or of other vessels thereabout; women are particularly subject to this symptom about the time of the eruption, or on a suppression of the menses, from passion, frights, grief, pregnancy, &c. It happens in men from suppressed hæmorrhoids.

There is danger from the extravasated blood lodging in the bowels, and becoming putrid; by which means a dysentery, or a putrid fever, may be produced. The bloody *vomitings* which happen about the middle of pregnancy, in some plethoric habits, are rarely injurious. The same happening during labour, or even in child-bed, if the quantity be small, is not often hurtful. Too generally this is a fatal discharge; if there is no fever, if the habit is plethoric, if any usual vacuation is obstructed, hope may be indulged; but if a fever attends, if the blood discharged be very black and fetid, or if the cause is an enlargement of the spleen, an induration of the liver, or if faintings are considerable, there is but little hope.

Distinguish the pain and heat in the stomach, from an inflammation there; also from blackish hæmorrhoidal excretions.

Until the discharge by the mouth is stopped, abstain from purging medicines; let the diet be cooling, and in small quantities; except there is a manifest inflammation, or plethora, omit bleeding; astringents must not be administered, for they stimulate the stomach, but opiates, such as the tinct. theb. may be given to four or five drops two or three times a day, or give the following draught as the symptoms, viz. pains and spasms, may require it.

℞ Nitri purif. ʒ i. aq. fort. ʒ ii. syr. e mecon. ʒ ii. m.

If the patient is hot, and the circulation hurried, give sal nitri ʒ i. m. in every pint of water that is drank. Emollient glysters with nitre relieve the spasmodic affections in the stomach. If suppressed menses are the cause, give mild emenagogues by the mouth, bleed according to the strength, &c. of the patient, and give frequent emenagogue glysters. If the cause is erosion, from acrid substances in the stomach, absorbents and demulcents will be proper.

When the *vomiting* ceases, and the patient seems griped from the stagnant blood, give him a gentle purge or two. See Meibomius Dissert. de Vomitu. Hoffman's Pract. of Med.

VULNUS. A wound. Boerhaave gives the following description of a *wound*. "A *wound* is a recent, bloody solution of continuity in the soft parts, made by a hard, sharp instrument." But it may be observed, that obtuse instruments *wound*, and sharp ones cut into the bones. Dr Cullen places this genus of disease in the class locales and order dialyses.

Wounds that are superficial, when cleaned from the blood, &c. are perceptible to the sight; but when they are too deep to be seen into, it is better to examine them with the finger than with a probe, and, where the *wound* is too small for the finger, a bougie is better than a probe, on account of its flexibility, especially where it is winding. In examining a *wound*, we should know the attitude of the patient when he received it, the kind of weapon, how far it penetrated, how it was directed, with what force the blow was given; it should also be observed, what kind of fluid discharges, or did discharge itself from the *wound*. The knowledge of these with the knowledge of our frame, the use, &c. of each part, enable us to judge rightly on the nature of the *wound*, its cure, and consequences.

The danger of the *wound* is, as the size of the vessels that are divided, and the importance of the injured part with respect to life. The nearer a *wound* is to a vital part, the more dangerous it is. *Wounds* in the joints are healed with difficulty; so are those that are situated in any part subject to constant motion, as in the lungs or belly. The attending symptoms render a *wound* more or less dangerous. The age, constitution, customs, habits, and the inconveniencies that may be expected, though the patient does not die, should be pointed out, or hinted at least. Dividing a principal artery in a limb, endangers mortification; a principal nerve, insensibility, and an atrophy thereof. Separation of a tendon destroys as much motion as depends on that muscle. A *wound* in the medulla spinalis causes a palsy, or a mortification in the lower parts. An immoderate suppuration in a deep *wound*, by absorption may cause a hectic fever, and consume the patient in a marasmus. Great loss of blood endangers a dropsy. A *wound* in the breast and lungs, when healed, may be the occasion of a phthisis pulmonalis; and in any other considerable organ, an ulcer may remain, and prove the source of a hectic fever, or of a consumption; but great caution is necessary in determining the prognostics of *wounds*, particularly those which penetrate into the breast, or belly, on account of the different situation of the viscera, of which we have no sign during life. Van Swieten says, that he hath met with many such cases. See instances of this kind in the Lon. Med. Obs. and Inq. vol. i. p. 26—35.

The different states of a *wound* are included under those of digestion, or the discharge of matter; incarnation, or filling up with flesh; a cicatrization, or skinning over.

In order to the cure of *wounds*, especially when they are considerable, the non-naturals demand our particular attention. The air should be dry, and moderately warm, but not hot; the diet should be moderate, though it may be necessary to allow for customs, and regard should be had to the present habit of body; rest is generally necessary, but motion hurts the superior parts less than it does the inferior; as to the excretions, strong purges, &c. are injurious, but costiveness must be carefully guarded against; the affections are to be well regulated, if they are excessive in their degree, or if long continued, though but moderately excited, they will be injurious.

When extraneous bodies are extracted, if it can be done prudently, the hæmorrhages suppressed, all morbid tension in the wounded part removed, and the lips of the *wound* (where this is required) brought properly together, the dressings may be pledgits of soft lint, covered with one of tow, spread with some digestive ointment, and large enough to cover the whole; these may be secured by means of such bandages as the situation of the *wound* best admits of; the first dressings usually remain two or three days, or until the discharge of matter renders the separation of them easy. After the first dressings are removed,

moved, the dreſſing may be repeated every twelve or twenty-four hours, according as the diſcharge is more or leſs abundant or acrid. If after the firſt dreſſing a warm digeſtive is required, add to the ung. baſilicon. flav. a little of the ol. tereb. vel balſ. capiv. Theſe applications need not be warmed, except when very cold, after ſpreading the pledgit its ſurface may be juſt warmed by holding before the fire; each time that the ſurface of the *wound* is cleanſed, it ſhould be performed by dabbing it gently with ſoft lint, and not wiping it, leſt the tender granulations ſhould be deſtroyed; the ſurface of the *wound* ſhould not be made quite dry, but is better for being left ſomewhat moiſt, for thus the digreſſion is leſs interrupted.

Mr. Sharpe obſerves, that the principal interruption to the healing of a *wound* made with a ſharp inſtrument is the fungus, and this he would have ſuppreſſed by dry lint and a proper compreſs upon it; or if it advances above the ſurface of the ſkin, to touch its edges only with ſome gentle eſcharotic; but it ſometimes happens that an obſtruction to healing is the flabbineſs of a *wound*, and which is generally removed by dabbing it at each dreſſing with the following or ſome ſuch application ℞ Aq. calcis ſim. ℔ſs. tinct. cor. Peruv. ſim. ℥ ii. tinct. myrrh. ℥i. m. Thus, if an ill conſtitution or bad habit of the body is no impediment, *wounds* on the exterior parts are generally ſoon healed.

When the *wound* is filled up with fleſh, pledgits of the epulotic cerate uſually effect the laſt intention of cure, or the cicatrizing of the *wound*.

There are many accidents which occaſionally are attendants on *wounds* in one ſtage or another, ſuch as fever, inflammation, a callus, &c. the management of which will be learnt from what is already ſaid under the different articles in which they are noticed.

When a ſmall artery is wounded, if it is divided, it retracts, and the hæmorrhage is ſoon ſpontaneouſly reſtrained; if it is punctured, or partially divided, if it can conveniently be come at, it may be wholly divided, or the wound enlarged, and then the artery may be tied, if proper preſſure proves ineffectual. When a large artery is punctured or divided, it muſt be taken up and ſecured with the needle and ligature. *Wounds* in the axillary artery and alſo of the femoral, if near the body, generally demand an amputation of the limb.

Wounds ſometimes penetrate the cavity of the breaſt and belly, and ſometimes injure one or more of the viſcera; the firſt are known by the probe, the latter by the diſcharge that iſſues from them; if the ſymptoms attending a *wound* that penetrates into the cavity of the breaſt or belly are favourable, and there is no diſcharge from any of the viſcera, we may conclude that they are ſafe when the viſcera are unhurt; in which caſe, after excluding the air that may have ruſhed into theſe cavities, treat them as ſimple *wounds*. The air may be excluded as follows: make the patient inſpire ſtrongly, keeping the *wound* cloſely covered, then uncover it after this full inſpiration, and let the patient at the ſame time make a full and powerful effort as in expulſion of the fæces; thus the included air will be driven out at the orifice: repeat this proceſs as often as it may ſeem neceſſary. If any of the viſcera have protruded and are unhurt, return them with all ſpeed; but, if wounded, uſe the glover's ſuture, leaving three or four inches of the ligature out of the wound. If the protruded viſcera have been expoſed to the air, it may be neceſſary, before the return of them, to uſe a fomentation of warm milk and water, with a little ſweet oil. In all theſe caſes flannel is the beſt bandage, becauſe it gives way and retreats as the breath doth require.

Wounds in the principal internal blood-veſſels are all deemed mortal; but blood is ſometimes diſcharged from ſmaller veſſels into the cavity of the breaſt or of the belly; if this happens in the breaſt it occaſions a difficulty of breathing, which difficulty is worſt when the patient is in an erect poſture; though, if blood is diſcharged into both the cavities of the breaſt, the patient can only lie on his back, and ſtand in an erect poſture. To diſcharge this blood, if the *wound* is in the lower part of the breaſt, lay the patient on the wounded ſide, and with a probe puſh back the lungs, that the blood may paſs out; if the *wound* is in the upper part of the breaſt, an opening muſt be made at the back part thereof, allowing the other to cloſe; the proper place for this aperture is between the third and fourth of the falſe ribs, counting from below upwards, and about five inches from the ſpine. But, until the hæmorrhage appears to have ceaſed, which may be judged of by the ſtrength and equality of the pulſe, and the warmth of the patient's extremities, the operation will be uſeleſs. When the opening is made, the expulſion of the matter is aſſiſted by the efforts of reſpiration, as already hinted at, for the diſcharge of air. In theſe caſes the patient muſt be kept ſtill, mild aſtringent balſamic injections may be uſed, and gentle opiates may be given if a cough attends. If blood is poured into the belly, here will ſoon be laborious breathing, anxiety, and intermitting pulſe, &c. if the diſcharge of blood is ſmall, the patient ſometimes recovers, but, if conſiderable, it generally proves fatal.

When a nerve is wounded, a variety of alarming ſymptoms comes on in proportion to the fineneſs and tenſeneſs of the part it is attached to, and the peculiar irritability of the conſtitution; when the pain occaſioned thereby is extreme, it ſometimes is relieved only by dividing the nerve: this accident is ſoon diſcovered by the ſharp ichor which diſtils from the part, and its excoriating the circumjacent parts. When a tendon is wounded, the ſame ſymptoms follow as when a nerve is injured, but only they do not ſo ſuddenly appear. The moſt common applications to wounded nerves and tendons have been the ſubtil ſpirituous ſorts, ſuch as the ol. tereb. &c. but they are productive of the worſt ſymptoms; inſtead of theſe, put the limb into the eaſieſt poſition, keep the wounded part free from cold air, avoid ſpirituous and hot applications, and in their ſtead, apply a warm bread poultice, having firſt covered the *wound* with lint; or inſtead of the poultice, cloths may be applied after dipping them in warm oil, or warm oil and vinegar mixed in equal parts, warm fomentations may be uſed before the application of the poultice, if inflammation attends, or ſeems to be approaching.

Wounds in the joints, when they are inflicted with cutting inſtruments, or with heavy weapons falling on them, are attended with danger. Though the *wound* is ſmall, its conſequences are often grievous, from irritation, from deſtruction of the ligament, from the loſs of ſynovia, &c. Much depends on the habit; from a large *wound* in the ancle, cauſed by a fracture, nothing remarkable hath followed; and fatal conſequences have been the reſult of a ſmall one. However favourable appearances may be, a guarded prognoſtic ſhould always be given. Large *wounds* of the joints almoſt always require amputation. The ligament of the patella being divided by a ſharp-edged inſtrument hath frequently been followed by a loſs of the leg. The tibia being broke from the aſtragalus, and attended with laceration, makes an amputation adviſeable. A mere inciſed *wound* into a joint, from letting in air and injuring the ligamentous parts, have often proved fatal, when a timely amputation would have ſaved the patient. In contuſions of the joints from heavy bodies cruſhing them, if a gangrene is waited for before amputation is performed, it will be left until it is too late: the patient ſeldom lives until the mortification begins to ſeparate; but is taken off by the fever and local malady. The two great conſequences to be avoided in *wounds* of the joints are inflammation and pain; the firſt is to be attempted by bleeding and purſuing the antiphlogiſtic plan; the latter, by the poſition of the limb and by opiates. The moſt relaxed poſition of the limb is the beſt. If no tumefaction comes on, emollient applications are not wanted, but repellents and preventatives; if tumefaction, tenſion, &c. appear, immediately apply emollients. There is a ſymptomatic fever generally attendant, excluſive of any other circumſtances, and this is ſometimes attended with ſuch a diſcharge as to reduce the patient greatly, and on this account amputation becomes neceſſary. Where the joint is ſpoiled by preſſure, or by gun-ſhot, the injuries of the bone require attention as well as that of other parts, and the diſcharge of the ſynovia: theſe ſeldom do well under the greateſt care.

Gun-ſhot *wounds*. See SCLOPETOPLAGA.

See Celſus, Boerhaave's Aphoriſms, the Engliſh Tranſlation, p. 40, &c. or the ſame Aphoriſms with Van Swieten's Commentaries, Heiſter's Surgery, Gooch's Practical Treatiſe of *Wounds*.

WARNAS.

W.

WAR

WARNAS. Vinegar of philoſophers.

WINTERANUS CORTEX. Winter's bark, called alſo cort. Magellanicus. The tree is called Magellanica aromatica arbor, and Winter's cinnamon tree. In Dr. Lettſom's edition of Dr. Fothergill's works, is given a drawing of a branch from the tree with the flowers, and there the tree is named Winterana aromatica.

Captain Winter was the firſt who made the bark of this tree known in Europe: he brought it from the Streights of Magellan in the year 1579. Cluſius deſcribes this bark in his Exot. p. 75, and calls it by the name of its firſt importer; hence the name of *cortex Winteranus* or *Winter's bark*. It has rarely been brought amongſt us, and hath been ſo little known, that Pomet, in his Materia Medica, deſcribes the canella alba for it; others have copied him, and cuſtom hath eſtabliſhed the uſe of the canella inſtead of the *cort. Winteran.* the canella is alſo generally called *cort. Winteranus*. In 1691, Mr. George Handaſyd brought ſome ſpecimens of branches, &c. from this tree, and gave them to Sir Hans Sloane, who drew up an account of the tree, and it was inſerted, with a figure, in the Philoſ. Tranſact. for 1693. But a more perfect deſcription hath been obtained by the joint aid of Captain Wallis, Joſeph Banks, eſq. and Dr. Solander, who, in the year 1766, were in thoſe parts where it is indigenous. It is only the bark of this tree that is of any value, and that is deſcribed as being of different degrees of thickneſs, from a quarter to three quarters of an inch, a dark cinnamon-colour; if it is rubbed it hath an aromatic odour, and to the taſte is pungent, hot, and ſpicy, its effect on the palate is ſlowly imparted, but durable when given out.

Dr. Morris inſerted in the fifth vol. of the Lon. Med. Obſ. and Inq. ſome experiments on the *Winter's bark*, by which it appears to be a peculiar kind of aſtringent; alſo, that though it gives its virtues very freely to rectified and to proof ſpirit, yet water diſſolves its ſoluble parts moſt freely. The Doctor recommends this *bark* as excellent for covering the diſagreeable taſte of ſena and ſome other drugs, not more agreeable to the taſte.

When Captain Winter firſt brought this *bark* from the Streights of Magellan, the ſailors uſed it as a ſpice, and afterwards found it uſeful in the ſcurvy; for which laſt it hath been extolled; but unhappily as its ſubſtitute the canella alba hath been almoſt always uſed. The *Winter's bark* is much more powerful as a ſtimulant than the canella alba; it is uſeful to promote digeſtion, alſo as a ſtimulant in paralytic and dropſical diſorders; in which laſt, when the ſecretions may probably be promoted by a ſtimulus, the *Winter's bark* deſerves to be preferred. In ſome inſtances of remitting and intermitting fevers, it hath been given with advantage, as a ſubſtitute for the Peruvian bark: whence the canella alba muſt evidently be a very improper ſubſtitute for it.

The *Winter's bark* is in larger pieces than the canella alba, of a more rugged ſurface, a deeper colour, more agreeable ſmell, a warmer taſte, is more pungent, and leſs bitter. The canella alba is in rolls, ſomewhat thicker than cinnamon, and is the double bark of the tree from whence it is taken.

WORMIANA os, i. e. Triquetra os.

X.

XAN

XANTHIUM, i. e. Bardana major.

XERANTHEMUM, ξηρός, from *dry*, and ἄνθος, *a flower*. The dry flower. Cluſius calls it ptarmica. It is commonly called the immortal herb, becauſe its flowers may be preſerved many years. It has no known medical virtues.

XERASIA, from ξηρός, *ary*. A ſpecies of alopecia, conſiſting in a dryneſs of the hairs, for want of due nouriſhment. They look woolly like powder.

XEROPHTHALMIA, from ξηρός, *dry*, and ὀφθαλμία, a pain in the eyes. A *dry* lipitude, i. e. when the eye is itchy, *dry*, hot, rough, the eye-lids covered with *dry* ſcales, and it is painful to behold the light. It is alſo called ſclerophthalmia, from ξηρός, *hard*, and ὀφθαλμός, an *eye*. A ſclerophthalmia, or *hard* lippitude, is an inflammation of the *eye*, attended not only with a hardneſs and ſlowneſs of motion, but with a pain and redneſs. The eyelids, in this affection, are *hard* and *dry*, never effuſing any moiſture, with ſmall, writhed, dryiſh, mucous concretions, in their corners, and a difficulty of opening them after ſleep, on account of their dryneſs. The xerophthalmia is ſaid to be a leſſer degree of the ſclerophthalmia. James's Med. Dict.

In Dr. Cullen's Syſtem of Noſology, this is a variety of the ſpecies called ophthalmia tragi, and is ſynonymous with Sauvage's ophthalmia ſicca. Dr. James obſerves that it

is

is a kind of inflammation, whoſe general characters are pain and redneſs, but it differs from an inflammation in a property peculiar to itſelf, which is dryneſs.

XIPHIUM. It hath the fruit and flower like the iris, with a bulbous root. Boerhaave takes notice of eleven ſpecies. Their virtues are like thoſe of the gladiolus.

XIPHŒIDES. The enſiform cartilage of the ſternum, from ξιφος *a ſword*, and ειδος *a ſhape*.

XIRASIA, i. e. Xeraſia.

XYLOCASIA, i. e. Caſia lignea.

XYLOCINNAMOMUM. The wood of the cinnamon tree.

XYDOCOCCA. The internal grains of the fruit of the carob tree.

XYLON. It is a ſhrubby plant in Egypt, which bears a kind of cotton; the leaves have the ſame qualities with the althæa.

XYRIS. Stinking gladdon.

Y.

YA

YAWS. See FRAMBOESIA. It is a diſtemper endemial to Guinea and the hot climates in Africa. The people there have it only once in their lives.

At firſt it is unattended with pain or ſickneſs; it makes its firſt appearance in little ſpots on the cuticle, not bigger than a pin's point, which increaſe daily, and become protuberant like pimples; ſoon after the cuticle frets off, becomes white, and then, inſtead of pus or ichor, there appears a clear lymph which dries into white ſloughs or ſordes, under which is a red fungus; theſe increaſe gradually; ſome to the ſize of a ſmall wood-ſtrawberry; others to that of a raſberry; others again exceed the largeſt mulberry, which in ſhape it much reſembles; they are on all parts, but moſt in the genitals, anus, arms, and face; when they are large there are few, when ſmall there are many. The black hair in the *yaws* turns white and tranſparent.

This diſorder is not dangerous if ſkilfully managed. It is infectious.

As ſoon as the patient is obſerved to be infected with this diſeaſe, he muſt be confined to a place where he may remain alone; then give the quantity of a nutmeg morning and evening with forty or fifty drops of the antimonial wine in a draught of a decoction of ſarſaparilla.

℞ Æth. mineral. ʒ i. ſs. antim. crud. ppt. & theriac. androm. ā ā ʒ i. ſyr. alb. q. ſ. f. electar.

When the diſeaſe ſeems to be at a ſtand, give calomel ſo as to excite a ſalivation, to the quantity of a pound and a half in twenty-four hours; let the diſcharge then decline gradually, purge gently, and give the decoct. ſarparil. The ulcers may be touched with the following ſolution:

℞ Merc. ſublim. corroſiv. ʒ i. ſp. vin. R. ʒ. ii. m. f. ſolutio.

If the ſalivation in its progreſs ſeems ineffectual to ſtop the ſpreading of the diſeaſe, deſiſt, and give alteratives, ſuch as recommended in the lepra, and dreſs the parts with the following.

℞ Ungt. baſil. flav. ʒ. i. merc. cor. rub. lævigat. ʒ i. alum. uſt. ʒ ſs. m.

Then cicratize with the epulotic cerate mixed with a little burnt alum.

The ſolution of the merc. coroſ. alb. in ſp. vin. is ſometimes given as an internal. When nodes attend, the diſeaſe is incurable. If after the cure of this diſeaſe a pain is fixed in the feet, in this caſe warm bathing, paring the callous ſkin, and the uſe of an eſcharotic ointment, will be found very effectual.

See Edinb. Med. Eſſays; James's Med. Dict. Brooks's and the London Practice of Phyſic.

YPSILOGLOSSI. The muſcles called baſiogloſſi.

YPSILOIDES OS, i. e. Hyoides os.

YUCCA. Indian bread. It is a plant with a thick tuberous root, and leaves reſembling thoſe of the aloe. It grows in America. It is not the caſſavi, but a thick fleſhy root, affording a ſoft pulp. See Raii Hiſt.

Z.

ZAR

Z. An ancient character for myrrh, but at preſent it ſignifies ginger.

ZAARA. A name for the morbous watching.

ZACINTHA, alſo called cichoreum verrucarium. Wart ſuccory. It grows in Italy, and is noted for its power of deſtroying warts.

ZAC

ZARNICH, i. e. Arſenicum.

ZARUTHAN, A hard and unequal tumor of the breaſt,

breaſt, attended with pain, which is not quite continual; and a burning heat, much like what happens in a cancer, whence it is called a ſpurious cancer.

ZEDOARIA, called alſo gedwar, colchicum Zeylanicum, haronkaha, zedoary. It is the root of an Eaſt Indian plant. According to Weſton, in his Univ. Botaniſt, &c. It is coſtus Arabicus, or coſtus Arabicus ſcapo veſtito, floribus ſpicatis albis, bracteis ovalibus, fructu in pedicula ſingulari. Linn. Arabian *zedoary*. But according to the Pharmacopœia of the Edinb. college, it is the ammomum ſcapo nudo, ſpica laxa truncata. Berg. Mat. Med. p. 4. Mr. Curtis, in his Catalogue of Medicinal, &c. Plants in the London Botanic Garden, ſays, it is the Kæmpferia rotunda, Linn. It is brought chiefly from Bengal, in oblong pieces, about the thickneſs of a little finger, and two or three inches long; or in roundiſh ones, called zerumbeth, about an inch in diameter, of an aſh colour on the outſide, and white within. The long and the round are the roots of the ſame plant, the body of which is round, and theprot uberances long.

Chuſe ſuch as is denſe, ſolid, of a fine taſte and ſmell, bitteriſh, moderately acrid, and that emits an aromatic flavour in powdering or chewing, and ſuch as is large, and not wrinkled, nor perforated. It ſhould be kept dry.

It impregnates water with its ſmell and a light bitteriſh taſte. The ſpirituous tincture ſmells weaker than the watery, but it taſtes ſtronger; diſtilled with water it yields a ponderous eſſential oil, which is hot and pungent.

This root is a warm ſtomachic; its ſpirituous extract is the beſt preparation. In colics, attended with a diarrhœa and pain in the inteſtines, ℈ i. of the powder, taken three times a day, gives great relief. In flatulencies it is very uſeful, eſpecially if joined with opium. Simon Pauli ſays that it excels in diſpelling wind. In general, the doſe is from gr. v. to ʒ ſs. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

ZERNA. An ulcerated impetigo. Some expreſs by it lepra.

ZERUMBET. See ZEDOARIA. It is alſo a ſpecies of ginger, viz. amonium *zerumbet*, or amomum ſcapo nudo, ſpica oblonga obtuſa. Linn. Broad-leaved wild ginger.

ZIBACH. Quickſilver.

ZIBETHUM. Civet. It is an unctuous odoriferous ſubſtance, about the conſiſtence of honey or butter, of a whitiſh, yellowiſh, or browniſh colour, ſometimes blackiſh. It is brought from Brazil, the coaſt of Guinea, and the Eaſt Indies. It is found in bags, ſituated in the lower part of the belly of an animal of the cat kind. The bag hath an aperture externally, by which the *civet* is extracted. Its ſmell is fragrant, and too ſtrong to be agreeable, except it be diluted. It hath an unctuous and ſubacrid taſte, and is uſed in perfumes. It does not diſſolve in ſpirit nor in water, but unites with oils both expreſſed and diſtilled, and with animal fats. Water by diſtillation is impregnated with its odour, and ſpirit by digeſtion. Rubbed with mulcilage it mixes with water.

The black ſort from the Eaſt Indies is not ſo good as the American, but this latter is often adulterated. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Lewis's Mat. Med.

ZINCUM, alſo called zinchum, zincthum, tutenague, or tutenag, ſpelter, blende, blackjack, and zinc. It is a metalline marcaſite, or a bluiſh white metal, ſomewhat reſembling lead. Stahl firſt explained what it was, ſee his Metallurgia.

Zinc crackles during the bending of it, and quickly breaks, though it is ſomewhat ductile. It is about ſeven times ſpecifically heavier than water; it begins to melt in a moderate red heat, and very ſlowly calcines on a continuance of the fire. In a moderate white heat it flows thin, burning, fulminating, with a bright deep green or bluiſh green flame, and ſubliming into white light flowers, which concrete about the upper part of the veſſel into thin cruſts, or ſoft looſe filaments, like down or cobwebs, called philoſopher's wool.

It is extracted from a ſort of lapis calaminaris, which is its ore. In its metallic form, and in that of a calx, it diſſolves readily in all acids, and precipitates from them almoſt all the other metallic bodies.

The white vitriol is made from pure *zinc*, by diſſolution in the diluted vitriolic acid, and cryſtallization. The calx (commonly called flowers of *zinc*) were formerly kept under the names of pompholix, and of nihil album.

The preparations of *zinc* are employed in external applications, as ophthalmias, particularly againſt thin defluxions of rheum, and as aſtringents, which effect they have if the *zinc* is finely levigated, without acrimony or irritation. Taken internally they prove emetic.

The flowers of *zinc* were firſt uſed as an internal medicine by the celebrated chemiſt Glauber, but were little known in practice till Dr. Gaubius, of Leyden, gave an account of their virtues in his Adverſaria. They have ſince been much employed in convulſive and ſpaſmodic diſeaſes, and ſometimes with good effects. Even obſtinate epilepſies have been rendered much leſs violent by their uſe. Like all other medicines, however, in diſeaſes of this claſs, their good effects are often only temporary, and they often fail altogether. When the flowers are genuine, a grain or two generally at firſt excites a nauſea or ſickneſs; but by degrees a conſiderable doſe may be taken with little or no ſenſible effect. As they are liable to be adulterated, it may be proper to mention, as teſts of their purity, that they make no effervescence with acids; and that, when expoſed to a ſtrong heat, they become yellow; but, on cooling, turn white again.

By a mixture of *zinc* with copper, in different proportions, are made the compound or artificial metals, called braſs and prince's metal. See Neumann's Chem. Works; Dict. of Chemiſtry; Lewis's Mat. Med. edit. 3.

ZINGIBER. Ginger. Alſo called zinziber, gingihil fœminia, and iris latifolia tuberoſa. It is the root of a reed-like plant, growing ſpontaneouſly in both the Indies, in China, &c. It is brought to us in knotty, branched, flattiſh pieces, freed from the outer bark, of a pale colour, and fibrous texture. It is diſtinguiſhed into white and brown, but they are both the ſame root; the former is cleaned and dried, the latter is ſcalded, more ſhrivelled, and rendered leſs aromatic. That which is the leaſt fibrous is reckoned the beſt. It is the amonium *zingiber*, or amonium ſcapo nudo, ſpica ovata. Linn. Common *ginger*.

This root is warm and aromatic, but not ſo heating as one would expect from its penetrating heat, and the pungency of its taſte, as well as from the fixedneſs of its principles. It gives out all its virtues to rectified ſpirit of wine, and the greater part of them to water. In diſtillation water raiſes its whole flavour, but ſpirit leaves it nearly all behind.

Ginger is uſed in cold and flatulent diſorders with ſome advantage; alſo when there is a laxity, or debility of the inteſtines. Its effects are more durable than thoſe of the peppers, but it is not ſo heating. See Lewis's Mat. Med.

ZONA. A kind herpes, and runs round the body. The eryſipelas phlyctænodes.

ZOÓTOMIA, from ζωον, *an animal*, and τεμνω, *to cut*. The diſſection of *animals*.

ZOSTER ERYSIPELAS, i. e. Eryſipelas Phlyctænodes.

ZOSTER. The phlogoſis erythema of Cullen.

ZOSTER (Herpes) i. e. Eryſipelas phlyctænodes.

ZYGOMA, i. e. Os Mala. See MALARUM OSSA.

ZYGOMATICUS MUSCULUS. It is called *zygomaticus* major, by Albinus and Winſlow. It ariſes fleſhy from the zygomatic proceſs of the cheek bone; and is inſerted into the cornea of the mouth, which this muſcle with its partner draws outwards and upwards.

ZYGOMATICUS PROCESSUS. From the anterior middle part of the temporal bone goes a proceſs, which joining another from the cheek-bone, they together form an arch called by this name.

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I N D E X.

Barometz Agnus Scythicus
Baronetz Agnus Scythicus
Barrenneſs Sterilitas
Barrenwort Epimedium
Bartholomew's Herb Caſſine
Baſil Baſilicum
Citron ib.
Common ib.
Buſh ib.
Great wild ib.
Small ib.
(Stone or wild) Acinos
Baſilicum Ocymum
Baſilisk Baſiliſcus
Baſillare os Sacrum os
Bat (Horned) Andira
(Braſilian) ib
Bath Water Bathonia (Aq)
Baths Balnea
Cold ib.
For the Feet Pediluvium
Hot Balnea
Sand Balneum Arenæ
Sulphur Balnea
Vapour { Balneum Mariæ, Vaporis
Batrachites Buſonitis
Battiſecula Cyanus Minor
Baud Money Meum
Bauld Money Meum
Baum Meliſſa
Baurach Borax
Baurach Anatron
Baurac Borax
Bay (Cherry) Lauro Ceraſſus
Tree Laurus Vulg.
Bazcher Bezoar
Bean Faba
Ægyptian Faba Ægyptia
Bengal Myrobalani Ind.
of Carthagena Bejuio
French Phaſeolus
Garden Faba Major
Horſe Faba Minor
Kidney Phaſeolus
Malacca Anacardium
Pontic Faba Ægyptia
Stinking Phazeolus Zurratenſis
Tree Corallodendron
Tree (Binding) Acacia
Turkey Faba Major
Bearded Creeper Cyanus, &c.
Bears Bilberries Uva Urſi
Ear Auricula Urſi
Whortle Berries ib.
Worts ib.
Bear's Breech Acanthus
Beaver Caſtor
Beebread Propolis
Bechium Tuſſilago
Bedeguar Arabum Card. Lact. Syr.
Beech Tree Fagus
Been Behem, Behen Alb.
Beer Alla
Bees Apes
Beeſtings Coloſtrum
Beetla Betle
Beetle (Slow-legged) Blatta Fetida
Beetrave Beta
Beets Beta
Behmen ahrad Arabum } Behem, Behen Alb.
Belenites Belemnites
Beli Covalam
Bellegu Myrobalani Bellirica
Bellereği Myrobalani Bellirica
Belliflower Cervicaria
Bellidioides Bellis Major
Bellileg Myrobalani Bellirica
Bellonio Cedrus
Belly Abdomen. Venter.
Abſceſs in the Abſceſſus
Abſceſs in the Muſcles of the { Inflamation of the Muſcles of the
Muſcles of, inflamed ib.
Muſcles of, their uſe Abdomen
Pain in the ib.
Rhumatiſm in the Muſcles of the { Abdomen, Inflam. in the Muſcles of the
Belt Cingulum
Belutta Amelopodi
Belvedere Chenopodium
Belzoe Benzoinum
Belzuar Minerale Bezoar Foſſile
Bem Tamara Faba Ægyptia
Ben Behem, Behen, Alb.
Benjamin Benzoinum
Benjoinum Benzoinum
Bennet Caryophyllata
Benjovinum Benzoinum
Berbaris Berberis
Bericocca Armeniaca Mala
Berillus Beryllus
Bernhardi Teſticulus { Aſphodelus Luteus
Bernhardus Eremita Cancellus
Berrys Baccæ
(Bermudas) Saponariæ Nuclæ
in Cluſters Acini
Indian Cocculus Indus
Moor Oxycoccus
Single Baccæ
Berula Becabunga
Galica Sium Ang.
Beryl Beryllus
Betele Betle
Betelle ib.
Bethle ib.
Betonica Aquatica. Scrophularia Aquat.
Coronaria Caryophillus Ruber.
Pauli Veronica
Betony Betonica
Pauls Veronica
Water Scrophularia Aq.
Betre Betle
Betulus Oſtrya
Bezoar Germanicum Capra Alpina
Mineral Ammites Bez. Foſſil
Porci Bezoar Hyſtricis
Porcupine ib.
Bezoardica (Rad.) Contrayerva
Bianca Alexandrina Album Hiſp.
Bibitorius Adductor Oculi
Biceps Flexor Biceps Humeri
Internus Humeri ib.
Bicornis Flexor Carpi Radialis
Bile Bilis
(Black) Atrabilis. Melaina.
Bifoil (Wood) Bifolium
Bilious Fever Biliosus Febris
Billing bing Bilimbi
Bindweed Convolvulus
Rough Smilax Aſpera
Sea Braſſica Maritima
Syrian Scammonium
Virginian Sarſaparilla
Bingalle Caſſumuniar
Bipetalous Petala
Birao Amomum
Birch Betula
Birdpepper Piper Indicum
Bird's Neſt Daucus Vulg.
Foot Ornithopodium
Tongue { Lingua Avis Ornithogloſſum
Birthwort Ariſtolochia
Creeping Ariſtolochia Tenuis
Biſhop's-weed (True) Ammi Verum
Biſlingua Hippogloſſum
Biſmalva Althea
Biſmuth Biſmuthum
Biſtort Biſtorta
Bite of a mad Dog Hydrophobia
Bitter Apple Colocynthis
Bitters Amara
Bitter Sweet Solanum Lign.
Bitumen Barbad. Petroleum Barb
Blackberry Buſh Rubus Vulg.
Black Jack Zincum
Blackwood Ebenus Viridis
Blad Apple Pereſkia
Bladder (Urinary) Veſſica Urin.
Abſceſs in the Abſceſſus
Inflamed Cyſtitis
Flatus paſſing from the Ædopſophia
Miſplaced Procidentia Veſſica Urin.
Stone in the Calculus
Ulcer in the Ulcus
(Gall) Veſicula Fellis
Blæſus Cyllos
Blanc Tarbe Cobaltum
Blaſt Afflatus. Uredo
in the Eye Taraxis
Blaſted Aſtrobles. Aſtrobolimus
Blatta Blatta Byzantia
Blear-eyed Lippitudo
Blechnon Minus Filix Querna
Bleeding Phlebotomia
Blemiſh Macula
Blende Zincum
Germania Biſmuthum
Blindneſs at Night Hemerolopia
Blindworm Cæcilia
Blinks Alſineformis
Blites Blitum
Blitum Fœtid. Atriplex Fetida
Max. Amaranthus
Blood Sanguis
Blood-flower Hæmanthus
Stone Hæmatitis. Heliotropium
Shot Sugillatio
Wort Lapathum Rubrum
Bloody Flux Dyſenteria
Blubber (Sea) Urtica Marina
Blue Bottle Cyanus
Blunt Hook Embryulcia
Bluſhing Enchymoma
Boam Tree Aria
Boil Furunculus
Boiling Coctio
Bole Bolus
Bolchus Bdellium
Boletus igniarius Agaricus Quercus
pini laricis Agaricus
Bombaſt Bombax
Bone Os
Abſceſs in Abſceſſus
Enlarged Exoſtoſis
Inflamed Inflammatio
Soft Mollities Oſſium
Bonebinder Oſteocolla
Bonefacia Hyppogloſſum
Bonus Henricus Mercurialis
Boor Cole Braſſica Fimbriata
Borax (Acid of) Sedativa Sal
Bordered Marginatus
Borrage Borrago
Boviſta Lycoperdon Vulg.
Bowlegged Valgus
Box Buxus
Bracken Filix Fœmina
Brain Cerebrum
Abſceſs in Abſceſſus
Inflamed Phrenitis
Brakes Filix Fœmina
Bramble Rubus Vulg.
Bran Furfur
Branca Urſina Acanthus. Paſtinaca
Branch Ramus
Branchi Branchæ
Brandy Vinum Aduſtum
Brank Fagopyrum
Urſine Acanthus
Braſiletto Campechenſe Lign.
Braſilia Braſilium Lignum
Braſilian Root Ipecacuanha
Braſil Wood Braſilium Lignum
Braſs Aurichalcum
Braſs Aes
to preſerve Adeps
Bread Panis. Coliphium
Made with the Flour and Bran { Aceroſus
Tree Azedarach
Unfermented Azymos
Breakfaſt Acratiſma
Breakſtone Calcifraga
Breaſtbone Sternum
Breaſts Mammæ
Inflamed Inflammatio
Abſceſs in the Abſceſſus
Scirrhus Scirrhus
Breath (Difficult) Dyſpnœa
Stinking Dyſodia
Breathing Reſpiratio
Bridle Faſcia
Brimſtone Sulphur
Brick Later
Brine Muria
Brionia Alba Peruv. Mecoachana Alba
Peruviana Jallapa
Briony Brionia
Briſtol Water Briſtolienſis Aqua
Britannica Bardana Major
Britannicus Lapathum Aquat.
Brocoli Braſſica Capitata
Bromelia Ananas
Bronchotomy Tracheotomia
Bronchus Catarrhus
Brooklime Becabunga
Broom (Common) Geniſta
Plant, Thorny, Syrian Alhagi
Spaniſh Geniſta Juncea
Broomrape Orobanche
Broth Jus
(White) Album Jus
Brown Spots Cyaſma
Bruiſe Contuſa
Bruiſewort Bellis Minor
Bruiſewort Saponaria
Brunſwick Mum Abies
Bruſcus Ruſcus
Bruſh Scopula
Bryon Marinum Lactuca Marina
Bryum Bryon
Bubaſtecordium Artemiſia
Bubaſtus (Heart of) ib.
Bubo, which ſee, and Abſceſs in the Groin
Bubon Galbanum Galbanum
Macedonicum Apium
Buckbean Trifolium Palludoſum
Buckhorn (Ruellius's) { Ambroſia Campeſtris
Buckthorn Rhamnus
Buckwheat Fagopyrum
Buffalo Bubalus
Bug Cimex
Sow Aſelli
Church ib.
Bugle Bugula
Buglos Bugloſſum
Vipers Echium
Bugloſſum Marinum { Cynogloſſum Marit.
Radice rubra Anchuſa
Buildings
to raiſe with reſpect to air Ær.
Bulatwala Betle
Bulbocodium Narciſſus Lut. Sylv.
Bulbus Sylv. Narciſſus Lut. Sylv.
Bulimia Bouſimus
Bulimus Bouſimus
Bull Bos
Bumelia Fraxinus
Bunium Apium
Buphthalmum Creticum Pyrethrum
Maj. Bellis Major
Bupleurum Perfoliata
Arbor Seſeli Ethiop.
Burdock Bardana
(Great) Bardana Maj.
Leſſer Bardana Min.
Woolley headed Bardana Arctica
Burgundy pitch Abies
Burhalaga Empetrum Thym. Fol.
Burnecw Bupreſtis
Burnet Pimpinella
Saxifrage ib.
Burns Ambuſta
Burſæ tendinibus ſubjectæ { Burſæ Muceſæ
Buſh Dumus
Butcher's Broom Ruſcus
Butler's Stone Driſt
Butter Burr Petaſites
of Chocolate Cacao
wort Sanicula Ebor.
Buttocs Clunes, Nates
Butua Parcira Brava
Buxus Sempervirens Buxus
Byaris Cete Admirabile
Byrethrum Byrethrus } Cucupha
Byzantina Blatta Byzantia

C

Caapeba Parcira Brava
Cabbage Braſſica Crambe
Bark Geoffræa Inermis
Sea Braſſica Sylveſtris
Tree { Cacali Anthemum. & Palma Nobilis
Cabelian Aſellus Major
Caburesba Peruvianum Falſ.
Cacai Cacao
Cacamotic Flanoquiloni Battat. Pereg.
Cacava Cacuo
Cacavata ib.
Cacavera ib.
Cacavi Caſſada
Cachalot Cete Admirable
Cachimia Cachymia
Cachrys Libanotis
Cachryſera ib.
Cacoa Cacao
Caery Libanotis
Cactes Cinara
Cadagaſpali Coneſſi
Cadjuct Phazeolus Zurat.
Cadmia Lapidoſa Calaminaris Lap's
Foſſilis ib.
Metallica Cobaltum
Cadnca Vertigo
Caffiny Caſſine
Cæſarean Section Cæſarea Sectio
Cahveh Coffea
Cahoua ib.
Caira Terra Japonica
Cajou Acajuiba
Cajum ib.
Calabaſh Tree Higuero
Calambac Wood Aſpalathum
Calambour Agallochum
Calaminar Stone Calaminaris Lapis
Calamintha Humilior. Hedera Terreſtris
Calamita Magnes
Alba Magnes Aibus
Calamite Calaminaris Lap's
Calamus Arundo
Rotang Sang. Dracon.
Calamy Calaminaris Lapis
Calcar Calcaneum
Calcatrippa Delphinium
Calcis Os Calcaneum
Calculus Humanus Bezoar Microc.
Calendula Alpina Doronicum Germ.
Caligo Encauma
Callitrichum Adianthum
Callus Clavus
Calomel Mercurius Dulc. Sublim.
Caltha Calendula
Arvenſis Calendula Arvenſis
Minima ib.
Paluſtris Calendula Paluſtris
Caltrops (Water) Tribulus Aquaticus
Calves Snout Antirrhinum
Cambodia Gambogia
Cambogium ib.
Cambogia ib.
Camel's Hay Juncus Odoratus
Cammarus Cancer Fluv.
Cammock Ononis
Camomile Chamæmelum
Stinking Cotula Fœtida
Camotes Batatas Hiſp.

Campaniformis Flos Campaniformis
Campanula Cervicaria
Campeachy Wood Campechenſe Lign.
Campechianum ib.
Campeſcanum ib.
Campfever Typhus Caſtrenſis
Camphire Camphora
Camphor ib.
Camphorofma Meliſſa Turcica
Campion (Corn) Nigellaſtrum
(Red, wild) Ocymoides
(Bladder) Behen Alb. Vulg.
(Roſe) Lychnis Coronaria Dioſc.
(Wild, white) Ocimaſtrum
Campſin Eteſiæ
Campſis ib.
Canabine Aquatica Bidens
Canabis Indica Bangue
Peregrina ib.
Canaliculus Arterioſus Canalis Arter.
Canary Vinum
Cancer (Chimney-ſweepers) Scrotum
Oſſis Spina Ventoſa
Cancer in Teſtis Degens Cancellus
(Water) Gingivæ
Candidum Ovi Albumen Ovi
Candle Candela
Cane Arundo
(Walking Calamus Toxicus
Canella Cinnamomum
Cubana { Canella Alba, Caſſia Lignea
Cuorão Cinnamomum
Javanenſis Caſſia Lign. & Folium.
Malabarica Caſſia Lign.
Sylveſtris Malabarica Folium
Zeylanica Cinnamomum
Canis Ariſtoteli Canis Carchariat
Galeus ib.
Ponticus Caſtor
Interfector Cevadilla
Cannabinum Eupatorium
Cannacorus Curcuma
Canna Domeſtica Cruris Tibia
Major ib.
Canna Indica { Cannacorus Sagittaria Alex.
Canſcherca Pou Mandaru
Cantabrica Convolvulus Minor
Canterburybells Cervicaria
Cantharis Major Cantharides
Capaline Deligatio
Capella Cupella
Caper Capparis
Caphura Camphora
Capillaire Adianthum
Capillares Vermiculi Dracunculi
Capillaris Medius (Aurcus) Adianthum
Capillus Canadenſis Adianthum
Veneris ib.
Capitatinga Calamus Aromat. Aſiat.
Capivus Album Capivi Balſ.
Capnelaion Capnelæum
Capo Molago Piper Indicum
Capon Capo
Capparis
Portulacæ Fabago
Fabago ib
Capreolaris Spermatica Corda
Capreolus Claviculus
Capſicum Piper Indicum
Annuum Capſicum
Capſulæ Renales. Capſulæ Atrabilariæ
Venæ Portæ. Capſula Com. Gliſſ.
Caput Gallinaceum Onobrychis
Capus Obſtipium Cervix
Caput Vituli Antirrhinum
Carabaccium Caſſia Caryophyllata
Carabe Succinum
Carabe Funerum Bitumen
of Sodom ib.
Caragna Caranna
Carameno Hybouceuhu Americanus
Caraway Carum
Carbo Carbunculus
Carbos Theoph. Ampelites
Carbuncle Carbunculus
Carcas Cataputia Minor
Carcedonius Chalcedonius
Carchedonicus Granatus
Carcinoma Cancer
Cardamantica Lepidium Gram. Fol.
Cardamindum Minus. Naſturtium Ind.
Cardamom (Leſſer) Cardamomum
Cardamomum Siberienſe { Aniſum Indicum.
Cardamum Piperatum. Paradiſi Grana
Card gi Indi Folium
Cardiac Paſſion Cardiaca Paſſio
Cardialgia Sputateria Pyroſis
Cardinal Flower Cardinalis Flos
Cardoret Cinara
Cardogatium Carduus Lact. Syr.
Cardus Cnicus Atractylis
Carduus Acanthus Acanthus
Creteníibus Caloch erni
Domeſticus Cinara
Cardnus Luteus Atractylis
Sativus Cinara, Carthamuſ.
Solſtitialis Calcitrapa Offic.
Stellatus Calcitrapa
Luteus Calcitrapa Offic.
Careum Carum
Cari Carum
Caries Ficus
Caries, which ſee, and Tibia
Strumous Spinal Spina Ventoſa.
Pudendorum Chancre.
Carima Caſſada
Carioſſe Ady.
Carlina Cardnus Lact. Syr.
Humilis ib.
Gummifera Carduus Pinea
Carmelite Water Carmes (Eau de)
Carmina Amuleta
Carminatives Carminantia
Carmine Coccinilla
Carnation-tree Cacalianthemum
Caroba Siliqua Dulcis
Carob-tree ib.
Caro Adnata ad Teſtem Sarcocele
Vaſa Sarcocele
Caro Muſculoſa Quadrata { Palmaris Brevis
Caropi Amomum
Caros Carum
Carp Carpio
Carpenus Oſtrya
Carperitaria Barbarea
Carrot Daucus
Carrot, Deadly Thapſia
Carthamus, which ſee, Cnicus
Cartilaginoſum Patella
Carui Carum
Carus Caros
Carvi Carum
Carvi Spina Rhamnus
Caryoces Ady
Caryon Juglans
Caryophyllus Fleſ. Caryophylleus
Caryophylloides Caſſia Caryophyllata
Caryophyllon Plinii { Caſſia Caryophyllata
Caryophyllus Aromat. Caſſia Caryoph.
Caryophyllus Hortenſis { Caryophyllus Ruber.
Caſcarilla Thuris Cortex
Caſ. Gangythrel Verbena
Caſminar Caſmuniar
Caſmunar Caſſumuniar
Caſoar Emeu
Caſoaris Emeu
Caſhew Nut-tree Acajaiba
Caſſave Caſſada
Caſſavi Caſſada
Caſſia Alexandrina Senna Alex.
Alexandrian Purging Caſſia Fiſt.
Cinnamomea Cinnamomum
Fiſtula Caſſia Fiſtularis
Lignea Folium,
Jam. Canella Alba
Latinorum { Caſſia Poetica, and Oſyrif.
Lign. Monſpel. Caſſia Poetica
Monſpelianſium Caſſia Poetica
Nigra Caſſia Fiſtularis
Poetica, which ſee, and Oſyrif.
Purgatrix Caſſia Fiſtularis
Purging ib.
Senna Senna Alex.
Salutive Caſſia Fiſtularis
Caſſidony Stoechas
(Golden or Yellow) Elichryſum
Caſſina Herba Caſſine
Caſſowary Emeu
Caſſu Acajaiba
Caſſumunar Caſſumuniar
Caſſuta Cuſcuta
Caſſutha Cuſcuta
Caſtanea Equina Hippocaſtanum
Caſtanea Malabarica. Angelina Zanoni
Caſtor, which ſee, and Cataputia
Caſtration Caſtratio
Caſumunar Caſumuniar
Catalepſay Catalepſis
Catamenia Menſes
Catanance Cichorium
Cataphora Caros
Cataphracta Quadriga
Cataplaſm Cataplaſma
of Cummin Cuminum
of Garlic Allium
Cataplaſma Emollicns Cataplaſma
Diſcutiens ib.
Saturni ib.
Cataract Cataracta
Catarrh Catarrhus
(Hot) ib.
(Cold) ib.
(Suffocative) ib.
Catarrhal Fever Catarrhalis, Catarrhus
Catchfly Muſcipula
Catellus Canis
Catellus Cinereus Cupella
Catinus Cruciabulum
Catoche Catalepſis
Catochus ib.
Catou Karua Folium.
Cats Eye Agate Achates
Cats Foot Gnaphalium Mont.
Cats Tail (Great) Typha Paluſtris Maſ.
Cattaria Mentha Cataria
Catulus Canis
Cauda Muris Myoſotis
Cauda Porcina Peucedanum
Cauli Flower Braſſica Florida
Caulis Braſſica Florida
Cauſe Cauſa
Cauſtics Eſcharotica
Cauſticum Lunare Argentum
Americanum Cevadilla
Antimonium Antimonium
Cauſus Ardens Febris
Cauteries Eſcharotica
Cavitas Innominata Auricula
Cawl Omentum
Cayan Cajan
Cayan Pepper Piper Indicum
Cayanne Piper Indicum
Cazabi Caſſada
Ceanothus Celaſtus Inermiſ.
Cedar { (Berrybearing or Cypreſs Leaved) Oxycedrus
Cedar of Libanus Cedrus
Cedar Wine Cedrinum Vinum
Cedrelæum Cedria
Cedrium Cedria
Cedronella Meliſſa
Cedrus Lycia Oxycedrus
Cedrus Magna Cedrus
Cees Crinones
Celandine (Great) Chelidonium Major
(Leſs) Chelidonium Minus
Celeri Apium
Italorum ib.
Celtis Lotus Arbor
Cement Cæmentum
Royal ib.
Cenchria Ammodites
Cenchrites Ammites
Centaurea Benedicta. Carduus Bened.
Centaurea Centaurium { Rhapontiicum Vulg.
Centaurium Majus { Rhapontiicum Vulg.
Magn. ib.
Centaury (Great) Rhapontiicum Vulg.
(Leſſer) { Centaurium Minor & Sulph. Ant. Precip.
Centimorbia Nummularia
Centipedes Aſelli
Cephalaea Cephalalgia
Cephalagia Cephalalgia
Cephalopharyngæus { Pharynx, & Pterygopharyngæi.
Cephaloponia Cephalalgia
Cera di Cardo Cnicus
Ceraſus Avium Nigra Padus
Racemeſa ib.
Ceraſus Fol. Laur. Lauro Ceraſus
Trapezuntina ib.
Ceratia Siliqua Dulcis
Ceratocephalus Bidens
Ceratonia Siliqua Dulcis
Ceratum Album Ceratum
Citrinum ib.
Epuloticum Calaminaris Lapis
Mercuriale Ceratum
Ceraunias Ceraunia
Ceraunius Ceraunia
Cerchon { Rhenchos
Cerchnon
Cerefolium Cœlifolium
Cerefolium Chærophyllum
Sylveſtre Chærophyll. Sylv.
Hiſpanicum Myrrhis
Cerevifia Alla
Amara ib.
Antiſcorb. ib.
Cerinthoides Argentea { Cynogloſſum Marit.
Cerion Achor
Cerritus Ceritus
Ceruſſa Plumbum
Cervaria Nigra Laſerpitium Vulg.
Cervicales Deſcendens Sacrolumbaris
Cervicalis Dorſi Sacrolumbaris (acceſſ.)
Ceterach Aſplenium
Chadloch Rapiſtrum
Chærefolii Chærophyllum
Chærophyllus Percepier
Chaff Achne
Chalandra Calandra
Chalapa Jalapa
Chalazion Chalaza
Chalk Creta
French Steatites, Morochthus
Black Creta Nigra
Non-effervefcent. Creta Non-efferv.
Chalcedony Achates
Chalcoideum Cunciforme Os Ext.
Chalybs Ferrum
Tartarizatus ib.
Chamæacte Ebulus
Chamæbalano Orobus
Chamæciſtus Hedera Terreſtris
Chamædaphne Laureola Mas
Chamædrys Scordium
Chamædrys Teucrium
Chamælæa Laureola Fœm.
Chamælæagnes Elæagnus
Chamælæagnus Myrtus Brab.
Chamæleo Alb. Dioſc. Carduus Pinea
Chamæleon Alb. Carduus Lact. Syr.
Chamælima Hedera Terreſtris
Chamæmelum { Lucanthemum Canarienſe
Chamæmeſpilus Meſpilus fol. &c.
Chamæpeuce Camphorata
Chamærubus Chamæmorus
Chamæſyce Peplion
Chamois Ægagropila
Chamois Capra Alpina
Chamomilla Chamæmelum
Champignon Amanitæ
Chaps Rhagades
Charcoal Carbo Foſſilis
Chardon Cinara
Charchedonias Chalcedonius
Charles's (St.) Root. Carlo Sancto Rad.
Chaslock Rapiſtrum
Charms Amuleta
Chaſte Flower Agnanthus
Chaſte Tree Agnus Caſtus
Chate Cucumis Agreſtis
Cheek-bones Malarum Oſſa
Cheeks Bucca
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Doronicum Plantag. fol. — Doron. Germ.
Doriſtenia — Contrayerva
Dotage — Amentia
Doubletongue — Hippogloſſum
Dove'sfoot — Geranium Columbinum
Down — Lanugo
Dracontia Minor — Arum
Dracunculus Hortenſis — Draco
Dracunculus Polyphyllus. — Dracontium
Draco Arbor — Angſana
Dracunculus — Bovina Affectio
pratenſis — Ptarmica
Dracuntium — Dracontium
Dragacanthæ — Gummi Trag.
Dragons — Dracontium
Dragon's Blood — Sanguis Draconis
Gum Rubr. Altr. & Arunda Farcta
Dragon's Head (American) — Drago Cephalon.
Drakena — Contrayerva
Drank — Ægylops
Draſtic Purges — Purgantia
Draught — Hauſtus
Dream — Inſomnium
Dreams (Venereal) — Oneirogmos
Dreſs — Adyachytos
Dromedary — Camelus
Drop — Gutta
Dropſy — Hydrops
of the Breaſt — Hydrops Pectoris
Encyſted — Hydrops Cyſticus
of the Knee — Hydrops Genu
of the Lungs — Hydrops Pulmonum
of the Ovaries — Hydrops Ovariæ
of the Scrotum — Hydrocele
of the Spine — Spina Biſida
of the Ventricles of the Brain — Hydrocephalus
of the Womb — Hydrometra & Hydrops Uteri
Dropwort — Filipendula
Dropwort (Water) — Oenanthe Aquatica
Drowning — Submerſio
Drum of the Ear — Tympanum
Drunkenneſs — Ebrietas
Dry Diſeaſe — Anaſte
Dryflower — Xeranthemum
Drying — Exſiccatio
Dryopteris — Polypodium Tenerum Minus
Duccia — Ducia
Duck — Anas
Foot — Anapodophyllon
Meat — Lenticula
Dulcamara — Solanum Lignoſum
Dumbneſs — Mutitas
Dung — Fimus
Dura Mater, which ſee, and Mater
Duſt Impregnating — Farina Fœcunda
Dyer's Weed — Lutea, & Geniſta Tinctoria
Dyſentery — Dyſenteria

E

Eagle
Veins — Ætoi Phlebes
Stone — Ætites
Ear — Auris
Drum of the — Tympanum
Wort — Mentha Paluſtris
Ach — Otalgia
Abſcefs in the — Abſceſſus
Near the — Parotis
Outer — Auricula
Wax — Cerumen Auris
Noiſe in the — Tinnitus Aurium
Ear Earth — Terra
Japan — Terra Japonica
Flax — Abumen
Samian — Collyrium Samium
Earythmus — Arythmos
Eau de Luce — Alcali
Ebifcus — Althæa
Ebony (Mountain) — Bauhinia
Tree — Ebenus Æthiopica
of the Alps — Laburnum
Eccoprotics — Purgantia
Echinophora — Caucalis
Eclegma — Linctus
Echium — Buglofſum Sylveſtre
Echium Marin. — Cynoglofſum Marit.
Eel — Anguilla
Torporific — ib.
Conger — Conger
Egg — Ovum
White of — Albumen Ovi
Yolk of — Vitellus
Elæagnon — Agnus Caſtus
Elæagnus Cordo — Myrtus Brab.
Elaphoboſcum — Paſtinaca Sylv.
Elaphopila — Cervus
Elaterium — Cucum's Agreſtis. & Thuris Cortex.
Elbow — Olecranon
(Weezel) — Anci.
Elder — Sambucus
Dwarf — Ebulus
Elecampane — Enula
(Baſtard) — Heleniaſtrum
Electary — Electarium
of Caſſia — Caſſia Fiſtularis
Electrum — Succinum
Elements — Principia
Elemni — Elemi
Eleoſelinum — Apium
Eletari — Cardamomum
Elhanne Arabum — Ligustrum Ind.
Elychryſum Montanum, &c. — Gnaphalium Montanum
Elixir Aloe — Aloe
Proprietatis — Aloe
Vitriolic. — Aloe
Myrrhæ — Myrrha
Elm-tree — Ulmus
Elutheria — Thuris Cortex
Emanſio Menſium — Amenorrhœa
Embalm — Condio
Embelgi — Myrobalani Emblicæ
Embleg — Myrobalani Emblicæ
Embrocatio — Lotio
Embryonatum — Antimonium
Eme — Emeu
Emerald — Smaragdus
Emerus Americanus — Indicum
Emery — Smiris
Emetics — Emetica
Empalement — Perianthium
Empaſmata — Catapaſma
Empetrum — Alypum
Empl. Veſicatorium — Cantharides
e Cicuta — Cicuta Minor
e Cymino — Cyminum
Emprothotonos — Tetanus
Emulgentes — Renales Arteriæ & Renales Venæ
Emulſio Amygd. — Amygdalus
Camphorata — Camphora
Enarthroſis — Diarthroſis
Encauſtum Cœruleum — which ſee, and Cobaltum
Endive — Cichoreum. Indivia
Enema ex Amylo — Amylum
Enflure des Jambes, &c — Lymphæduct.
Enfroode — Caſſada
Engliſh Diſeaſe — Rachitis
Engliſh Salt — Catharticus Sal
Engorgement Laiteux, &c. — Lymphæ Dectus
Ens Primum Salium — Circulatum
Entaglia — Entalium
Entropium — Trichia
Enula — Ulon
Campana — Enula
Envy — Invidia
Epacmaſtici — Acmaſticos
Eparſis — Eparma
Ephedra Maritima Minor — Cauda Equina
Ephemera — Ardeus Febris
Ephialtes — Incubus
Epicarpium — Cataplaſma
Epicauma — Encauma
Epicranium — Occipito Frontalis
Epidemical — Epidemius
Epidermis — Cuticula
Epididymis diſtended — Spermatocele
Epiginomena — Epiphænomena
Epilepſy — Epilepſia
Epiploon — Omentum
Epiſemaſia — Annotatio
Epiſpaſticum — Cataplaſma
Epiſtaphylini — Staphylini
Epiſtro-

Epistrophea Epistrophæus
Epithema Vesicatorium Cantharides
Epodos Epode
Epsom Salt Catharticus Sal
Equinox Æquinoctium
Equisetum Cauda Equina
Polygonoides Algoides
Equus Marinus Hippopotamus
Erector Clitoridis. Clitoridis Musculus
Erica Baccifera, &c. { Empetrum / Montanum, &c.
Erica Coris Folio { Empetrum Montanum, &c.
Erice Erica
Erizanthæ Asphodelus Luteus
Eruca Lutea Latifolia Barbarea
Sylvestris ib.
Siliqua, &c. Eryfimum
Ervilia Ocherus
Ervum Sylvestre Nissolia
Eringo Eryngium
Erysimum Sophia
Alliaria Alliaria
Theophrasti Fagopyrum
Erysipelas (Bastard or Scorbutic) Effera
Erysipelatosa Asplenium
Erythrodanum Rubia
Erythroxylon Poinciana
Escarpe Fascia
Eschaiots Ascalonitides
Essere Effera
Essentia Abietes Abies
Menth. Pip. Mentha Pip.
Ambragrisea Ambragrisea
Antimoniale Antimonium
Stibii ib.
Neroli Aurantia Hispalensis
de Cedra Bergamote
Esula Solisequa Tithymalus Helioscopius
Marina Marit.
Estellaris Lapis Astrochites
Ether Æther
Euonimo Adfinis, &c. Guaiacum
Euonymus Simarouba
Eupatorium Ageratum & Baccharis.
Græcorum Agrimonia
Verum ib.
Veterum ib.
Cannabinum Bidens
Euphorbia Palustris Tithymalus
Euphragia Euphrasia
Euphrasiæ Affinis Bras. Caa-ataya Bras.
Everlasting Flower Amaranthoides
Evil (King's) Scrofula
Exacinata Acinus
Exhalations (stinking) Dysodia
Exercise Exercitatio
Exitus Ani Procidentia Ani
Exostoses Gumma
Exostosis Spina Ventosa
Expectoration Anacatharsis
Exploratrix Capella
Extensor Carpi Exterior { Extensor Carpi Radialis
Interior { Extensor Carpi Ulnaris
Longus Digitorum Pedis { Extensor Digitorum Longus
Indicis Proprius Extensor Indicis
Externus Tympani Auris { Laxator Externus
Extractum
Campechense { Campechense Lignum
Chamæm. Chamæmelum
Cort. Peruv. Cortex Peruvianus
Enul. Camp. Enula
Martis Ferrum
Purgans Hedera Arborea
Eye Oculus
White of the Adnata
To extract foreign Bodies from the { Adnata
Abscess in the Abscessus
Cicatrices in the Ægides, Albugo
Speck on the Ægides, Albugo
Filmon the Ægides, Albugo
Dragon in the Albugo
Pearl Albugo
As if Sand was in it Arenositas
Hare's Ectropium
Tumor on its inner Angle { Encanthis
Ulcer on the Encauma
Watery Epiphora
Confusion of its Humours. Synchysis
Specks, &c. flashing in the { Marmaryge
Purulent Opthalmia Mucosa
Inflamed Opthalmia
Twinkling of the Nystagmos
Eyebright Euphrasia
Eyebrow
Bald Anaphalantiasis
Eyelid Palpebræ
Abscess in the Abscessus
Eyelid Inverted Adnata Ectropium
Closed or glued Ancyloblepharon
Rough, sore, &c. Trachoma
Turned Inward Trichia

F

Faba Inversa Crassula
Bengalensis Myrobalani Ind.
Crassa Crassula
Cyamus Legumin. Faba Major
Equina Faba Minor
Frasa Faba Major
Indica Nux Vomica Serap.
Sancti Ignatii ib.
Suilla Hyoscyamus Niger
Purgatrix Cataputia Minor
Fabaginea Fabago
Fabaria Crassula
Face Facies
Cancer in the Cancer
Facies Rubra Gutta Rosacea
Fagara Octandra Tacamahaca
Fagotriticum Fagopyron
Fainting Lipothymia
Falcata Siliqua Cornuta Medica
Falciform Process Dura Mater
Falling Sickness Epilepsia
Fames Canina Boulimus
Fanatic Stroke Enthusiasmus
Farfara Tussilago
Farfarella Farfara, & Tussilago
Farinha Fresca Cassada
Fascia Aponeurosis
Fat Adeps
Fatness Obesitas
Fauces Inflamed Inflammatio
Faufel Arcea
Favago Australis Alcyonium
Favus Achor
Feather Penna
Swallowed ib.
Featherfew Matricaria
Febrifuga ib.
Febrifuge (Common) ib.
Febris Amatoria Chlorosis
Anginosa Scarlatina Anginosa
Nautica Pestil. Miliaris Nautica
Feeling, Loss of Anæsthesis
Feet Pes
Abscess in Abscessus
Bath for the Pediluvium
Distorted Pes
Turned in or out Valgus
Fegopyron Fagopyron
Fellwort Gentiana
Fellon Paronychia
Femen Femur
Fennel Fœniculum
Fennel-flower { Melanthium & Nigella Romana
(Wild) Nigella Arvensis
Fennel Giant Ferula
Fennel Herb Libanotis
Fennel (Hogs) Peucedanum
Fennel (Sweet) Fœniculum Dulce
Fennel (Water) Myrophyllon
Fenugreek { Fœnum Græcum, & Trigonella
Ferentis Arbutus
Fern Filix
Fern (Mules) Hemionitis
Fern (Oak) Polypodium Ten. Min.
Ferulæ Fol. Brev. &c. Meum Latifl.
Fettuca Italica Ægylops
Long. Arist. ib.
Fetus Fœtus
Fever Febris
Bilious Biliosus Febris
Marsh Biliosus Febris
Remittent Biliosus Febris
Autumnal Remittent { Biliosus Febris
Camp { Biliosus Febris / Febris Castrensis
Diary Ephemera
Jail Febris Carcerum
Spotted Febris Lenticulas
Inflammatory Inflammatio
Nervous Nervosus Febris
Flatulent Pemphigodes
Vesicular Pemphigus
Petechial Petechialis Febris
Child-bed Puerperilis Febris
Putrid Putrid Fever
Quartan Quartana Febris
Scarlet Scarlatina
Stationary Stationaria Febris
Worm Vermes
Infantile Remittent ib.
Ardent Ardens Febris
Critical Critici
Feverfew Febrifuga
Feverfew (common) Matricaria
(Bastard) Partheniastrum
Farrago Alcyonium
Fiber Castor
Fibre Fibra
Ficaria Scrophularia Major
Ficaria Minor Chelidonium Minus
Ficoides Banana
Ficus Condyloma
Ficus Indica Musa & Banana
Fiery Circles Eclampsis
Fig Ficus
Dry Carica
Indian Coccinilla
Wort (water) { Scrophularia Aquatica
Knobby ib.
Filago Gnaphalium
Filago Alpina Leontopodium
Filbert (purging) Ben
Filipendula Aquatica Œnanthe Aq.
Cicutæ Facie { Œnanthe Chæroph.
Filix Aculeata Lonchitis
Mas ib.
Filix Querna Repens { Polypodium Ten. Min.
Fillet Fascia
Finckle Fœniculum
Finger Digitus
Abscess in the Abscessus Pitonia
Fingrigo Pitonia
Fir Abies
Fire Ignis
Fistilis Hibern. Hibernicus Lapis
Fissure Fissura
Fissures in the fore-skin Rhagades
Fire for fusion Ignis Rotæ
—— Degrees of ib.
Fire Stones Pyrites
Fistic nut-tree Pistacia
Five Fingers } Quinquefolium
Five-leaved Grass }
Flag
Sweet-scented { Calamus Aromaticus
Asiatic (sweet) { Calamus Arom. Asiæ
Flammula Clematitis
Flammula Jovis ib.
Flammula { Ranunculus Longifolius, &c.
Flanks Ilia
Flatulence Flatus
Flatulentus Ambulo
Flatus Furiosus ib.
Flax Linum
Mountain Linum Catharticum
Purging ib.
Flaxweed Linaria
Fleabane Conyza
Fleabane (great) Baccharis
Fleawort Psyllium
Flesh Brush Scopula
Flesh Glue Sarcocolla
Flexor
Parvus Minimi Digiti { Abductor Minimi Digit. Manus
Carpi Exterior { Flexor Carpi Radialis
interior Ulnaris
Digitorum Brevis. Flexor Sublimis
Sublimis Flexor Internodii, &c.
Secundus ib.
Secundi Internodii Digitorum { Flexor Sublimis
Primi Internodii { Lumbricales Musculi
Flies
(French) Cantharides
(Spanish) ib.
Flint Silex
Flixweed Sophia
Flocks Tomentum
Flooding Abortio
Floramour Amaranthus
Flor. Benz. Benzoinum
Bismuthi Bismuthum
Flos Amoris Amaranthus
Salis Ammon. Ammoniacus Sal
Cuculi Cardamine
Ambervalis Polygala
Solis Pyramidalis. Battatas Canad.
Farnesianus ib.
Sanguineus Nasturtium Indicum
Terræ Cœlifolium
Flosculosus Flos Flosculosus
Flour Farina
Flower Flos
of Cobalt Cobaltum
Gentle Amaranthus
of Iron or Steel Ferrum
Martial ib.
Fence Poinciana
Flower de Luce { (White) Iris Florentina
(Common) Iris Vulgaris
(Yellow) Iris Palustris
Flowers Flores
of Nutmeg ib.
to pather, &c. ib.
Fluellin (Female) Elatine
Flux Reduc
Focile Majus Tibia
Fodder (Medic.) Medica
Fœniculum
Chinense Anisum Indicum
Marinum Crithmum
Orientale Cuminum
Porcinum Peucedanum
Sylvestre Meum. Latif. Adult.
Tortuosum Seseli Massil.
Fœnum Burgundiacum Medica
Camelorum Juncus Odoratus
Græcum Sylvestre { Glaux Vulg. / Leguminosa
Fœtus Dead Abortio
Folia Orientalia Sena Alexandrina
Folium Cassia Lignea
Fol. Indum Folium
Fomentation Fotus
Fomes Ventriculi Splen
Foolish Amentia
Foolstones Orchis
Foot Pes
Forceps Embryulcia
Use of ib.
Forehead Frons
Forehead Bone Frontalis Os
Forgetfulness Amnesia
Formica Miliaris Herpes
Fornix Achicolum
Fossa Navicularis Auricula
Fotus Anodynus Anodynum
Foxglove (Purple) Digitalis
Fracture Fractura
Fragaria Arbutus
Fragifera Major { Chenopodio Morus Major
Francolin Attagen
Frangula Alnus
Frankincense { Thus Libanotis, & Olibanum
(Black Herb) { Oreoselinum appii fol. &c.
(Lesser Herb) Laserpitium Vulg.
Fraxinella Dictamnus Albus
Freckle Lenticula
Freezing Gelatio
Frequent Creber
Friabilitas Ossium Fragilitas Ossium
Friar's Cowl Arisarum
Fright Terror
Fringe Fimbria
Frit Boletto
Frog Rana
Frog Bit Microleuco Nymphæa
Frontale Cataplasma
Frontal Muscle Frontalis
Frontalis Musculus. Corrugator Coiterii
Frontalis Verus ib.
Frostbitten Congelatus
Frozen ib.
Fruit Fructus
Frumentum Saracenicum. Fagopyron
Frutex Odorat. Septent. Myrtus Brab.
Pavoninus Poinciana
Terribilis Alypum
Fucus Vesiculosis Kali
Maritimus ib.
Lactucæ fol. Lactuca Marina
Marinus Alga
Fuga Dæmonum Hypericum
Fumbling (Delirious) Carpologia
Fumitory Fumaria
Podded Capnoides
Indian Bulbous rooted. Capnorchis
Fumus Terræ Fumaria
Function Actio
Animal ib.
Natural ib.
Vital ib.
Fundament (Falling down of) } Procidentia Ani
Fungus Articuli Spina Ventosa
Fungus Albus Acris Agaricus Piper.
Igniarius Agaricus Quercus
Laricis Agaricum
Piperatus Alb. Agaricus Piper.
Sambucinus Auriculæ Judæ
Membranaceus ib.
Rotund. Orbic. Lycoperdon Vulg.
Furcella Enisormis
Furcula Inferior ib.
Furfuraceus Coliphium
Furiosus Ambulo
Furnace Fornax
Furze (Lesser) Genista Spartium
Fusanus Euonymus
Fusaria ib.
Fuforius Crucibulum
Fustic Wood Flavum Lignum
Tree ib.

G

Gacirmá Cumana
Gadfly Asilus
Gagates Succinum Nigrum
Galactites Morochthus
Galangal Galanga
Galangale (English) Cyperus Longus

Galoraclis Galactites
Galaricides ib.
Galasius Morochthus
Galbanum Plant Oreodelinum
Gale Elæagnus, & Myrtus Brab.
Galeobdilon Lamium Luteum
Galeopsis Angustif. &c. Panax Coloni
Palustris, &c. ib.
Galbanum Ferula
Galeopsis Lamium Rubrum
Lutea Lamium Maculatum
Galerita Petasites
Gallion Gallium
Galium Aparine Aparine
Verum Gallium
Gall Bilis
Gall-bladder
Stone in the Calculus
Galled or Galling Intertrigo
Gallitrichum Horminum
Gallium Rubia Sylv. Læv.
Latifolium, &c. Cruciata Vulg.
Gallon Congius
Galls Gallæ
Gallstone (Porcupine) Bezoar Hystricis
Gamandra Gambogia
Gamboge, Gambogia } Carcapuli, & Gambogia
Gamma Gambogia
Gammarus Cancer Fluv.
Gamon Gambogia
Gangrena Aquosa Angina Gangrena
Gangræna Ossis Spina Ventosa
Gangrene Mortificatio
Gangrene (Dry) Necrosis
Garab. Ægylops
Garamanticus Granatus
Garatronius Bufonitis
Gargareon Uvula
Gargarisms Angina
Garlic Allium, Ophioscordon
Garnet Granatus
Garosmum Atriplex Fœtida
Garum Garon
Garyophillus Caryophylli Aromatica
Gas Aer
Gaffila Gasella
Gastrica Major { Gastrica Arteria Dextra Sinistra
Minor Gastrica Arteria
Gastrocnemius Internus Soleus
Gatten Tree Cerasus
Gaule Myrtus Brab. & Elæagnus
Gedwar Zedoaria
Gelseminum Jasminum
Gem Gemma
Gemelles Gastrocnemii
Geminus Extensor Carpi Radialis
Gemina Solis Asteria
Gems Capra Alpina
Generation Generatio
Genipat Janipaba Brasil.
Genipi Absinthium Alpinum
Genista Spartium Spinosum Alhagi
Spinosa, &c. Babel-Schulli
Genistella Genista Tinctoria
Gentiana Alba Laserpitium Vulg.
Gentiana Centaurium Centaur. Min.
Gentiana Nigra { Oreoselinum Apii fol. &c.
Geodæ Ætites
Geranium Pratense { Geranium Batrachoides
Germander Chamædrys
Creeping ib.
Mountain Teucrium
Trac. Polium Creticum, & Teucrium
Water Scordium
Geum Urbanum Caryophyllata
Gialappa Jalapa
Gibbous Cyphosis, Dorsum
Gill Ale Hedera Terrestris
Gill go by the Ground ib.
Gilly-flower Caryophyllus Ruber
Gilt-head Aurata
Ginger Zinziber
Gingidium Thapsia Orientalis
Gingidium Hispanicum Visnago
Gingihil Zinziber
Ginglymus Diarthrosis
Ginteng Genfing
Ginfeng Nindfin
Girafal Jaca Indica
Girdle Erysipelas
Girdle Cingulum
Gith Melanthium
Gith Nigella Romana
Glacies Mariæ Specularis Lapis
Gladdon (ſtinking) Iris Fœtida
Gladiolus Lutæus Iris Palustris
Gladiolus Fœtidus Iris Fœtida
Gladwyn Iris Fœtida
Glandes Balani
Glands Glandula
Maxillary Maxillares Gl.
Gland (Conglobate) { Conglobata Glandula
Glands (Conglomerate) } Conglomerata Glandula
Glands Meibomius's Ciliares Glandulæ
Glands (Salivary) Salivales Glandulæ
Glandulæ Suprarenales { Capsulæ Atrabilariæ
Renales Capsulæ Atrabilariæ
Lachrymalis { Caruncula Lachrymales
Glandulæ Vasculosæ { Mucosæ Glandulæ
Glans Unguentaria Ben
Glasswort (Snail-seeded) Kali
Glastum
Indicum Indicum
Glauber's Salt Glauberi Sal.
Glaucosis Glaucoma
Glaucus Glaucos
Glaux Hispanica Glaux Dioscoridis
Gleba Alum Alumen Terra
Glecoma Hederacea. Hedera Terrestris
Gleet Gonorrhœa Mucosa
Globe Amaranthus Amarantoides
Globe Thistle Echinopus
Globularia Fruticosa Alypum
Glossopetræ Canis Carcharias
Glosso Pharyngeus Pharynx
Glove of the Scarf Skin Chirotheca
Glow-worm Cicindela
Gluebone-stone Osteocolla
Glue (Fish) Ichthyocolla
Glutæus Major Glutæi Maximus
Glycimerides Chama
Glycyrrhiza Glaux Vulg. Legum.
Gnaphalium. Alpinum Leontopodium
Gnaphalium Luteum Elichrysum
Gnaphalium Veterum { Pseudodictamnus
Goat Caper
(Rock) Ægagropila
Goat's-beard Tragopogon
Gold Aurum
Golden-rod (common) Virga Aurea
Goldilocks Adianthum
Goldylocks Elichrysum
German ib.
African Shrubby ib.
Goose Anser
Gooseberry Grossularia, & Peresikia.
Gooseberry-bush Grossularia
Goose-foot Chenopodium
Goose-grass Aparine
Goose-share Aparine
Gors Genista Spinosa Major
Gossipium Bombax
Gossipium Arborcum, &c. Moul Elavou
Gourd Cucurbita
Gourd (bitter or wild) Colocynthis
Gourdworm Vermes
Gout Arthritis
Abscessus Abscess of Intestines
Goutier Bronchocele
Goutweed Angelica Sylv. Minor.
Gramen Canarium, &c. { Gramen Dactylon
Crucis Neim. El. Salib.
Dioscoridis Gramen Caninum
Dumetorum Gramen Arund.
Dactyloides Gramen Dactylon
Dactylon Esc. Gramen Manna
Ægypt. Neim-El-Salib.
Aromaticum. Juncus Odoratus
Festuca Ægylops
Loliaceum Lolium
Loliaceum, &c. Gramen Caninum
Legitimum Gramen Dactylon
Parnass. &c. Parnassia
Panic Arund. Gramen Arund.
Repens Gramen Caninum
Spica Candida Gramen Arund.
Spicatum Phalaris
Tomentarium Linagrostis
Tomentosum Arund. { Gramen Arund.
Grain (Scarlet) Chermes
Grana Coccinilla
Grana Infectoria Chermes
Grana Kermes Chermes
Grana Tiglia Cataputia Minor.
Grana Tinctorium Chermes
Granate Granatus
Grandines Chalaza
Grandinosum varium Cuboides
Granum
Moschi. Abelmosch.
Granum Scarlatum Chermes
Grape-flower Bulbus Vomit.
Graphida Morochthus
Graphoides Biventer Musculus
Grass Gramen
Couch Gramen Caninum
Common Knot. Gramen Polygonum
Cock's Foot Gramen Dactylon
Cotton Linagrostis
Cross Neiem-El-Salib.
of the Cross ib.
Canary Phalaris
Dogs Gramen Caninum
Egypt. Cock's Foot. Neiem-El-Salib.
Haver Ægylops
Grass Manna Gramen Manna
Oat (great wild) Ægylops
Quick Gramen Caninum
Sea Alga
Viper (common) Scorzonera
Grashopper Locusta
Gratia Dei { Geranium Robertianum & Gratiola
Germanorum { Geranium Batrachoides
Gratiola Cœrulea Cassida
Gratterona Aparine
Gravel Calculus & Lithiasis
Grayling Aschia
Gray Mill Lithospermum
Great Disease Epilepsia
Greensauce Acetosa
Green-sickness Chlorosis
Green-weed Genista Tinctoria
Grief Tristitia
Grielum Apium
Grinders Molares
Groin Inguen
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Verum Mat. — Sium Ang.
Laxity — Atonia
Lagarole — Meſpilus Aronia
Lead — Plumbum
(Black) — Plumbum Nigrum
(Extract of) — Plumbum
(Red) — ib.
(Sugar of) — ib
(White) — ib.
Leadwort — Plumbago
Leaf — Folium & Petalum
Leanneſs — Extenuatio
Leaven — Fermentum
Ledon Cretenſe — Ladanum
Leech — Hirudo
Leek (Common) — Porrum
Leg — Crus
Bent — Cyllos
Leg, one ſhorter than the other — Cheloſis
Legs (Ulcer in the) — Ulcus
Leguminoſa — Fabago
Lemon (Indian) — Moul Ila Naregam
Lens Aquatica — Lenticula Paluſtris
Paluſtris — ib.
Lenticulares — Petechiæ
Lenticularia Minor — Lenticula Paluſtris
Lentil — Lens
Leontiaſis — Leonina Lepra
Leontice Veterum — Cacalia
Leontideiran — Achates
Leontion Achates, & — Leonina Lepra
Leontoden Taraxacum — Dens Leonis, & Taraxacum
Leonurus Cardiaca — Cardiaca
Leopardsbane (Broadleaved) — Doronicum Rom.
(German) — Doronicum Germanicum
Lepidium — Eraba
Monſpeliacum — Plumbago
Lepiſtrophus — Epiſtrophæus
Leproſy — Lepra
Lethargus — Carus
Lethargy — Lethargus
Lettuce — Lactuca
(Lambs) — Lactuca Agnina
(Strong-ſcented) — Lactuca Sylv.
Leucachates — Achates
Leucas Montana — Lamium Luteum
Leucanthemum Odoratius — Chamæmelum
Leucanthemum Vulg. — Bellis Major
Leucanthe Veterum. — Calcitrapa Offic.
Leuceiper — Alphus
Leucogaea — Morochthus
Leucoium Lunatum — Bulbinach
Luteum — Cheiri
Leucoma — Albugo
Leuconymphæa — Nymphæa
Leucophragis — Morochthus
Leucopiper — Piper Album
Ley — Lixivium
Libanotis — Ferula Glauco, &c. Ferula Minor. Laſerpitium
Libanotis Coronaria — Roſmarinus
Libanotis Nigra — Orcoſelinum Apii fol. &c.
Libby-Tree — Palma Japonica
Lice — Aſelli
Hog — ib.
Wood — ib.
Lichen Carinus — Lichen Cincr.
Coriaceus — Ten.
Marinus — Lactuca Marina
Petræus Latif. — Hepatica Vulg.
Pixidatus — Muſcus Pixidatus
Lichenoides — Lichen Cinor Ter.
Lien Lienarium — Faba Ægyptia
Lichnis Sylveſtris — Ocimaſtrum
Ligament Mucilaginous — Capſulare Ligamentum
Ligaments (Broad) — Lata Ligamenta
Thickening of the — Spina Ventoſa
Ligamentum Colli — Cucullaris
Nuchæ — ib.
Lightning — Aſtrape
Light Carrier — Bononienſis Lapis
Lights (Riſing of the) — Suffocatio Strideula
Lignum Aquilæ — Agallochum
Benedictum — Guaiacum
Cedrinum — Juniperus
Indicum — Ebenus
Juniperinum — Juniperus
Nephriticum — Ben
Poſtratibus — Flavum Lignum
Peregrinum. — Nephriticum Lign.
Vitæ — Guaiacum
Ligufticum — Levifticum
Liguſtricum — Seſeli Vulg.
Ligufirum Germ. — Liguſtrum Vulg.
Italica — Alaternus
Liliaceus — Flos Liliaceus
Lilio Narciſſus, &c. — Narciſſo Colchicum
Lilium Candidum — Lilium Album
Paladinum — ib.
Convalinum Min. — Monophyllon
Pu purocrucum — Lilium Rubrum
Croceum — ib.
Zeylanicum Superb — Methonica
Lily (Great White Water) — Nymphæa
(Superb) — Methonica
of the Valley — Lilium Conval.
(Red or Orange) — Lil. Rubrum
(White) — Lil. Album
Limaturæ Ferri — Ferrum
Martis — ib.
Limax — Cochlea
Limbs — Spina Ventoſa
Palſy of the Lower, or ulcerſs State of the — Spina Ventoſa
Lime Kilns — Aer
(Milk of) — Lac Calcis
Stone — Calcarius Lapis
Tree — Tilia
Limon — Lemonum
Limonum Majus — Behen Rub. Lin.
Limping — Claudicatio
Linaria — Chenopodium. Linaria
Aurea — Elichryſum
Segetum — Elatine
Linden Tree — Tilia
Line — Linum
Tree — Tilia
Ling — Erica
Lingua Avis — Doris
Cervina — Scolopendrium
Major — Doris
Serpent's — Gloſſopetra
Linguales — Hypogloſſi
Linimentum Arcæi — Ricini
Linodyris Nupcorum — Elichryſum
Linum — Amianthus
Aſbeſtinum — Amianthus
Carpaſum — ib.
Caryſtum — ib.
Cyprium — ib.
Creticum — ib.
Foſſile — ib.
Indicum — ib.
Minimum. — Linum Carthuticum
Vivum — Amianthus
Lion (Red) — Antimonium
Lion's Foot — Alchimilla. Cichoreum, & Leontopodium
Tail — Leonurus
Lip — Labia
(Chap or Chop in the) — Labriſalcium
Lipira — Ardens Febris
Lipome — Nævus
Lippitude (Dry) — Xerophthalmia
(Hard) — ib.
Liquid Amber — Styrax Liquida
Liquiritia — Glycyrrhiza
Liquorice — ib.
Liquorice Vetch — Hedyſarum Glycyrrhizatum
Liquor — Æthereus Vitriolicus — Æther
Cyrenaicus — Benzoinum
Cereris — Alla
of Ceres — ib.
Mineral Anod. Hoffm. — Æther & Liquor Min. Anod.
Metallicus — Argentum Vivum
Syrenaicus — Benzoinum
Salis — Circulatum
Lytharge — Lythargicum
Lithiaſis — Calculus
Lithodendron — Corallium
Lithophylos Nigrum. — Corallium Nig.
Lithoſpermum — Lacryma Jobi
Litron — Anatron
Livelong — Craſſula
Liver — Jecur
Inflam. in the — Hepatalgia, Hepatitis
Pain in the — Hepatalgia
Abſce s in the — Abſceſſus
Scirrhus — Scirrhus
(Baſtard or Left) — Splen.
Liverwort — Parnaſſia
White — Hepatica
Liverwort (Aſh coloured Ground) — Lichen Cincr. Ter.
(Noble) — Hepatica Nobilis
(Star) — Hepatica Vulgaris
(Stone) — ib.
(Tree) — Lichen Arbor Pul.
Lividus — Peſtinæus
Lix — Clavellati Cineres
Lixivium Martis — Ferrum
Lizzard's Tail — Saururus
Loadſtone — Magnes
White — Magnes Albus
Lobe — Lobellus
Lobelii — Doria Narbon.
Lobſter. Cancer Fluviatilis & Aſtacus
Lobus — Auricula
Loch — Linctus
Locuſta Herba — Lactuca Agnina
Locuſt Tree — Conrbaril
Logwood — Caruphenſe Lign.
Lohoch — Linctus
Loins — Lumbare
Abſcefs in the — Abſceſſus
Lolium Album — Lolium
Tremulentum — ib.
Lomentum Fabæ — Faba Major
Lonchitis — Polypodium Anguſt.
Longing — Pica
for Home — Noſtalgia
Longiſſimus Pollicis — Flexor Tertii Internodii Pollicis
Longitudinal Proceſs — Dura Mater
Lonicera Peryclymenum. — Caprifolium
Looſeſtripe (Hooded) — Caſſida
Looſeſtrife (Yellow) — Lyſimachia
Lophia — Lophadia
Lopima — Caſtanea
Lords and Ladies — Arum
Lote — Lotus Arbor
Lotus Sylveſtris — Melilotus
Louſe Burr — Bardana Minor
(Wall) — Cimex
Louſewort — Staphis Agria
Louſy — Phthiriaſis
Love — Amor
Lovage (Common) — Levifticum
Lover's Fever — Chlorofis
Lumbago — Pleuritica — Arthropuoſis
Apoſtematoſa — ib.
Ab Arthrocace — ib.
Lumbaris Internus — Pſoas
Lumbricales — Flexor Primi Internodii Digitorum
Lumbrici Lati — Vermes
Lumbricorum (Sem.) — Santonicum
Lumbus Veneris — Malefolium
Lunaria Major — Bulbonach
Lungs — Pulmones
Abſcefs in the — Abſceſſus
Inflammation of the — Pneumonia & Peripneumonia
Lungwort (Cows) — Muſcus Pulmonarius Verbaſcum
(French or Golden) — Pulmonaria Aurea

Lungwort (Golden) Hieracæum
Lupine Lupinus
Lupus Philosophorum Antimonium
Lufcitiofus Nyctalopia
Luteola Lutea
Lute Lutum
Luteum Minus Rhodia
Luxation Luxatio
Lychnis Segetum Major Nig.
Sylv. { Antirrhinum. Behen Alb. Vulg. & Saponaria
Sylv. &c. Ocymoides
Viſcoſa Rub. Muſcipula
Lycnoides Segetum Nigellaſtrum
Lycia Cedrus
Lycoctonum Monitum
Lycoperdon Boviſta. Lycop. Vulgare
Lycopersicon Amoris Poma
Lycopſis Angli- ca { Buglofſum Syiveſtre
Lycopus Marrubium Aquaticum
Lygus Agnus Caſtus
Lying-in-Women Puerpera
Lymphatica Vaſa Lymphæductus
Lymphatics { Abſorbentia & Lymphæductus
Lyncurium Lyncurion
Lyrus Doronicum Germanicum
Lyſimachia Nummularia Rubra
Glelericula Caſſida

M

Mace Macis
Macerone Hippoſelinum
Mace-Tree Nucis Moſchata
Macia Anagallis
Macow Ebenus Æthiopica
Macre Macer
Macropiper Piper Longum
Madder Rubia
(Mountain Wild) Rubia Sylv. Lacr.
Mad Dog (Bite of a) Hydrophobia
(Powder againſt the Bite of) Antilyſſus
Madneſs Mania
Madnips Chærophyllum Sylveſtre
Mador Ephidroſis
Madwort Alyſſum
Madrepora Corallium Alb. Ramoſ.
Madwort (Galen's) { Marrubium Verticillatum
Magiſterium Benzoini Benzoinum
Biſm. Biſmuthium
Calaminaris Calaminaris
Magellanica Aromatica } Winteranus Cortex
Magiſtrantia Imperatoria
Magnates Magnes
Magnes Candidus Magnes Alba
Carneus ib.
Magneſia, Magneſe, Magalaiſe, Maganaize } Maganeſe
Magneſia (Ruby-coloured of Antimony) } Magneſia Opalina
Mahaleb Cerafus
Mahmoody Scammoniam
Maianthemum Lilium Convallium
Maiden Hair Adianthum
(Golden) Elychryſum
Maiths Chamæmelum Fœtidum
Red Adonis Flos
Mala Aurea Aurantia Hiſp.
Afyria Citreum
Aurea Amoris Poma
Cotonea Cydonia
Luſiana Melongena
Punica Granata Mala
Malabarica Pila Jaca Indica
Malabathrum Folium
Malachites Jaſpis
Malacia Boulimus & Pica
Malagueta Paradiſi Grana
Malaria Offa Malarum Os
Mallet Malleolus, Malleus
Malleus Auris
Mallow Malva
Tree Malva Arborea, &c.
Garden Malva Roſea
Vervain Malva Verbenacea
Malſey Malvaſia & Vinum
Malta (Earth of) Melitæa
Malum Granatum Granata Mala
Citreum Citreum
Terræ Ariſtolochia Rotunda
Malus Aurantia Aurantia Hiſp.
Citria Citreum
Cydonia Cydonia
Malabarica Caniram
Indica Bilimbi
Medica Citreum
Punica Granata Mala
Punica Syl. Balauſtium
Sativus Malus Hortenſis
Malva Sylveſtris Malva
Arborea Malva Roſea, &c.
Hortenſis ib.
Viſcus Althæa
Malviſium Malvaſia
Mamithſa Mamicha
Mamma, Mamilla } Papilla
Mammee Mamei
Mammillares Proceſſus { Olfactorii Nervi
Mammillares Proceſſus { Mammiformes
Manchineal Manzanilla
Mandiiba, Mandiopiba } Caſſida & Mandihoca
Mandihabura, Mandihparata, Mandiibumana, Mandiipeba, Mandiipuca, Mandioca } Mandihoca
Mandrake Mandragora
Manga Ambalam
Mangle-Tree Guaparaiba
Mangrove Tree ib.
Manihot Caſſada
Manliba ib.
Manipey Jaca Indica
Manipuera Caſſada
Mangelia Kua Curcuma
Manus Dei i. e. Opium
Maple Tree Acer
Sugar ib.
Maranta Galanga Galanga
Maranthæ Dioſc. Chamæleon Nigr.
Marathrum Fœniculum
Marble Marmor
Red Porphyrites
Marcaſita Biſmuthum
Pyrites
Marga Candida Lac Lunæ
Margarita Staphyloma
Marigold African Africanus Flos
Garden Calendula
Marſh Populago
Single Calendula
Corn Jacobæa Alpina
Common Single March { Calendula Arvenſis
Mariſca Condyloma
Mariſcum Mercurialis Fruticoſa
Marjoram Majorana
Sweet Majorana Majori Fol.
Leſſer ib.
Gentle Majorana Tenui Fol.
Perennial ib.
Pot Oleracea
(Wild) { Origanum & Origan. Anglican
Candy (Wild) Origan. Creticum
Marking Stone Ochra
(White) Morochthus
Marks (Mothers) Metrocelides
Marmelade Miva
Marle Marga
Marmorata Aurium. Cerumen Auris
Marrow Medulla
Marrubiaſtrum Ballote
Marrubium Hiſpanicum { Marrubium Verticillatum
Nigrum Fœtidum Ballote
Vulg. Marrubium Album
Mars Ferrum
Marſhmallows Althæa
Mars Saccharatus Ferrum
Solubilis ib.
Marſupialis { Obturator Externus & Internus
Marum Jaca Indica
(Common) Marum
Creticum Marum Syriacum
Cortuſi ib.
Marviſium Malvaſia
Maſk (a) Larva
Maſt Fagus
Maſterwort Imperatoria
Maſtich (Indian) Calaba
of Ligon Nux Virginiana
Syrian Herb Marum Syriacum
Thyme Marum
Tree Lentiſcus
Maſtichen Nux Virginiana
Maſtichina Gallic. Marum
Maſtoidæus Anterior. Maſtoid. Muſc.
Lateralis Complexus Minor
Superior { Maſtoideus Muſculus & Splenius
Maſtoid Proceſſus Mammiformes
Mater Herbarum Artemiſia Mater
Perlarum. Concha Margaritifera
Materia Mercurii Circulatum
Matfellon Jacea
Matraſs Matracium
Matres Dura Mater & Pia Mater
Matricaria Parthenium Matricaria
Tanaceti Fol. { Leucanthemum Tan. Fol.
Matriſylva Caprifolium
Matriſylva Germ. Aſperula
Matrix Root Ariſtolochia Rotunda
Matter Pus
to diſtinguiſh from Mucus ib.
Maudlin Agerratum
Sweet ib.
Tanſey ib.
Wort Bellis Major
Maur Muſa
May Apple Anapodophyllon
Lilly Lilium Convallium
Weed { Chamæmelum Fœtidum. Cotula Fœtida.
Worms Cantarelli
Mead Hydromel
Meadow Creſſes Cardamine
Sweet Ulmaria
Meal Farina
Mealy Tree (Pliant) Viburnum
Meaſles Morbilli
Meatus Auditorius Externus. Auricula
Mecoachana Nigra Jalapa
Mecon, Meconis, Meconium } Peplion
Meconites Ammites
Mediaſtinum Inflamed. Inflammatio
Abſcefs of Abſceſſus
Media Subſtantia Vini Vinum
Medica Major Medica
Medicinal Stone. Lapis Medicament.
Medicina Triſtitiæ Crocus
Medium Cervicaria
Medlar Meſpilus
Neapolitan (Baſtard) Meſpilus Aronia
Medula Saxi Mollugo
Megrim Lac Lunæ
Meibomius's Glands. Hemicrania
Mel Ciliares Gland.
Ægyptiacum Ægyptiac. Unguentum
Melampodium Helleborus Niger
Melampyro, &c. Eryngium Zeylanic.
Melancholy Vefania
Erratic Lycanthropia
Melancholy Atrabilis
Melanthium { Nigella Arvenſis & Romana
Melas Alphus
Melaſma Sugillatio
Melaſpermum Melanthium
Melazzo Saccharum
Melica Melium Indicum
Melicratum Hydromel
Melilot Melilotus
Egyptian Alchimelech
Melilotus Major Lotus Urbana
Meliſſa Calamintha Calamintha Mont.
Nepeta Calamintha Anglica
Officinalis Meliſſa Turcica
Americana Ballota, Meliſſa
Meliſſophillum Melitæa
Melitea Terra Jace Braſilienſibus
Melo Indicus Corchorus
Melochia ib.
Melocis Cantharides
Melæ Veſſicatorius Melo
Melon (Water) { Citrullus. Jace Braſilienſibus
Membrane Membrana
Cellular Cellulosa Membrana
Mucous Membrana
Mendoni Methonica
Meninges Dura & Pia Mater
Meninx Tenuis Pia Mater
Menſes, which ſee
Suppreſſed Amenorrhæa
Exceſſive Menorrhagia
Difficult Menorrh. Difficilis
Departing Menſes
Delective ib.
Mentaſtrum Hirſutum. Mentha Paluſt.
Mentha Arvenſis Calam. Paluſtris
Corymboſa Ageratum
Saracenica Balſamita
Sativa, Vulgaris, Viridis } Mentha Spicata
Hortenſ. Corymb. Balſamita
Piperita Mentha Piperitis
Pulegium Pulegium
Rotund. fol. Paluſtris Mentha Aquat.
Felina Mentha Cataria
Mentula Alata Penna
Menyanthes Trifolium Paludoſ.
Mephiticus Mephitis
Mercurial Girdle Cingulum Merc.
Mercurialis Teſticulata { Mercurialis Maſ.
Spicata ib.
Fœmina ib.
Annua ib.
Sylveſtris Perſicaria
Montana. Mercurialis Sylveſtris
Perennis ib.
Mercuries Argentum Vivum
Mercury. Argentum Vivum & Hermes
Engliſh Mercurialis
Dogs ib.
Children's of Life Mercurialis Fruticoſa
Mercurius Vitæ
Meriophyllon Milleſolium
Meriuccus Aſellus Major
Meſang de Vacca Bezoar Bovinum
Meſaraic Arteries. Meſenterica Arteria
Vein (the Leſſer) { Hæmorrhoidalis Int. Vena
Meſenteric Vein Meſaraica
Meſentery, Abſcefs of (Inflamed) } Abſceſſus
Inflammatio, & Meſent.
Meſerion Laureola Mas
Meſpilus Apii Folio, &c. Spina Alba
Metallum Fluidum. Argentum Vivum
Meta's Metallorum
Metaſyncrineſthai Metaſincriſis
Metopium Metopion
Mexicanave Botrys Mexicana
Mexico Seed Cataputia
Mezerion Laureola Mas
Miaſmata Miaſma
Mica Talcum
Midwife Aceltoris
Midwifery Obſtetricatio
Miliarium Alembicus
Miliary Glands Sebaceæ Glandulæ
Militaris Aizoides Aloides
Militaris Herba Milleſolium
Milium Arundinaceum. Lachryma Jobi
Solis Lithoſpermum
Milk Lac
Sear Achor
Defect of Agalactia
Sugar of Lac
Whey of ib.
of Lime Lac Calcis
Fever Lactea
Milk-ſtone Galactites
Milkwort (American) Seneka
(Common blue) Polygala
of Dioſcorides Glaux Dioſcoridis
Milleſolium Aquat. Myrophyllon
Millegrana Major Herniaria
Millemorbia Scrofularia Major
Millepedes Aſelli
Millet Milium
(Indian) Milium Indicum
(Reed) Lachryma Jobi
Millfoil Milleſolium
Milleſolium Potamogeiton
Mill Mountain Linum Catharticum
Milt Splen
Milt Waſte Aſplenium
Milzadella Lamium Maculatum
Mimoſa
Nilotica Acacia
Japonica, Catechu. } Terra Japonica
Mineral Bezoar Ammites
Minerals Mineralia
Mint Mentha
Field Calamintha Paluſtris
Hart, Common Spear } Mentha Spica
Mountain. Calamintha Magn. Fœ.
Piper Mentha Piperitis
Red Water Mentha Aquatica
Hairy Water. Mentha Paluſtris, &c.
Cat Mentha Cataria
Mind Animus
Minium Græcorum Cinnabaris
Purum ib.
Miraculum Chemicum. Magneſia Alba
Miſcarriage Abortio
Miſerere Mei Iliaco Paſſio
Miſſeltoe Viſcus
Mithridate Muſtard Thlaſpi Vulg.
Mixture Miſtura
Mocoa Stone Achatis
Modira Caniram Colubrinum
Mokel Bdellium
Mola Patella Patella
Molago Codi Piper Nigrum
Molaſſes Saccharum
Moldavica Meliſſa Turcica
Mole Mola. Nævus
Mole (Falſe) Pſeudo Mola
Molochites Malachites
Moluca Grains Cataputia Minor
Molva Aſellus Major
Molybdæna Plumbago
Momin Mamei
Momium ib.
Momordica Elaterium { Cucumis Agreſtis
Money-wort Nummularia
Monk's Hood
Blue Aconitum
(Counterpoiſon) Anthora
Monoculi Monopia
Monopetalous Petala
Monophthalmus Monoculus
Monſters.

Monsters. Monstrositas & Præternatio
Those without Heads Acephalæ
Monta-punna Palma Japonica
Month (Philosophical) Mensis Philos.
Moonwort Lunaria
Moor's Head Alembicus
Morbus Caducus Epilepsia
Sacer ib.
Infantilis ib.
Pecuilis ib.
Diaboli Succisa
Coxarius Arthropuosis
Arquatus Ictericus
Regius Ictericia ib.
Pulicaris Petechia
Morhua Asellus Major
Morille Amanita
Morphew Morphæa
Mors Hippopotamus
Morx ib.
Morsus Ranæ Microleuconymphæa
Morus Nigra Morus
Mofs Muscus
Hairy Tree Muscus Arboreus
Sea Alga
Mofe Hazuania Endica
Morfus Gallinæ Alfine
Mofquera Mofquitæ
Mofs of Skulls Ufnea Cran. Hum.
Mots Caftanea
Mother Mater
Mother of pearl Mater Perlarum
Mother's Marks. Metrocelides & Nævus
Motherwort Cardiaca
Motion
Animal Animalis Motus
Mouse Ear. Alfine & Auricula Muris.
Mouse Tail Myofuros
Mouth Os
Mucal Web Cellu'ofa Membrana
Mucus
to diftinguifh it from Pus Pus
Mugweed Cruciata Vulg.
Mugwort of China Moxa
Mugwort (common) Artemifia
Mulberry Morus
Mulberry blight (great) { Chenopodio Morus Major
Mullein Verbafcum
Mullein (yellow moth) Battaria
Mulfum Hydronel
Mulitformæ Cuboides
Mumia Bitumen
Mummy Mumia
Mundic Marcafita
Mundui guacu Cataputia Minor
Mungas Munga
Mungo-tree Mungo
Muralis Parietaria
Muraria
semper-vivens, &c. Adianthum
Mufa
Fruct. Cucum. brev. Banana
Mufam Caffada
Mufcari. Bulbus Vomitorius
Mufcipula Prat. Vaf. { Behen Alb. Vulg.
Mufcle Mufculus
Mufcles of the Belly Inft. Inflammatio
Mufcovy Glafs Specularis Lapis
Mufculofa Mufculorum. Com. Membr.
Mufculus Cetus
Mufculus Anterior Mallei { Mufc. Ext. Aur. Duvernii
Exterior Abductor Oculi
Inferior Depreffor Oculi
Tubæ Novus { Volfalvæ Palato-falpingæus.
Mufcus
Capill. Major. Adianthum
Pyxoides ter. Mufcus Pixidatus
Mufcus Clavatus Lycopodium
Mufcus Cruftæ Lichen Arbor. Pul.
Mufcus Fugax, &c. Cœlifolium
Mufcus Marinus Corallina
Mufcus Marinus Lactuca Marina
Mufcus Maritimus Corallina
Mufcus Quercus-Squamofus Mufcus Arborcus
Mufcus Terreftris Lycopodium
Squamofus ib.
Muftrooms Amanita
dufty Lycoperdon Vulg.
reddifh Agaricus Mufcarius
pepper Agaricus Piperatus
Musk Moschus
Musk-mallow Abelmofch.
Musk-wood Thuris Cortex
Mufpetum Mofpeta
Muffel Mytilus
Muft Muftum & Vinum
Muftard Sinapi
Arabian Draba
Broad-leaved hedge Eryfimum
Hedge Eryfimum
Tower Turritis
Wild Rapiftrum
Muftelana Anci
Mutellina Meum. Alp. Germ.
Muza Mufa
Myacephalon Staphyloma
Mylon Staphyloma
Mylopharyngæus Pharynx
Myopea Ambliopia
Myopiafis Myopia
Myolotis Auricula Muris
Myoxolithus Bufonitis
Myrica Tamarifcus
Myrinx Myringa
Myriftica Nucis Mofchata
Myrobalans Adipfos
Myroxylon Peruvianum Balf.
Myrrh Myrrha
Myrrhis Annua Daucus Creticus
Myrrhis Sylveftris { Chærophyllum Sylveftre
Myrtacantha Ruscus
Myrtifolia Belgica Elæagnus
Myrtle Myrtus
Myrtle (Dutch) { Myrtus Brab. & Elæagnus
Myrtle (wild) Ruscus
Myrtus Anglica Elæagnus
Myrtus Brabantica Elæagnus
Myrtus Pimenta Jamaicenfis { Piper Jamaicenfis
Myfticetus Cetus
Myftus Fluviatilis Barbus
Myxa Jujuba & Sebeften
Myxara Myxa. & Sebeften

N

Nabea Oenophia
Nails Ungues
Nap Oenophia
Napellus Aconitum
Naphtha Italica Petroleum Flavum
Napium Lampfana
Napkin Fafcia
Napus Bunias
Narcotics Anodyna
Nard
wild Afarum
Nardus Italica Lavend. Latif.
Nardus Ruftica Afarum
Montana Afarum
Nardus Syriaca Nardus Indica
Nard ib.
Nard (Syrian) ib.
Narueth Auripigmentum
Nafeberry-tree Anona
Naftos Arundo Fazeta
Naftartium Hybernum Barbarea
Naftartium Peruv. Naftartium Ind.
Naftartium Pratenfe Cardamine
Naftartium Sylveftre Saphia
National Infanity Noftalgia
Natron Anatron
Natta Nata
Naturals Res Naturales
Navel Umbilicus
Navel-ftring Funis Umbilicalis
Navel-wort Cotyledon
Navel-wort (fea) Androface
Navel-wort (fummer) Androfaces
Navew Bunias
Navicular Scaphoides
Naviformi Naviculare os
Neat's-foot Oil Pedibus Bovinum (ol.)
Nebi-pouli Bilimbi
Nebula Albugo
Neck Cervix
Abfcefs in the Abfceffus
Neck (back of the) Nucha
Neck (wry) Cervix
Needle Acus
Nelumbo Faba Ægyptia
Nemorofa Anemonoides
Nenuphar Nymphæa
Nep Mentha Cataria
Nepa Theophrafti Genifta Spartium
Nepeta Mentha Cataria
Nepeta Cataria Mentha Cataria
Nephritic-wood. Nephriticum Lignum
Stone Nephriticus Lapis
Nepones Barones
Nerantia Aurantia Hifpalenfis
Nerium Nerion
Nerves Nervi
eighth pair Accefforius.
Lumbal Lumbares
Nervi Vagi fympathetici medii { Par Vagum
Nervous Fever. Nervofus Febris
diseases Neurofes.
Nettle Urtica
Dead Lamium, & Lamia
Nettle (hedge) Galeopfis
Nettle rash (acute) Urticar
Nettle rash (chronical) Effera
Nettle-tree Lotus
Neutral Neuter
Nhambuguacu Cataputia
Nienghala Methonica
Nigella Melanthium
Nigella (Roman) Melanthium
Offic. Nigellaftrum
Night-blindnefs Nyctalopes
Night-mare Incubus
Night-fhade Solanum
(Baftard) Solanoides
(Climbing) Bafella
(Deadly) { Belladonna, & Solanum Lethale
(Garden) Solanum Hortenfe
(Woody) { Solanum Lign. & Amara Dulcis
Nigrica Febrilis Plumbum Nigrum
Nihil
Album Album Græcum
Nil Indicum
Nindfin Genfing
Ninzen Nindfin
Ninzin Genfing, & Nindfin
Nipple Papilla
Nipple-wort Lampfana
Nifi Genfing
Nit Cornus
Nitre Nitrum
Nitrum Fixum Nitrum
Purificatum Nitrum
Vitriolatum Nitrum
Flammans Nitrum
Cubicum Nitrum
Antiquorum Anatron
Factitium Borax
Nativum Borax
Noctiluca Cicindela
Nocturnal Pollution Exoneirofis
Node Nodus
Nodes Gumma
Noli me tangere { Herpes, Perficaria, & Scirrhus
Nome Herpes
Nopal Coccinella
Northwind Boreas
Nofe Nafus
Noftoch Cœlifolium
Noftril Nares
Abfcefs in the Abfcefs
Novaculæ Cos
Nubecula Albugo, & Encauma
Nueces Pargantes Cataputia Minor
Nucifera Nux Virginiana
Nuciprunifera ib.
Nucifta Nux Mofchata
Nucula terreftris Bulbocaftanum
Nufciliafus Nyctalops
Nut Caryon
Aleppo Gallæ
Ben Ben
Bezoar Bonduch Ind.
Earth Bulbocaftanum
Hawk ib.
Indian Areca
Kipper Bulbocaftanum
Malabar Adiatoda
Molucca Bonduch Indorum
Maldivia Coccus Maldivia
Meg { Nux Mofchata, & Myriftica Nux
Oily Ben
Oriental Gallæ
Pig Bulbocaftanum
Virginian Nux Virginiana
Vomic ib. & Colubrinum
Nutrition Nutricatio
Nux Aromatica Nux Mofchata
Baftlica Juglans
Ben Ben
Barbadenfis Cataputia Minor
Cathartica ib.
Eubœica Juglans
Indica { Palma Coccifera, & Coccus de Maldivia
Medica Coccus de Maldivia
Metella Nux Virginiana
Malabarica Combulu
Myriftica Nux Mofchata
Pepita-igafur Nux Vomica Scrap.
Perfica Juglans
Regia ib.
Unguentaria Ben
Vomica Colubrinum
Nyctalopia Amblyopia
Nympha Chrysalis
Nymphæ
Abfcefs in the Alæ
Nymphæa Indica Faba Ægyptia
Glandifera ib.
Madarafpatana ib.

O

Oak Quercus
of Cappadocia Betrys
Holme Ægylops
of Jerufalem Botrys
Laurel Phelodrys
Lungs Mufcus Pulm.
Scarlet Ilex Aculeata, &c.
(Fruit of the) Aculon
Oat Avena
Oat (Bearded wild) Ægylops
(Great wild) ib.
Obliqui Superiores Pathetici
Obliquus Pronator Teres
internus Obliquus Afcendens
externus Defcendens
Major { Inferior; Obliquus Major Oculi.
Obftipatio Conftipatio
Occa Cete Admirabile
Ochlagogi Agyrtæ
Ochra Nigra Plumbum Nigrum
Vulg. Baftlicum
Medium Citratum Baftlicum
Caryoph. Baftlicum
Minimum Baftlicum
Octavus Humeri Piscentini { Teres Minor
Oculares Communes Oculo Mufculares { Motores Oculorum
Oculares Externi. Motores Oculi. Ext.
Oculo Mufculares Externi { Motores Oculi Exter.
Oculus, which fee, & Colliquamentum
Oculus Bovis Bellis Major
Oculus Chriſti Hormenum Sylveftre
Oculus Genu Patella
Oeynoides Oeimaftrum
Oeymum Aquaticum Echinos
Odaxifmus Dentitio
Odorata Violacea Lotus Urbana
Œdema Lacteum Lymphæ Ductus
Œlinizium { Oeſinitium
Œſtrichium
Œnanthe Filipendula
Œſophagus Inft. Inflammatio
Œſtrum Veneris Clitoris
Oil Oleum
of Turpentine Abies
Grofs Oleum
of Hartfhorn Alcali
of Almonds diftilled. Amygdalus
expreſſed Amygdalus
Dippel's Animal. Animale Dippel.
Neroli Aurantia Hifpalenfis
Benzoinum Benzoinum
of Chocolate Cacao
Copaiva Capivi Balf.
Expreſſed Oleum
Germanis Carpathicum
Sebaceous Oleum
of whelps Catellorum Oleum
Eſſential Oleum
Ceræ Cera
Train Cetus
Concrete Eſſential Oleum
of Saffron Crocenum
of Bayberries Daphnelæon
of Exeter Exceſtrenſe (ol.)
Parthenicum Matricaria
of Mucilages. Mucilaginib. Oleum
N. M. Nucis Mofchata
Macis ib.
of Petre Petroleum Flavum
Rock ib. & Petroleum Vulgare
Gabianum Petroleum Vulgare
of Pitch Piſſeleum
Oily purging grain. Seſamum Verum
Ointment Unguentum
Soldiers Martiatum Ungt.
Oker
Engliſh Alana Terra
Olacatzan China Occidentalis
Oleander Nerion
Oleum Balſami Balſamum
Salis Cricolatum
Myrrhæ per Del Myrrha
Olive Olea
Olive (ſpurge) Laureola Fœm.
Olus Aureum Atriplex
Olus Hiſpanicum Spinachia
Olufatrum Hippoſelinum, & Apium
Omentum
Rupture of the Epiplocele
Omo-hyoidæus Coraco-hyoidæus
Omoplato-hyoidæus. Coraco-hyoidæus
Omphalocerpus Aparine
Omphax Agreſtis
One-berry Herba Paris
One-blade Monophyllon
Onion Cepa
Onions (barren) Aſcalonitides
Onion (ſea) Scilla
Oniſcus Aſelli
Onitis Origanum Anglicum
Onochilis Anchuſa
Onocheles Anchuſa
Onoclea Anchuſa
Onomidis Anonis
Ononis Bugloſſum Sylveſtre
Onopteris
Maſ. Adianthum
Onoſma Bugloſſum Sylveſtre
Onyx Abſcefs in the Eye
Onyx Albugo
Opal Achates
Opal (Baſtard) Aſteria
Opalin

Opalin — Magnesia Opalina
Operculares — Cochlææ
Ophiasis — Alopecia
Ophris — Bifolium
Ophrys Unifolia — Monophyllon
Ophthalmia ficca — Xerophthalmia
Tragi — ib.
Ophthalmici Extern. — Motores Oculi Exter.
Opisthotonos — Tetanus
Opobalsamum — Balsamum
Opocarpason — Carpasus
Opocarpathon — Carpasus
Opodeldoc — Linimentum Saponaceum
Oppressio — Catalepsis
Opuntia — Coccinilla
Orach (berrybearing) — Chenopodio; Morus Minor
(Flasheaved) — Chenopodium Linifolio
(white, red, or garden,) — Atriplex
(Stinking) — Atriplex Fœtida
Orange — Aurantium
Orangia — Aurantia Hispalensis
Orange (Indian yellow) of Malabar Carcapuli, &c.
Orata — Aurata
Orbiculare — Lenticulare os
Orbitarii — Motores Oculi Exter.
Orchis — Bifolia
Orellana — Orleana
Oreoselinum — Apium
l'Organ Cellulaire. — Cellulosa Membr.
Oricola — Auricula Ursi
Origano — Majorana Rotundifolia
Origanum Creticum — Dictamnus Creticus
Dictamnus — Dictamnus Creticus
Majorana — Majorana
Majori Folio — ib.
Onites — Majorana Oleracea
Smyrnium — Majorana Cretica
Orleana, which see, & Achiotl
Orleane — Achiotl
Orobanche — Hypocistis
Orobos — Ervum
Orobrychis — Ervum
Orpine — Crassula
Orris (common) — Iris Vulgaris
Orris (florent) — Iris Florentina
Orthocolon — Anchylosis
Orvala — Horminum
Os Leonis — Antirrhinum
Osmunda Vulgaris — Filix Florida
Palustris — Filix Florida
Osmund Royal — Filix Florida
Ossa Batus — Borozail
Ossifraga — Osteocolla
Osteitis — Osteocolla
Osteolithos — Osteocolla
Ostrealabris — Ostracites
Ostruthium — Imperatoria
Osyris — Chenopodium, & Linaria
Othonna — Africana Flos
Owl — Bubo
Ox — Bos
Oxalis — Acetosella
Acetosella — Acetosa
Ox Eye. — Bellis Major. & Buphthalmum
Oxya — Fagus
Oxyas — Fagus
Oxyacantha — Spina Alba
Oxyacantha Galeni — Berberis
Oxyacanthus — Mespilus Apii Folio
Oxycedrus — Cedrus
Oxyglici — Apomeli
Oxyglices — Apomeli
Oxylapathum — Lepathum Acutum
Oxymel
of Garlick — Allium
Colchicum — Colchicum
Simplex — Mel
Oxymyrsine — Ruscus
Oxyphœnicon — Tamarindus
Oyster — Ostrea
Oyster green — Lactuca Marina & Bryon Marinum Theoph.
Ozæna — Abscessus.

P

Pacœira — Banana
Paddock — Rana
Pædarthrocace — Spina Ventosa
Pahazar — Bezoar
Pahnotlanica — China Occidentalis
Paigles — Paralysis
Pain — Dolor
Pain de Madagascar — Cassada
Pala — Nux Moschata
Palatopharyngæi — Peristaphilo Pharyngæi
Palatopharyngæus — Constrictor Isthmi Faucium
Palatopharyngæus — Pharynx
Palea de Mecha — Juncus Odoratus
Palimpista — Pix Nigra
Paliurus — Œnoplia
Palma Americana Spumosa — Ebenus Ethiop
Brasiliensis — ib.
Coccifera — Coccus de Maldivi
Christi — Catapucia
Coccipera — Palma Coccifera
Dactylifera — Dactylus Palmula
Humili — Musa
Indica Cocc. — Palma Japonica
Nucifera — Palma Coccifera
Major — Dactylus Palmula
Maldivica — Coccus Maldivica
Naldivensis — Coccus Maldivica
Nucifera. — Arbor Palma Coccifera
Sancta — Guaiacum
Palmeto Royal — Palma Nobilis
Palmiste — Palma Nobilis
Palmos — Palpitatio
Palsy — Paralysis
Palsy Drop — Lavandula Angustifol.
Palsy of the lower limbs. — Spina Ventosa
Paludapium — Apium
Palus Sanctus — Guaiacum
Panacea Vegetabilis — Crocus
Panacea Moschatum — Herbatum Caradensium
Panava — Catapucia Minor
Panax, &c. — Pastinaca Olusatra
Asclepium — Ferula Glauca, &c. Ferula Minor.
Chironium — Chamæcissus
Hercul. — ib.
Quinquefolium — Genfing
Pancreas
Abscess in the — Abscessus
Panis — Coliphium
Panis Porcinus — Arthanita
Pannonium — Arthoicum Hieracium Alpinum
Pannus — Unguis
Pannus — Albugo
Panting — Anhelatio
Panus — Phygethlon
Papas — Battatas
Papaver Corniculatum — Chelidonium Major.
Papaver Spumæum — Peplion
Papaver Spum. Vulg. — Behen Alb. Vulg.
Paper-tree — Papyrus
Papilionaceus — Flos Papilionaceus
Papillaris Herba — Lampsana
Pappous — Lanugo
Pappus — Battatas
Paracmastici — Acmasticas
Paracusis Imaginaria. — Tinnitus Aurium
Paragua — Cassine
Paraphonia Palatina — Asaphia
Pararythmus — Arythmus
Par Cuculare. — Crico-Arytænoid. Postic.
Pardialanches — Apocynon
Paregorics — Anodyna
Paretuvier — Guaparaiba
Pareyra — Pareira brava
Pardalion — Achates
Parin Chakka — China Suppositio.
Paris Quadrifolia — Herba Paris
Park Leaves — Androsæmum
Parmy Citty — Sperma Ceti
Parnassus (Grass of) — Parnassia
Paronychia, which see, and Abscess in the Fingers and Toes
Alsines fol. &c. — Herniaria Alsines fol.
Parotid Gland
Abscess in the — Abscessus
Parotid Gland — Parotis
Inflamed — ib.
Parotis, which see, and Abscess of the Parotid Gland
Parsley (Bastard) — Caucalis
(Bastard Stone) — Amomum
Breakstone — Perecepier
(Fools) — Cicuta Minor
(Garden) — Apium
(Hedge) — Caucalis
(Macedonian) — Apium
(Mountain) — Apium, & Oreoselinum
(Milk) — Oelsnitium
Piert — Perecepier
Stone — Apium, & Amomum
Wild — Apium
Parsnep — Pastinaca
Wild — Pastinaca Sylvestris
Garden — Pastinaca Sativa
(Cow) — Pastinaca
Parsnip (Water) — Ib. & Sium Anglican.
Parthenium — Artemisia
Parthenium — Matricaria
Parthenium Mas — Tanacetum
Parulis, which see, and Abscess in the Gums
Pasper — Crithmum
Pastio Bovina — Bovina Affectio
Passion Flower — Granadilla
Pastinaca Aquatica — Sium Latifolium
Patella — Cupella
Patheca — Jace Brasilien sibus
Patientia — Lapathum Hortense
Patrapium — Apium
Pau de Sangue — Gum. Rub. Afr.
Pavana — Catapucia Minor
Pavate — Malleamoche
Pavette — ib.
Pea — Pilum
(Cich) — Cicer
Peach Tree — Persica
(Wolf's) — Lycopersicon
Pearls — Margaritæ
Pearl Ash — Clavellatæ Cineres
(Mother of) — Mater Perlarum
Oyster — Concha Margaritifera
Pear Tree — Pyrus
(American Prickly) — Coccinilla
Peasecod Tree — Laburnum
Pease (Heath) (Wood) — Orobus
Pectos — Metacarpus
Pectuscul um — Metacarpus
Pectinalis — Pectinæus
Pedecelli — Phthiriasis
Pederos — Opalus
Pedicularis — Staphis Agria
Pediculi — Phthiriasis
Pedicus — Extensor digitorum brevis
Pedro del Cobra — Cobra de Capello
Porco — Bezoar Hystricis
Peleoma — Sugillat.
Pellitory (Bastard) — Ptarmica
of Spain — Pyrethrum
of the Wall — Parietaria
Pelecinum — Ervum
Pemphingodes — Pemphygodes
Penguin — Karatas
Pennatum — Fol. Pennatum
Pennycross — Thlaspi Verum
Pennyroyal — Pulegium
Pentapetalous — Petala
Pentaphyllon — Quinquefolium
Peplios Lutetianorum — Fabago
Peplos — [Peplion
Pepper — Piper
(Black) — Piper Nigrum
(Bird) — Piper Indicum
(Cayan) — ib.
(Guinea) — ib.
(Jamaica) — Piper Jamaicense
(Long) — Piper Long.
(Poor Man's) — Lepidium
(Sweet scented Jamaica) Tree — Cassia Caryophyllata
(Water) — Persicaria
(Wort) — Lepidium
(White) — Piper Album
Perdicium — Parietaria
Perexyl Lusitanis — Caapponga
Perforans Manus — Flexor tertii internodii, &c.
Pedis — Flexor Longus
Perforata — Hypericum
Perforatus — Flexor Internodii, &c.
Casserii — Coraco Brachiæus
Pedis — Flexor Sublimis
Periammata — Amuleta
Periapta — Amuleta
Periapton — Driff
Pericardium inflamed — Inflammatio
Abscess in the — Pericardium
Periclymenum — Caprifolium
Perigord Stone — Manganese, & Petracorius Lapis
Perigua — Cassine
Perineneucos — Epineneucos
Perinæum
Abscess in the — Abscessus
Laceration — Perinæum
Inflammation — Perinæum
Puncture of — Perinæum
Periosteum
Abscess in the — Abscessus
Inflamed — Inflammatio
Peritoneum
Inflamed — Peritonitis
Peritonæis Omentalis — Epiploitis
Periu Toddali — Jujuba Indica
Periwinkle — Vinca Pervinca
Periwinkle — Cochlæa Aquatica
Persea — Armeniaca Mala
Precox — Armeniaca Mala
Peroneus brevis — Extensor digitorum longus
Perfonata Arcium Dioic. — Bardana Maj.
Altera — Bardana Areticum
Montana — ib.
Perfonatus — Flos Perfonatus
Perfpiration
Defective — Adiapneustia
Suppressed — Adiapneustia
Peruifera — Peruvianum Balf.
Perverfio Uteri — Procidentia Uteri
Pervinca — Vinca Pervinca
Pervinkle — ib
Pes Anferinus — Chenopodium
Capræ Lusitan. — Bistamburu Zeylan.
Cati — Gnaphalium Montanum
Pes Columbinus — Geranium Columbin.
Leonis — Alchimella
Affininus — Alliaria
Leporinus — Lagopus
Vituli — Arum
Peffolatæ — Morpiones
Peftilent-wort — Petasites
Petalodes — Flos Petalodes
Peterwort (St.) — Androsæmum
Petigo — Lichen
Petolæ — Morpiones
Petrofelinum, — Oreoselinum
Macedon. — Amomum
Mont. — Oreoselinum
Petty whin — Anonis
Petum — Nicotiana
Peucedanum Silaus. — Saxifraga Anglica
Peyer's Glands — Brunneri Glandulæ
Peziza Auricula — Auricula Judæ
Phagedæna — Boulimus
Phalangium — Liliastrum
Phalangosis — Trichia
Pharmacitis — Ampelites
Pharmacopolæ — Agyrte
Pharmacy — Medicamentaria
Pharynx — Œsophagus
Spasms of — ib.
Phaseolus Major — Faba Maj.
Pheasant's Eye — Adonis Flois
Phellandryum — Meum Alp. Germ.
Phenion — Anemone
Philanthropus — Aparine
Phillitis — Lingua Cervina
Philonitis — Bugloffum Sylvestre
Phlyzacion — Phlyxacion
Phœnigmæ — Epispastica
Phœnix — Ledium
Phosphorus Bononiensis — Bononiensis Lapis
Kircheri — ib.
Phrenzy — Phrenitis
Phrygian Stone — Phrygius Lapis
Phthisis Pulmonalis — Phthisis
Phylacteria — Amuleta
Phylica — Alaternus
Physalis — Alkakengi
Physician — Alkakengi
Female — Acestoris
Phyteuma — Eruca
Pia Mater, which see, and Mater
Picatio — Pica
Pick-tooth (Spanish) — Vifnaga
(Oriental) — Thapsia Orientalis
Picea — Abies
Picelt — Nicotiana
Piedra di Cobra — Cobra de Capello
Pierre Noir — Ampelites
Pil. — Aromatic — Aromaticæ Pilulæ
Gummose — Asa Fœtida
Colocynth — Colocynthis
Ex duobus — ib.
Coccie — ib.
Marocostinæ — Marocostinum
Sapon. — Opium
Styrac — Opium
Pila Hystricis — Bezoar Hystricis
Pileolus — Pileus. Cucupha
Piles — Hæmorrhoides
Pilosella Major — Auricula Muris. Hieracium Alpinum, & Pulmonaria Aurea
Pilosella Minor — Gnaphalium Mont.
Pile wort — Chelidonium Minus
Pimenta — Piper Jamaicense
Pimento — Piper Jamaicense
Pimpernel — Anagallis
Pimpernel (Water) — Becabunga
Pimninella Anisum — Anisum Ind.
Pimple — Pustula. Varus
Pimples (Heat) — Sudamina
Pinastellum — Peucedanum
Pine Apple — Ananas
Pincers — Forceps
Pine Tree — Pinus
Pinetus Purgans — Catapucia Minor
Pinguicula — Sanicula Ebor.
Pinguis — Adeps
Pinguium — Artemisia
Pinhones Indici — Catapucia Minor
Pink
Indian — Anthelmis
Meadow — Armeria
Pinna — Auricula
Nasi — Ala Nasi
Auris — Ala Auris
Pinus Indica — Catapucia Minor
Pinus
Abies — Abies
Abies Alba — Abies
Abies Canada — Abies
Abies Balsamica — Abies
Pipe Tree — Lilac
Piper Aromaticum — Piper Nigrum
Brasilianum — Piper Indicum
Caleuticum — ib.

Piper Cubebæ } Cubebæ
Caudatum } Cubebæ
Guineenſis Piper Indicum
Hiſpanicum ib.
Luſitanicum ib.
Piperage Berberis
Piperidge ib.
Piperitis Lepidium
Pipe-ſhell Entalium
Piſæleon Pix Liquida
Piſaſphaltos Bitumen
Piſcis Sacer Aurata
Piſiforme Os Lenticulare Os
Piſſelæum Ind. Petroleum Barbadenſe
Piſmire Formica Minor
Piſſabed Dens Leonis
Piſtachia Lentiſcus Lentiſcus
Piſtachio Nut Tree Piſtacia
Piſtolochia Ariſtolochia Tenuis
Piſtolochia Serpentaria Virginiana
Piſum Arboreſcens Cajan
Pitch } Abies
Tree } Abies
(Foſſil) Bitumen
(Jews) ib.
Dry } Pix Nigra
Stone } Pix Nigra
Black } Pix Nigra
Burgundy Pix Burgundica
Pityuſa Eſſula Minor
Pix
Sicca } Pix Nigra
Arida } Pix Nigra
Placenta torn over the Os Tincæ } Abortio
Plaſtulæ Morpiones
Plague Peſtis
Plaiſter-ſtone Gypſum
Plane Tree Platanus
Planet Struck { Aſtrobles
{ Aſtroboliſmos
Plant (the wonderful) Nepenthes
Planta Metacarpus
Planta Mirabilis Nepenthes
Planta Mirab. Diſtill. Bandura
Planta Zeylanica. Mentha Paluſtris, &c.
Plantago Pſyllium
Plantain Plantago
Plantain (broad-leaved) { Plantago latifolia
(common greater) Ibid.
Plantain (buckſhorn) Coronopus
Plantain-tree Muſa
Planum Metacarpus
Plaſter Emplaſtrum
Black Sticking Emp. Adh. Nigr.
Ladie's Court ib.
Chicheſter ib.
Anodyne Empl. Anodyn.
Drawing Attrachens
Diachylon Commune
of Mucilages Mucilagini
Soap Sapone
Stomach Stomachum
Platanus Muſa
Platanus Tragi Acer
Platyophthalmon Antimonium
Pleura
Abſceſs of the Abſceſſus
Pleurify Pleura
Baſtard ib.
Pleuroſthotonos Tetanus
Plexus Pulmonaris Plexus Cardiacus
Reticularis Choroides
Retiformis ib.
Plicaria Lycopodium
Plumb (American) Icaco
Plumb (Damaſk) Pruna Gallicateres.
Plumbago Molybdæna
Plumbum Candidum Stannum
Cinereum Biſmuthum
Rubeum Adrop.
Pockwood Guaiacum
Podagra Arthritis
Podagraria Angelica Sylv.
Podotheca Chirotheca
Pointal Piſtillum
Point (blind) Porus Opticus.
Points (Lachrymal) { Puncta Lachrymalia
Poiſon Venenum
Poiſon-tree Toxicodendron
Pokeweed Phytolacca Americ.
Polenta Alphiton
Pollici-pedes Balani
Pollincio Condio
Polygala Indicum
Polygala Marilandica. Senega Seneka
Polygalon Onobrychis
Polygonum Percepier
Polygonum Bacciferum, &c. } Caudalquina
Polygonum Biſtorta Biſtorta
Polygonum Hydropiper Perſicaria
Perſicaria Perſicaria
Polygonum Mas Gremen. Polygonium Latifolium ib.
Polypetalous Petala
Polypetalus Flos Polypetalus
Polypodium Filix Mas Filix Mas
Polytrichon Comm. } Adianthum
Pomaticæ Cochlææ
Poma Sinenſis Aurantia Sinenſis
Pomegranate { Granata Mala & Balauſtium
Pomifera
Indica Acajaiba
Pompion
Common Pepo
Pomum Staphyloma
Pomum Maiale Anapodophyllon
Pomum Mirabile Hierafolymitanum } Momordica
Pondweed { Myriophyllum, & Potamogeiton
Poplar Populus
Poppy Papaver
wild Papaver Rubrum
Poppy (ſpatling) Behen Alb Vulg.
Populago Calendula Paluſtris
Pork Phyſic weed } Phytolacca Americana
Porret Porrum
Portulaca Marina Halimus
Portulaca
Phyſalis Alkinaformis
Poſſetum Poſſet
Potaſh Clavellati Cineres
Potatoes Batatas
Potentilla Argentina
Potentilla Reptans Pentaphyllum
Potters Ore Alquifou
Poultice Cataplaſma
Powder Pulvis
Royal Baſilicus Pulvis
Bezoardic Bezoar
of Bole Bolus
ad Partum Borax
e Chel. c. Cancer Fluv.
Teſtaceus Cancer Fluv.
Eccruſſa Comp. Ceruſſa Comp. Pulv.
Arthrit. Duc. Portlandii Chamædrys
Blue { Cobaltum, Encauſtum Cœruleum
Berlin Cortex Peruvianus
Lazurinus Lazurium Argenti
(Ruſſels) Antimonium
Countels of Kent's Cantianus Pulvis
the Marquis's Marchionis Pulvis
Pox Lues Venerea
Præcocia Armenia Mala
Præcoqua Armeniaca Mala
Præcordium Metacarpus
Praſium Album. Marrubium Album
Praun Crangon
Precipitate (red) { Mercurius Corroſ. Ruber
Pregnancy Geſtatio, Graviditas,
Preſbytæ Amblyopia
Preſerves. Conditum, & Condimentum
Priapeia Nicotiana Minor
Priapus Vegetabilis Nepenthes
Prickwood Euonymus
Primprint Liguſtrum Vulg.
Primroſe Primula Veris Minor
Primroſe (blue) Carchichee
Primroſe Peerleſs. Narciſſ. Pallidus &c.
Primula Veris Paralyſis
Principles Principia
Privet
Evergreen Alaternus
Privet (Eaſtern) Liguſtrum Ind.
Privet (Com.) Liguſtrum Vulg.
Probe Specillum
Procedentia Oculi Malum
Proceſſus Ciliares. Ciliare Ligamentum
Prodromi Eteſiæ
Prœbia Amuleta
Prœbra Amuleta
Profunda Superior { Profunda Brachii Vera
Prolapſus Ani Procidentia Ani
Prolapſus Uteri Procidentia Uteri
Pronator Radiiteres Pronator
Proſtata Suppoſitorium
Pruna Carbunculus
Prunella Brunella
Prunella Germanis Bugula
Prunello Pruna Brignolenſia
Prunifera Nux Virginiana
Prunifera Indica } Acajaiba
Prunus
Sylveſtris } Acacia
Spinoſa } Acacia
Prunus Domeſtica ib.
Prunus Lauro Ceraſſus. Lauro Ceraſſus
Prunes (common or French) } Pruna Gallicateres
Pſeudoacorus Iris Paluſtris
Pſeudo Bunias Barbarea
Pſeudo China China Occidentalis
Pſeudo Helleborus. Calendula Paluſtris
Pſeudo Melanthium Nigelaſtrum
Pſeudo Narciſſus. Narciſſus Lut. Sylv.
Pſeudo Nardus { Lavendula Latifol. Anguſtifol.
Pſeudo-Pyrethrum Ptarmica
Pſeudoſantalum. Braſilium Lignum
Pſeudoſclinum Caucalis
Pſeudo-ſenna Colutea
Pſeudoſycomorus Azedarach
Pſoa. Abſceſs Pſoas
Pſoas Muſcle Abſceſs under the { Abſceſs in the Back & Loins.—Abſceſs under the Pſoas Muſcle. Pſoas
Pſoas Magnus Pſoas
Pſora Pruritus
Pſorophthalmia Trachoma
Pſychotria Emetica Ipecacuanha
Ptarmica Xeranthemum
Cutea Ageratum
Pterocarpus } Santalum Rubrum
Pſantolinus } Santalum Rubrum
Pteryglon Unguis
Pterygium Albugo
Pterygopharyngæus Pharynx
Ptiſan Chylus
Ptoſis Trichia
Puba Caſſada
Pubes (Section of the Symphyſis) } Pubis Oſſa
Pudding-graſs Pulegium Vulgare
Pudding (Haſty) Alphiton
Puddingpipe-tree Caſſia Fiſtularis
Pudenda
Abſceſs in the Alæ
Puff balls Lycoperd on Vulgare.
Pulicaria Conyza
Pulicaris Herba Pſyllium
Pulmonaria } Muſcus Pulmonarius
Arborea } Muſcus Pulmonarius
Pulmonaria Lutea. Hieracium Alpinum
Pulmonaria Lymph. Mac. } Pulmon. Macal.
Pulverization Comminution
Pulvis
Antilyſſus Antilyſſas
Antimonalis } Antimonium
Carthuſianus } Antimonium
Aricompoſit. Arum
Sternutatorius Afarum
Baſilicus Baſilicus Pulvis
Teſtaceus Ceratus Cera
Contrayev. C. Contrayerva
Comitiſſa Cort. Peruvianus
Patrum ib.
Edinburghenſis Edioghurghen Pulv.
Hædæi Euphraſia
Algarothi Mercur. Vitæ.
Myrrh. C. Myrrha
Pumice-ſtone Pumex
Pumping Stillicidium
Punchula Petechiæ
Punica Granata Mala
Punica Granatum Balauſtium
Punica Granatum Sylveſtris Italica Granata Malæ
Purging-nut Cataputia Minor
Purpey (water) Becabunga
Purpie Portulace
Purple-fiſh Purpura
Purpuratæ Petechiæ
Purſelane (Garden) S. Portulaca
(common ſea) Portulaca Maritima
Purſlane (Common Sea) } Halimus
(Tree Sea) } Halimus
Puſilanimity Athymia
Putrefaction Putredo
Pyoſis Hypopyon
Pyracantha { Lycium Bux. Folius
Pyracantha Meſpilus Acul. Pyr.
Pyramis Conus Fuſorius
Pyrola Parnaſſia
Pyrus Cydonia Cydonia
Pyrus Malus Sylveſtris

Q

Quacks Agyrtæ
Quadratum Cuboides
Quadratus. Depreſſores Labii. Inferioris
Buccas detrahens. Adductor Auris
Genæ Platyſma Myoides
Quanticamotli Caſſada
Quaquara China Orientalis
Quaſſia Simarouba Simaronba
Dioica ib.
Queen of the Meadows Ulmaria
Quercera Epiſalos
Quercula Calamandrina. Chamædrys
Quercus
Ægylops Ægylops
Marina Kali
Quick-in-the-hand Perſicaria
Quickline (Cream or Flower of) } Cremor
Quickſilver } Mercurius Argentum Vivum
Quill
Swallowed Penna
Quince Tree Cydonia
Quinaquina Cortex Peruvianus
Quinquina ib.
Quinquefoliatum Fol. Quinq.
Quinquenervia Plantago Minor
Quinſy Angina
of the Breaſt Angina Pectoris
Convulſive Angone
Mucous Scarlatine Anginoſa
Quotidian Fever
(Continual) Catarrhalis

R

Radiæus Externus { Extenſor Carpi Radialis
Radiatus Flos. Radiatus
Radicula Raphanus Hortenſis
Radiſh Raphanus Hortenſis
Horſe Raphanus Ruſtic.
Water Siſymbrium Aq.
Radix Braſilienſis Ipecacuhana
Dulcis Glycyrhiza
Indica Lopeziana } Rais di Juan Lopez, &c.
Rhodia Rhodia
Rubra Rubia
Ragwort Jacobæa
Raifort Raphanus Hortenſis
Ramex Varicoſus Circocle
Ramoſum Fol. Ramoſum
Rampion Cervicaria
Ramions (ſpotted) Ophioſcordon
Rana Rubeta Bufo
Ranunculoides Pratenſis } Calendula Pratenſis
Ranunculus ficaria. Chelidonium Min.
Ranunculus Myoſuros
Ranunculus Nemoroſus. Moſchatellina
Ranunculus Phiragmites. Anomenoides
Ranunculus Tridentatus Vernus } Hepatica Nobilis.
Ranunculus Vernus. Chelidonium Min.
Rapa Rapiſtrum
Rape Bunias
Rape of Ciſtus Hypociſtis
Raphaniſtrum Diſpermum Erucago
Raphanus Aquaticus. Siſymbrium Aq. Sylv. Lepidium
Sylveſtris { Raphanus Ruſticanus
Marinus ib.
Raphonticoides Lutea Behen Alb.
Rapocaulis Braſſica Congylodes
Rapum Geniſtæ Orobanche
Rapunculus Cervicaria
Rapuntium ib.
Raſpatory Scalprum
Ratſbane Arſenicum Album
Rattle Snake Boicininga
Root Seneka
Realgar Arſenicum Album
Receptaculum Pecqueti Recept. Chyli
Rectum Inflamed Inflammat. o
Rectus Pyramidalis Naſi
Anticus Brevis { Rectus Internus Minor
Longus { Rectus Internus Major
Deprimens Depreſſor Oculi
Femoris Rectus Cruris
Exterior Abductor Oculi
Interior Adductor Oculi
Inferior Depreſſor Oculi
Superior Elevator Oculi
Redgame Attagen
Red Rot Ros Solis
Redux Reduc.
Reed (Indian) Canna corus
Common Arundo
Reedmace Typha Paluſtris Maj.
Refective Cardiaca
Regalis Regis Nitrum
Regia Vulgaris Juglans
Regina Prati Ulmaria
Regulis Barbadenſis Palma Nobilis
Jamaicenſis ib.
Regulus Baſilicus
Relaxatio Uteri Procidentia Uteri
Remora Aratri Anonis
Relaxation Atonia
Renes Succenturiati { Capſulæ Atrabiliæ
Rennet Coagulum
Rennet (Cheeſe) Gallium
Refeda Eruca
Reſin Abies, & Reſina
Black Colophonia
Dried ib.
Liquid Abies
Reſina Picta Colophonia
Toſta ib.
Reſtabovis Anonis
Reſt Harrow Ononis
Reſt Harrow Anonis
Reſumptiva Cardiaca
Reſtoratives Reſumptiva
Reſtoratives Analeptica
Reticulum Omentum

Retrahens Auriculam. Abductor Auris
Retroverſio Uteri Procidentia Uteri
Reverberatory Fire { Ignis Reverberatorium
Rexis Anebion Anchuſa
Rex Metallorum Aurum
Rex Vegetabilium Crocus
Rha Verum Antiq. Rhapontic.um
Rhabarbarum Album { Mechoacana Alba
Dioſcorides Rhapontic.um
Monachorum. Lapathum Hortenſe
Rhapontic.um Alpins Rhapontic.um
Rhamnus Catharticus Rhamnus
Frangula Alnus
Zizyphus Jujuba
Rheum Dioſcoridis Rhapontic.um
Palmatum Rhabarbarum
Ponticum Rhapontic.um
Rhodacina Perſica
Rhodacinea ib.
Rhodiola Rhodia
Rhodina (Radix) Aſpalathus
Rhodium ib.
(Lignum) ib.
(Wood) Lignum Rhodium
Rhodod aphne } Nerion.
Rhododendron }
Rhubarb Rhabarbarum
(Baſtard Monks) { Lapathum Alpinum
(Countryman's) Eſcula Minor
(Engliſh) Rhapontic.um
(Monks) { Lapathum Alpinum & Mechoachana Alba
Rhus Myrtifol. Brab. Myrtus Brab.
Sylveſtris Elæagnus
Ribeſium Ribes
Ribs Coſtæ
Ribwort Plantago Min.
Rice Oryza
Ricinoides Cataputia Minor
Ricinoides Heleotropium Tricoccum
Ricinus Cataputia Minor
Nov. Hiſp. Caſſada
Rickets Rachitis
Riding Equitatio
in a Carriage Æora
Rie Secale
Rigor Rhigos
Rimæus Naſalis
Ringworm Herpes
Riſogallum Arſenicum Album
Riſagon Caſſumunjar
Rob Sapa
Robub ib.
Rob Bacch. Juniperi Juniperus
Rocket Eruca
(Garden) Barbarea
(Gentle) ib.
(Wild) ib.
(Corn) Erucago
Rogga Secale
Rolier Faſcia
Root Radix
Rorella Ros Salis
Rotida ib.
Ros Calabrinus Manna
Roſaceus Flos Roſaceus
Roſa Canina Cynoſbatos
Solis Ros Solis
Sylveſtris Cynoſbatos
Roſacea Gutta Roſacea
Roſæ Odoræ (Lignum) Aſpalathus
Roſatus Flos Roſatus
Roſe Eryſipelas
Roſe Roſa
Chriſtmas Helleborus Niger
Corn Papaver Rubrum
Dog Cynoſbatos
Gelder Opulus
Rock Ciſtus & Cucoron Alb.
Roſebay { Rhododendron Chryſ. & Nerion
Roſemary Roſmarinus
Poets Oſyris
Roſetroot Rhodia
Roſea Nerion
Roſe Spice Aromaticum Roſatum
Roſewood Aſpalathus
Roſmarinus Hippopotamus
Roſmarinum Stæchadis { Polium
Facie { Creticum
Rotten Stone Terra Cariosa
Rotula Patella
Roucou Achioti
Rubbing Fricti.o
Rubedo Maculoſa Gutta Roſacea
Simplex ib.
Puſtulosa ib.
Ulcerosa ib.
Rubeola { Morbilli & Rubia Sylvanchica
Montana Odora Aſperula
Rubercum Macules Gutta Roſacea
Ruleta Bufo
Rubia Brafil. Caapo-Tiragua Brafil.
Tinctorum Rubia
Major ib.
Rubicapra Alpina
Rubigo Ferri Ferrum
Rubinus Verus Carbunculus
Rubrica Græcis Ochra
Rubus Alpinus Chamæmorus
Paluſtris Humilis ib.
Ruby Carbunculus
(Rock) Granatus
Rud Ochra
Ruddle ib.
Rue Ruta
(Aſſyrian Wild) Harmel
(Goats) Galega
(Wall) Adianthum
Rum Vinum Ardens
Rumex Lapathum Acutum
Acutus ib.
Aquaticus Lapathum Aquaticum
Hydrolapathium ib.
Acetoſa Acetoſa
Helveticus ib.
Scutatus ib.
Runnet Coagulum
Ruonia Gutta Rubea
Rupicarpa Carpa Alpina
Rupture Hernia
in the Groin Bubonocele
of the Omentum Epiplocele
Windy Pneumatocele
Wort Herniaria
Rufcus Anguſtifolius Hippoglo ſum
Hippoglo ſum ib.
Aculeatus Ruſcus
Latifolius Laurus Alexandrina
Ruſh Juncus
Ruſſia Seed Gramen Mannæ
Ruſt of Iron Ferrum
Ruta Capraria Galega
Muraria Adianthum
Sylveſtris Harmel
Ryſagon Caſſammuniar

S.

Sabadilla Cevadilla
Sabbina Baccifera Cedrus
Gotenſis Cedrus Phœnicia
Sac Vinum
(Lachrymal) { Sacculus Lachrymalis
Saccharum
Canadenſe Acer
Acernum Acer
Aluminis Alumen
Saeculi Mucoſi Burſæ Mucoſæ
Sacculus Epithema
Saccus ib.
Sacerdotis Virile Arum
Sacred Diſeaſe Epilepſia
Sacri (Acumen Oſſis) Acumen
Sacro Lumbalis Sacro Lumbaris
Safflower Catharmus
Saffran de Terra Curcuma
Saffron Crocus
(Baſtard) Cathamus
(Deadly) Ephemerum
(Meadow) Colchicum
Sage Salvia
of Bethlehem, Pulmonaria Anguſt.
of Jeruſalem, Pulmonaria Macul.
Sagittatum Fol. Sagittatum
Sagotree Palma Japonica
Sagou ib.
Sailing Navigatio & Æora
Sainfoin Medica, & Onobrychis
St. John's Wort Hypericum
St. Vitus's Dance Chorea Sancti Viti
Sakchar Saccharum
Sakchari ib.
Sal Abſinth. Alcali
Alk. Sal Marin. Alcali
Alcali ib.
Alkali Fix. Clavellati Cineres
Alcali Vol. Alcali
Ammon { Alcali & Ammoniacus Sal
Cornu Cervi Alcali
Cyreniacus Ammoniacus Sal
Commun. Gemma
Cath. Glaub. Glauberi Sal
Diureticus Diureticus Sal
Dauphiny Glauberi Sal
Fuſionis Alembroth
Fixionis ib.
Foſil Gemma
Gem Gemma & Marinum
Glauberi Glauberi Sal
Gemma Marinum
Marinus ib.
Mirabilis Glauberi Sal
Petræ Nitrum
Prunellæ ib.
Polychreſtum ib.
Rock Gemma
Sennerti Diureticus Sal
Tartari Alcali
Salamander's Wool Amianthus
Salamandria Amianthus
Salcharion Saccharum
Salicarnia Kali
Salitron Anatron
Saliunca Nardus Celtica
Saliva Duct (Steno's) } Saliv. Duct. Stenonis
Salpingo-pharyngæus Pharynx
Salſaparilla Sarſaparilla
Salſola Kali
Salt Sal
Eſſential to obtain Acetoſa
of Barberries Berberis
Culinary Culinaria Sal
Alimentary ib.
of Glaſs Axungia Vitri
Sea Marinum
Common ib.
Bay ib.
Engliſh Sericum
Peter Nitrum
Saltwort Kali
Salvia Æthiopis Æthiopis
Vitæ Adianthum
Salvia Horminum Horminum
Sambucus Humilis Ebulus
Herbacea ib
Ebulus ib.
Samphire Crethmon & Crithmum
Sampire Crithmum.
Sampſuchus Majorana
Majori Fol. & Marum.
Sanamunda Empetrum Thym. Fol.
Sanctum (ſem.) Santonicum
Sand Arena
Sandarach Realgar
Sandaracha Arſenicum Rubrum
Sandaracha Juniperus
Sandbox-tree Hura
Sandiver Axungia Vitri
Sanguinaria Gramen Polygonum
Sanguis Draconis Gum Rubr. Aſtring.
Sanguis Draconis Herba } Lapathum Rubrum
Sanguis Draconis Herba } Lapathum Rubrum Herba
Sanguis Herculis Crocus
Sanguiſorba Pimpinella
Sanicle Sanicula Mas
Sanicle (Yorkſhire) Sanicula Ebor.
Sanicula Alpina Lutea Auricula Urſi
Saniculæ Fœmina Imperatoria Nigra
Sanicula Sedum Saxifraga Alba
Saniodes Sanidodes
Sankira China Orientalis
Santalus Adulterinus Abelicea
Santerna Borax
Santolina Santonicum
Santolina Chamæcypariſſus } Abrotanum
Saphena Externa Saphena Minor Vena.
Sapo
Amygd. Amygdalus
Saponaceum Balſam } { Linimentum Saponaceum
Sappadilla Anona
Sappan (Lignum) Campechenſe Lign.
Sarcophagum Aſſius Lapis
Sardachates Achates
Sardius Corneolus
Sardonyx Achates & Corneolus.
Sardus Corneolus
Sare Effera
Sarpedo Lichen
Satanus Dervorans Antimonium
Sattin Bulbonach
Satureia Hortenſis Satureia Sativa
Satureia Lutea Sylv. Melampyrum
Saturnus Plumbum & Adrop.
Satyrion (Male) Orchis
Satyrium Mas Orchis
Sauce Alone Alliaria
Saunders Santalum
Sawer Kraut Brafica
Savina Sabina
Savine Sabina
Savory (Summer) Satureia Sativa
Savory (Winter) Satureia Montana
Saxifraga Rubia Synanchica
Saxifraga Granulata. Saxifraga Anglica
Saxifraga Montana Apium
Saxifraga Mont. Min. { Meum Latif Aduſt.
Saxifraga Rubra Filipendula
Saxifrage Pimpinella
Saxifrage (Engliſh or Meadow } { Saxifraga Anglica.
Saxifrage (Golden) Chryſoſplenium
Saxifrage (White) Saxifraga Alba
Saxum Calcarium Calcarius Lapis
Scabioſa Carduiſolia Echinopus
Scabioſ Succiſa Morſus Diaboli
Scabwort Enula
Scadidacalli Euphorbium
Scala Sacra Climax
Scald-head Achor
Scalds Ambuſta
Scallions Aſcalonitides
Scammonia Monſpeliaca Periploca
Scammonium Germanicum } Convolvulus
Scammonium Orientale Gambogia
Scammony (French or Italian) } Periploca
Scamnum Bathron
Scandix Cerefolium Chærophyllum
Scandix Odorata Myrrhis
Scapha Auricula
Scapulary Faſcia
Scar Eſcharæ
Scarabæus Cicindela
Scarabeolus, &c. Coccinilla
Scarſola. Endivia & Lactuca Sylveſtris.
Scelotyrbe Scorbutus
Schadidacalli Euphorbium
Schagri-cottam Corni
Schiſtus Hæmatites
Schœnanthus Juncus Odoratus
Schœnolagurus Linagroſtis
Schorl Baſaltes
Sciatica Iſchiadicus Morbus
Scintillations Eclampſis
Scio Earth Chia Terra
Scio Wine Chium Vinum
Sclarea Horminum
Sclarea Hiſpanica. Horminum Sylveſtre
Sclerophthalmia Xerophthalmia.
Sclerotica Cornea
Sclerotis Cornea
Scolopendria Lingua Cervina
Scolopendrium Aſplenium
Scolymus Cinara
Scopa Regia Ruſcus
Scoparia Chenopodium
Scordium Salvia Sylveſtris
Scordatis Salvia Sylveſtris
Scorneful Muſcle Abductor Oculi
Scorodonia Salvia Sylveſtris
Scorpioides { Flos Scorpioides & Ornithopodium.
Scorpion Wort Ornithopodium
Scotedinos Vertigo
Scotidinos Vertigo
Scotomia Vertigo
Scrofularia Craſſula
Scrophula Scrofula
Scrophularia Chelidonium Major
Scrophularia Indica Guacatana
Scrotum, Itchy Piſoriaſis
Scrotum (Veins of the) ſwelled } Varicocele
Scurf Diphryges & Morphæa
Scurvy Scorbutus
Scurvy Graſs Cochlearia
Scurvy Graſs (Scotch) Brafica Maritima
Scutellaria Caſſida
Scutum Epithema
Sea Oak Kali
Sea Wrack Kali
Seal (Hermetic) Sigillum Herm.
Sealed Earths Sigillata Terra
Searcing Cribratio
Sebadilla Cevadilla
Sebeſten Myxa
Sebeſtina Domeſtica ib.
Sebeſtina Sebeſten
Sebeſtens Jujuba
Section of the Sy. of the os Pubis, Oſſa
Secundines Involucra
Securidaca Ervum
Sedatives Sedantia
Sedentaria Oſſa Acumen
Sedges Iris Paluſtris
Sedum Telephium Craſſula
Seed Semen
Seed (impeded) Dyſpermatiſmus
Seegrum Jacobæa Vulgaris
Self heal Sanicula Mas
Self heal (Common) Brunella
Selinum Apium
Sementina Santonicum
Semiflofculoſus Flos Semiflofculoſus
Semipellucidus Petroſilex
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Thunder-ſtones Ceraunia
Thuris (Lignum) Aſpalathus
Thus Olibanum
Judæorum Thuris Cortex
Maſculinum Olibanum
Thuya Maſſilienſium. Cedrus Phœnicia
Thuyæ Cedrus
Thymbra Satureia Sativa
Thymbra Hiſpanica Marum
Thyme Thymus Vulg.
Wild
Mother of } Serpyllum Vulg. Min.
Lemon Serpyllum Citratum
Maſtich Marum
Thymelæa Alypum
Thymelæa Laureola Mas
Thymiama Thuris Cortex
Thymus Condyloma
Thymus Thymus. Acrothymion.
Artery Thymicæ Art.
Thymus Citratus Citratum
Serpyllus Serpyllum Vulg. Min.
Acinos Acinos
Maſtichina Marum
Thyoniama Crinatum
Thyro-adenoi-dæus. Crico Pharyngæi
Thyro-crico-pharyngæus } Crico Pharyngæus
Thyro-epiglotides. Thyro Arytænoides
Thyro-pharyngæus Pharynx
Thyro-pharyngo-ſtaphylini } Thyro Staphylini
Thyrſe Thyrſus
Thyſſelinum Œlſnitium
Tibialis Gracilis. Plantaris Muſculus
Tigaka Jaca Indica
Tigellum Crucibulum
Tiglium Catapuția Minor
Tijaka Marum Jaca Indica
Tin Stannum
Tincar Tincal, & Borax
Tinctorius Flos Genifta Tinctoria
Tinea, which ſee, & Achor
Tinct.
Aloetica Aloe
Amara Amara
Ambragriſea Ambragriſea
Antimonii Antimonium
Argenti Argentum
Antihyſterica Fu'le i Fuligo
Benzoini Benzoinum
Cantharidum Cantharides
Cardamomi Cardamomum
Caſtorei Caſtor
Cinnamon Cinnamomum
Cort. Peruv. Cortex Peruvianus
Fœtida Aſafœtida
Fuliginis Fuligo
Ipecac. Ipecac.
Martis Ferrum
Menthæ Mentha Spicata
Myrrh Myrrha
Saturnina Plumbum
Salis Tartari Antimonium
Thebaica Opium
Veratri Helleborus Alb.
Tin-glaſs Bilmuthum
Tiſſue Cellulaſe. Celluloſa Membrana
Tiſſue Muqueus. Celluloſa Membrana
Tithymalo Cypariſſiæ Similis } Eſſula Minor.
Tithymalus Peplion
Fol. Pini Eſſula Min.
Orientalis Eſſula Indica.
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Aizoides Euphorbium
Latifolius Catapuția Minor
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Toad-flax Linaria
Toad-flax (Ivy leaved) Cymbalaria
Toad-flax (Ivy leaved) } Linaria Hed. Fol.
Toad-ſtool Fungus
Toad-ſtone Bufonitis
Toad-ſtone Lupus Marinus
Tobacco Nicotianum
Engliſh Nicotiana Minor
Tedda Panna Palma Japonica
Toddy-tree Mamei
Toes
Abſceſs in the Abſceſſus
Tola Capolin Capolin, &c.
Toluifera Tolutanum
Tom Hybounouhu
Tongue Lingua
tied Ancyloglottium
Tongue (Scirrhous) Scirrhus
Tonic Tonicus
Tonſils Tonſillæ
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Abſceſs in the Abſceſſus
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Topazius Veterum Chryſolithus
Toph Tophus
Tormentum Iliaco Paſſio
Tormina Dyſenteria
Tortoiſe Chelone
Tot bona

Tetabona Mercurialis
Touch Tactus
Touch me not { Perficaria, & noli me tangere
Touch-wood Agaricus Quercus
Tourniquet Torcular
Tower Muſtard Turritis
Toxica Arundo Farcta Flava
Toxiteſia Artemiſia
Trachea Arteria Aſpera Arteria
Trachelium Cervicaria
Trachelium Americanum } Cardinalis Flos.
Trachelo-maſtoidæus } Complexus Minor
Tragi Spongia
Tragicus Auricula
Tragopyron Tragopyrum
Tragoſelinum Pimpinella
Tragus { Auricula Cauda Equina & Oſtrya
Trance Extaſis
Traniebin Alhagi
Tranſverſales Colli Minores { Intertranſverſales Muſculi
Tranſverſales Multifidus Spinæ
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Dorſi ib.
Lumborum ib.
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Tranſverſo Spinalis Lumborum { Sacer Muſculus
Tranverſus Prosator Quadratus
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Trapezius ib.
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(Upright) Flammula Jovis
Treacle Saccharum
(Engliſh) Chamædrys
Muſtard Thlaſpi Verum
Tree-ſtone Corallium
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(Sweet) Lotus Urbana
(Shrub) Medicago
Hare's-foot) Lagopus
(Stinking Bean) Tree. Laburnum
Trefoil (Marſh) { Trifolium Palludoſum
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Triangularis { Splenius. Pyramidalis Naſi, & Scalenus Muſculus.
Triceps Auris le Troiſieme Muſcle du { Abductor Auris Abductor Femoris Tertius
Trichiaſis Trichia
Trichomanes Adianthum
Trifolia Spica Crithm. &c. Caaponga
Trifoliatum Fol. Trifoliatum
Trilobatum Fol. Trilobatum
Trinity Graſs Lagopus
Tripeta ous Petala
Tripolitana Alana Terra
Triſſago Chamædrys
Paluſtris Scordium
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Repens Gramen Caninum
Vaccinum Melampyrum
Trituration Comminution
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Pectoral ib.
Concelicut Boſcininga
Trochitæ Entrochus
Trochleares Patheticus
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Trompa Cete Admirabile
Truffles Amanita
Trumpeter Muſcle. Buccinator Muſc.
Trumpet-flower Bignonia
Tſiam Pangam Campechenſe Lign.
Tſianakua Coſtus
Tſjeron-katou-neregam Naregam
Tſyeru-cansjava Bangue
Tubi Lactiferi Lactiferi Ductus
Tubulus Entalium
Dentalis Dentalium
Marinus Antalium
Tegus Amomum
Tulip
(Chequered) Fritillaria
Tulip (African) Hæmanthus
(Tree Laurel-leaved) Magnolia
Tumidum Bronchocele
Tumor on the Calf of the Leg { Tibialis Arteria
Windy Phyſocele
Tunica Caryophyllus Ruber
Turbith (White) Alypum
Turmeric Curcuma
Turnep Rapa
Cabbage Bruſſica Congylode
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Turpethum Minerale { Mercurius Emeticus Flavus
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Petaſites ib.
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Tutenague ib.
Tutſan Androſæmum
Tutty Tutia
Twayblade (Common) Bifolium
Twin Geminus
Twins Præſentatio
Twiſting of the Guts Iliaco Paſſio
Tylloma Clavus
Typha Aromatica { Calamus Aromaticus
Typhus Icterodes Biliofus Febris

U

Ula Ulon
Ulcer Ulcus
Simple Purulent Ulcus
Simple Vitiated ib.
Fungous ib.
Sinuous Fiſtula
Callous Ulcus
Cancerous Cancer
Carious Ulcus
Cutaneous ib.
Venereal Lues Venerea
Scorbutic Scorbutus
Scrofulous Scrofula
in the Bladder Ulcus
in the Kidneys ib.
in the Leg ib.
in the Tonſil's ib.
in the Womb ib.
Syrian Ægyptia Ulcera
Ulcerola Gutta Roſacea
Ulcus
Depaſcens Herpes
Ulnar Artery Cubitalis Arteria
Nerve Cubitalis
Ulnaris Externus { Extenſor Carpi Radialis
Gracilis Palmaris Longus
Ulva Alga
Umari Camarin-bas
Umbellatus Flos Umbellatus
Umber Æthia
Umbilical Region Umbilicalis
Umbilicatum Fol. Umbilicatum
Umbilicus Marinus { Androſace, & Cochleæ
Veneris Cotyledon
Unedo Arbutus
Pappyracea Amatzquitl
Unguentaria Nux Moſchata
Unguentum
Althææ Althæa
e Gum Elemi Elemi
Apoſtolorum Apoſtolorum Ung.
Veſicatorium Cantharides
Liliorum Crinomyron
Martiatum Martiatum Ung.
Unguis Albugo
Odoratus Blatta Byzantia
Unicornu Minerale { Eolus Candidus
Unifolium Monophyllon
Uniones Margaritæ
Urceolaris Parietaria
Urchin Echinus
Ureters Renes
Stone in the Calculus
Urethra (Stone in the) Urethra
Stone in the. Calculus & Urethra
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Incrs ib.
Lactea Lamium Maculatum
Urtica Incrs, &c. Galeopſis
Uruca Achiotl
Uſnea Muſcus Arboreus
Utricaria Nepenthes
Uva Staphyloma
Criſpa Groſſularia
Lupina Herba Paris
Marina Cauda Equina
Uvæ Paſſæ Vitis
Uvea Choroides
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Uvularia Hippogloſſum
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Vaccinia Alba. Meſpilus Fruct. Nigr.
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Paluſtris Oxycoccus
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Polypus in the ib.
Hernia in the Colpocele
Inflamed Inflammatio
(Deſcent of) &c. { Procidentia Vaginæ
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Græca Polemonium
Cærulea ib.
Valerian Valeriana
Greek Polemonium
Valeriana Lactuca Agnina
Valerianella ib
Vallonia Ægylops
Valve Valva
Valvula
Coeci Colon
Coli ib.
Ilii ib.
Vanilloes Vanilla
Vapour Afflatus
Vapours Hypochondriacus Morbus
Varaca Jaca Indica
Varicocele Cirſocele
Variola Cholerica Morbilli
Varus Cyllos
Vaſa Deferentia diſtended } Spermatocele
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Internus, which ſee, ib.
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Vena ſine Pari Azygos
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Ventriculoſi Cœliaca Paſſio
Venus Æs
Venus's Baſon Card. Fullon. Sylv.
Shell Concha Venerea
Veratrum Helleborus Albus
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Verbaſina Bidens
Verbena Femina Eryſimum
Verbeſina Bidens
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Lavenia ib.
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Veronica Aquatica Becabunga
Form. Elatine
Verſicaria Vulg. Alkekengi
Veſiccatorium Cataplaſma
Vervain (Common) Verbena
Vetch Vicia
(Bitter) Ervum
(Portugal Baſtard Milk) ib.
(Silk) ib.
(Chickling) ib.
(Hatchet) ib.
(Horſhoe) Ferrum Equinum
Vetch (Liquorice) { Glaux Vulg. Leguminoſa
(Crimſon Graſs) Niſſolia
(Cockſhead) Onobrychis
(Milk) Polygala Vera
Veronica Caryophyllus Ruber
Cordi Betonica
Vetti Tali Amvetti
Victorialis Ophioſcordon
Vidamaram Sebeſten
Vincetoxicum Aſclepias
Vine (Wild) { Brionia Alba & Pareira Brava
(Black) Brionia Nigra
(Chironian) Brionia Nigra
Vineflower Oenanthe
Vinegar Acetum
Diſtilled Acetum Diſtillatum
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Benedictum ib.
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Croceum Crocus
Chalybeatum Ferrum
Ipecacuanha Ipecacuhana
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Viperinum Vipera
Hippocraticum Claretum
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Mariana Cervicaria
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Vipeba Caſſada
Viper Vipera
Vipera Indica Cobra de Capello
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Viperaria Scorzonera
Viperina Serpentaria Virginiana
Virga Aurea Major { Doria & Elichryſum Card. Fullon. Sylv. Coniza Maſ. Th.
Paſtoris Maj. Card. Fullon. Sylv.
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Viſcaria Muſcipula
Viſnago Minor Apium
Vita Propoſita Epitedeuma
Vitæ Affectiones ib.
Vitex Agnus Caſtus
Vitiligo Alphus
Vitis Alba Brionia Alba
Idæa Paluſtris Oxycoccus
Vitriaria Parietaria
Vitriolum Abortivum Ochra
Vitta Pileus
Vociferation Anaphonеſis
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Volatica Lichen
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Vomic Nut Nux Virginiana
Vomica Abſceſs of the Lungs
Liquoris Æterni Argent. Vivum
Vomiting Vomitus
Blood Hæmatemeſis
Vulvaria Atriplex Fœtida

W

Wadt Plumbum Nigrum
Wake Robin Arum
Wall-flower
(Common Yellow) Cheiri
Wallnut Juglans
Jamaica Hura
Wallpennywort Cotyledon
Wall-wort Ebulus
Walking Ambulatio
Warnelia Hura
Wart Condyloma Verucca
Penſile Acrochordon
a Rough Broad Acrothymion
Wartwort Tithymalus Helioſc.
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Water Aqua
Hungary Roſmarinus
A Subſtitute for Abies
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Bitter Purging } Aquæ Cath. Amaræ
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(Sperma Cæti) Triticum
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Xantolina
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Graſs Triquetra Oſſa
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X

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Flavum Lignum
Santonicum
Gladiolus

Xiphoides Enſiformis
Xitoma Capolin, &c.
Xylobalſamum Balſamum
Xylo Caſſia Caſſia Lignea
Xylon Bombax
Xyris Iris Fœtida

Y

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Yaws Framboſia
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Yew-tree Taxus
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Z

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Zaffer Cobaltum
Zahafaran Crocus
Zagu Palma Japonica
Zail Borozail
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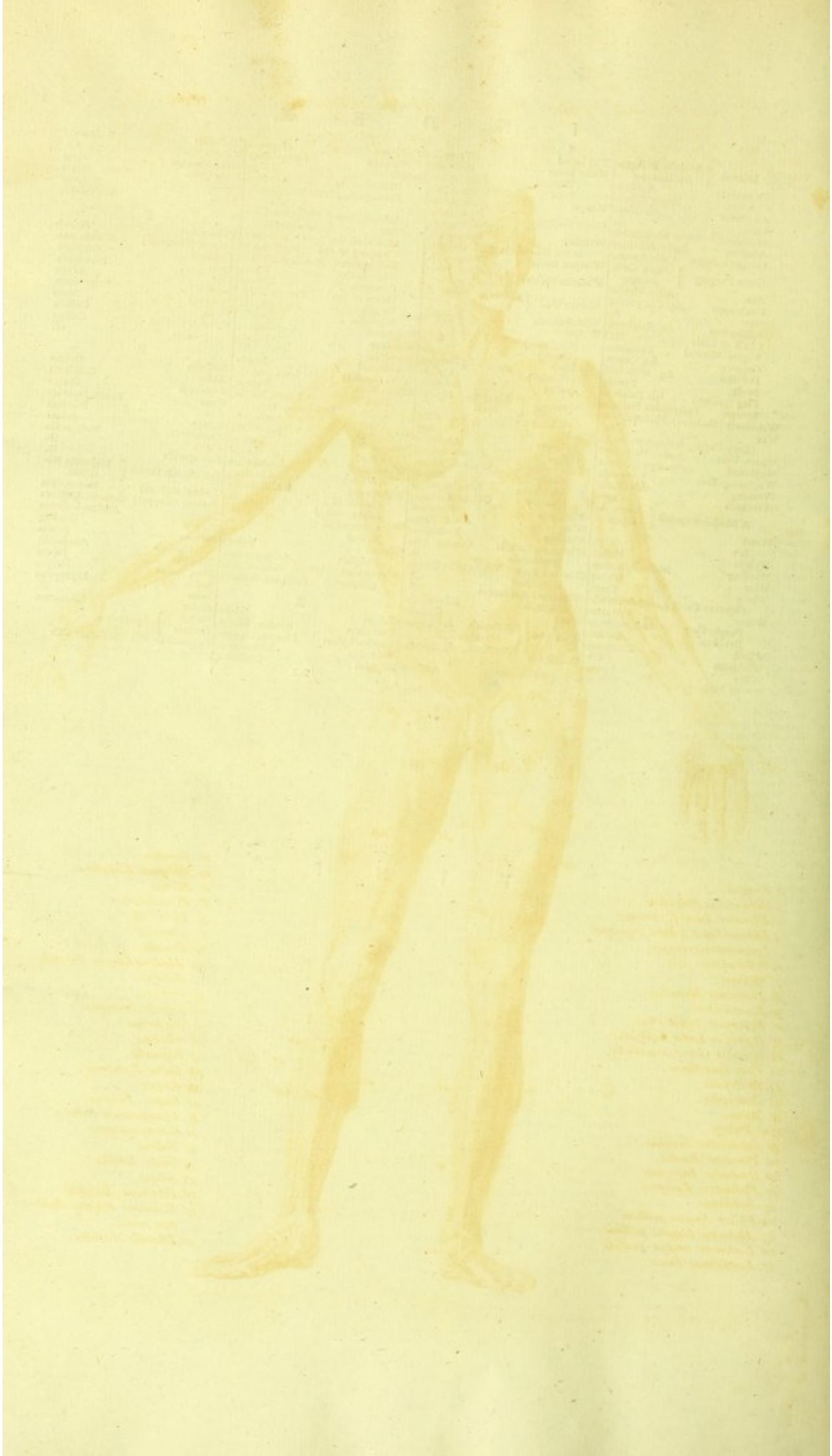
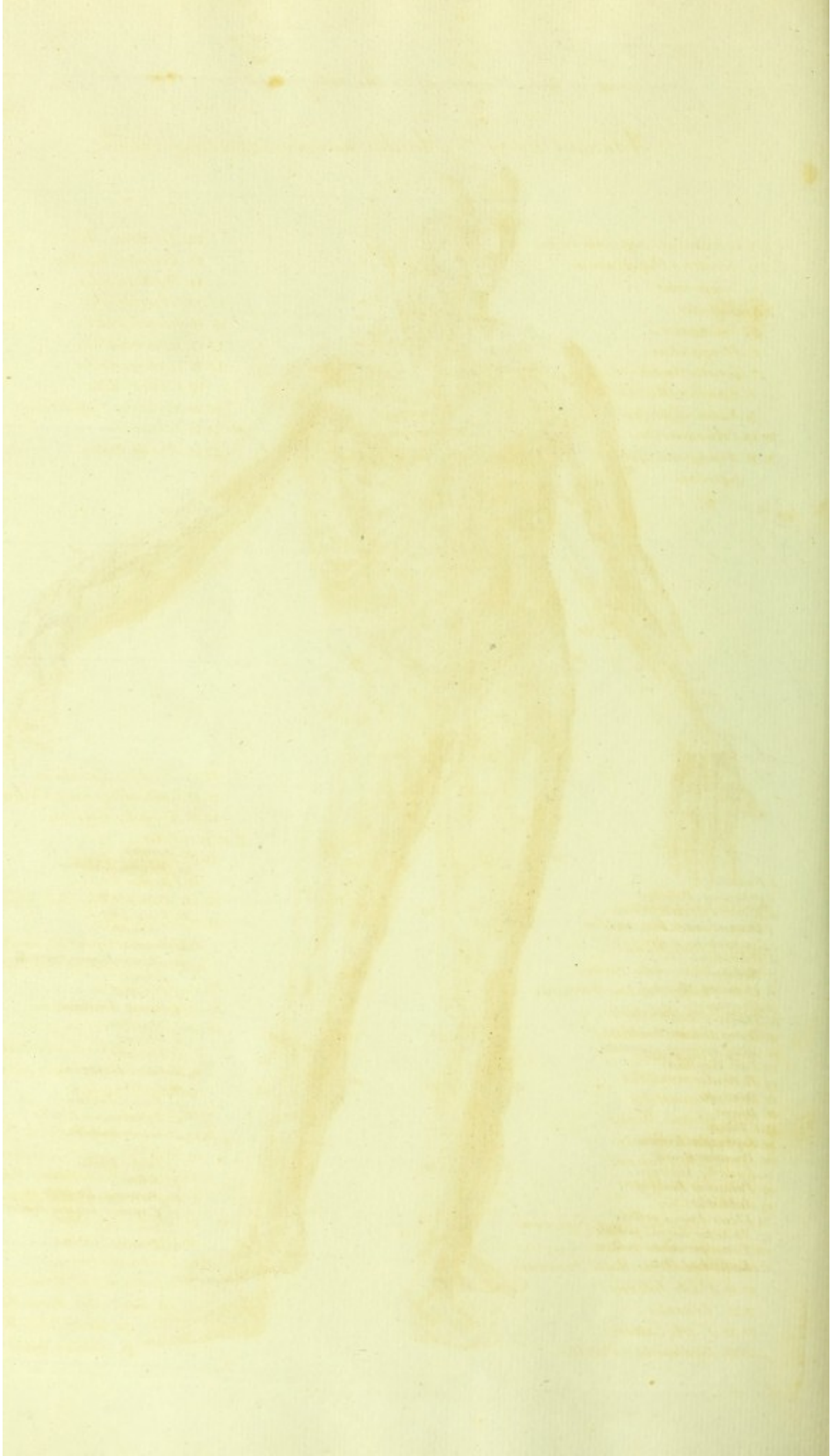
Zingin Jujuba
Zizipha Azedarach
Candida Jujuba
Ziziphus Herpes
Zona Aurea Eryſypelas
Zoſter ib.
Zona Saccharum
Zozar
Zuchar } Saccharum
Zuccara
Zygomatica Oſſa Malarum Oſſa

FINIS.

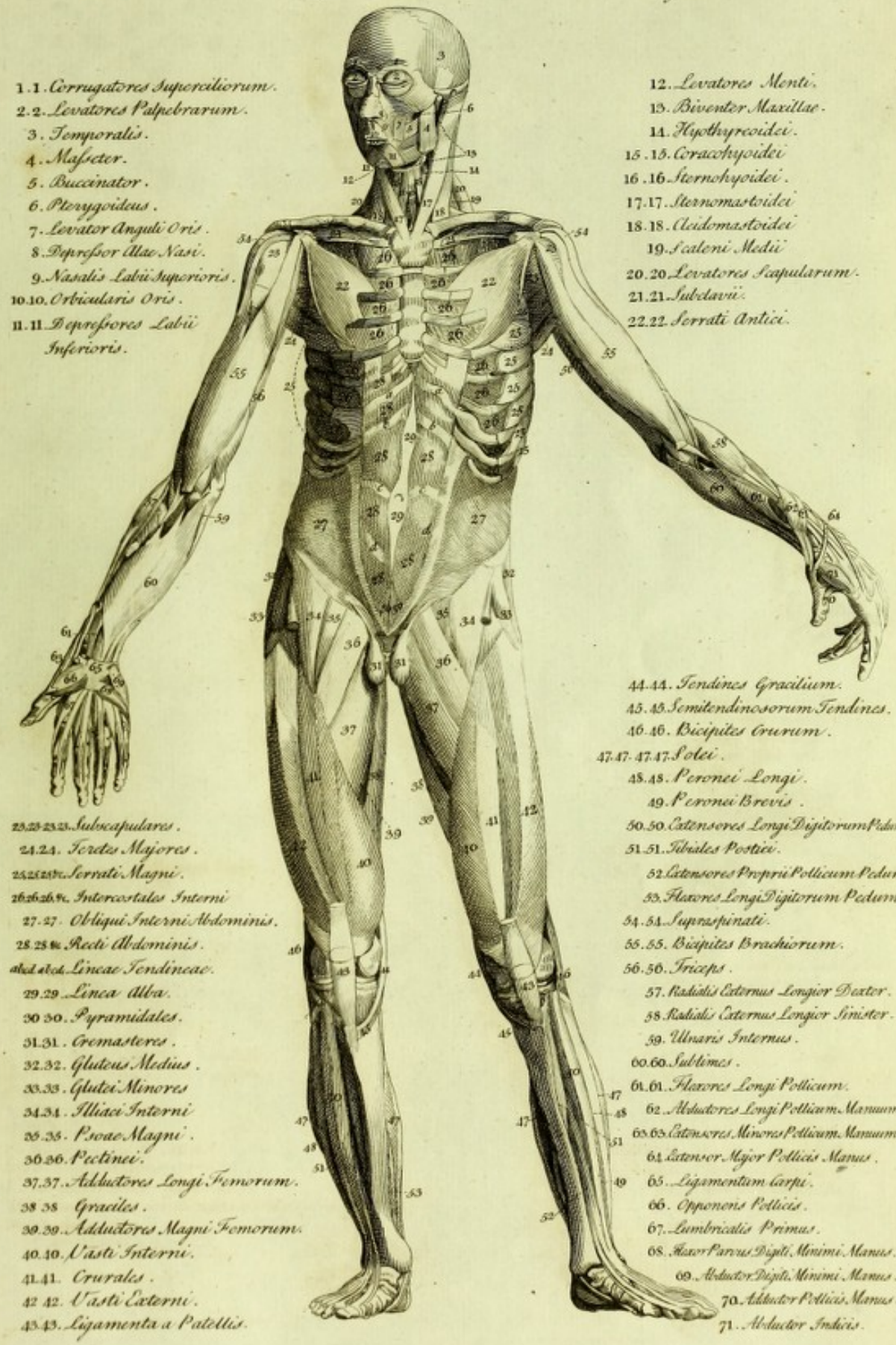


A front view of the Muscles, after the integuments are removed.

1. *Frontalis.*
2. *Orbicularis Palpebrae.*
3. *Elevator Auris Externus.*
4. *Elevator Naris & labii superior.*
5. *Zygomaticus major.*
6. *Orbicularis oris.*
7. *Maseter.*
8. *Platisma Myoides.*
9. *Buccinator.*
10. *Depressor Anguli Oris.*
11. *Depressor Labii Inferioris.*
12. *Sterno & Cleino mastoidei.*
13. *Pars Cucullaris.*
14. *Deltoides.*
15. *Pectoralis.*
16. *Biceps.*
17. 18. *Triceps.*
19. *Supinator Longus.*
20. *Pronator Radii.*
21. *Radialis Internus.*
22. *Palmaris Longus.*
23. *Sublimis.*
24. *Flexor longus pollicis.*
25. *Abductor longus pollicis.*
26. *Extensor minor pollicis.*
27. *Latissimus Dorsi.*
28. *Serratus.*
29. *Obliquus Externus.*
a. *Rectus.*
b. *Pyramidalis.*
30. *Linea Alba.*
c. *Cremaster.*
31. *Gracilis.*
32. *Adductor longus, tricipitis femoris.*
33. *Pectineus.*
34. *Iliacus Internus.*
35. *Sartorius.*
36. *Gluteus.*
37. *Fascialis.*
38. *Vastus Externus.*
39. *Rectus.*
40. *Vastus Internus.*
41. *Ligamentum Patellae.*
42. *Gastrocnemius.*
43. *Soleus.*
44. *Tendo Achillis.*
45. *Soleus.*
46. *Peroneus Longus.*
47. *Extensor longus digitorum pedis.*
48. *Tibialis Anticus.*



A Second View of the Muscles; those above them being removed.

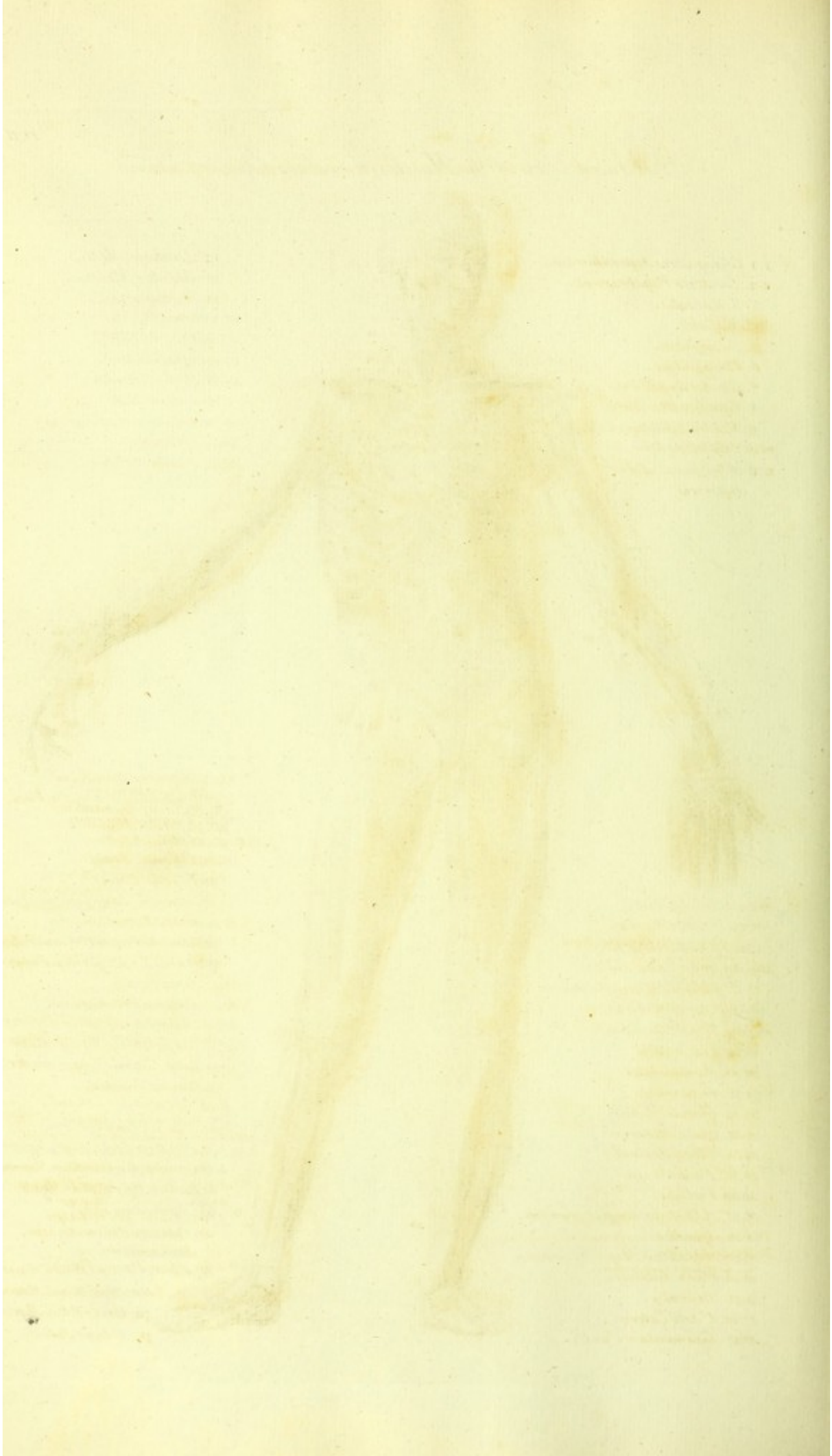


1.1. *Corrugatores Superciliorum.*
2.2. *Levatores Palpebrarum.*
3. *Temporalis.*
4. *Masseter.*
5. *Buccinator.*
6. *Pterygoideus.*
7. *Levator Anguli Oris.*
8. *Depressor Alae Nasi.*
9. *Nasalis Labii Superioris.*
10.10. *Orbicularis Oris.*
11.11. *Depressores Labii Inferioris.*

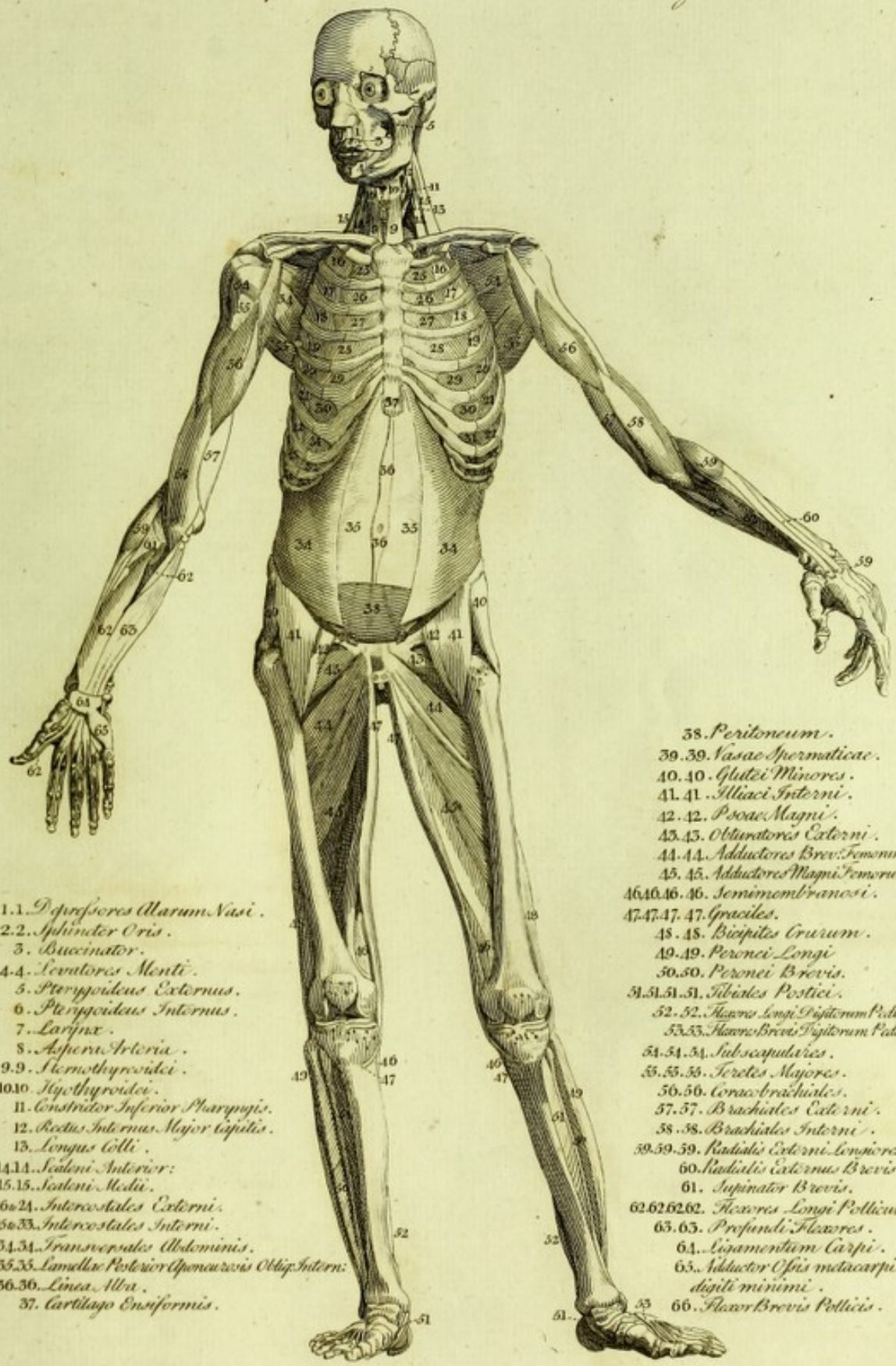
12. *Levatores Menti.*
13. *Biventer Maxillae.*
14. *Hyothyreoidei.*
15.15. *Coracohyoidei*
16.16. *Sternohyoidei.*
17.17. *Sternomastoidei*
18.18. *Acidomastoidei*
19. *Scaleni Medii*
20.20. *Levatores Scapularum.*
21.21. *Subclavii.*
22.22. *Serrati Antici.*

23.23-23.23. *Subscapulares.*
24.24. *Teretes Majores.*
25.25-25.25. *Serrati Magni.*
26.26-26.26. *Intercostales Interni*
27.27. *Obliqui Interni Abdominis.*
28.28. *Recti Abdominis.*
28.28. *Lineae Tendineae.*
29.29. *Linea Alba.*
30.30. *Pyramidales.*
31.31. *Cremasteres.*
32.32. *Gluteus Medius.*
33.33. *Glutei Minores*
34.34. *Iliaci Interni*
35.35. *Psoae Magni.*
36.36. *Pectinei.*
37.37. *Adductores Longi Femorum.*
38.38. *Graciles.*
39.39. *Adductores Magni Femorum.*
40.40. *Vasti Interni.*
41.41. *Crurales.*
42.42. *Vasti Externi.*
43.43. *Ligamenta a Patellis.*

44.44. *Tendines Gracilium.*
45.45. *Semitendinosorum Tendines.*
46.46. *Bicipites Cruerum.*
47.47-47.47. *Solei.*
48.48. *Peronei Longi.*
49. *Peronei Brevis.*
50.50. *Extensores Longi Digitorum Pedum*
51.51. *Tibiales Postici.*
52. *Extensores Proprii Pollicum Pedum*
53. *Flexores Longi Digitorum Pedum.*
54.54. *Supraspinati.*
55.55. *Bicipites Brachiorum.*
56.56. *Triceps.*
57. *Radialis Externus Longior Dexter.*
58. *Radialis Externus Longior Sinister.*
59. *Ulnaris Internus.*
60.60. *Sublimes.*
61.61. *Flexores Longi Pollicum.*
62. *Abductores Longi Pollicum Manuum.*
63.63. *Extensores Minores Pollicum Manuum.*
64. *Extensor Major Pollicis Manus.*
65. *Ligamentum Carpi.*
66. *Opponens Pollicis.*
67. *Lumbricalis Primus.*
68. *Flexor Parvus Digiti Minimi Manus.*
69. *Abductor Digiti Minimi Manus.*
70. *Adductor Pollicis Manus.*
71. *Abductor Indicis.*

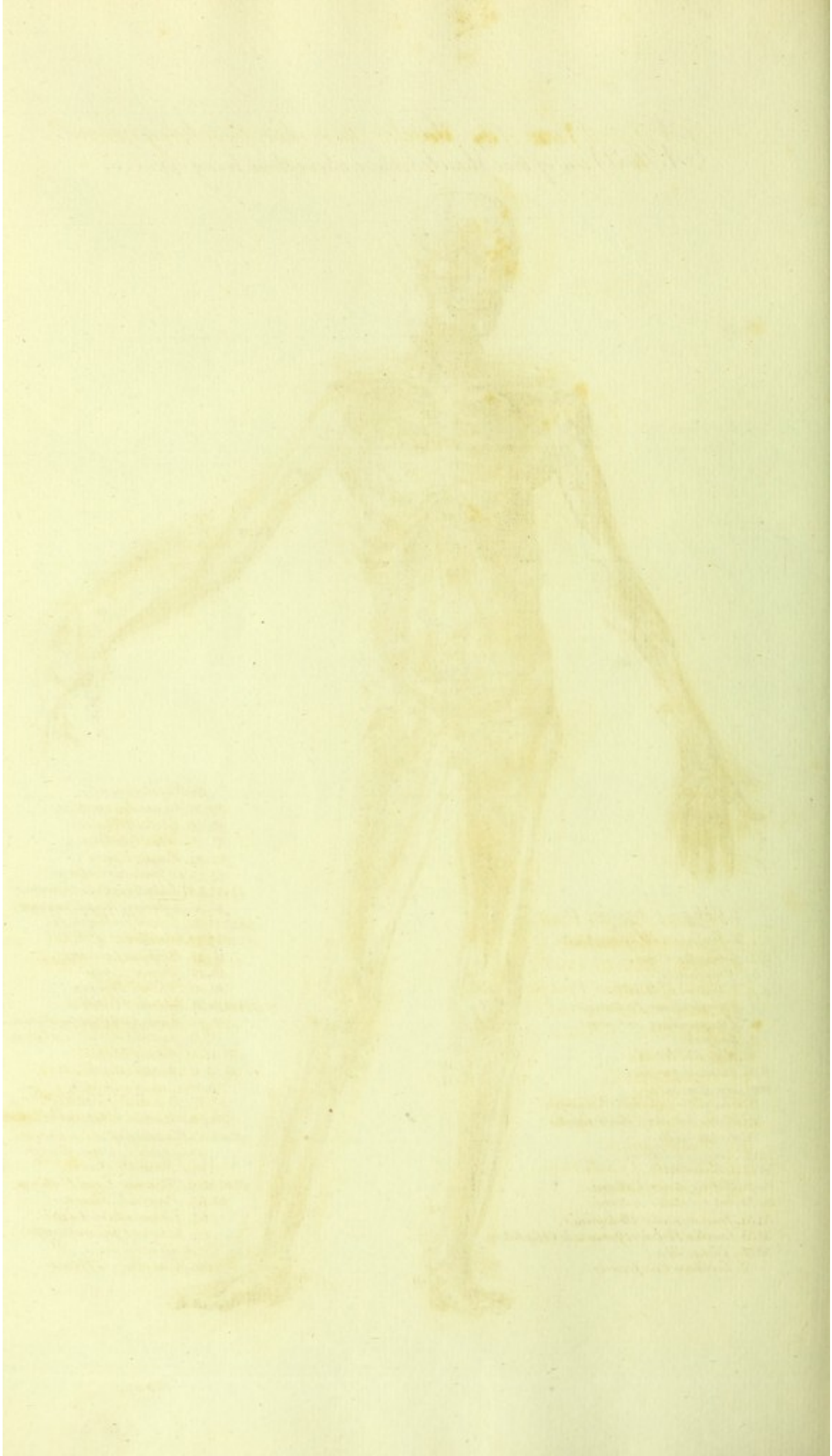


A Third View of the Muscles; those above them being removed.

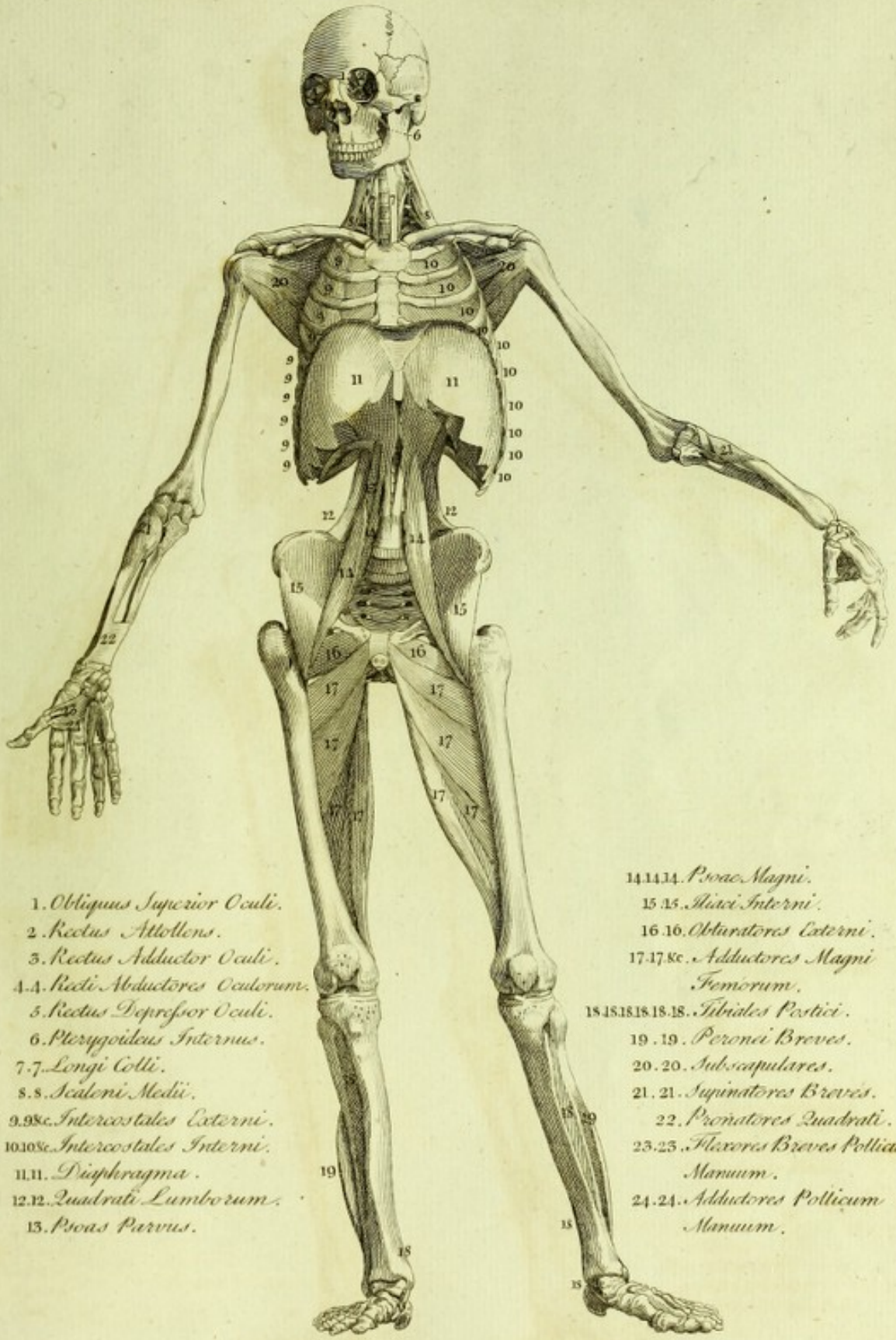


1.1. *Depressores Alarum Nasi.*
2.2. *Sphincter Oris.*
3. *Buccinator.*
4.4. *Levatores Menti.*
5. *Pterygoideus Externus.*
6. *Pterygoideus Internus.*
7. *Larynx.*
8. *Aspera Arteria.*
9.9. *Sternothyroidei.*
10.10. *Hyothyroidei.*
11. *Constrictor Inferior Pharyngis.*
12. *Rectus Internus Major Capitis.*
13. *Longus Colli.*
14.14. *Scaleni Anteriores.*
15.15. *Scaleni Medii.*
16 to 24. *Intercostales Externi.*
25 to 33. *Intercostales Interni.*
34.34. *Transversales Abdominis.*
35.35. *Lamellæ Posterior Aponeurosis Obliq. Intern.*
36.36. *Linea Alba.*
37. *Cartilago Ensiformis.*

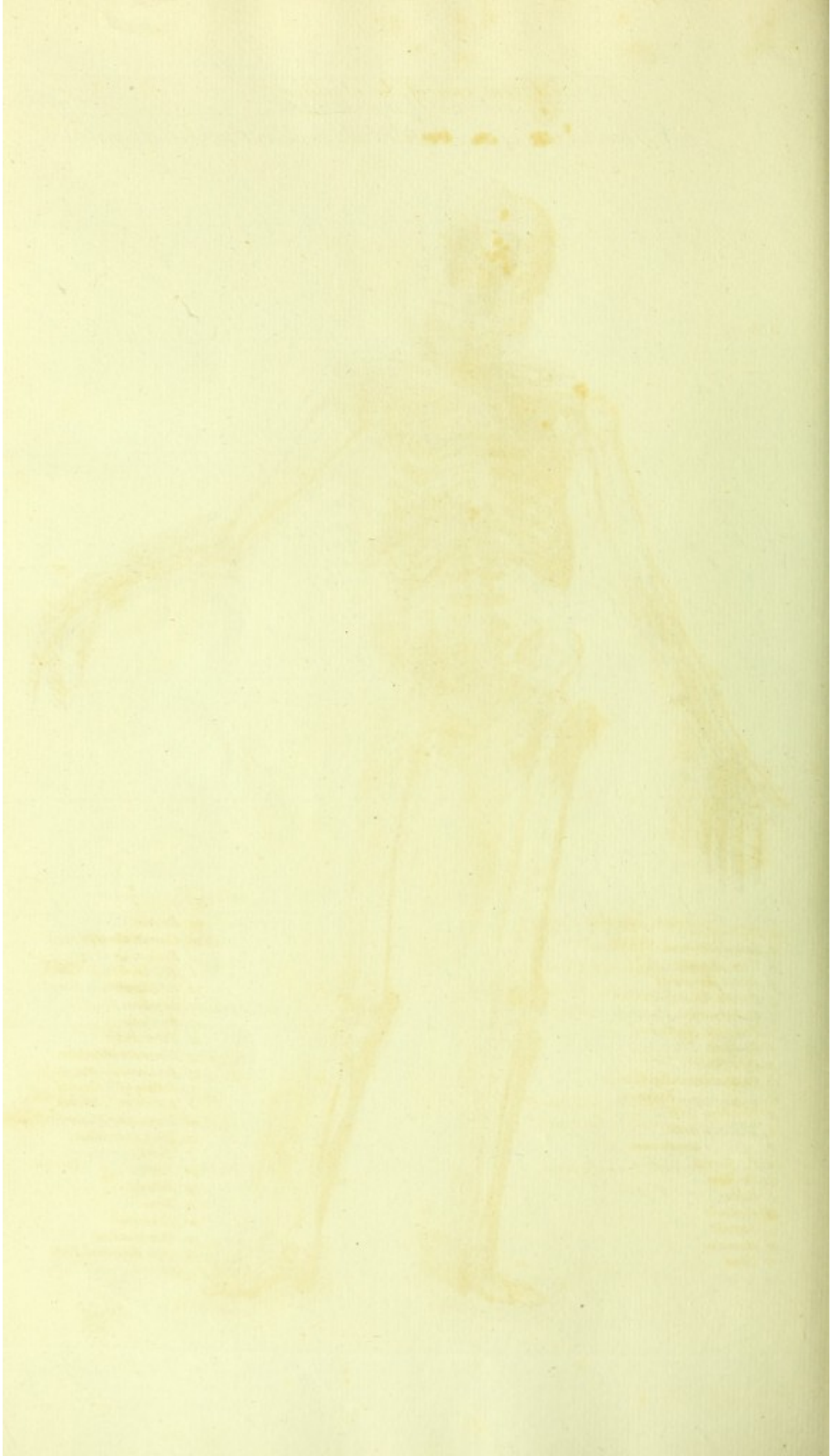
38. *Peritoneum.*
39.39. *Vasa Spermatica.*
40.40. *Glutei Minores.*
41.41. *Iliaci Interni.*
42.42. *Psoae Magni.*
43.43. *Obturatores Externi.*
44.44. *Adductores Brev. Femorum.*
45.45. *Adductores Magni Femorum.*
46.46.46.46. *Semimembranosi.*
47.47.47.47. *Graciles.*
48.48. *Bicipites Crurum.*
49.49. *Peronei Longi*
50.50. *Peronei Brevis.*
51.51.51.51. *Tibiales Postici.*
52.52. *Flexores Longi Digitorum Pedum.*
53.53. *Flexores Brevi Digitorum Pedum.*
54.54.54. *Subscapulares.*
55.55.55. *Teretes Majores.*
56.56. *Coracobrachiales.*
57.57. *Brachiales Externi.*
58.58. *Brachiales Interni.*
59.59.59. *Radiales Externi Longiores.*
60. *Radialis Externus Brevis.*
61. *Supinator Brevis.*
62.62.62.62. *Flexores Longi Pollicum*
63.63. *Profundi Flexores.*
64. *Ligamentum Carpi.*
65. *Adductor Ossis metacarpi digiti minimi.*
66. *Flexor Brevis Pollicis.*

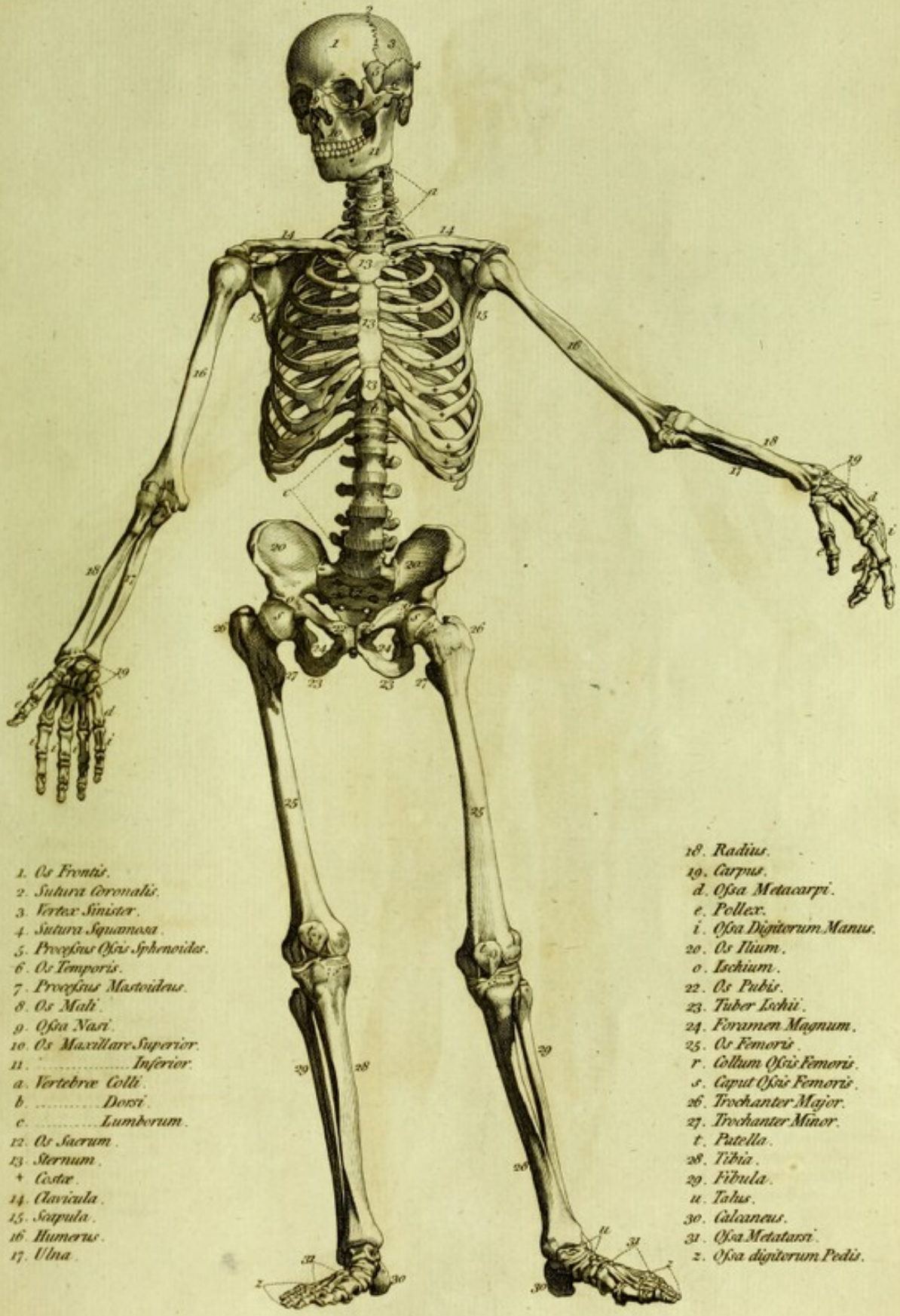


A Fourth View of the Muscles; those above them being removed.

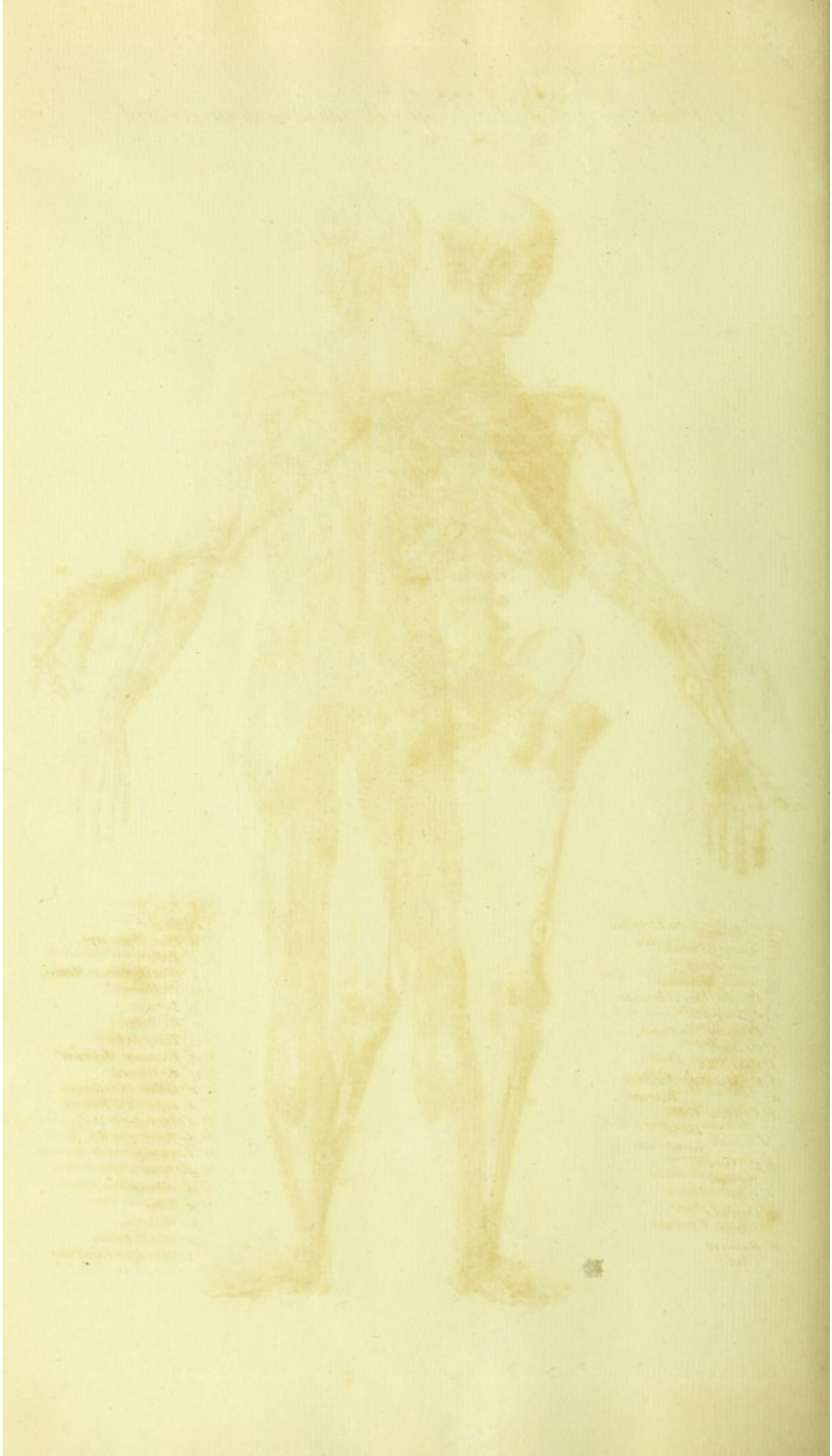


1. Obliquus Superior Oculi.
2. Rectus Attollens.
3. Rectus Adductor Oculi.
4.4. Recti Abductores Oculorum.
5. Rectus Depressor Oculi.
6. Pterygoideus Internus.
7.7. Longi Colli.
8.8. Scaleni Medii.
9.9&c. Intercostales Externi.
10.10&c. Intercostales Interni.
11.11. Diaphragma.
12.12. Quadrati Lumborum.
13. Psoas Parvus.
14.14.14. Psoae Magni.
15.15. Iliaci Interni.
16.16. Obturatores Externi.
17.17.&c. Adductores Magni Femorum.
18.18.18.18.18.18. Tibiales Postici.
19.19. Peronei Breves.
20.20. Subscapulares.
21.21. Supinatores Breves.
22. Pronatores Quadrati.
23.23. Flexores Breves Pollicum Manuum.
24.24. Adductores Pollicum Manuum.

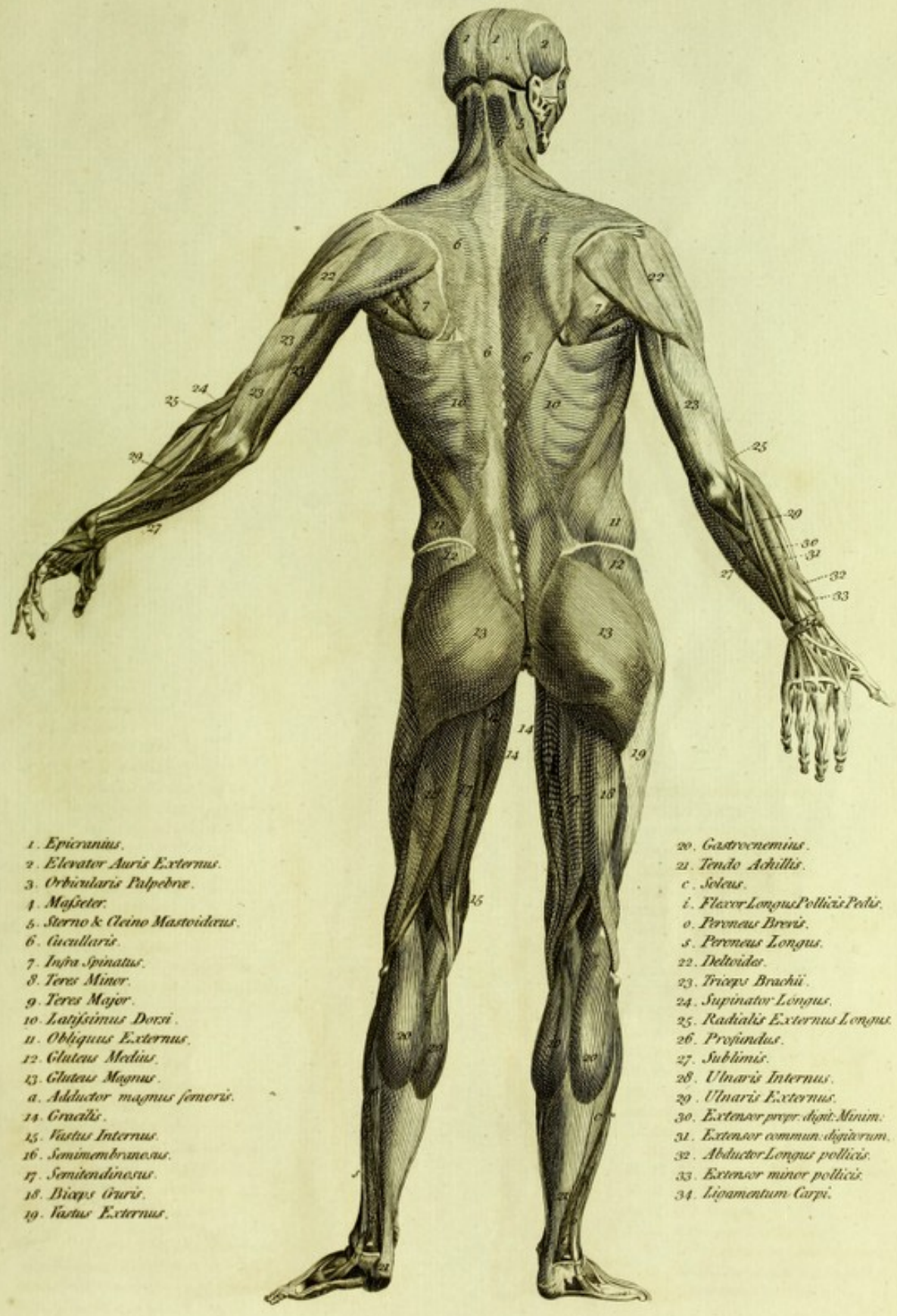




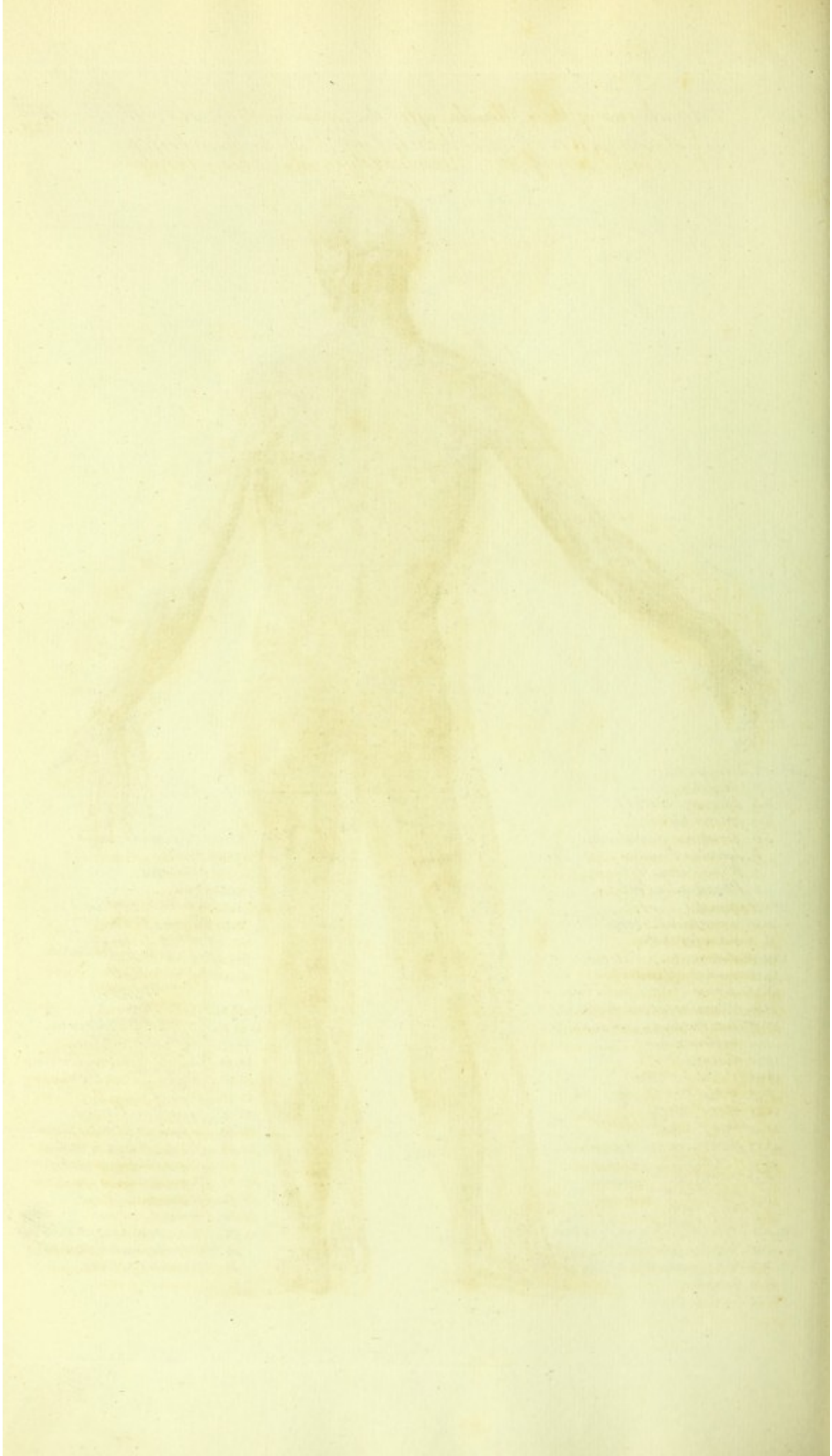
1. *Os Frontis.*
2. *Sutura Coronalis.*
3. *Vertex Sinister.*
4. *Sutura Squamosa.*
5. *Proceſſus Oſsis Sphenoides.*
6. *Os Temporis.*
7. *Proceſſus Mastoideus.*
8. *Os Mali.*
9. *Oſsa Nasi.*
10. *Os Maxillare Superior.*
11. ..... *Inferior.*
a. *Vertebræ Colli.*
b. ..... *Dorsi.*
c. ..... *Lumborum.*
12. *Os Sacrum.*
13. *Sternum.*
* *Costæ.*
14. *Clavicula.*
15. *Scapula.*
16. *Humerus.*
17. *Ulna.*
18. *Radius.*
19. *Carpus.*
d. *Oſsa Metacarpi.*
e. *Pollex.*
i. *Oſsa Digiterum Manus.*
20. *Os Ilium.*
o. *Ischium.*
22. *Os Pubis.*
23. *Tuber Ischii.*
24. *Foramen Magnum.*
25. *Os Femoris.*
r. *Collum Oſsis Femoris.*
s. *Caput Oſsis Femoris.*
26. *Trochanter Major.*
27. *Trochanter Minor.*
t. *Patella.*
28. *Tibia.*
29. *Fibula.*
u. *Talus.*
30. *Calcaneus.*
31. *Oſsa Metatarsi.*
z. *Oſsa digiterum Pedis.*



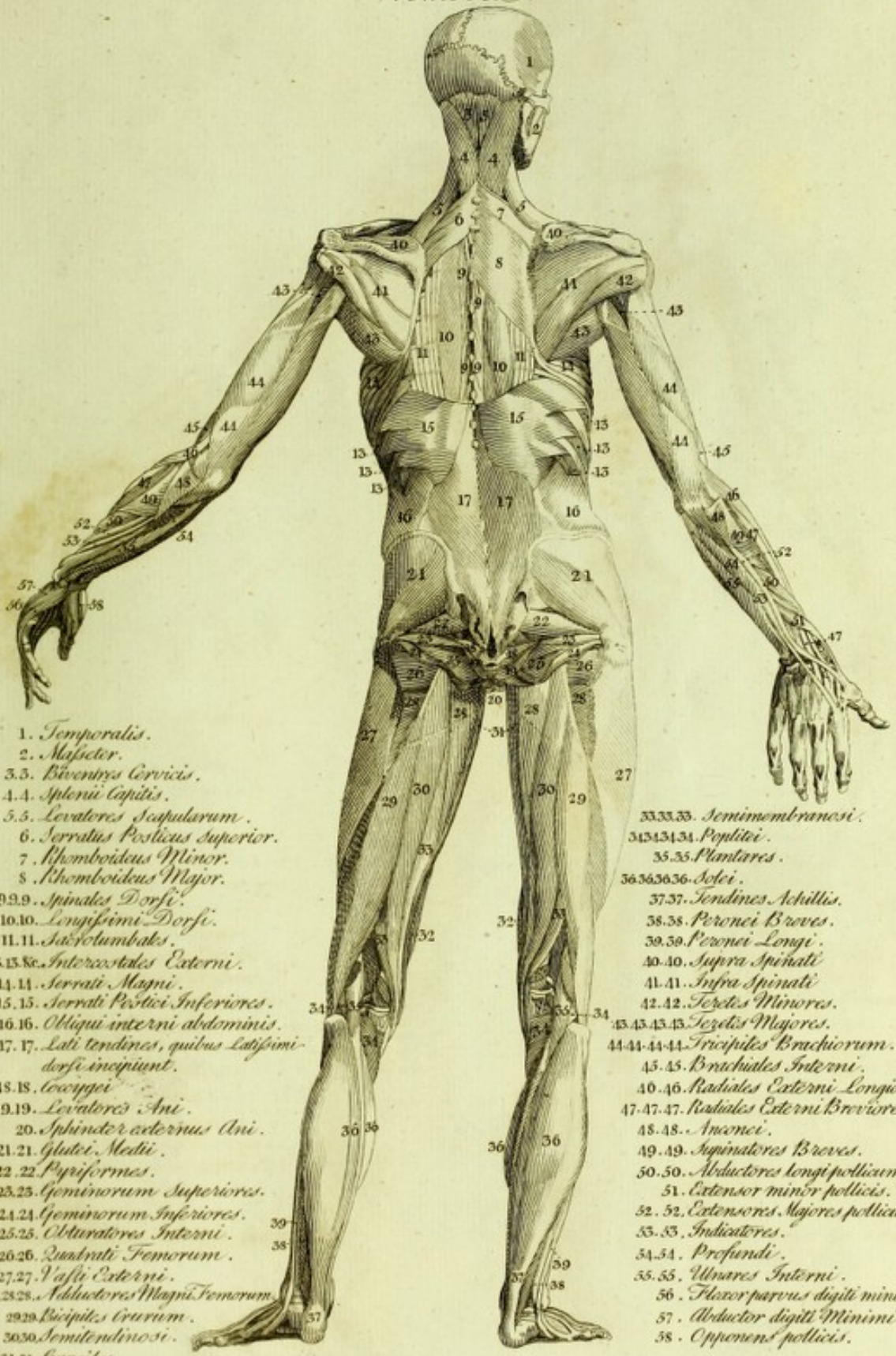
A back view of the Muscles, after the integuments are removed. PLVI.



1. Epicranius.
2. Elevator Auris Externus.
3. Orbicularis Palpebræ.
4. Masseter.
5. Sterno & Cleino Mastoideus.
6. Cucullaris.
7. Infra Spinatus.
8. Teres Minor.
9. Teres Major.
10. Latissimus Dorsi.
11. Obliquus Externus.
12. Gluteus Medius.
13. Gluteus Magnus.
a. Adductor magnus femoris.
14. Gracilis.
15. Vastus Internus.
16. Semimembranosus.
17. Semitendinosus.
18. Biceps Cruris.
19. Vastus Externus.
20. Gastrocnemius.
21. Tendo Achillis.
c. Soleus.
i. Flexor Longus Pollicis Pedis.
o. Peroneus Brevis.
s. Peroneus Longus.
22. Deltoides.
23. Triceps Brachii.
24. Supinator Longus.
25. Radialis Externus Longus.
26. Profundus.
27. Sublimis.
28. Ulnaris Internus.
29. Ulnaris Externus.
30. Extensor propr. digit. Minim.
31. Extensor commun. digitorum.
32. Abductor Longus pollicis.
33. Extensor minor pollicis.
34. Ligamentum Carpi.



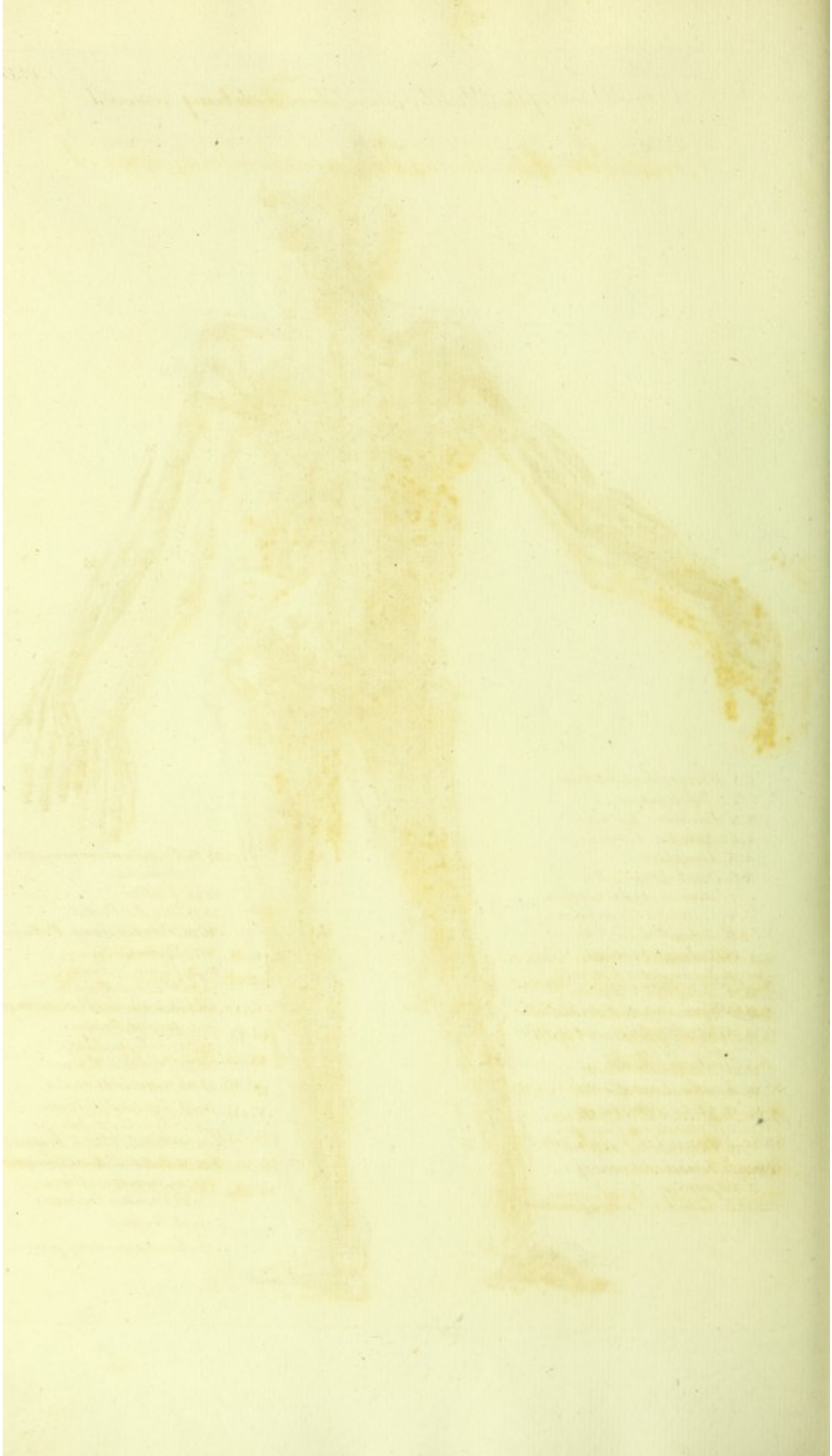
A Second View of the Muscles; those above them being removed.



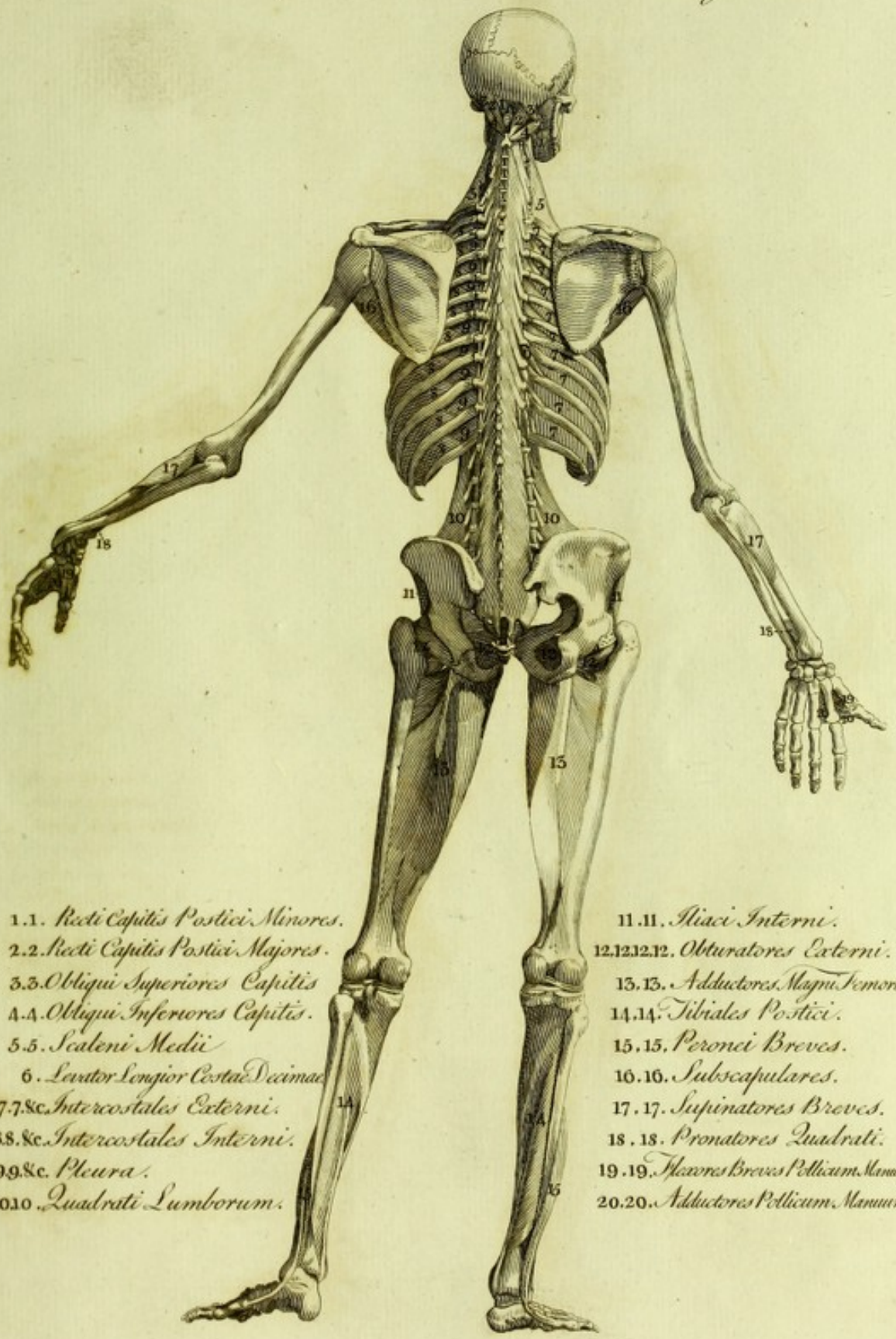
1. Temporalis.
2. Masseter.
3.3. Biventres Cervicis.
4.4. Splenii Capitis.
5.5. Levatores Scapularum.
6. Serratus Posticus superior.
7. Rhomboideus Minor.
8. Rhomboideus Major.
9.9.9.9. Spinales Dorsi.
10.10. Longissimi Dorsi.
11.11. Sacrolumbales.
13.13.&c. Intercostales Externi.
14.14. Serrati Magni.
15.15. Serrati Postici Inferiores.
16.16. Obliqui interni abdominis.
17.17. Lati tendines, quibus Latissimi dorsi incipiunt.
18.18. Coccygei.
19.19. Levatores Ani.
20. Sphincter externus Ani.
21.21. Glutei Medii.
22.22. Pyriformes.
23.23. Geminorum Superiores.
24.24. Geminorum Inferiores.
25.25. Obturatores Interni.
26.26. Quadrati Femorum.
27.27. Vasti Externi.
28.28.28. Adductores Magni Femorum.
29.29. Bicipites Cruris.
30.30. Semitendinosi.
31.31. Gracites.
32.32. Vasti Interni.
33.33.33. Semimembranosi.
34.34.34.34. Poplitei.
35.35. Plantares.
36.36.36.36. Solei.
37.37. Tendines Achillis.
38.38. Peronei Breves.
39.39. Peronei Longi.
40.40. Supra Spinati.
41.41. Infra Spinati.
42.42. Teretes Minores.
43.43.43.43. Teretes Majores.
44.44.44.44. Tricipites Brachiorum.
45.45. Brachiales Interni.
46.46. Radiales Externi Longiores.
47.47.47. Radiales Externi Breviores.
48.48. Anconei.
49.49. Supinatores Breves.
50.50. Abductores longi pollicum.
51. Extensor minor pollicis.
52.52. Extensores Majores pollicum.
53.53. Indicatores.
54.54. Profundi.
55.55. Ulnares Interni.
56. Flexor parvus digiti minimi.
57. Abductor digiti Minimi.
58. Opponens pollicis.

A Third View of the Muscles; those above them being removed.

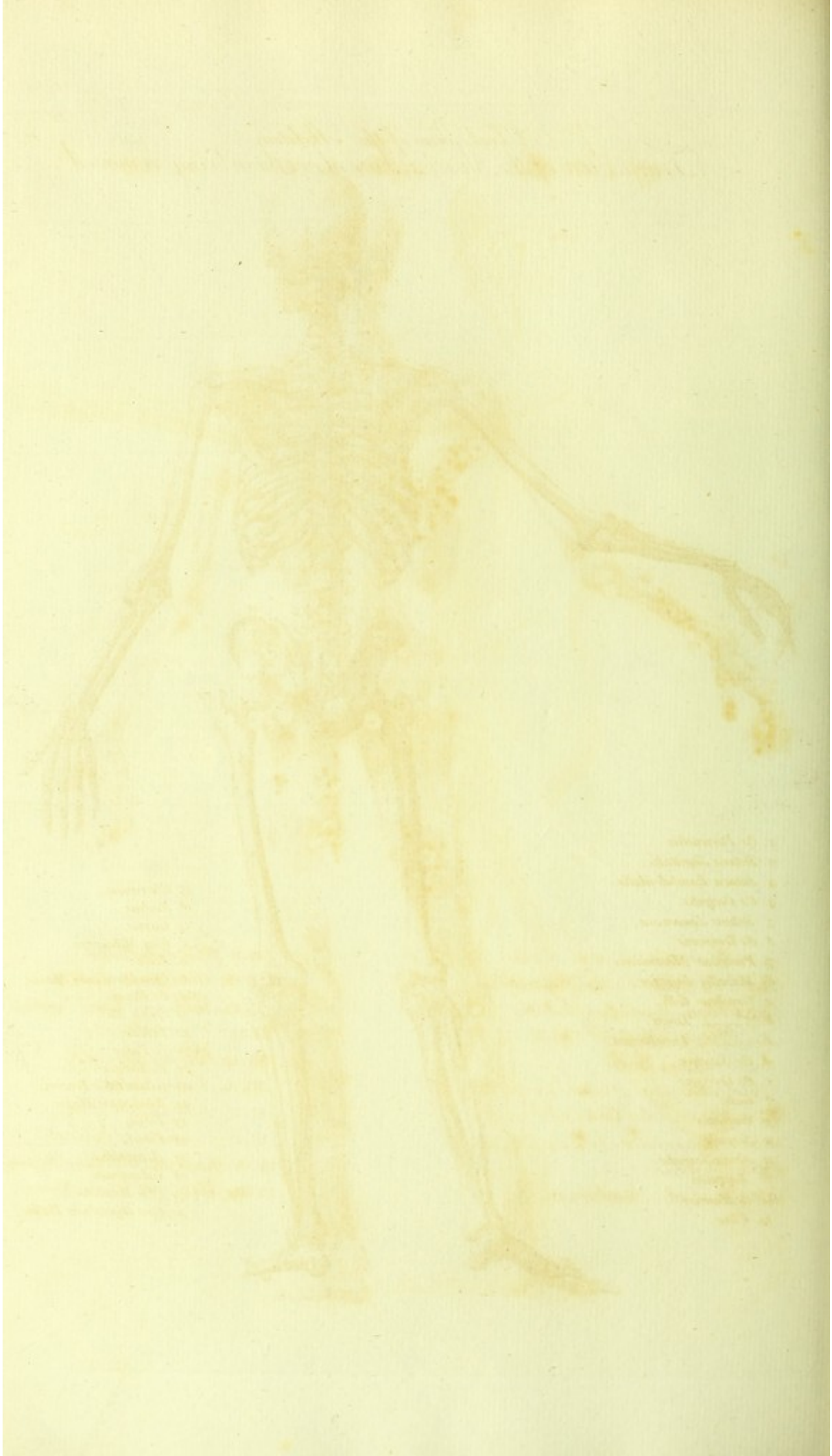
1. *Pterygoideus Internus.*
2. *Mylohyoideus.*
3.3. *Biventres Cervicis.*
4.4. *Spinales Cervicis.*
5.5. *Complexi.*
6.6. *Trachelomastoidei.*
7. *Transversalis Cervicis.*
8. *Cervicalis Descendens.*
9.9. *Scaleni Medii.*
10. *Scalenus Posticus.*
11.11.&c. *Intercostales Externi.*
12.12. *Intecostales Interni.*
13.13. *Transversi Abdominis.*
14.14. *Sacrolumbales cum Longissimis Dorsi.*
15.15. *Longissimi Dorsi.*
16.16. *Sacrolumbales.*
17.17. *Glutei Minores.*
18.18.18. *Obturatores Externi.*
19. *Obturatores Interni.*
20.20.20.20. *Semimembranosi.*
21.21. *Gracites.*
22.22.22.22. *Adductores magni femorum.*
23.23. *Bicipitum cruorum capita breviora.*
24.24. *Poplitei.*
25.25. *Tibiales Postici.*
26.26. *Flexores Longi Pollicum Pedum.*
28.28. *Peronei Longi.*
29.29. *Peronei Breves.*
30.30. *Extensores Breves Digitorum Pedum.*
31.31. *Subscapulares.*
32.32. *Teretes Majores.*
33.33. *Coracobrachiales.*
34.34. *Brachiales Externi.*
35.35. *Brachiales Interni.*
36.36. *Radiales Externi Longiores.*
37.37. *Radiales Externi Breviores.*
38.38. *Supinatores Breves.*
39. *Pronator Quadratus.*
40.40. *Profundi.*
41. *Adductor ossis metacarpi quarti.*



A Fourth View of the Muscles; those above them being removed.

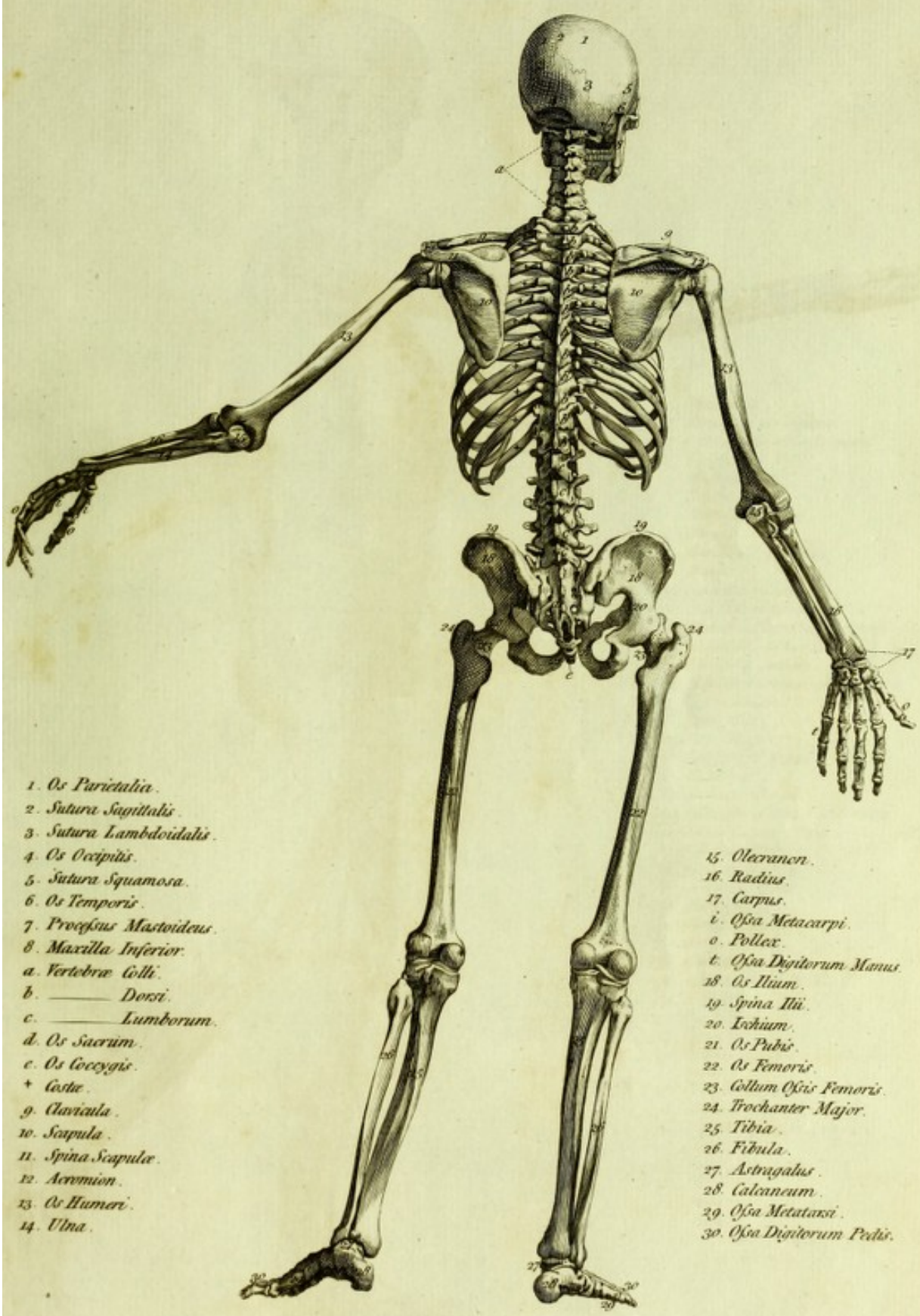


1.1. *Recti Capitis Postici Minores.*
2.2. *Recti Capitis Postici Majores.*
3.3. *Obliqui Superiores Capitis*
4.4. *Obliqui Inferiores Capitis.*
5.5. *Scaleni Medii*
6. *Levator Longior Costæ Decimæ*
7.7.&c. *Intercostales Externi.*
8.8.&c. *Intercostales Interni.*
9.9.&c. *Pleura.*
10.10. *Quadrati Lumborum.*
11.11. *Iliaci Interni.*
12.12.12.12. *Obturatores Externi.*
13.13. *Adductores Magni Femorum.*
14.14. *Tibiales Postici.*
15.15. *Peronei Breves.*
16.16. *Subscapulares.*
17.17. *Supinatores Breves.*
18.18. *Pronatores Quadrati.*
19.19. *Flexores Breves Pollicum Manuum.*
20.20. *Adductores Pollicum Manuum.*



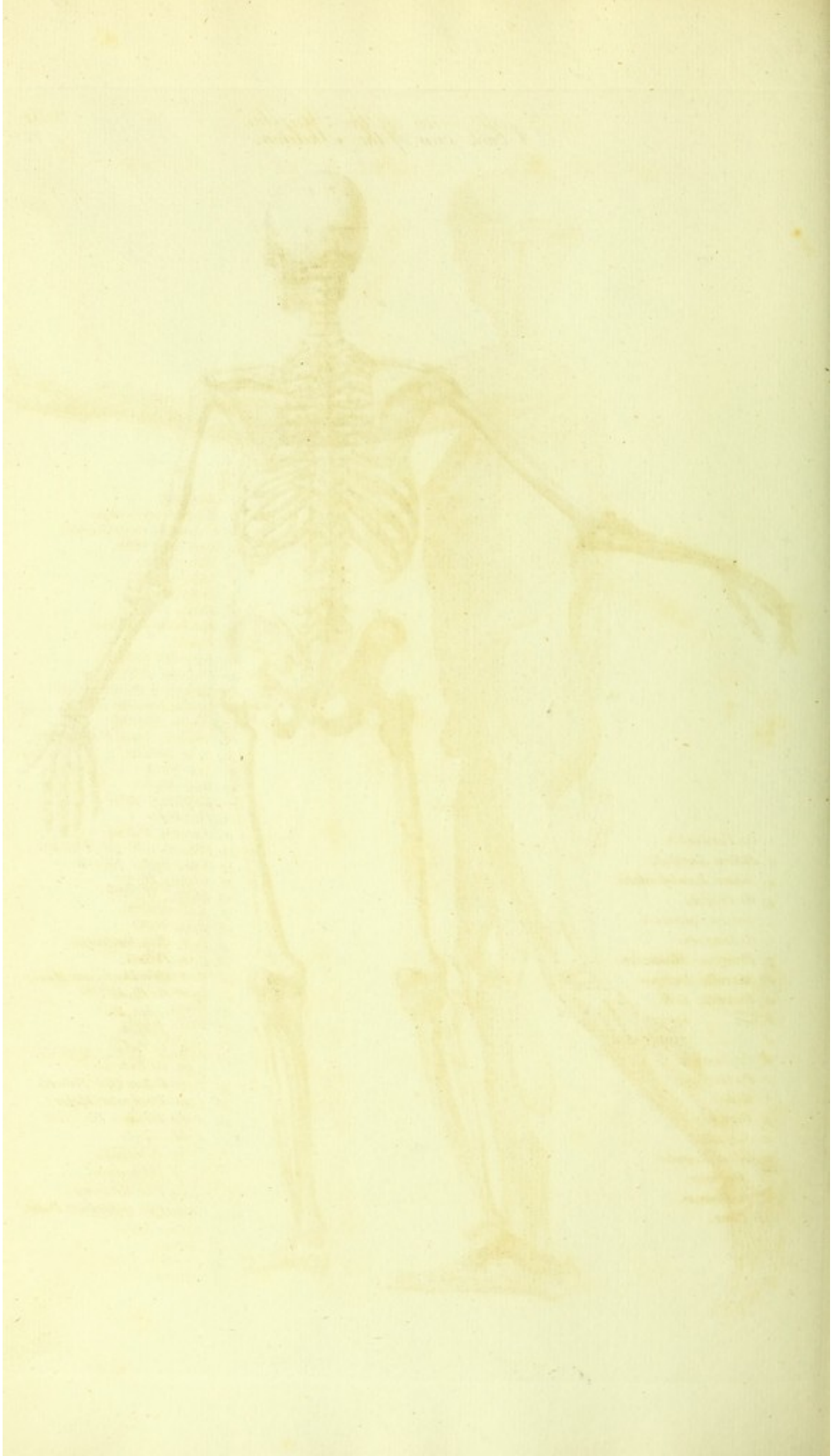
A back view of the Skeleton.

PL X.

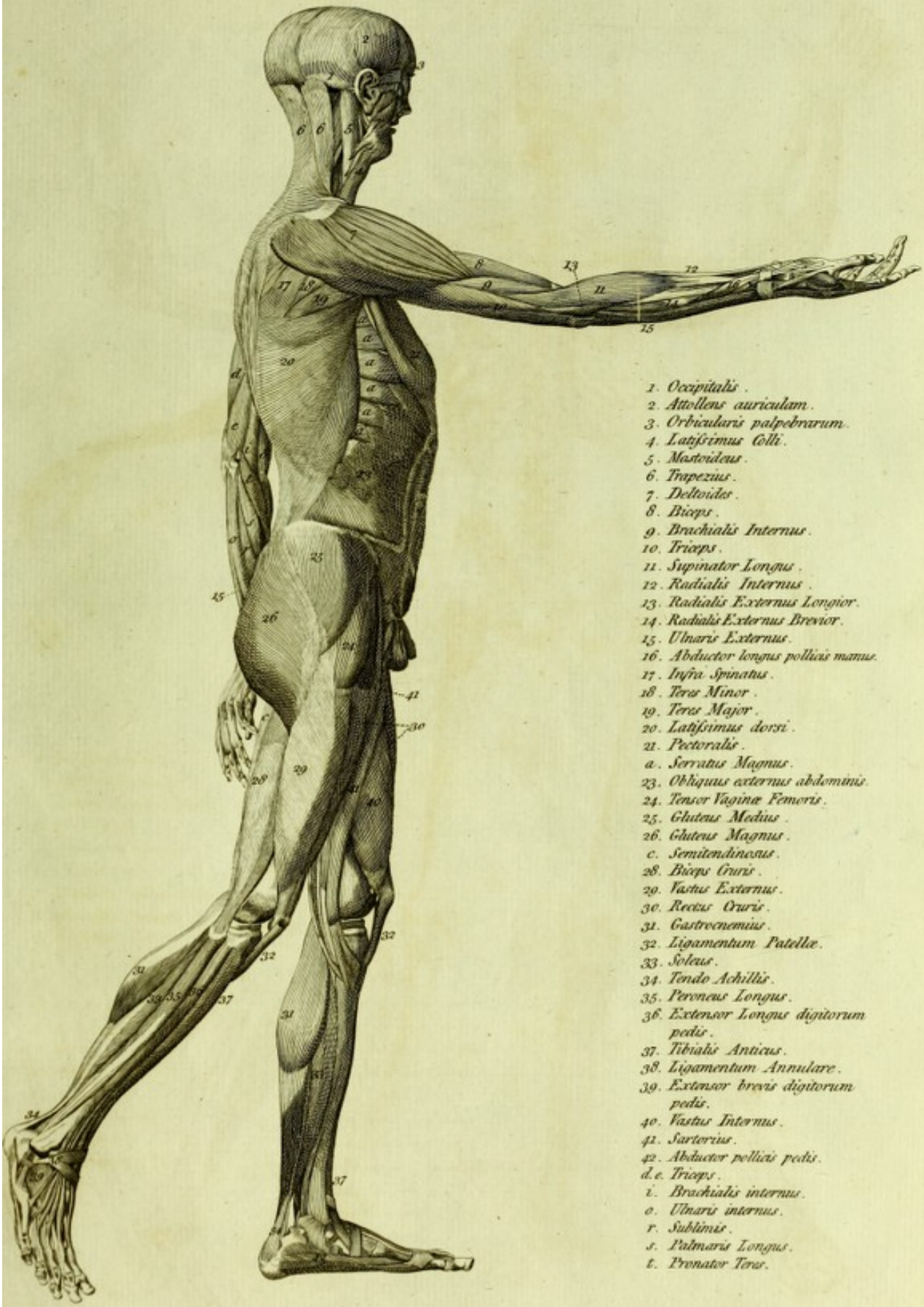


1. Os Parietalia.
2. Sutura Sagittalis.
3. Sutura Lambdoidalis.
4. Os Occipitis.
5. Sutura Squamosa.
6. Os Temporis.
7. Proceſsus Mastoideus.
8. Maxilla Inferior.
a. Vertebræ Colli.
b. ——— Dorsi.
c. ——— Lumborum.
d. Os Sacrum.
e. Os Coccygis.
\+ Costæ.
9. Clavicula.
10. Scapula.
11. Spina Scapulæ.
12. Acromion.
13. Os Humeri.
14. Ulna.

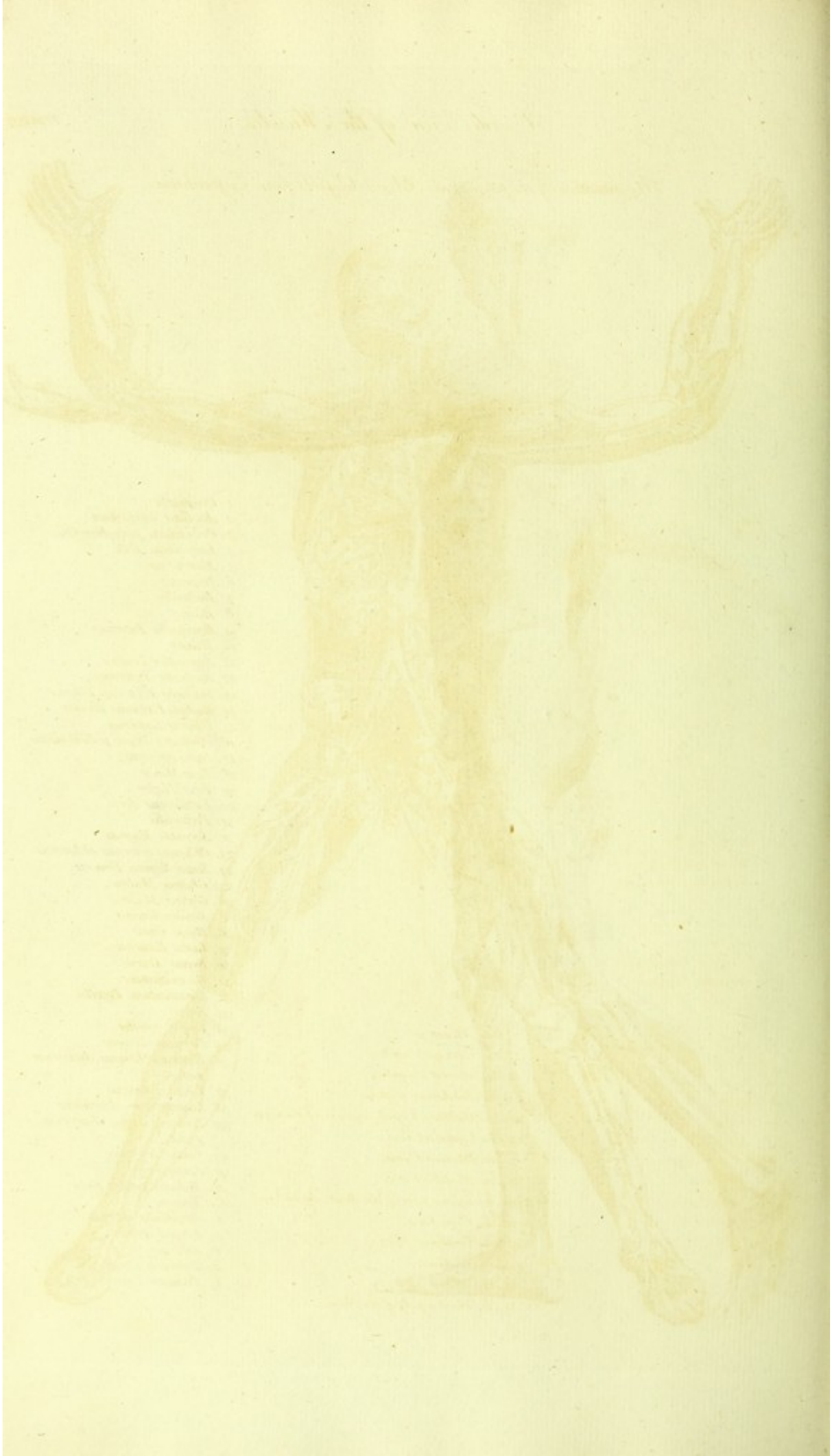
15. Olecranon.
16. Radius.
17. Carpus.
i. Ossa Metacarpi.
o. Pollex.
t. Ossa Digitorum Manus.
18. Os Ilium.
19. Spina Ilii.
20. Ischium.
21. Os Pubis.
22. Os Femoris.
23. Collum Ossis Femoris.
24. Trochanter Major.
25. Tibia.
26. Fibula.
27. Astragalus.
28. Calcaneum.
29. Ossa Metatarsi.
30. Ossa Digitorum Pedis.



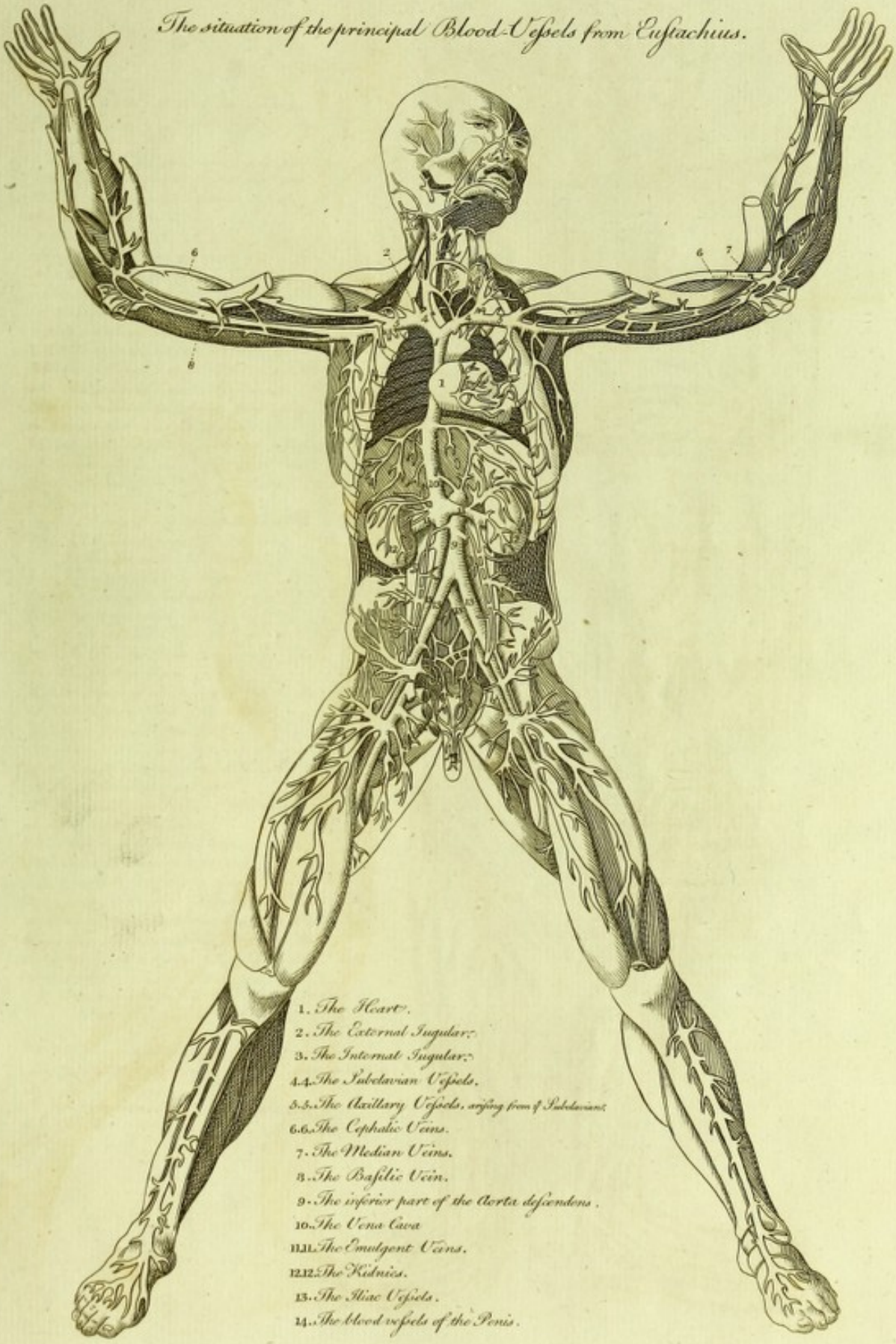
A side view of the Muscles.



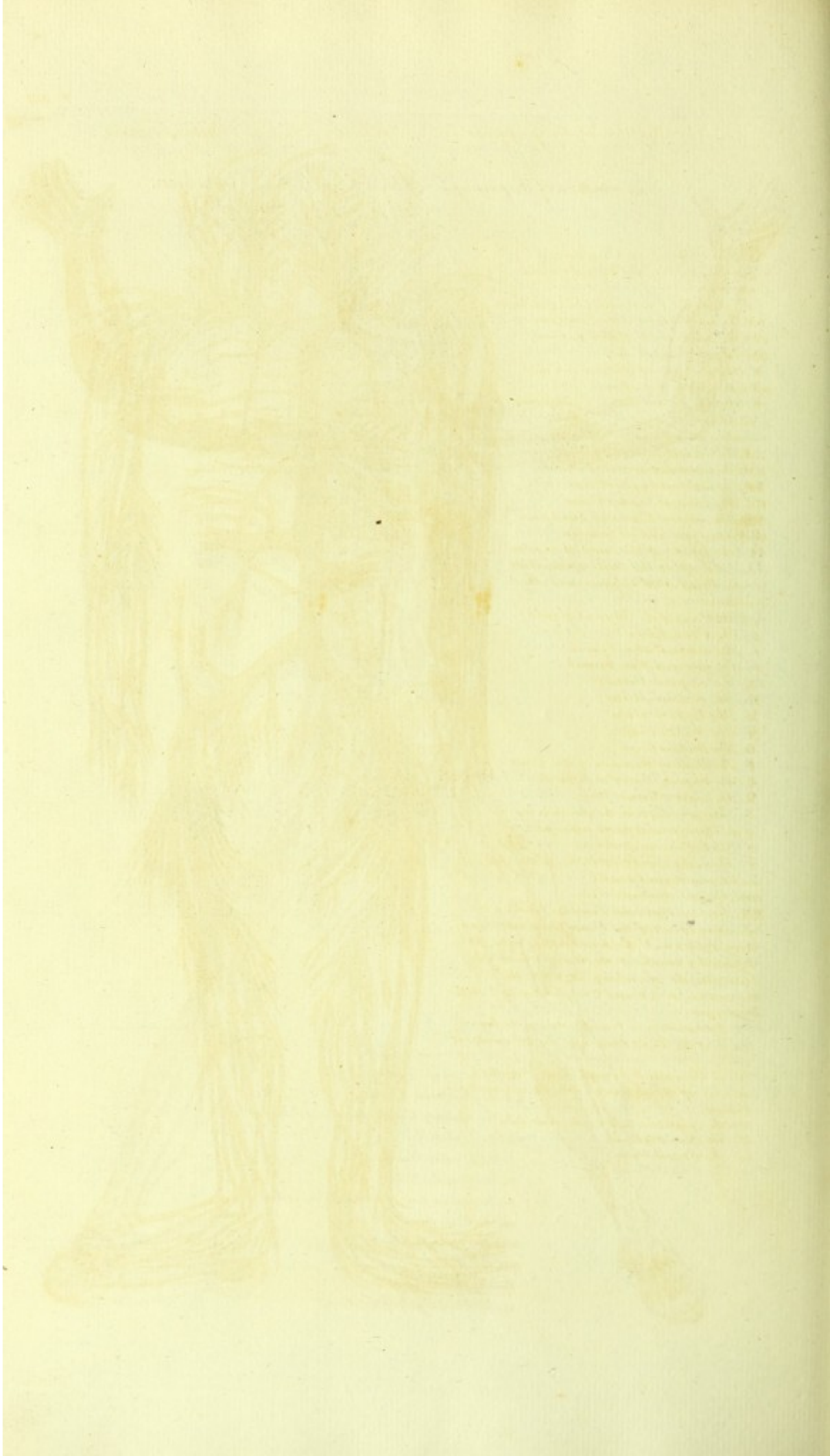
1. Occipitalis.
2. Attollens auriculam.
3. Orbicularis palpebrarum.
4. Latissimus Colli.
5. Mastoideus.
6. Trapezius.
7. Deltoides.
8. Biceps.
9. Brachialis Internus.
10. Triceps.
11. Supinator Longus.
12. Radialis Internus.
13. Radialis Externus Longior.
14. Radialis Externus Brevior.
15. Ulnaris Externus.
16. Abductor longus pollicis manus.
17. Infra Spinatus.
18. Teres Minor.
19. Teres Major.
20. Latissimus dorsi.
21. Pectoralis.
a. Serratus Magnus.
23. Obliquus externus abdominis.
24. Tensor Vaginæ Femoris.
25. Gluteus Medius.
26. Gluteus Magnus.
c. Semitendinosus.
28. Biceps Cruris.
29. Vastus Externus.
30. Rectus Cruris.
31. Gastrocnemius.
32. Ligamentum Patellæ.
33. Soleus.
34. Tendo Achillis.
35. Peroneus Longus.
36. Extensor Longus digitorum pedis.
37. Tibialis Anticus.
38. Ligamentum Annulare.
39. Extensor brevis digitorum pedis.
40. Vastus Internus.
41. Sartorius.
42. Abductor pollicis pedis.
d. e. Triceps.
i. Brachialis internus.
o. Ulnaris internus.
r. Sublimis.
s. Palmaris Longus.
t. Pronator Teres.



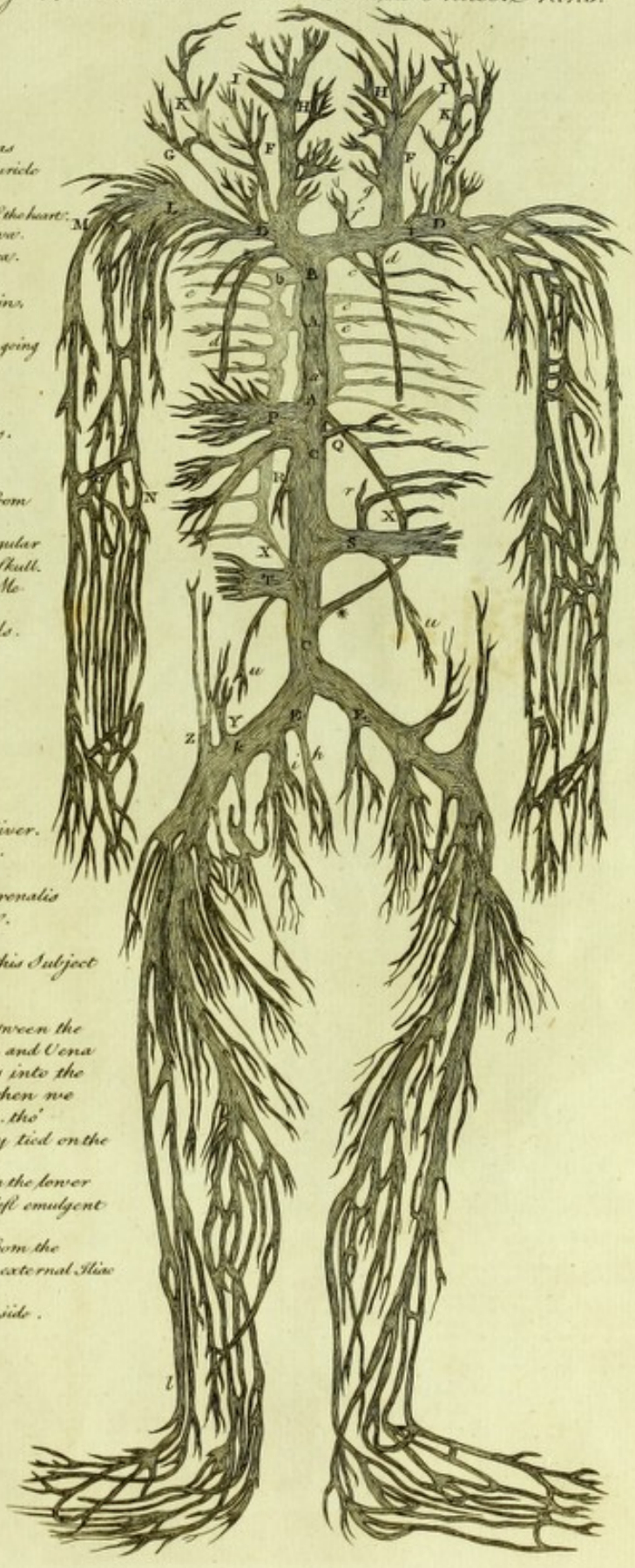
The situation of the principal Blood-Vessels from Eustachius.



1. The Heart.
2. The External Jugular.
3. The Internal Jugular.
4.4. The Subclavian Vessels.
5.5. The Axillary Vessels, arising from the Subclavians.
6.6. The Cephalic Veins.
7. The Median Veins.
8. The Basilic Vein.
9. The inferior part of the Aorta descendens.
10. The Vena Cava
11.11. The Emulgent Veins.
12.12. The Kidnies.
13. The Iliac Vessels.
14. The blood vessels of the Penis.



The Veins, as they appear in an Adult. From the Philos. Trans.



AA. The Orifice of the Vena Cava, as it appears when cut from the right auricle of the Heart.

a. The Orifice of the Coronary vein of the heart.

BA. The superior trunk of the Vena Cava.

CCA. The inferior trunk of the Vena Cava.

DD. The Subclavian Veins.

†. That part of the left Subclavian Vein, where the thoracic duct enters.

b. The Vena Azygos, with its branches going to the ribs c.c.

c. The Superior intercostal Veins.

d.d. The internal mammary Veins.

E.E. The right and left Iliac branches.

F.F. The internal Jugular Veins.

G.G. The external Jugular Veins

HH. The veins which bring blood from the lower jaw and its muscles.

I.I. The trunks of the internal Jugular veins, cut off at the basis of the Skull.

f. The Veins of the Thymus and Mediastinum.

g.g. The Veins of the Thyroid glands.

h. The Vena Sacra.

i. The internal Iliac branch.

k. The external Iliac branch.

KK. The occipital Veins.

L. The Axillary Vein.

M. The Cephalic Vein.

N. The Basilic Vein.

O. The Median Vein.

P. The trunk of the veins of the Liver.

Q. The Phrenic Vein of the left side.

R. The right Phrenic Vein.

r. A large vein from the glandula renalis of the left side and parts adjacent.

S. The left emulgent Vein.

T. The right emulgent Vein (in this Subject much lower than is usual)

uu. The two spermatic Veins.

XX. Two communicant branches between the ascending trunk of the Vena Cava, and Vena Azygos, by which the wind passes into the descending trunk of the Cava, when we blow into the ascending at A.P.C. tho' the trunk at A.P. and C. is firmly tied on the blow pipe.

*. An uncommon branch between the lower trunk of the Vena Cava and the left emulgent Vein.

Y. A Vein which brings blood from the muscles of the abdomen, into the external Iliac branch.

Z. The epigastric Vein on the right side.

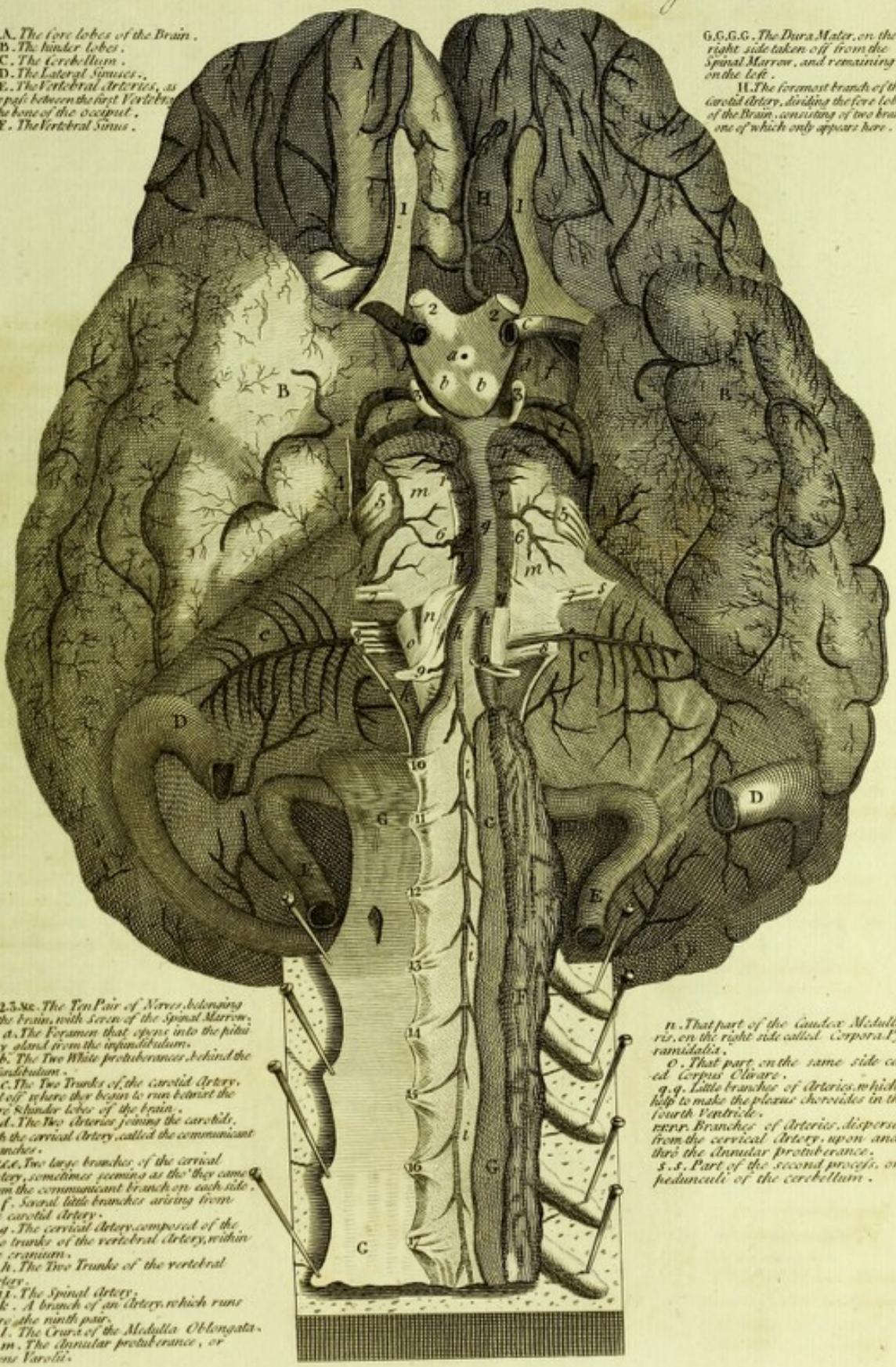
l.l. The Vena Saphena.

m. The Crural Vein.

The Basis of the Brain. From Ridley.

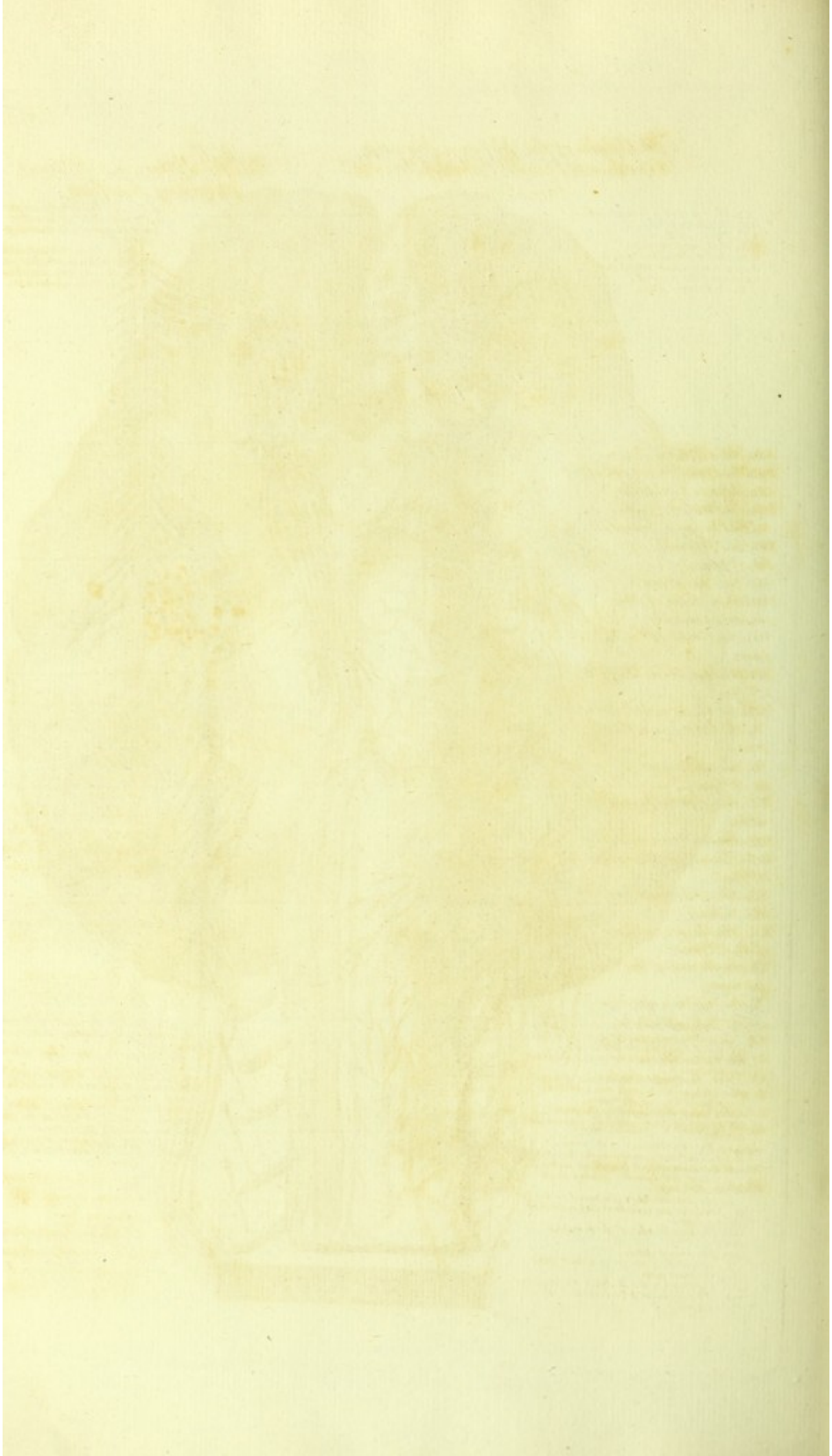
A.A. The fore lobes of the Brain.
B.B. The hinder lobes.
C.C. The Cerebellum.
D.D. The Lateral Sinuses.
E.E. The Vertebral Arteries, as they pass between the first Vertebra & the bone of the occiput.
F. The Vertebral Sinus.

G.G.G.G. The Dura Mater, on the right side taken off from the Spinal Marrow, and remaining on the left.
H.H. The foremost branch of the Carotid Artery, dividing the fore lobes of the Brain, consisting of two branches one of which only appears here.

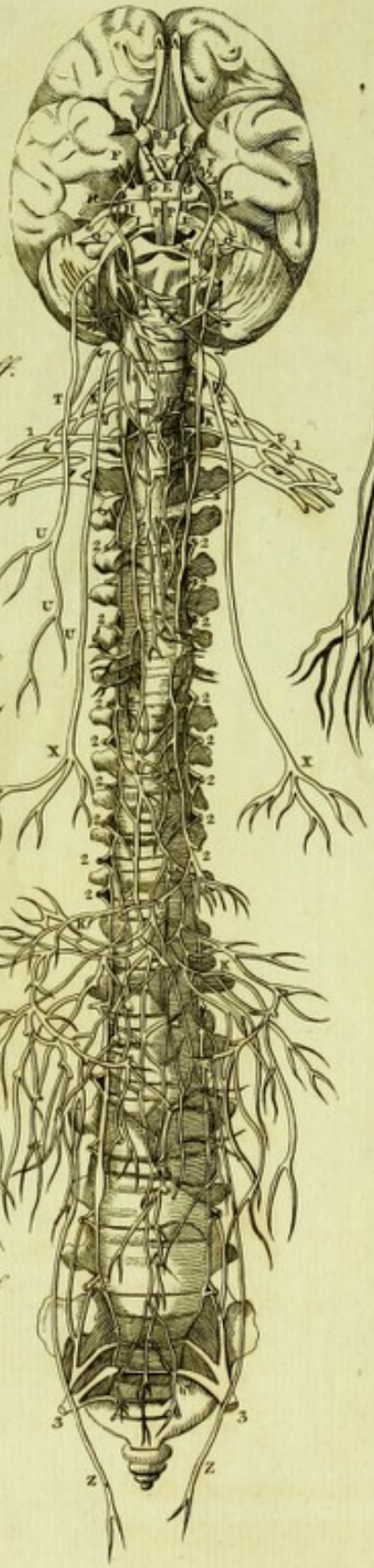


1.2.3.&c. The Ten Pair of Nerves, belonging to the brain, with Seven of the Spinal Marrow.
a. The Foramen that opens into the pituitary gland from the infundibulum.
b.b. The Two White protuberances behind the infundibulum.
c.c. The Two Trunks of the carotid Artery, cut off where they began to run betwixt the fore & hinder lobes of the brain.
d.d. The Two Arteries joining the carotids, with the cervical Artery, called the communicant branches.
e.e.e.e. Two large branches of the cervical Artery, sometimes seeming as tho' they came from the communicant branch on each side.
f. Several little branches arising from the carotid Artery.
g. The cervical Artery composed of the two trunks of the vertebral Artery, within the cranium.
h.h. The Two Trunks of the vertebral Artery.
i.i.i. The Spinal Artery.
k. A branch of an Artery, which runs thro' the ninth pair.
l.l. The Crura of the Medulla Oblongata.
m.m. The Annular protuberance, or Pons Varolii.

n. That part of the Caudex Medullaris, on the right side called Corpora Pyramidalia.
o. That part on the same side called Corpus Olivare.
q.q. Little branches of Arteries, which help to make the plexus choroides in the fourth Ventricle.
r.r.r.r. Branches of Arteries dispersed from the cervical Artery, upon and thro' the Annular protuberance.
s.s. Part of the second process, or peduncule of the cerebellum.



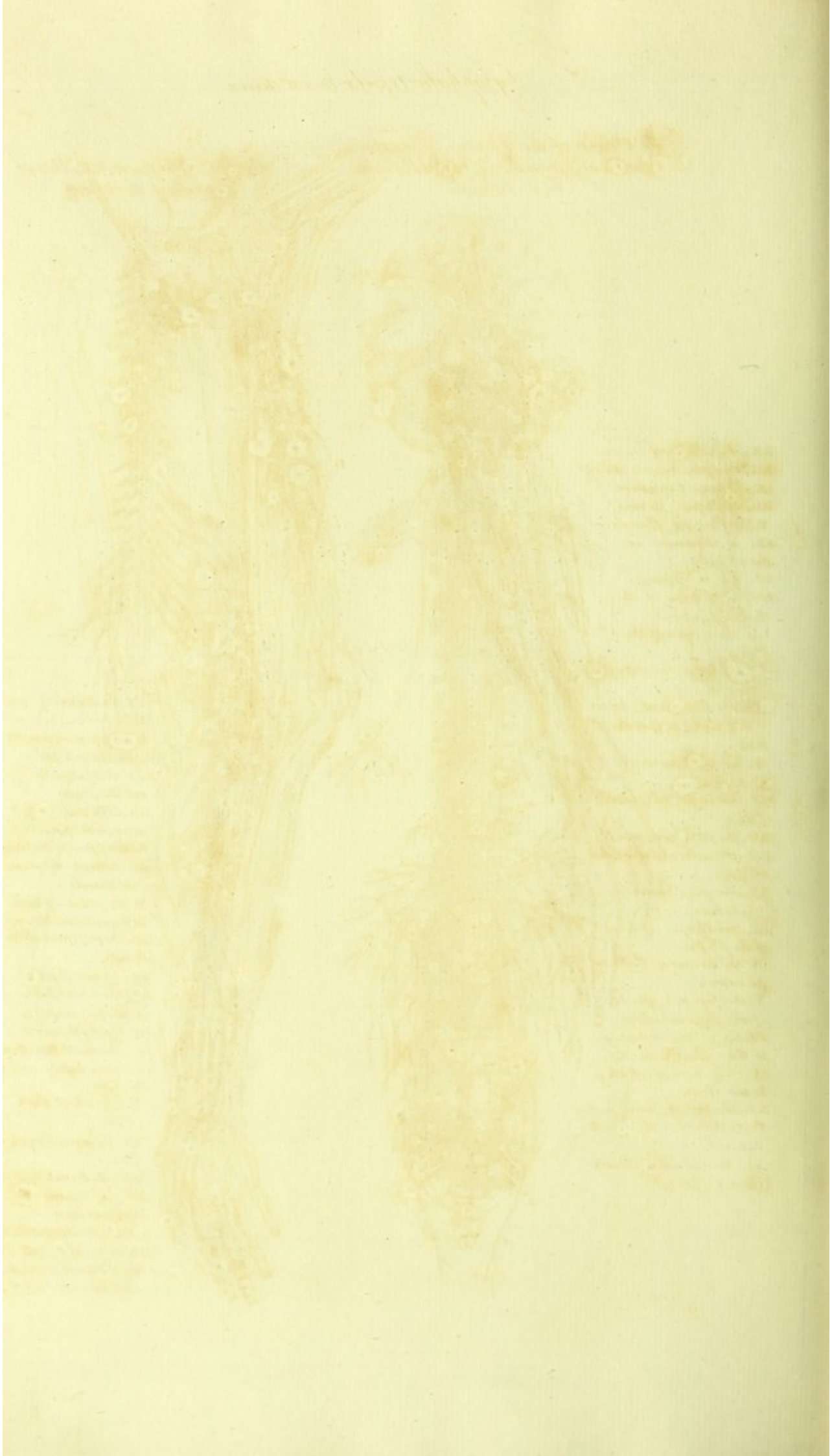
The Origin of the Nerves, from the Brain, and from the Spinal Marrow. From Lancisi.



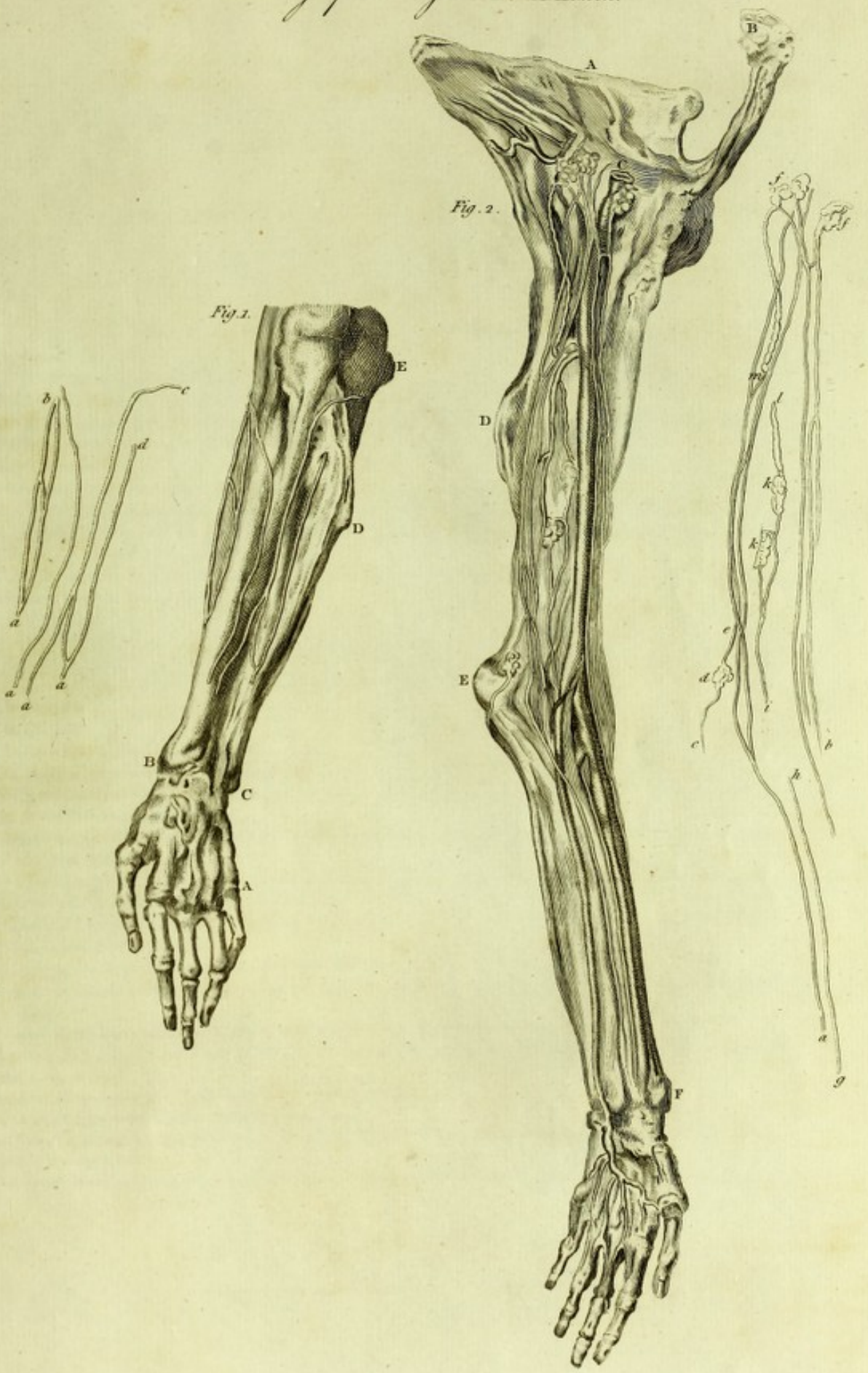
A.A. The Olfactory Nerves.
B.B. The Optic Nerves cut off.
C.C. Motores Oculorum.
D.D. The Pathetic Nerves.
E. The Processus Annulares.
F.F. The 3 Branches of the 5th pair.
G.G. The Sixth pair.
H.H. The portions of the Auditory Nerves.
I.I. The Origin of the 8th pair.
K.K. The large Trunks of the 5th pair.
M.M. The Recurrent Nerves
N. The left nerve of the 9th pair.
O. The right nerve of the 9th pair.
P.P. The Corpora Pyramidalia.
Q.Q. The 10th pair cut off.
R.R. The extremities of the 11th pair.
S.S. The great Trunks of the Nerves.
T.U. The Accessory nerve of the 8th pair.
X.X. The Nerves of the Diaphragm.
Y. The Inferior aperture of the Infundibulum.
Z.Z. The Nerves which go to the testes Uterus, &c.
1.1. The Nerves which go to the Arms.
2.2. The communications of the vertebral & intercostal Nerves.
3.3. The Crural & Sciatic Nerves cut off.

The Spinal Marrow, & the Nerves, proceeding therefrom.

A.A. The Spinal Marrow.
b.b.b.b. A series of nervous branches passing from the P. Spinal Marrow.
C.C.C. The Body of the Spinal Marrow.
D.D. d.d. Branches which arise from 3 pair of the Neck & 2 pair of the Breast proceeding to the Arms and Hands.
E. The plexus of these last mentioned Nerves
f.f. The first pair of the Hands.
g.g. The Second pair.
h.h. The Third pair.
i.i. The Fourth pair.
k.k. The Fifth pair.
l.l. The Sixth pair, these lye immediately under the Skin.
M. The First Crural Nerve.
N.N. The second Crural Nerve.
o.o.o. The Branch thereof which accompanies the Saphena vein.
P.P. The third crural Nerve
Q.Q.Q. The Fourth Crural Nerve
r.r. The external branch.
s.s. The internal branch.



Lymphatic Vessels. From Mr. Hewson.



LYMPHATIC VESSELS. From Mr. HEWSON.

TO FACE PLATE XVI.

FIG. I.

A Back View of the Fore Arm and Hand.

A. The Hand.
B. The lower Extremity of the Radius.
C. The lower Extremity of the Ulna.
D. The Muſcles on the Back of the Fore Arm turned aſide to exhibit a deep ſeated Lymphatic Veſſel, which perforates the Interoſſeous Ligament to get to the Forepart.
E. The Olecranon.
a a a. Lymphatics appearing on the Back of the Fore Arm, immediately under the Skin.
b. Some of the Lymphatics bending over the upper Extremity of the Radius to get to the Forepart of the Arm.
c. A Lymphatic paſſing over the Ulna, immediately under the Olecranon, and under the inner Condyle of the Os Humeri, to get to the Forepart of the Arm.
d. A Lymphatic which has penetrated the Muſcles, perforates the Interoſſeous Ligament, and gets to the Forepart of the Arm near the Radial Artery.

FIG. II.

A Fore View of the Upper Extremity.

A. The Scapula.
B. The Clavicle.
C. The Extremity of the Brachial Artery.
D. The Muſcles lying on the inſide of the Arm.
E. The inner Condyle of the Os Humeri.
F. The lower Extremity of the Radius.
a. A Lymphatic Veſſel which lies in the Cellular Membrane immediately under the Skin, and paſſes up on the inſide of the Arm to the Axillary Glands.
b. Superficial Lymphatic Veſſels paſſing over the Muſcles from the Back of the Fore Arm, and likewiſe over the Biceps to the Glands in the Axilla.
c. A ſuperficial Lymphatic from the Back of the Fore Arm.
d. A Gland through which it paſſes.
e. The Lymphatics from the Anterior and the Poſterior Part of the Fore Arm uniting.
ff. Lymphatic Glands in the Axilla. They are common both to the ſuperficial and the deep ſeated Lymphatic Veſſels.
g. A deeper ſeated Lymphatic Veſſel lying cloſe to the Radial Artery which it accompanies all the Way to (*b*).
h. The deep ſeated Lymphatic Veſſel paſſing under the Interoſſeous and Ulnar Arteries, and appearing again on the Arm, at (*i*).
i. The deep ſeated Lymphatic Veſſel lying cloſe to the Brachial Artery.
k k. Two ſmall Lymphatic Glands through which it paſſes.
l. The ſame Veſſel now become much larger and paſſing under a Branch of the Artery and ſome Cellular Membrane, and appearing at (*m*).
m. The Trunk of the deep ſeated Lymphatic Veſſels paſſing upwards to the Axilla, where it enters the Glands (*ff*).

LYMPHATIC VESSELS.

TO FACE PLATE XVII.

FIG. III.

A Back View of the lower Extremity, diſſected ſo as to ſhew the deeper ſeated Lymphatic Veſſels, which accompany the Arteries.

A. The Os Pubis.
B. The Tuberoſity of the Iſchium.
C. That Part of the Os Ilium which was articulated with the Os Sacrum.
D. The Extremity of the Iliac Artery appearing above the Groin.
E. The Knee.
FF. The two cut Surfaces of the Triceps Muſcle, divided to ſhew the Lymphatic Veſſels that paſs through its Perforation along with the Crural Artery.
G. The Edge of the Muſculus Gracilis.
H. The Gaſtrocnemius and Soleus, much ſhrunk by being dried, and by the Soleus being ſeparated from the Tibia to expoſe the Veſſels.
I. The Heel.
K. The Sole of the Foot.
L. The ſuperficial Lymphatic Veſſels paſſing over the Knee, to get to the Thigh.
M. The Poſterior Tibial Artery.
a. A Lymphatic Veſſel accompanying the Poſterior Tibial Artery.
b. The ſame Veſſel croſſing the Artery.
c. A ſmall Lymphatic Gland through which this deep ſeated Lymphatic Veſſel paſſes.
d. The Lymphatic Veſſel paſſing under a ſmall Part of the Soleus which is left attached to the Bone, the Reſt being removed.
e. The Lymphatic Veſſel croſſing the Popliteal Artery.
f g h. Lymyhatic Glands in the Ham, through which the Lymphatic Veſſel paſſes.
i. The Lymphatic Veſſel paſſing with the Crural Artery through the Perforation of the Triceps Muſcle.
k. The Lymphatic Veſſel, after it has paſſed the Perforation of the Triceps, dividing into Branches which embrace the Artery (*l*).
m. A Lymphatic Gland belonging to the deep ſeated Lymphatic Veſſel. At this place thoſe Veſſels paſs to the Fore-part of the Groin, where they communicate with the ſuperficial Lymphatic Veſſels.
n. A part of the ſuperficial Lymphatic Veſſels appearing on the Brim of the Pelvis.

FIG. IV.

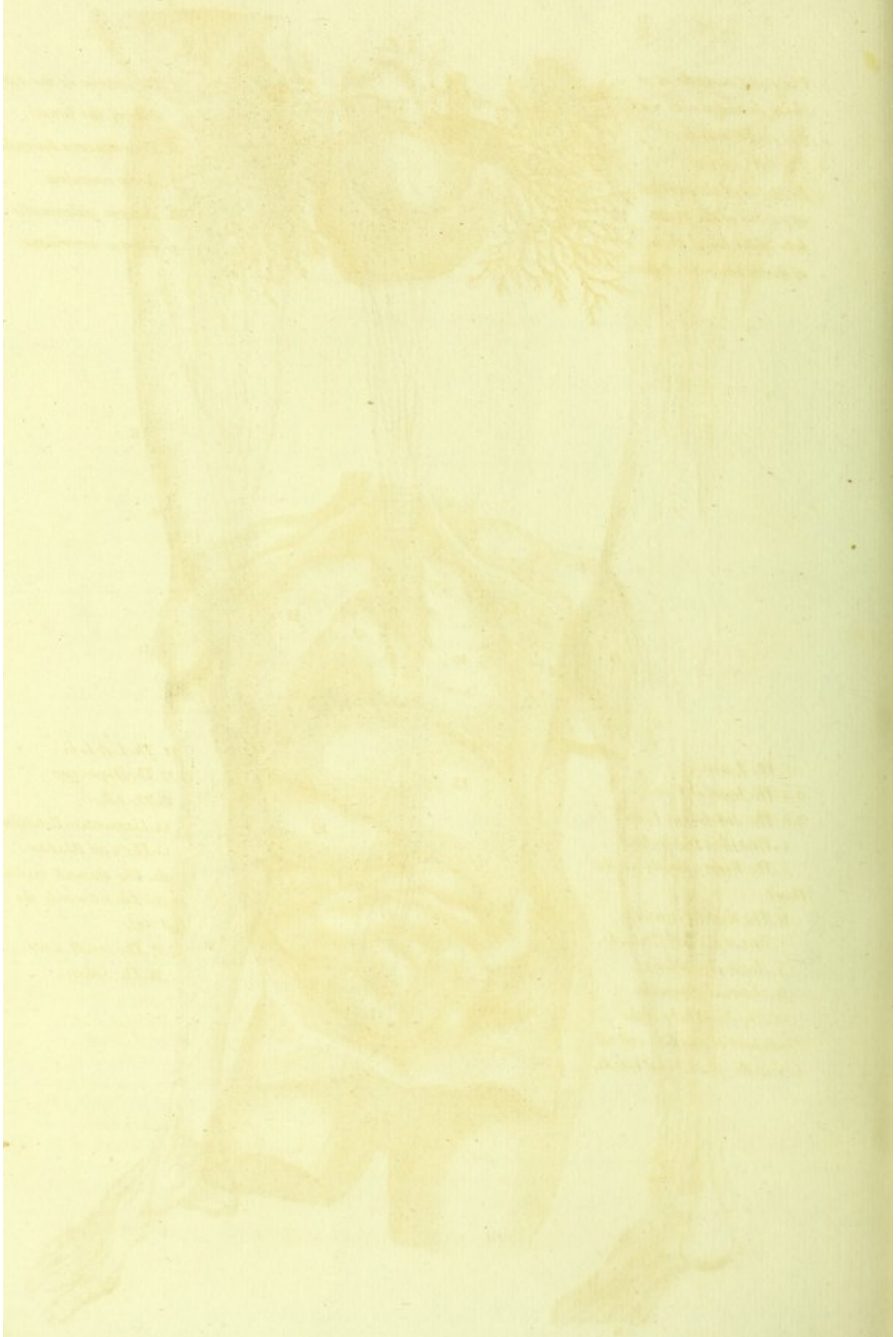
The more ſuperficial Lymphatic Veſſels of the lower Extremity.

A. The Spine of the Os Ilium.
B. The Os Pubis.
C. The Iliac Artery.
D. The Knee.
EEF. Branches of the Crural Artery.
G. The Muſculus Gaſtrocnemius.
H. The Tibia.
I. The Tendon of the Muſculus Tibialis Anticus.
a. A Lymphatic Veſſel belonging to the Top of the Foot.
b. Its firſt Diviſion into Branches.
c c c. Other Diviſions of the ſame Lymphatic Veſſel.
d. A ſmall Lymphatic Gland.
e. The Lymphatic Veſſels which lie between the Skin and the Muſcles of the Thigh.
f f. Two Lymphatic Glands at the upper Part of the Thigh below the Groin.
g g. Other Glands.
h. A Lymphatic Veſſel which paſſes by the Side of thoſe Glands without communicating with them; and, bending towards the inſide of the Groin at (*i*), opens into the Lymphatic Gland (*k*.)
l l. Lymphatic Glands in the Groin, which are common to the Lymphatic Veſſels of the Genitals and thoſe of the lower Extremity.
m. n. A Plexus of Lymphatic Veſſels paſſing on the inſide of the Iliac Artery.

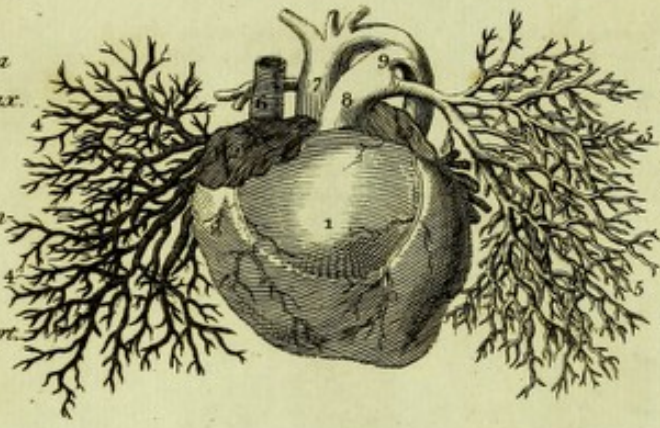
Lymphatic Vessels. From M.r Hewson.

Fig. 3.

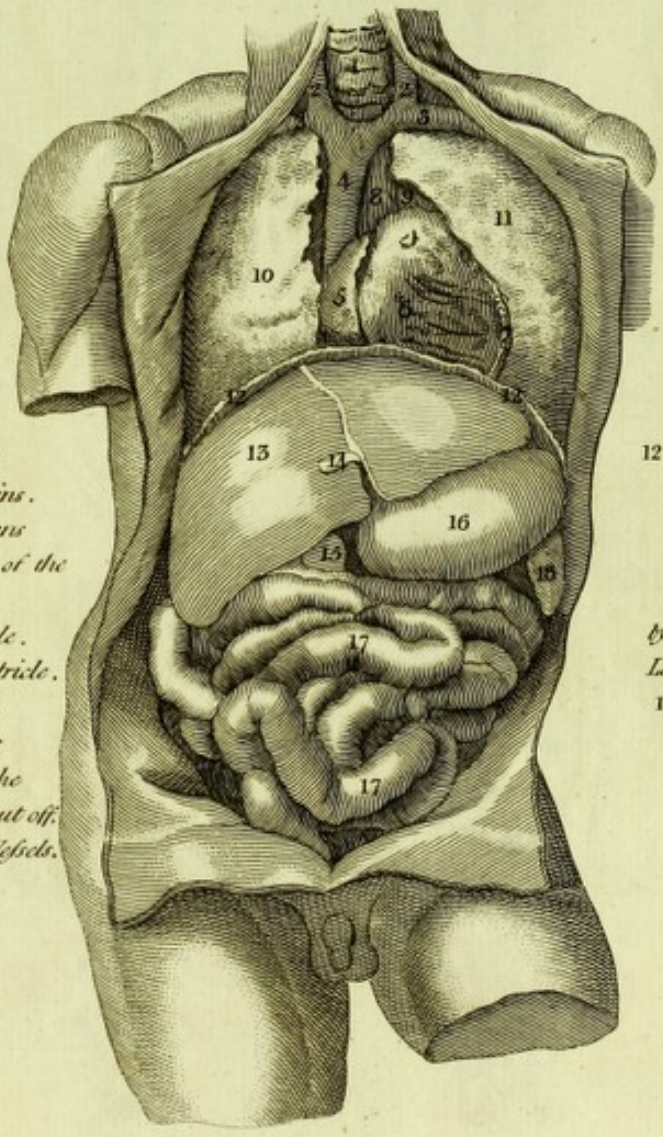
Fig. 4.



1 *The right ventricle of a fœtus distended with wax.*
2 *The right auricle.*
3 *The left auricle.*
4 *Branches of the pulmonary veins of the right lobe of the lungs, those of the left being cut off short.*

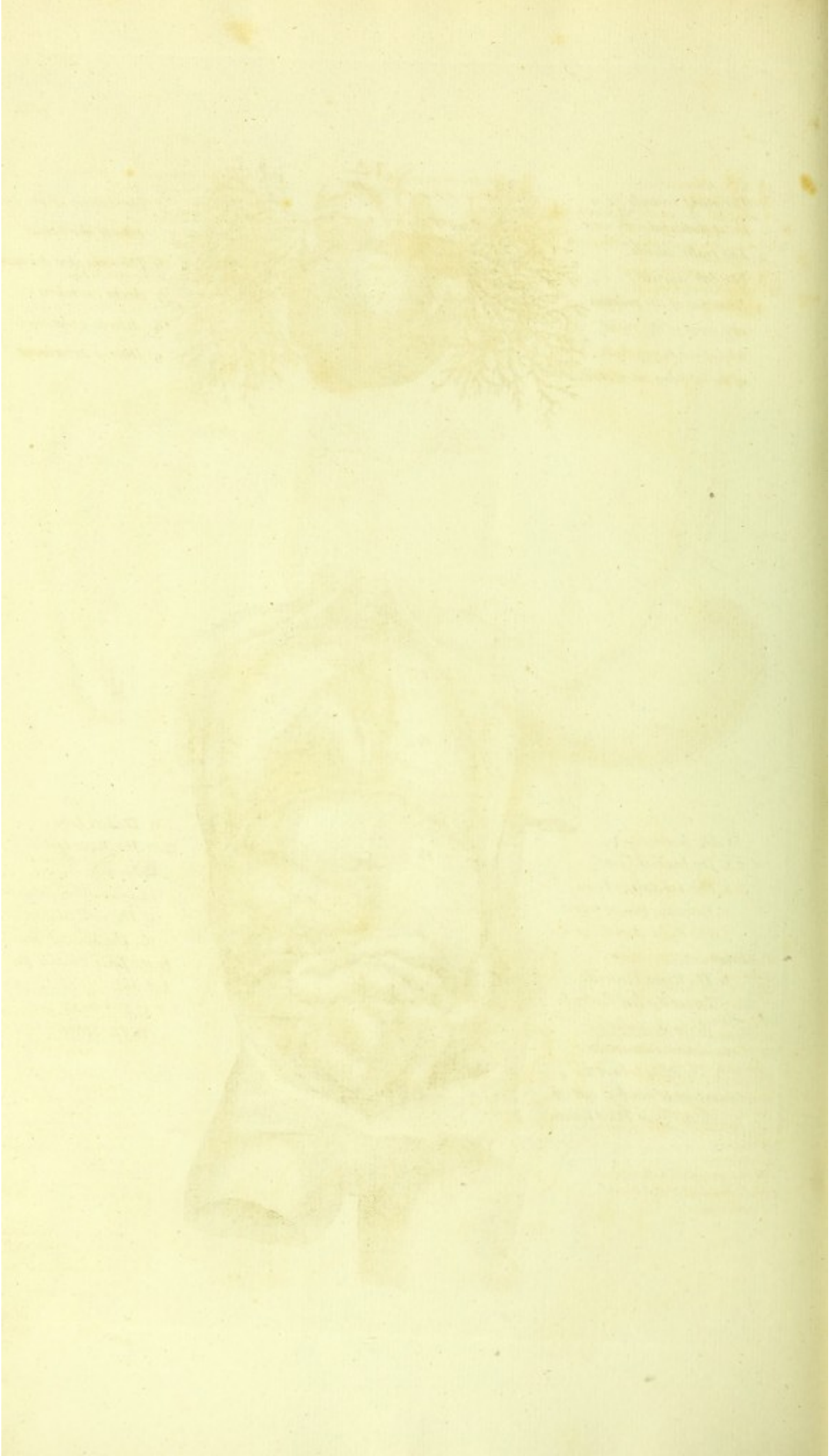


5. *The arteries of the left lobe of the lungs.*
6. *The vena cava descendens.*
7. *Aorta ascendens.*
8. *Arteria pulmonalis.*
9. *Ductus arteriosus.*



1. *The Larynx.*
2.2. *The Jugular Veins.*
3.3. *The Subclavian Veins.*
4. *Vena Cava Descendens*
5. *The Right Auricle of the Heart.*
6. *The Right Ventricle.*
7. *Part of the left Ventricle.*
8. *Aorta Ascendens.*
9. *Arteria Pulmonalis*
10. *The Right Lobe of the Lungs, part of which is cut off, to shew the great blood Vessels.*

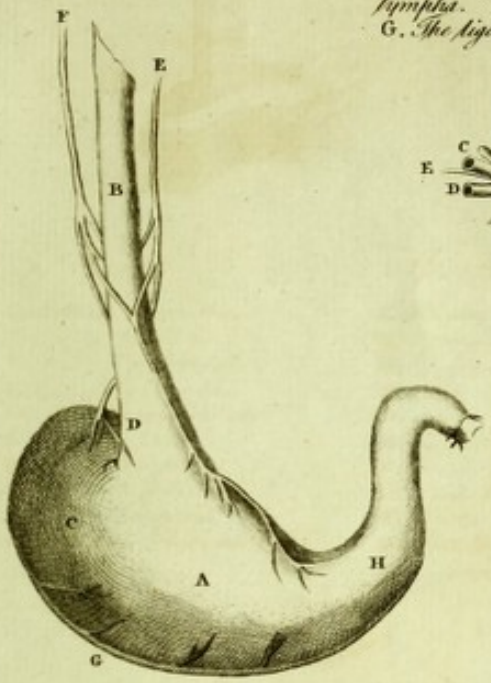
11. *The Left Lobe.*
12.12. *The Diaphragm.*
13. *The Liver.*
14. *Ligamentum Rotundum*
15. *The Gall Bladder.*
16. *The Stomach prest by the Liver, towards the Left Side.*
17.17. *The small Guts.*
18. *The Spleen.*

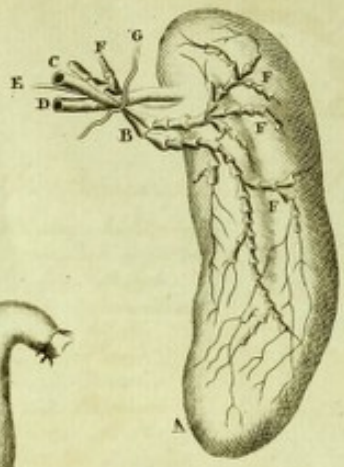


A. The Stomach.
B. The Gullet.
C. The left side of the Stomach.
D. The upper Orifice.
E.F. Branches from the sixth pair of Nerves.
G. The Gastric Vessels.
H. The lower Orifice.

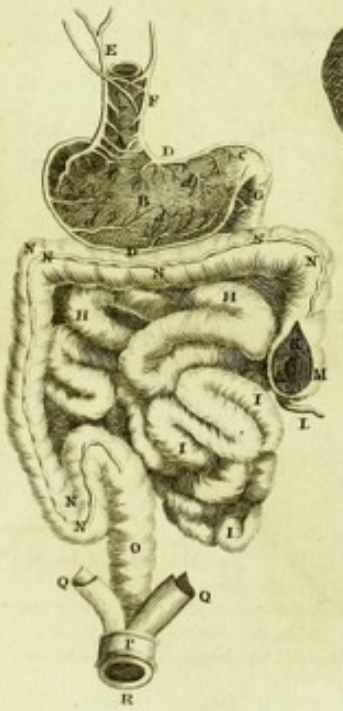
A. The Spleen of a Calf.
B. The place where the Vessels are tied.
C. The Splenic Vein.
D. The Splenic Artery.
E. The Splenic Nerves.
FFF. The lymphatics on the superficies of the Spleen.
fff. The valves of those Vessels preventing the return of the lymph.
G. The ligature.

AAAA. The parenchymous substance of the Pancreas laid open.
B. Pancreatic Duct with its branches C.C.C.C.C.
D. The bile Duct joining the pancreatic Duct.
E. The Duodenum Opened.
F. The Orifice of the bile & the pancreatic Ducts.

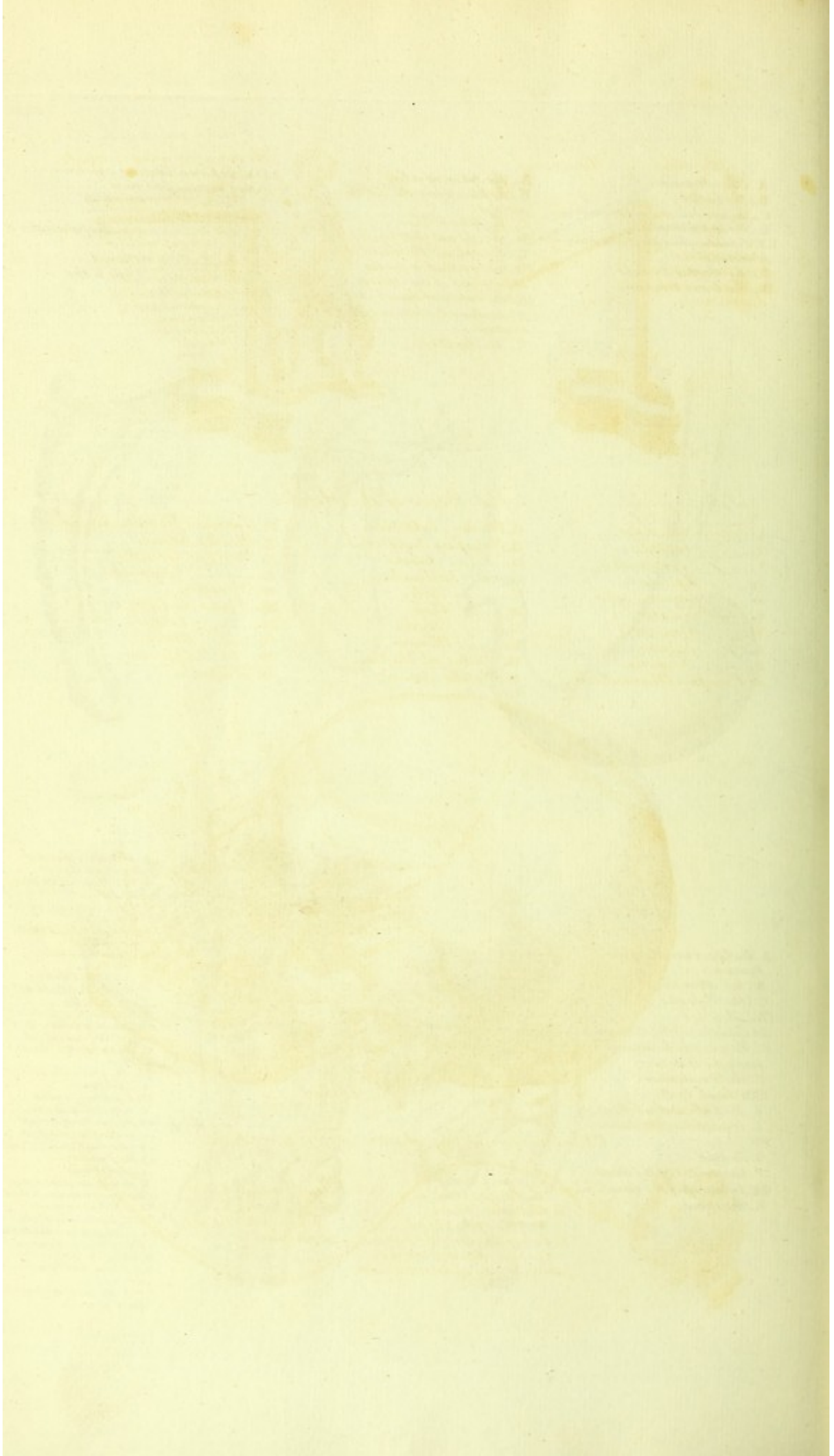




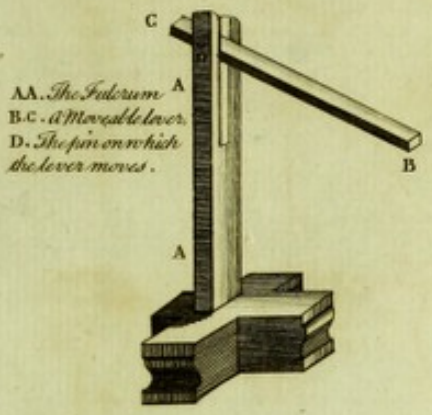
A. The Upper Orrifice of the Stomach.
B. The Stomach.
C. The Pylorus.
DD. Arteries.
d.d. Branches of the Arteries.
E.F. Nerves which accompany the Arteries.
G. The Duodenum.
HHHH. Small Gutts.
K. The Valve in the Colon.
L. Appendicle of the Caecum.
MN. Colon.
O. Rectum.
P. Constrictor of the Anus.
QQ. Lifters up of the Anus.
R. The Anus.



A. A Kidney divested of its external coat.
B. A Kidney in its natural State.
C. Vena Cava.
D. Aorta.
E.E. Renal Glands with their Vessels &c. &c.
F.F. Emulgent Vessels.
G.G. Ureters.
H. Urinary Bladder.
I. Neck of the Bladder.
K.L. The Testicles.
M. The Sweeps of the peritoneum in which the Spermatic Veins got cut off.
N. The Cremaster Muscle cut off.
O.O. P.P. Spermatic Vessels.
Q. Epididymis.
R.R. Vasa Deferrentia.
S. Corpus Glandosum.
T.T. The Two Bodies which compose the Penis & appear when the skin is drawn back at the Prepuce.
V. Glans Penis.
W. The extraordinary insertion of the spermatic vessels the Emulgent
X.X. Vesiculae Seminales.
Y.Y. The insertions of the Ureters
Z. The beginning of the Urethra
r.r. Veins which turn & unite on the back of the Yard.
s.s. Arteries with Nerves on each side.
u. Veins opened to show their Valves.



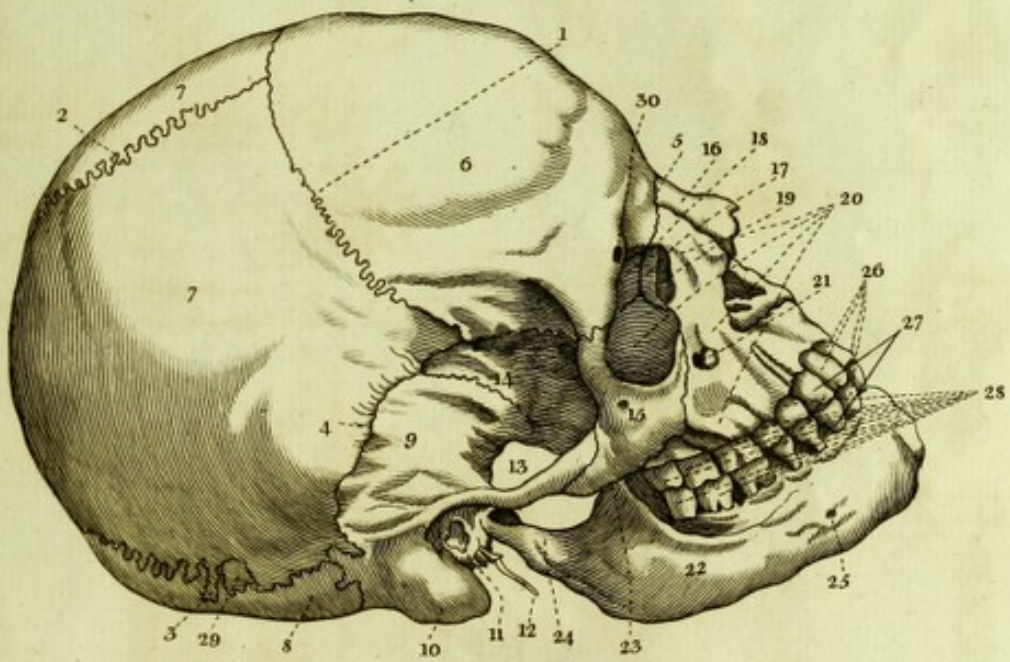
The Ambe of Hippocrates.



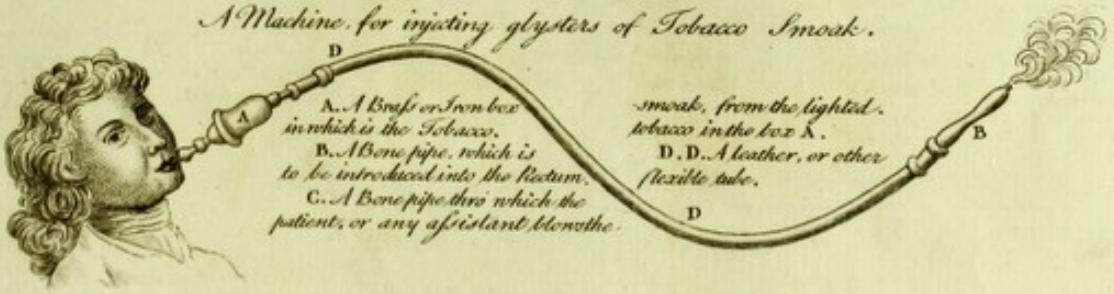
The manner of using the Ambe.

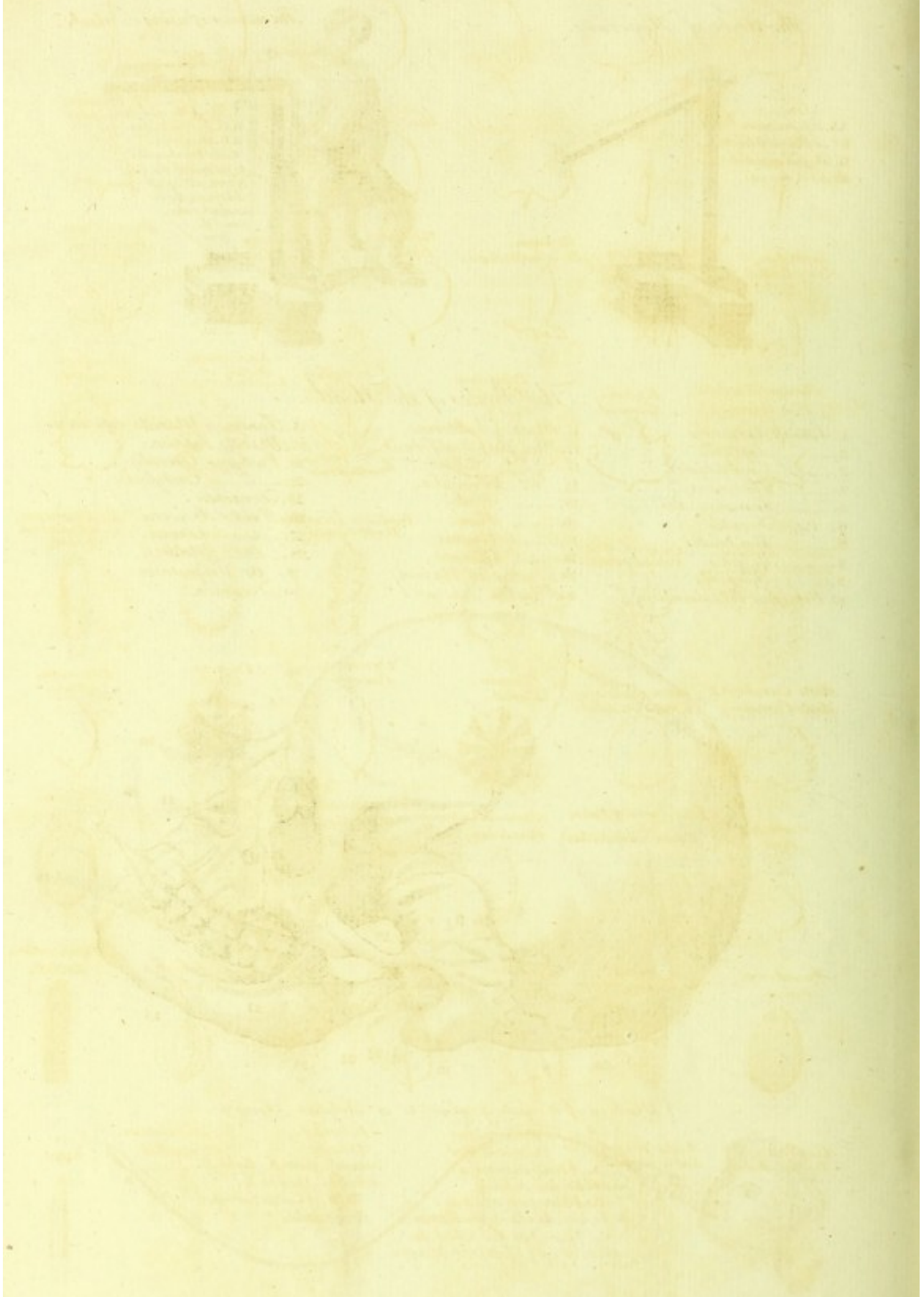
The Bones of the Head.

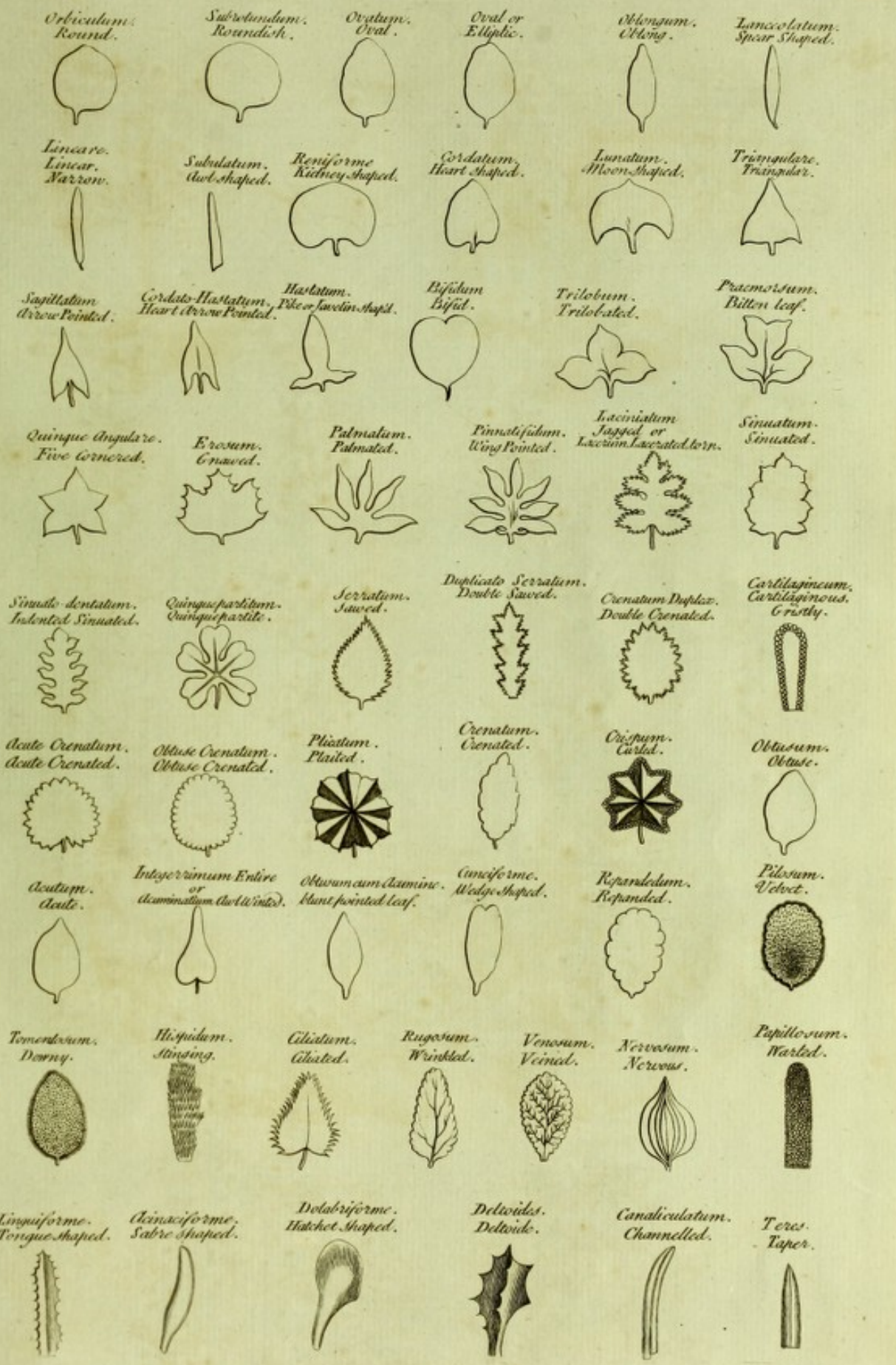
1. Sutura Coronalis.
2. ——— Sagittalis.
3. ——— Lambdoidalis.
4. ——— Squamosa.
5. ——— Transversalis.
6. Os Frontis
7. ——— Bregmatis
8. ——— Occipitis.
9. ——— Temporis.
10. Processus Mammillaris.
11. Meatus Auditorius.
12. Processus Styliformis.
13. ——— Jugalis.
14. Os Sphenoides.
15. ——— Mali.
16. ——— Nasi
17. ——— Unguis.
18. ——— Planum.
19. Ductus ad Nasum.
20. Maxilla Superior.
21. Foramen Maxilla Superioris.
22. Maxilla Inferior.
23. Processus Coronalis.
24. ——— Condyloides.
25. Foramen.
26. Dentes Incisorii.
27. ——— Canini.
28. ——— Molares.
29. Os Triquetrum.
30. Foramen.



A Machine for injecting glysters of Tobacco Smoak.






Orbiculum. Round.
Subrotundum. Roundish.
Ovatum. Oval.
Oval or Elliptic.
Oblongum. Oblong.
Lanceolatum. Spear Shaped.
Lineare. Linear. Narrow.
Subulatum. Awl shaped.
Reniforme Kidney Shaped.
Cordatum. Heart Shaped.
Lunatum. Moon Shaped.
Triangulare. Triangular.
Sagittatum Arrow Pointed.
Cordato-Hastatum. Heart Arrow Pointed.
Hastatum. Pike or Javelin Shapd.
Bifidum Bifid.
Trilobum. Trilobated.
Praemorsum. Bitten leaf.
Quinque Angulare. Five Cornered.
Erosum. Gnawed.
Palmatum. Palmated.
Pinnatifidum. Wing Pointed.
Laciniatum Jagged or Lacerum Lacerated torn.
Sinuatum. Sinuated.
Sinuato-dentatum. Indented Sinuated.
Quinquepartitum. Quinquepartite.
Serratum. Sawed.
Duplicato Serratum. Double Sawed.
Crenatum Duplex. Double Crenated.
Cartilagineum. Cartilaginous. Gristly.
Acute Crenatum. Acute Crenated.
Obtuse Crenatum. Obtuse Crenated.
Plicatum. Plaited.
Crenatum. Crenated.
Crispum. Curled.
Obtusum. Obtuse.
Acutum. Acute.
Integerrimum Entire or Acuminatum Awl Pointed.
Obtusum cum Acumine. Blunt pointed leaf.
Cuneiforme. Wedge Shaped.
Repandedum. Repanded.
Pilosum. Velvet.
Tomentosum. Downy.
Hispidum. Stinging.
Ciliatum. Ciliated.
Rugosum. Wrinkled.
Venosum. Veined.
Nervosum. Nervous.
Papillosum. Warted.
Linguiforme. Tongue shaped.
Acinaciforme. Sabre Shaped.
Dolabriforme. Hatchet Shaped.
Deltoides. Deltoide.
Canaliculatum. Channelled.
Teres. Taper.

Digitatum.
Fingered or Handed.

Ternatum.
Trifoliate.

Binatum.
Two Lobes.

Ramosum.
Branching.

Impari-Pinnatum.
Unequal Winged.

Abruptum-Pinnatum.
An Abrupt Winged.

Interrupt.
Winged.

A Cirrhous.
Winged Leaf.

Decurrentibus.
Running Winged.

Winged Leaf, with Membranaceous Footstalks.

Conjugated.

Lyratum.
Lyre Shaped.

Duplicato-Pinnatum.
vel
Pinnato-Pinnatum.
Double Winged.

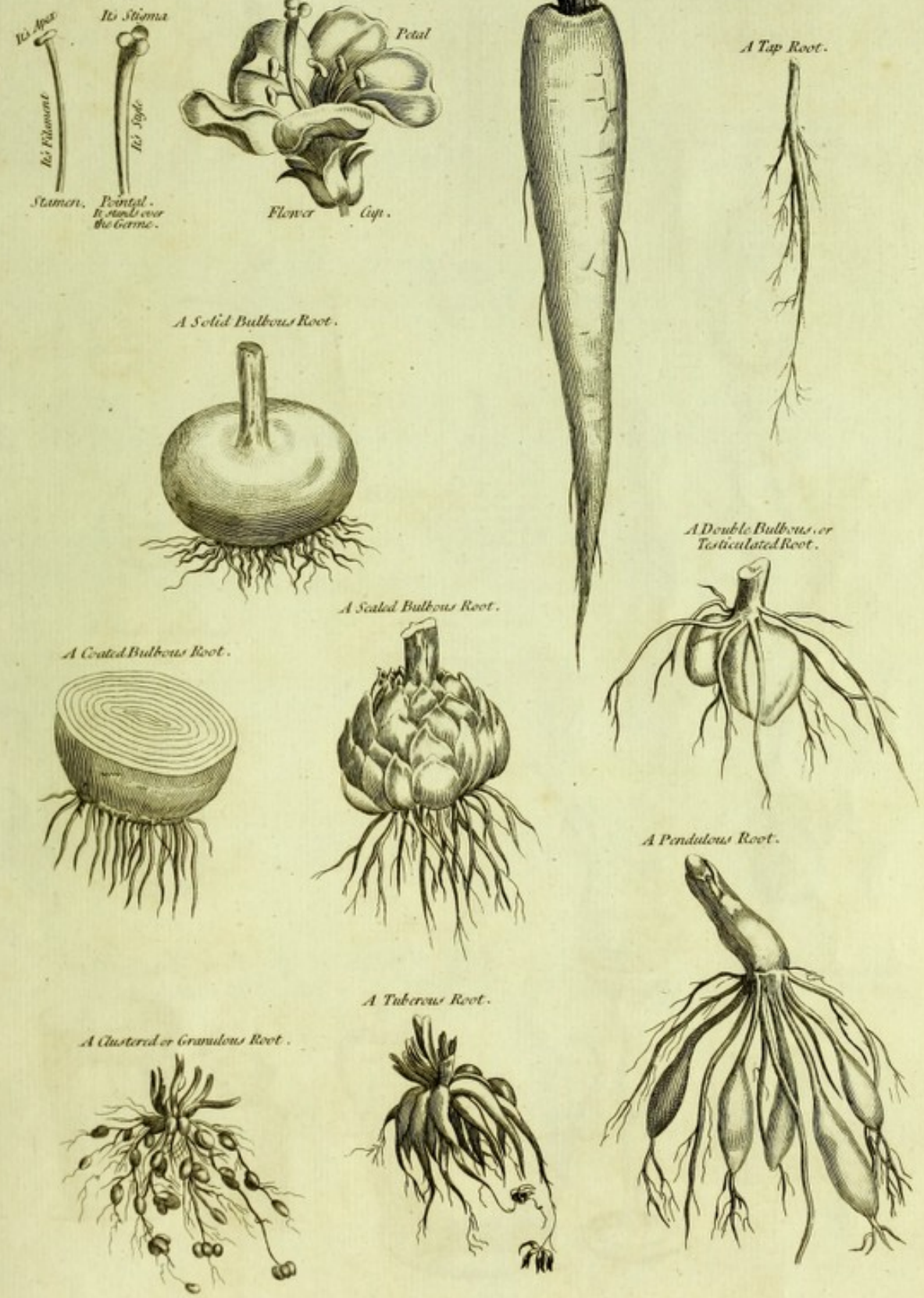
Triplicato-Ternatum.

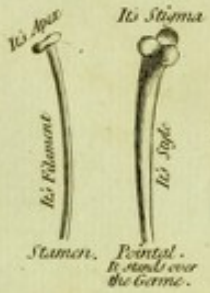
Supra-decomposite.

Supra-decomposite.

Decomposita.
Decomposite.

Decomposita.
Decomposite.


A Fleshy Root.
Its Apex
Its Stigma
Its Filament
Its Style
Petal
A Tap Root.
Stamen.
Pointal.
It stands over the Germe.
Flower Cup.
A Solid Bulbous Root.
A Double Bulbous or Testiculated Root.
A Scaled Bulbous Root.
A Coated Bulbous Root.
A Pendulous Root.
A Tuberous Root.
A Clustered or Granulous Root.

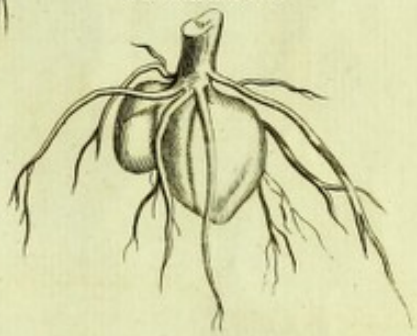


A Fleshy Root.

A Tap Root.

A Solid Bulbous Root.

A Double Bulbous, or Testiculated Root.



A Scaled Bulbous Root.

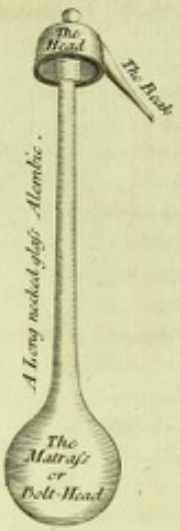
A Coated Bulbous Root.

A Pendulous Root.

A Tuberous Root.

A Clustered or Granulous Root.

Two Aludels over a Body.



A Spout Receiver, or Separatory glass.

A Glass Alembic, all in one piece, except the stopple.

A Glass Alembic.

A Copper Alembic.

A Pelican.

The Worm Still.

A Sand Bath, with two Retorts & their Receivers.

Chymical Characters.

Abstrahere	♃	To Abstract.
Acetum	☩ ✙	Vinegar.
— Distillatum	✕ ✳	Distill'd Vinegar.
Acida	+ ; > ; ↷	Acid in general.
— Vitriol:	☉+ ; ☉+ ; >☉	Acid of Vitriol.
— Marin:	☉+ ; >☉ ; >☉	Marine Acid.
— Nitr:	>☉ ; ☉+ ; >☉	Nitrous Acid.
— Vegetab:	✙	Vegetable Acid.
— Vol: Sulph:	♃	Volatile Sulphurous Acid.
— Phosph:	♃	Phosphoric Acid
Adde	ad	Add.
Aer	A ; ♎ ; ♎	Air.
— Fix:	♎ ; f ♎	Fixed air.
— Meph:	m. ♎	Mephitic Air.
Aerugo	⊕	Verdigrise.
— Distill:	⊕ d d	Distilled Verdigrise.
Es	♀	Copper, or Brass.
— Ustum	♀	Burnt Brass.
Aether	Æ ; ♎	Ether.
Ahenum		A Kettle.
Albumen	◎ ; Ē	White of Egg.
Alcahest, or Alcohol Vini	♈	Alcohol of Wine.
Alkali		
— Fix:	☉v ; ☉v ; ☉v	Fixed Alkali.
— Vol:	☉^ ; ☉^ ; ☉^	Volatile Alkali.
— Mit: Fix:	m. ☉v	Milder Fixed Alkali.
— Caust: Fix:	c. ☉v	Caustic Fixed Alkali.
— Mit: Vol:	m. ☉^	Milder Volatile Alkali.
— Caust: Vol:	c. ☉^	Caustic Volatile Alkali.
Alembicus	⚹ ; X X ;	An Alembic.
Alumen	♁ ;	Alum.
— Plum:	♁ P	Plumous Alum.
— Ust:	☉	Burnt Alum.
Amalgama	♃♃ ; ♎	Amalgam.
Amphora		A Vessel of 9 Gallons.
Ampulla		A Bottle.
Ana	♃	Of each.
Annus		The Year.
Antimonium	♁	Antimony.
Aqua	▽	Water.
— Calcis		Lime Water.
— Fortis	Æ ; ▽	
— Pluvialis	▽ Pl	Rain Water.
— Font:	▽	Spring Water.
— Regia	Æ ; ▽	
— Rosar:	▽ Rosa:	Rose Water.
— Salis Nitri		Mother Water of Nitre.
— Vitae	▽	Brandy.
Arcitenens	♐	Sajitarius, A Celestial Sign.
Arena	⁘ ; ⁘	Sand.
Argentum	☽ ; ♎	Silver.
— Limatum	☽	Filings of Silver.
— Vivum	☿	Quicksilver.
Argilla		Clay.
Aries	♈	The Ram, A Constellation.
Arsenicum	⚯	Arsenic.
— Regul:		Regulus of Arsenic.
Auripigmentum	⚯ ;	Auripigment.

Aurum	☉	Gold.
— Foliat:		Leaf Gold.
— Limat:	☉	Filings of Gold.
— Potabile	☉P	
Balneum	B	A Bath.
— Mariae	BM ; MB	A Water Bath.
— Vaporis	VB	A Vapour Bath.
— Arenae	AB, BA	A Sand Bath.
Bismuthum	B.W	Bismuth.
Borax	♄ ; ♋ ; ♋ ; ♋	
Caementare	♃	To Cement.
Calcinare	☾	To Calcine.
Calx	C	Lime.
— Viva	♆ ; ▽ ; ♆	Quick Lime.
Camphora	≈ yr	Camphor.
Cancer	♋	The Crab & the Fish, or the Constellation
Capiatur	cap.	Taken.
Caput Mortuum	♇ ; ♇	
Cera	⊃ ; ♁	Wax.
Cerussa	♄	White Lead.
Cineres	⊏ ; Ē	Ashes.
— Clavellatae	♆ ; ♆	Pot Ash.
Cinnabaris	♃♃ ; ♁ ; ♁	Cinnabar.
Coagulare	HE	To Coagulate.
Cobalt	K	Cobalt.
Congium	Cong:	A Gallon.
Cornu Cervi	C.C.	Harts Horn.
Cornu Calcin:	C.C.C	Calcined harts horn.
— Ust:	C.C.U.	Burnt harts horn.
Corpora Metallica	C.M	Metallic Bodies.
Creta	⊐ ; ▽	Chalk.
Crocus	⊕	Saffron.
— Veneris	⊕ €	Saffron of Copper.
Crucibulum	+ ; ▽ ; + ; ♃	A Crusible.
Crystallus	☾	Crystal.
Cucurbita	♁ ; ♁	A Cucurbit.
Cuprum	♀	Copper.
Cyathus	Cyath:	A Glass full.
Cochlearia	Cochl:	A Spoonfull.
Distillare	♃ ; ♁ ; d ; ♁ ; ♒ ; ♒	To Distill.
Dies	♁ ; ♃	A Day.
— Lunae	☽	Monday.
— Martis	♂	Tuesday.
— Mercurii	☿ ; ♁	Wednesday.
— Jovis	♃ ; ♃	Thursday.
— Veneris	♀	Friday.
— Saturni	♄	Saturday.
— Solis	☉	Sunday.
Digere	♁	Digest.
Drachma	ʒ	A Dram.
Essentia	Ess ; ♄	Essence.
Faeces Vini	♃	Lees of Wine.
Farina	◎	Meal.
— Laterum		Brick dust.
Ferrum	♂	Iron.
— Limat:	♌ ; ♂	Filings of Iron.
Filtrare	33	To Filter.
Fluere	≈	To Flow.

Chymical Characters.

Fuligo ..... ☥ ..... Soot.
Fumus ..... ♀ ..... Smoak.
Fluor, vel Terrae Fusib: ..... ♁ ..... Fluor, or Fusible Earths.
Granum ..... gr ..... A grain weight.
Gummi ..... ☌ ..... Gum.
Gutta ..... G ; gt ; gut ..... A drop.
Gypsum ..... ♆ ..... Plaster.
Hora ..... ⧖ ..... An Hour.
Hepar Sulphr ..... ♎ ..... Liver of Sulphur.
Ignis ..... △ ..... Fire.
— Reverb ..... △R ..... Reverberating heat.
— Rotae ..... ⊖ ..... Circular Fire.
Jovis, vel Jupiter ..... ♃ ..... Tin.
Lap. Calamin: ..... LC ; Ic ..... Calamine Stone.
— Haematitis ..... ⟋ ..... Blood Stone.
— Lazuli ..... ⟆
Libra ..... P ; ℔ ..... A pound.
— Coelestis ..... ♎ ..... The Signin the Zodiac.
Litharguyrus ..... ⊰ ..... Litharge.
Luna ..... ☽ ..... Silver.
Lutare ..... ⋈ ..... To lute.
Lutum Hermis ..... L : Herm : ..... Lute of Hermes.
Magnes ..... ☊ ..... Load stone.
Magnesia ..... M ♈ ; M
Manipulus ..... M ..... A handfull.
Marcasita ..... ☄ ..... Marcasite.
Massa ..... ⌀ ..... A Mass (as for pills).
Materia ..... ♒ ..... Matter.
— Prima ..... M P ..... The first matter.
Mel ..... ⚹ ..... Honey.
Mens is ..... ✉ ..... A Month.
Mercurius ..... ☿ ..... Quicksilver.
— Praecip: ..... ☿ ♒ ..... Precipitated Mercury.
— Sublim: ..... ☿ ♓ ..... Sublimed Mercury.
Metall: Subst: ..... S M ..... Metallic Substance.
Misce ..... m ..... Mix.
Nickel ..... N ..... Nickel.
Nitrum ..... ⊕ ..... Nitre.
Nox ..... ☌ ; ☾ ..... Night.
Oleum ..... ○ ; ◉ ; ∴ ; ◎ ; ☩ ; ♑ ..... Oil.
— Fix: ..... ♈ ..... Fixed Oils.
— Essent: ..... E ∴ ; ♋ ..... Essential Oils.
— Olivarum ..... ♍ ; ..... Olive Oil.
Oppositio ..... ☍ ..... Opposition.
Orichalcum ..... ⊙ ..... Brass.
Phlegma ..... ☾ ; ☄ ..... Phlegm.
Phlogiston ..... ♌
Phosphorus ..... △
Pisces ..... ♓ ..... The sign of the Zodiac.
Plumbum ..... ♄ ..... Lead.
Praecipitatum ..... ♒ ..... Precipitate.
Pugillus ..... P ..... A Pugil.
Pulvis ..... ♁ ; ☽ ..... Powder.
Pumex ..... ℒc ..... Pumice stone.
Purificare ..... ☌ ..... To purify.
Putrificare ..... ☥ → ..... To putrify.
Praepar: ..... PP ; pp ..... To prepare.
Phiala ..... ♁ ..... A Phial.
Partes Aequales ..... P E : p : aeq ..... Equal parts.

Quadratus ..... □ ..... Quartile.
Quinta Essentia ..... Q E ..... Quintescence.
Quantum Sufficit ..... q : s : ..... A sufficient quantity.
Quantum Vis ..... q : v : ..... What you please.
Recipiens ..... ⊗ ..... A Receiver.
Recipe ..... ℞ ; ♃ ..... Take.
Regulus ..... ♔
— Antimonii ..... ♕ ♁ ..... Regulus of Antimony.
— Ant: Stellat: ..... ♁ ; ✸ ..... Stellated Reg: of Antim.
— Stellatus ..... ✸ ..... Stellated Regulus.
Retorta ..... ☿ : ☊ : ☋ ..... A Retort.
Saccharum ..... ♊ ..... Sugar.
Sal Alkali ..... ☈ ..... Alkaline Salt.
— Ammon: ..... ☊ ; ☊ ; ✳ ; ⊖ ✳ ..... Sal Ammoniac.
— Commun: ..... ⊖ ..... Common Salt.
— Gem ..... ♁ : ♁ : ○—
— Marin: ..... ⊖ : ⊖ : ♏ ⊖ ..... Sea Salt.
— Sedativum ..... Ss ..... Sedative Salt.
Sapo ..... ◇ ..... Soap.
Saturnus ..... ♄ ; ♄ ..... Lead.
Scorpius ..... ♏ ..... The Scorpion in the Zodiac.
Semiss: ..... ſs ..... Half.
Sextilis ..... ✶ ..... Sextile.
Sigillare Hermet: ..... S·H ..... To seal Hermetically.
Sol ..... ☉ ..... The Sun, or Gold.
Solvere ..... ≈ ..... To dissolve.
Secundum Artem ..... s.a ..... According to Art.
Spiritus ..... ☊ ..... Spirit
— Vini ..... ♈ ..... Spirit of Wine.
— — R: ..... ♈ ℞ ..... Rectified Spirit of Wine.
— — P: ..... ♈ ♃ ..... Proof Spirit.
Stannum ..... ♃ ..... Tin.
Sublimare ..... ♓ ..... To Sublime.
Stratum super Stratum ..... SSS ..... Layer upon Layer.
Succinum ..... ☩ : BB ..... Amber.
Sulphur ..... ♎ ..... Sulphur.
— Philos: ..... ♋ ..... Sulphur of the Philosophers.
— Vivum ..... ♎ ♁ ..... Mineral Sulphur.
Talcum ..... X ..... Talc.
Tartarus ..... ♑ ..... Tartar.
Terra ..... ♁ ..... Earth.
— Absorbentia ..... ♁ ..... Absorbent Earth.
— Calcar: ..... C ♁ : ♁ ..... Calcareous Earth.
— Sigillata ..... ♁ ..... Sealed Earth.
— Silic: vel Vitr: ..... ♁ ○ ..... Siliceous Earth.
— Alumin ..... A ♁ : ♍ ..... Earth of Alum.
Tinctura ..... R ..... Tincture.
Tutiae ..... ⊗ ..... Tutty.
Venus ..... ♀ ..... Copper.
Vinum ..... V ..... Wine.
— Album ..... VA ..... White Wine
— Coctum ..... V C ..... Burnt Wine.
— Rubrum ..... V R ..... Red Wine.
Vitriolum ..... ⊕ ℗ ..... Vitriol.
Vitrum ..... XX ; ○— ; ⊶ ..... Glass.
Uncia ..... ℥ ..... An Ounce.
Urina ..... ⊡ ..... Urine.
Volatiles ..... ☋ ..... Volatile.
Zincum ..... ♃ ; ♃ ..... Zinc.